

Changing Conceptions in
Educational Administration

FORTY-FIFTH YEARBOOK, PART II

370.6 N277y pt.2
1946

Nat'l. Soc. for the
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THE
FORTY-FIFTH YEARBOOK

OF THE
NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY
OF EDUCATION

PART II
CHANGING CONCEPTIONS
IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Prepared by the Society's Committee

ALONZO G. GRACE (*Chairman*), HEROLD C. HUNT, GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER,
GORDON N. MACKENZIE, AND GEORGE D. STODDARD

Edited by
NELSON B. HENRY

Distributed by
THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO PRESS
CHICAGO 37, ILLINOIS

1946

Published by
THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION
5835 KIMBARK AVENUE, CHICAGO 37, ILLINOIS

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Published 1946
First Printing, 4,000 Copies

Printed in the United States of America

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1945-1946

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EDITOR'S PREFACE

Several proposals relating to educational administration were presented to the Board of Directors within the decade preceding the launching of the present volume in February, 1942. In the majority of these proposals the emphasis was placed on current theory and practice; in others, some specific objective such as making administration more democratic or clarifying the issues with respect to the control of education was the central theme of the suggested plan for a yearbook. At the request of the chairman of the Board, Mr. Brueckner reviewed the various proposals prior to the February meeting in 1940 and prepared a new outline embodying the significant features of the plans on which those proposals were based. This outline was then referred to Messrs. Brueckner and Kefauver for further consideration in consultation with the authors of the earlier proposals. The ensuing conferences resulted in the proposal presented by Mr. Kefauver at the San Francisco meeting in February, 1942. The proposed plan was approved by the Board and the yearbook committee was selected. Mr. Kefauver was appointed chairman of the committee and served in this capacity until he was sent to London as the representative of the State Department at the Conference of Allied Ministers of Education, at which time he asked to be relieved of the responsibilities of the chairmanship. At the request of the Board of Directors, Commissioner Grace, who was a member of the committee, accepted appointment as chairman.

Originally planned for publication in 1945, this yearbook was postponed for one year in recognition of the need for more immediate consideration of the tasks involved in adapting the curriculum and the structural organization of school systems to emerging conceptions of the role of education in postwar years. In a series of conferences in 1943, appropriate revisions of the original plan of the present yearbook were developed by the committee and the Board of Directors in light of the projected plan for the Forty-fourth Yearbook, *American Education in the Postwar Period*, Parts I and II of which were presented under the respective subtitles, *Curriculum Reconstruction* and *Structural Reorganization*. In harmony with the motive of the two volumes of the preceding yearbook, *Changing Conceptions in Educational Administration* is devoted to the particular aspects of administration which are most intimately involved in the types of improvement and extension of school

services visualized in the most authoritative planning for postwar educational reconstruction. In a very real sense, therefore, the present yearbook is to be regarded as supplementary to the two volumes of the yearbook for 1945. It is confidently expected that the three volumes will prove to be a serviceable guide to desirable innovations in school practice in keeping with current conceptions of the purposes of education in American society.

NELSON B. HENRY

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CHAPTER I

REORIENTATION OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

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INTRODUCTION

The changes in educational administration in recent years have been extensive and fundamental. It is probable that further changes will be made in the future along the general lines of these recent developments. Hence, it is appropriate to refer to these changes as a reorientation of educational administration. The conception of educational administration which has been gradually shaping up in theory and in practice will receive fuller consideration in the chapters of this yearbook. A brief characterization of some of the more important elements in this reorientation will be presented in this introductory chapter.

When schools and school systems became large and complex, and required persons to organize and to administer them, the practice developed to place an experienced teacher in the administrative post to administer the educational program. Early in the history of educational administration, operations were largely on a personal and practical basis. Men were selected, not because of their special technical training, but rather because of their success in dealing with the public, teachers, and students. The conception of administration of that period tended to reflect the existing practices in business and industry whereby the manager, with the approval of the board of directors, determined policy and directed the operations of the company and the work of its employees. The inadequacies of this conception for education were gradually recognized. It was especially criticized as being too autocratic and allowing too little responsibility and participation by teachers, parents, and students.

The development of precise techniques of procedure and a body of professional literature on educational administration and a growing recognition of the requirement that educational administrators have special training for their work furnished the basis for the introduction of

* As this yearbook was in process of manufacture, announcement was made of the death of Dr. Kefauver at Los Angeles on January 4, 1946.

technical and "scientific" administration. The subjective judgment was reduced in emphasis and great importance was attached to objective or "scientific" evidence. In time, "scientific administration" was sharply criticized as placing excessive importance on readily securable data and as lacking in broad educational and social direction. The limitations of methods and data, which were frequently accepted uncritically when first utilized, gradually became recognized. "Scientific administration" is not objectionable when it represents an effort to secure meaningful and valid data bearing on administrative problems if the data are not given exaggerated importance and if other important factors, for which data cannot be obtained, are not ignored. The careful investigation of educational problems is highly desirable to give a fuller understanding of the problems and to aid in the development of a program for their solution.

In the discussion of new emphases or new orientation of educational administration new terms must be used. While general labels give only a slight clue to their meaning, merely listing the headings of the remaining sections of this chapter gives some suggestion of the conception which is here referred to as a new orientation in educational administration. They include educational administration and social statesmanship, leadership in educational administration, educational planning, and democracy in educational administration.

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AS SOCIAL STATESMANSHIP

To refer to educational administration as social statesmanship is to place it in proper perspective. It is too limited a view to think of educational administration in strictly operational terms. The management of educational institutions is only a part, although an important part, of educational administration. Educational programs have, at times, suffered because the executives have lacked broad social perspective and the program lacked purpose and direction.

Educational administration approaches statesmanship when there are clearly formulated long-term policies and objectives, and when day-by-day activities and problems are dealt with under the guidance of the perspective given by such long-term policies. Particular problems can be appraised and dealt with more wisely if they are related to such a general directing policy. Lacking a long-term policy, there will be a tendency to deal with the immediate operations and difficulties with a very limited regard to where the program is leading. Also, the administration and the faculty will be handicapped in the development of the program if they lack the general orientation which such a long-term policy would provide.

The term, social statesmanship, is made appropriate, too, by the bearing which educational policy and social policy have on each other. The

achievement of important social ends is dependent on the understandings, attitudes, and skills possessed by the people. In a democracy this dependence is especially critical. Likewise, educational policy has its origin in the society which it serves. The school is devoted to and engaged in the service of the basic democratic principles and goals, recognizing, at the same time, its service to the individual and to the progressive improvement of society.

An important fact to be recognized, sometimes to the discomfiture of the educational administrator, is that educational policy is not a concern of the educator only. It is an appropriate and legitimate concern of people in all walks of life. This is true not only because of their interest in the education of their own children but also because of their concern for general social welfare and policy, with which educational policy is so closely and significantly related.

LEADERSHIP IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Educational administration is concerned not only with the plan of organization and the procedures being utilized. It is concerned, also, with the process by which these practices are adopted, support for them is maintained, and new practices are considered and instituted. The administrator is responsible for expediting a process which brings all the persons with legitimate interests in a program into effective collaboration in planning for it. By bringing persons of different training and experience into active participation, the full experience of all groups can be drawn upon.

Actual leadership, as judged by the contribution made to the solution arrived at, may come from a classroom teacher, a parent, or the administrator. The role of the administrator may or may not involve the introduction of the idea finally accepted. In many situations, the administrator's leadership role will be that of encouraging and assisting others to participate effectively.

Such a program not only increases the likelihood of developing wise procedure but, in addition, it gives a basis for adaptation to the judgments and reactions of those who must give the program their support if it is to succeed. The process itself is educative, bringing to many persons understanding of the program which is finally adopted. Of great importance for the faculty, it encourages initiative and inventiveness and it contributes to the general development of the individual teacher.

The problem and process of leadership is well illustrated by noting what is involved in effecting an important change in the educational program. Not only must the desirable new procedure be determined but the teachers, the governing board, the parents, and, in some instances,

the students must understand and accept the new practice. In addition, those who are directly responsible for the operation must have the skill to make the program succeed.

Change in educational and social practice involves a shift of loyalties from the earlier values and practices to the new. The challenging of all practices and the presentation of new ideas is a process which goes on continuously in an active democratic social group. Among the faculty and the parents there will usually be a minority who press for the adoption of a new practice long before it is feasible to take the recommended step. Another minority group may resist the innovation which is proposed. It will not be wise to delay action until all are favorable for the new practice, but it is very important that the amount of support be sufficient to insure its success. The democratic leader will encourage free presentation of ideas for the improvement of the educational program.

The conception of administration here presented would attach a great deal of importance to the progressive development of the program as a natural outgrowth of vital intellectual activity in all interested groups. Violation of this principle may cause a new program to experience embarrassment after it has been introduced. Especially is this the case if the change in practice is made without there having been a corresponding change in the values and the thinking of those most affected by the shift.

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

Certain aspects of educational planning have been noted in earlier sections of this chapter, but the importance of this phase of educational administration is such as to make desirable a formal reference to it. City and state curriculum-development programs are illustrations of important planning efforts. The problem of developing an educational system adequate for the complex interdependent world in which we are living is one of very great difficulty. There is a tendency in education as in other social institutions to perpetuate existing practices. The social lag is already great and the rapidly changing national and world picture presents urgent demands for recognition in current planning for the education of children, youth, and adults.

One illustration will suffice. Several new international organizations are being set up to facilitate greatly extended co-operation among the governments and peoples of the world. Education for tomorrow is truly an education for a world community as well as for the local, state, or national community. To achieve an adequate recognition of this critically important problem is a large assignment. But it is only one of the many items in the postwar world which merits recognition in an adequate program of education.

Educational planning appropriately goes forward on many levels. In the United States, with the independent educational systems in the different states, the state becomes the largest direct planning unit. However, planning activities of national agencies have great influence on educational practice. The United States Office of Education provides for the joint consideration of common problems by state superintendents of public instruction. The various commissions of the national associations present reports and recommendations which are studied by local and state groups and influence practice in the different states. When the United Nations educational and cultural organization is established, there will doubtless be reports of international commissions with recommendations for the development of an education adequate for the world community.

Within the states there will be state planning, city or district planning, individual school planning, and planning by the individual teacher, with such co-operation with other teachers as may seem desirable. Finally, each student with the help of teachers and guidance specialists should develop a plan for his own education. It is clear that educational planning should allow for flexibility so that each planning unit will be able to make adjustments to the needs of the group and the individual. For the larger units of administration, the major functions can be defined and perhaps the broad outlines of a program can be formulated. Endeavoring to develop a scope and sequence for an educational program is a promising approach in harmony with this conception.

The efforts at educational planning have very appropriately emphasized the desirability of bringing together persons responsible for the different sections of the program so that the whole program can be seen as a unit, perhaps even fused into a composite program more closely related to the interests and needs of the student and more nearly like the real situations faced by the student outside the classroom. Also, it is important that educational planning be recognized as a continuing process.

DEMOCRACY IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

The concept of democracy in educational administration is now generally accepted. There are still differences of judgment as to the desirability of particular procedures, and it must be admitted that practice has not advanced as far as theory. The rise in the standard of preparation of teachers makes possible a more responsible role for the teacher. The movement is encouraged by the greater attention being paid to education for democratic citizenship and the belief that the practice of democracy is a more effective teacher than mere talk about it.

A detailed consideration of administrative organization and procedure

would show that the question of democratic procedure touches upon many aspects of the life of the school. It affects the role of the administrator and the methods by which he carries on his work. It gives to the staff and to the individual teacher a larger role. It gives to the students a more active part in the life of the school. It calls for a modification of the procedure in the classroom. It provides for a greater degree of co-operation of persons with a spirit of equality, with each contributing according to his special experience. It is concerned with the equality of opportunity for all students and with the flexibility required to make adaptation to the special needs of the individual. It provides for leadership by the administrator and by the teacher and by students. It increases the extent to which agreement is sought and reached among all interested parties in dealing with educational problems. It provides for the study of different alternatives when dealing with controversial questions so that students can acquire the basis for making their own decisions.

SUMMARY

The foregoing brief statement indicates only some of the items which might well be referred to in an introductory statement concerning modern theory and practice in educational administration. If space allowed, it would have been desirable to refer also to the concern of educational administration for teacher development, especially by providing opportunity for teachers to live in a manner favorable for continued growth and development, and to note the relationship of the school to society, with a trend in the direction of closer interweaving of in-school and out-of-school experiences. But, the remaining chapters will deal with these and other questions which will further illustrate the general reorientation which has been made and is being made in educational administration.

CHAPTER II

THE STATE AND THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

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For nearly three hundred years America has regarded the state as the responsible agent for the development and maintenance of a system of public education, available to all the children of all the people, irrespective of race, creed, political affiliation, or economic status. Legally and historically, then, education is a state function. The actual operation of a school system, however, has been delegated to the people of a community and the operational control is exercised through their local board of education. Thus, the local board of education, though an agency of the state, is the policy-determining body for education in the town or the school district. The state board of education, on the other hand, is charged with the responsibility not only of determining policies for the institutions that come under its immediate jurisdiction but also of providing the leadership, the service, and the research essential to the establishment of sound educational policies throughout the state. In the interest of democracy, it is imperative that the responsibility for administering public education continue to be vested in the state and the local community.

THE PURPOSE OF THE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Each of the forty-eight states has a department of education of one form or another. In some states complete control of the schools is vested in this central authority. In several states, however, the department of education exists solely to carry out the policies of a state board of education. In other states an elected superintendent of public instruction is the representative of education.

If public education is to be conceived of as the cornerstone of the democratic order, it is essential that the school system itself be organized on a democratic basis. It is important, too, that local initiative and responsibility be recognized as elements prerequisite to democratic action. While it probably is true that progress may be made more rapidly

through procedures centralized in a state or federal agency, such progress frequently may not be clearly understood by the people. Efficiency in government involves more than effective management. While it is important that there be an efficient organization, it is infinitely more important that the continued interest of the people be assured. Without the sustained interest of the governed and the intelligent participation of the people in the conduct of the government, efficiency is, at best, but partial. One of the major problems today is that of insuring an intelligent attitude toward the democratic organization. There is no better place to start than in the educational system. The primary purposes of a state department of education may, therefore, be described as follows:

Guidance and Leadership. Desirable leadership in a democratic order makes full use of the wisdom of the individual members of the associated group. A leadership of merit, in so far as a state department of education is concerned, must be based on sound scholarship and the general acceptance of recognized basic principles. For example, the ideal of quality in educational thinking must supplant past emphasis on quantitative considerations. An implicit belief in local government as the basic safety valve of democracy must be developed. There must be a willingness to keep the schools close to the people and the people close to the schools. Every effort should be exerted to provide the state with the best possible educational system. One of the major problems is to get full value for every dollar expended. This means constant appraisal and adjustment of the school program. The leadership of a state department of education is important in preventing lag in the educational system and also in making the best possible use of available resources. There is no substitute for common sense, however. A step-by-step program, well conceived and widely discussed, will be infinitely more fruitful than early and easy acceptance of untried theories.

The improvement of curriculums, the development of courses of study, and new administrative practices or improvement in administrative procedures must grow from the bottom up rather than be superimposed by agencies of the state. The quality of leadership must be such that local school systems will have confidence, not only in the advice and suggestions which are developed on the state-department level, but also in the scholarship and ability of the individual members of the state department. It is important that the contribution of the state be accepted on the basis of its own worth. Statutory responsibilities should be carried on in a statesmanlike manner.

Service. A second function of a state department of education is to render those services that cannot be provided by individual school

systems or which may be supplied more effectively by the state. The service function of the state department of education should be such as to expedite the work of local school systems. It should neither impede progress nor handicap the effective administrative operation of a school system or the instructional process therein. This applies equally well to the various institutions operated directly by the state board of education. A service so effective and so valuable and so close to realism that it makes itself indispensable to local school systems should be the goal of the department of education.

Supervision is a service of the state department of education. Too frequently in this country supervision, instead of becoming an aid to the improvement of instruction, becomes merely an inspectorial or routine procedure of little value in the ultimate progress of a school system. Supervision should be regarded as scholarly, useful, worth-while assistance in the development of an educational program and in the improvement of teaching practices and procedures. The effectiveness of supervision is, therefore, contingent upon the personnel of a department. Unless the individual is accepted because of his ability to contribute to the improvement of a program and to the child's educational opportunity, his service frequently becomes of negligible value.

The state department of education renders outright service in many directions. Supervision or the improvement of instructional procedures has been briefly described. Likewise, in health, vocational education, job analysis, guidance, and in many other areas, direct service may be rendered profitably and effectively by the staff of a state department. It is important, however, that the matter of expediting the work of the local school system be emphasized. Too frequently the hampering restrictions of "red tape," misunderstanding, unnecessary services and programs, and a host of other problems arise because of those who have not visualized the true significance of service.

Research and Planning. Millions of dollars are spent for research in industry and business. There would be little progress were it not for the confidence of our leaders in the value of research in these fields. Research improves processes and products. In agriculture tremendous sums are invested in the study of plants, animals, soil, poultry, fruit, and literally hundreds of other objects of research. Obviously not all research produces fruitful results; nevertheless, the sums expended represent a large investment, and the returns to business, industry, and agriculture have been well worth the cost.

Comparatively small amounts are spent for research by the state departments of education and local boards of education. Yet the policies

of both the state board and the local boards of education should be determined generally on the basis of objective data. It is the function of the state department of education to provide research and planning.

The personnel or the division responsible for research and planning should be completely free from gathering and compiling statistical data about school systems. This is what might be termed a central service function. Because a research division may be used in this capacity, scientific approach to the study of public education degenerates frequently into a routine matter of accumulating statistical data.

While the division of research and planning in a state department of education is concerned very largely with the "here and now" problems, that is, with immediate problems, there are fundamental problems in education that require basic, long-time research. Occasionally the department of education may properly engage in this basic research. On the other hand, this service is more expeditious and more in the interest of the better use of existing facilities if channels to the sources of scholarly research be developed. A state department of education should, therefore, lay these channels to the universities and the colleges that have demonstrated their ability to do basic research. The leadership for research and for the co-ordination of research activities are, however, functions of a state department of education.

PRINCIPLES OF STATE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

A principle in the prudential discipline such as administration may be defined as a generalized rule of action which has achieved success in producing desired results in repeated similar situations. In a modern public organization the desired result is satisfaction of the public will with maximum service at minimum cost. Through many years of effort on the part of administrators and scholars certain rules have been formulated which seem to have more or less pragmatic validity in situations characteristic of the various branches of public administration. The following are principles of administration underlying the organization of the state department of education.

The effective management of an enterprise requires the delegation of authority and responsibility. Responsibility and authority run parallel throughout a system. In other words, as authority is delegated to a member of a staff, responsibility also must be delegated to and accepted by the individual. The two extremes of this principle should be avoided; that is, the delegation of too much or too little responsibility and authority. The delegation of authority should not, however, be considered a transfer of authority. It is a correlation of authority and a joint responsibility.

There must be a functional definition of each job if the morale and efficiency of the organization is to be maintained. Failure to provide such definition results in a petty jealousy arising over the functions of a person or a bureau. The business of an organization is to get a job done, not to build up vested interests.

There is no substitute for common sense, no substitute for sound judgment. When a supervisor to whom authority and responsibility have been properly delegated is confronted with a problem that requires immediate action, that action should be taken and a decision rendered irrespective of the lines of authority or the sentiment of those in direct charge of divisions, bureaus, or sections. Much of the "red tape," the delay, and the inefficiency in a structure might be avoided if administrative officers were willing to delegate authority and responsibility to those immediately responsible for results. Those who make decisions, however, must be willing to accept responsibility for decisions and to face an accounting for action.

It is human to err, but the same error committed twice should result in personnel adjustments. The individual must be held responsible for his every act. The administrator, on the other hand, must adopt a code of control based upon accepted standards and reliable information. In all dealings with the staff an impersonal attitude must be assumed. Unless this is done, rules of action become mere conveniences, and efficiency and harmony suffer.

The purpose of the state should be to strengthen local control and local initiative and not to supplant the local governmental structure. The trend in the country over the past generation has been toward the strengthening of state and federal government at the expense of the local unit. While it is obvious that many units of government, conceived during the pioneer era in the evolution of American democracy, no longer are able independently and separately to provide all the services now demanded by the people, the solution does not lie in a superstate or a federal government which will absorb the functions and the services of the smaller units. Without the sustained interest of the governed, the policy-determining function which belongs to the people may be absorbed by those who make a profession of government. Sometimes those too close to a job fail to realize that the security of the democratic order is vested very largely in the continuance of local units of government sufficiently large to provide a reasonable service and to encourage the continuance of the interest of all people in government.

It is the business of those employed by the state to think in terms of the original purpose of the organization. A department of education always should be concerned with the interests of the child, the youth, the

adult, and the state. Local autonomy and home rule will not disappear because of the state's effort to guarantee equality of educational opportunity to all children.

It is the state's obligation, however, to guide the destiny of local school systems at all times. The educational interests of the children as well as those of the state must be protected against petty localism. This requires that the state department of education not only guide the local school systems through leadership, service, and research, as previously indicated, but also that the state department, through wise administration, prevent local controversies, jealousies, and selfish interests from jeopardizing the educational interests of the children, the community, and the state. Government exists for a people, not the people for government. The machinery of administration must expedite and not impede instruction.

The organization should attempt to secure the greatest return from every dollar expended. Intelligent economy is the first principle of good administration, whether it be in government, in education as a part of a governmental structure, in social agencies, public or private, or in other community associations. This is a principle that should prevail during prosperous years as well as during periods of depression. It takes no great administrative genius to spend money. This is especially true when there appears to be no limit to the funds available. But it takes moral courage and the ability to set aside personal convenience and political expediency to administer an institution wisely and effectively. A governmental agency is merely the custodian of the tax moneys supplied by citizens for the services demanded by them and in the interests of their own advancement and security. Capacity to pay or the purchasing power of the many should be a criterion to observe in administering and expending funds or increasing services and functions rendered to and for the people. The benefits derived from these services and functions should be the criterion for their continuance. The adequate financing of public education and the effective management of school revenue is, however, a matter of the deepest concern to each member of the department of education and to the public. The ability to pay for education cannot be disassociated from the ability to pay for the complete governmental program. Governmental services and functions have expanded in many directions during the past generation. This trend is, unquestionably, the result of fundamental changes in the socioeconomic system and in existing social institutions. Many of these changes, on the other hand, have originated because of the pressure of aggressive minorities. The matter of origin is not so important as the fact the state is committed to a program of state and local governmental services which involves a considerable

outlay. The cost of public education, however, is reflected not only in the financial outlay for the maintenance of the school's program but also in the social consequences of the educational process.

Among the principles relating to the financing of public education the following are presented here for our guidance:

1. The more intricate and complex the structure of an organization, the greater the possibility of overlapping of functions, duplication of effort, lack of co-ordination. The organization should be flexible and simple.
2. New services, functions, practices, or procedures should not be provided without consideration of the ultimate cost involved, that is, cost in terms of financial outlay and social consequences. Old practices and procedures should be abolished when their usefulness has subsided.
3. Public expenditures should be balanced among functions in accordance with the principle of marginal utility. There is a limit to the amount that can be raised through public taxation for governmental functions. Ultimately the people will have to make choices. What are those elements in the governmental structure that are essential to the welfare of men and of the democracy of which they are a part?
4. Capital expenditures should be made in accordance with a long-time plan. Capital financing should be in terms of total cost over the entire period in which the plant will be in operation.
5. The interrelationship and interdependency of governmental units make necessary the transfer of services and functions to the unit most capable of rendering effective service and efficient management.
6. Funds entrusted to a department should be expended in the same manner as if they were personal funds. Sometimes it is the little things that count—the cost of travel, attendance at various meetings, the use of a telephone, the use of postage, carelessness in the use of lights, wastefulness in the utilization of the time of stenographic service. Each one should regard himself as responsible for the cost of the whole enterprise.

In preparation of the annual budget based on long-time plans and work programs there should be integration by the chief administrator and approval by the policy-determining body. The effective management of funds entrusted to a department or agency is a primary function of organization.

The successful operation and maintenance of an organization depends largely upon the factor of good will. This principle is of fundamental importance to the administrator and to the organization. There must be good will between the administrator and the personnel, between the organization and the public, and between the education department and other governmental departments and agencies. In public relations the individual must use tact and judgment. This means respect and sincerity

and not flattery. It does not mean the forfeiture of the right of independent thinking. It means sound judgment on the part of the individual.

There is no need for one to go out of his way to antagonize those with whom he comes in contact. The individual should not, of course, forfeit his right of independent thinking. Snap judgment on matters should be avoided in those cases involving policy. For example, it is not the business of a state department to superimpose ideals or philosophies on communities. A department of education should aid communities to grow and to progress. It should be remembered, too, that mere change does not indicate progress. Good will is of infinite importance to the development of this type of organization.

An effective organization must have a program democratically determined. The strength of an organization depends upon the competency of the individual members and their ability to work as part of the organization. Each individual who is a member of the organization is an integral part of that structure. It is essential, therefore, that the individual member appreciate not only his relationship to the whole program but also his responsibility for an integral part of the program. Whether one be a stenographer or a specialist, he has a major job to perform. The staff must, therefore, be kept informed on all matters pertaining to the organization. Each individual member of the organization must know the goals, the objectives, and the direction the organization is taking. It is important, too, that each member of the organization have a voice in those decisions which affect him and affect his ideas concerning the administration of the organization.

Harmony must prevail in any organization if there is to be progress. The place to discuss departmental matters is within the department. If there be disagreement with a decision of the administrator, for example, or his action or proposed action, there should be no reluctance in expressing an honest objection and constructive criticism. If there be disagreement concerning a policy, this should be discussed with the administrator and within the department. Differences of opinion within a department should not be matters of public discussion or complaint outside.

The ideas of the individual should be respected. An individual without ideas should not be in a place of responsibility. It is important, however, that the individual be given full credit for his ideas; and that in the production of departmental documents, those individuals who have made the contributions be given due recognition. It is not the function of a division or bureau head to blue-pencil either the ideas or the contributions of the individual staff member because these do not agree with his particular philosophy. These matters should not, however,

affect the relationship between one individual and another. They should be cleared through administrative or supervisory councils, or through whatever agency has been set up for a clearance of ideas and procedures.

While there must be organization for effective administration, the organization should not be of the type that prevents any member from discussing problems or procedures with others who may be able to render assistance. It is important to understand that the organization does not exist for the individual or to perpetuate a particular bureau or division. It exists to provide leadership, to render service, and to provide research as a basis for determining policies when and where they are needed.

A clear separation between policy determination and administrative functions is essential in an effective organization. The establishment of educational policy is a major function of the state board of education. The determination of policy involves the formation of underlying principles rather than the development of details. The board will leave the details for others. This is administration. Generally speaking, administrative detail will be more effectively accomplished by the trained specialist. The determination of policy is fundamental and the most important function of the educational organization. On the basis of the objective evidence derived through the program of research and planning, through experimentation, or through other channels, the board will be furnished the basic evidence on which it may deliberate and form its policies. Policies, as previously stated, are the principles upon which we operate as a system of education.

What is meant by a policy? What is meant by administration? Relationships between policies and administration are indicated in the accompanying outline.

EDUCATIONAL POLICY	ADMINISTRATION
1. Leaves of absence for trade-school instructors to return to industry for periods of three weeks, to keep pace with changes in industry.	1. Designation of individuals to attend schools conducted by industry; selection of industries to which individuals shall return; determination of the number compatible with budgetary provisions.
2. Adoption of rules and regulations governing the certification of teachers.	2. Interpretation of rules and regulations; issuance of certificates; evaluation of credentials.
3. Extension of a state grant system to provide financial assistance for vocational education.	3. Allocation of funds to local communities; accounting; reporting.
4. Provision of supervision for rural schools.	4. Recommendation of supervisory areas; determination of functions; allocation of individuals to areas.

This analysis should be available in any organization. There should be a clear understanding of the established or needed policies and a clear understanding concerning administration.

Too frequently full information is not given to a board of education. For example, in the matter of appointment, it is the function of the chief executive officer to select and to nominate individuals for appointment but it is the fundamental prerogative of a board to elect. This should be a mutual responsibility. That is to say, the board should have complete information on the individual before it passes judgment. Free and full discussion by members of a board not only should be encouraged but should be a requirement for a final decision. It is only by putting all the facts on the table that a satisfactory decision can be reached. The establishment of sound policies and courageous administration are equally essential in the conduct of a school system.

The organization should utilize to the maximum the special capacity of the personnel and the material equipment. Each member of the staff so far as possible should be assigned to the special work for which he is best fitted. It is the primary purpose of the organization to place the person best fitted for a given job in that job.

It should be the function of the organization to secure the maximum use from the facilities available. In planning a program or in the addition of new equipment, we should make certain, through proper scheduling of classes or proper use of buildings and equipment, that the facilities are used to the maximum in every respect. Poor scheduling of classes or inability to use a building to its fullest capacity, for example, may mean the addition of plant facilities or equipment which would not be required if full consideration had been given to the matter of utilization.

There should be integration among the governmental units concerned with the same problems or areas. The department of education should cooperate with all other departments in the state government. There may be other departments performing functions that normally belong in the department of education. On the other hand, there may be areas in which many departments must co-operate toward the attainment of a particular goal. It should not be the desire of any department or the objective of a particular agency to build up a bureau or to add services merely for the sake of building a large department. We should utilize to the greatest advantage the services that already are available in the state or in the community, and in the long-time program every effort should be made to place services in those areas in which the most effective results may be attained. There must be a clear division of functions between the various levels and fields of government. It should be clearly borne in

mind, too, that the policy for public education will be determined by the state and local boards of education. This is essential because of the nature of the educational process.

LOCAL INITIATIVE VERSUS CENTRALIZATION

It is a long but magnificent road from the discovery of fire to the era of the electric telegraph, the steam engine, and representative democracy. When men learned the use of fire, living conditions changed and articulate language developed. Invention and discovery and the growth of institutions led to the growth and expansion of the human mind. No doubt the first inventions of social organization were the most difficult to achieve.

It is not possible in this discussion to trace the organized machinery devised by men for their protection as individuals and as members of the group. From the simple unorganized state of Paleolithic man to the heterogeneous state of contemporary civilization, men have expressed a variety of philosophies with respect to how the organized efforts of the group might work best toward the perfection of the state of the individual. Shall the individual have a part in determining the policies that affect his own destiny and that of his fellows?

The trend in our own nation over the generations has been toward the strengthening of the central authority—state and federal—at the expense of the parts from which authority emanates. It is obvious that many units of government conceived during the pioneer era in the evolution of American democracy no longer are able independently and separately to provide all the services now required for the security of a people or devised for their security by those who seek the perfect state. The solution does not, however, lie in the creation of a superstate.

Toulmin Smith in 1851 defined local self-government and centralization as follows:

Local self-government is that system of government under which the greatest number of minds and those knowing the most and having opportunity of knowing it, about the special matters at hand, and having the greatest interest in its well working, have the management of it or control over it.

Centralization is that system of government under which the smallest number of minds and those knowing the least and having the fewest opportunities of knowing it, about the special matter in hand, and having the smallest interest in its well working, have the management of it or the control over it. This may be an oversimplification of a complex concept.¹

¹ See John Fiske, *Civil Government in the United States*, p. 274. New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1891.

These definitions, obviously, would not be accepted by scholars, by practical administrators, or even by those who determine policy today. A new concept of the functions of government has been developing for many years and perhaps a major need today is for a clear-cut definition of functions before agencies are organized on any level. Perhaps, however, as John Fiske states in his comment on Smith's treatise, "An immense amount of wretched misgovernment would be avoided if all legislators and all voters would engrave these wholesome definitions upon their minds."²

How much government is essential to protect the sovereign people from their own inadequacies? Are we able to distinguish administration from policy determination? What is the capacity or the ability of people to pay for an adequate system of social control? The solution to America's problem of self-government does not lie solely in effective organization or effective management. *Without the sustained interest of the governed, the policy-determining function which belongs to the people may be absorbed by those not so seriously interested in democracy, by specialists who may be more interested in the area of specialization than in the welfare of the people, or by a great bureaucracy of vested interests.*

The success or failure of government and the quality of service it renders rest, in the last analysis, upon the capacity and the character of the men and women who constitute it. There must be in government men and women who have capacity and character and who believe implicitly in rendering a service rather than in building up a vested interest.

America will preserve local initiative and responsibility *only if there be a willingness on the part of all elements locally to improve the governmental structure in the interests of the whole people instead of permitting aggressive minorities and political expediency to dominate the needs of the group.* Unless local communities are willing to assume the responsibility for a more effective organization, for the placement of men and women of character and capacity in positions of government, and for continuous citizen participation in the determination of policy, the trend will be toward units of government far removed from the people.

There is no guarantee that centralization, on the other hand, means more effective management or more efficient operation. Unless there is confidence in the ability of the local unit to assume responsibility and unless effective education stimulates its citizenship to assume such responsibility, man's efforts to govern himself may succumb through

² *Ibid.*

passive subservience to the centralized interest. Democracy, on the other hand, will not function effectively until all the people of the community recognize that all of the people are part of the community. Government has a responsibility and an obligation to see to it that authority does not become the substitute for leadership and responsibility. One of the most fundamental jobs confronting America is to create an awareness of the problems that confront the community and, in the larger measure, the nation. A vigorous self-propelled effort to aid in the solutions of the problems next door should develop.

Recently we organized America for war—thousands of committees and councils throughout our country. Is it not possible that we may approach the problems of education and government in times of peace with as much enthusiasm and planning?

CHAPTER III

DEVELOPING AND ADMINISTERING THE CURRICULUM AND PUPIL SERVICES

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As suggested in earlier chapters, administrative functions and policies should be re-examined periodically to check their adequacy. Inasmuch as administration is a service enterprise, or a means for helping to accomplish goals, it should contribute consistently to the development and maintenance of an effective educational program. Recent and emerging concepts of the curriculum and of guidance and other services provided by the school in behalf of pupils imply the need for a reorientation of administration. This chapter will indicate suitable administrative policies pertaining to the educational program, point out major trends in the curriculum and related pupil services, and suggest desirable modifications of administrative practice.

Administration of the schools operates in several areas: states, counties, cities, and individual schools. The general policies and points of view to be enunciated here apply to all levels or types of organization. Administration at any point—state, county, city, or local school—may handicap or facilitate the development of a sound educational program. However, the individual school should be regarded as the most important unit in administering the curriculum. Most of the discussion will, therefore, be directed toward the administrative process at this level.

BASIC ADMINISTRATIVE POLICIES

Any aspect of the educational program as complex as the curriculum or the various pupil services which are related to instruction presents many important problems of administration. Schools operate under a great variety of conditions, involve large numbers of pupils with varying backgrounds, seek to contribute to many phases of pupil development, provide numerous special services, and utilize a great variety of instructional materials. Effective administration of such instructional programs demands a high level of competence.

Superintendents and principals have long been regarded as the specialized administrative officers of the school. More recently, supervisors and teachers have come to be recognized as important influences in administration. In the era of the one-room school the teacher was typically the administrator. With the advent of the graded school and departmentalized instruction, problems of organization and administration became increasingly complex, and failure to solve them sometimes prevented the attainment of sound educational programs. Accordingly, special administrative services were introduced and rapidly extended. In harmony with present-day conceptions of the functional relation of education to democracy as a way of life, teachers are again being identified with important administrative functions. Thus, through timely adjustments, policies and procedures have been adapted to the needs of improved plans of instruction.

Recognizing the complexity of the administrative task, the varying conditions under which schools operate, and the many functionaries concerned, three general guides are presented.

1. *Administration should be regarded as a means for attaining an effective curriculum.* In theory, at least, acceptance is generally accorded the idea that the main purpose of educational administration is to contribute to the education of children, youth, and adults. Thus, administration is essentially a service which facilitates the attainment of educational objectives. In practice, however, there are many illustrations of a disavowal of this position. Administrative efficiency and smoothness appear to be the goal, the influence on the educational outcomes being relegated to second place. For example, school supplies are often ordered, inventoried, and distributed in such a way that their potential value is not realized. Again, to save an exceedingly small percentage of the total cost, or to follow some long-established but now unsuitable routine, money is frequently wasted and educational goals are obstructed. Thus, teachers may find it impossible to secure the supplies and materials best suited to their needs at a time when they can be of maximum value. In a similar manner, the plan for the operation and use of the school plant may prevent the introduction of some of the most valuable types of educational experiences. Shutting off the heat, locking off certain parts of the building, requiring the evacuation of a definite block of rooms so that they may be cleaned, and numerous other prohibitions and regulations, when their purpose or necessity is not understood, may discourage teacher initiative and prevent the attainment of desired goals. Certainly it is imperative to have regard for the expense involved in any activity, and some organization and system are essential in the operation of any school. Yet, regulations should not be arbitrarily arrived at when it is

relatively simple to get full-staff determination of most desirable goals and to establish conditions which will aid in attaining them.

In similar manner the system of records and reports may contribute to or make difficult the provision of a sound program. The kind of lesson plan required by an administrator may encourage planning in terms of the needs of boys and girls or it may operate to fasten on the schools a deadly type of lesson learning. Similarly, marking systems may direct attention toward or away from desirable outcomes. Extensive demands on teachers for clerical work may prevent full attention to pupils.

These simple examples should not lead to the conclusion that administration must do nothing more than keep from inhibiting or blocking sound programs. Instead, administration has an important leadership role and can serve as a powerful constructive influence if it is focused on ways and means of attaining the purposes of the educational program. This requires much more than management or keeping the machinery operating smoothly. It demands a continuous study of goals to see how they can be most surely attained, and a constant consideration and analysis of the physical facilities, tools, equipment, materials, and personnel to determine how all resources can be utilized most completely. Further, administrative leadership of the finest type will be creative and imaginative. It will search unceasingly for new and better ways, the sights to be set constantly on the attainment of a better curriculum and improved pupil services.

2. *Administrative plans and procedures should be developed co-operatively by the educational staff, the parents, and the pupils.* If administration is truly a service for furthering progress toward educational goals, all those who are concerned with and affected by administrative procedures should participate in appropriate aspects of the program. There is no other way that administration can be fully informed as to goals and needs. It is well recognized that administration is a professional service requiring special training and experience. However, administration can be more effective if those involved in the enterprise share in defining goals and outlining policies.

There are several reasons why shared planning is important. As will be elaborated later, breadth, balance, and continuity in the experience of children and youth can be achieved only as all who contribute to education supplement one another. Thus, each teacher must not only see how he functions in relation to other teachers, parents, and pupils, but he must also be aware of the relevance of appropriate administrative controls. Similarly, parents need to be conscious of the purposes sought, to be informed as to means for supporting school efforts, and to recognize their potential contribution. This need for mutual assistance is not re-

stricted to those who come into direct contact with the learners. It is equally important for administration to see its contribution to a well-rounded program, in view of its responsibility for facilitating co-ordination between such major aspects of the program as grades, subjects, units of school organization, special and general teachers, and relations with the community.

Another reason for co-operative planning is that only in this way can a framework be established within which individuals agree to function and supplement one another. Charts are often prepared to indicate the responsibility of each member of the administrative staff. However, unless plans are co-operatively arrived at and thoroughly accepted by all parties involved, there is little likelihood that the organization will function as anticipated. This is naturally to be expected, for plans which are accepted only on the basis of tradition or administrative decision are seldom well understood by any substantial portion of the participants. In so far as understanding is incomplete, continuous improvement through suggestion and individual effort is unlikely. Often, in education, there is great loss in efficiency because teachers, parents, and pupils—those who are intimately involved in the details of any program—have no well-established means through which they can suggest and effect desirable modifications. Continuous co-operative planning prevents such losses.

On the state level there are several examples of lay participation in the formulation of policy concerning public education. For some years the superintendent of public instruction in Michigan has had a lay advisory commission on education.¹ On a great variety of policy questions coming before the superintendent, it has been common practice to turn to lay groups for assistance in formulating plans of action. In Georgia there has recently been very widespread discussion of the state's educational program for the purpose of securing understanding, suggestions, and support.²

In a rural school district near Salt Lake City, Utah, where there are seventeen elementary schools and 175 teachers, a council of twelve teachers, four principals, two supervisors, and the superintendent was organized as an advisory group. This group met every two weeks during the school year and discussed many problems of general importance. Attention centered on "(a) an evaluation of the existing program, (b)

¹ *The Michigan Program of Curriculum Revision*. Second Report of Progress. Bulletin No. 305A. Lansing, Michigan: State Department of Public Instruction, 1937.

² "Georgia Plans Postwar Educational Programs," *Education for Victory*, III (August 21, 1944), 9.

discussion and formulation of a basic philosophy for use in planning programs in the district, (c) a survey of textbooks and supplies in use, (d) the evaluation and selection of new textbooks, (e) a survey of promotion practices in the district, (f) problems of the elementary school and the war emergency." Probably the most significant contribution was on the problems of grouping children, a study of existing practices and conditions resulting in a statement of policy for the guidance of schools.³

In Springfield, Missouri, there has been wide participation in formulating policy on a variety of problems. Teachers have aided in establishing salary schedules and selecting new teachers as well as in planning in-service programs and developing postwar plans for the schools.⁴

An example of pupil sharing in administration is found in the student organizations at New Trier Township High School.⁵ Here a student council, a boys' club, a girls' club, and a girls' athletic association have wide powers and carry extensive responsibility for important phases of the school's program. In co-operation with the student council, various organizations sell activity tickets and plan a budget for financing the various extra-curriculum activities. In a large school such as New Trier this becomes an important venture. The council, over a period of years, has also taken leadership in other matters, such as setting up self-governing study halls. These are now firmly established and operate successfully. Over one thousand students are now in such groups. In addition to the council work, the boys' and girls' clubs handle a wide range of social and service problems in an effective manner.

One of the obstacles to shared consideration of plans and procedures resides in the failure to analyze carefully the areas in which this method of working can be most profitably employed. Any group at work on its problems needs to give time and careful consideration to defining appropriate areas for consideration. Surely, group attention to administrative details is to be avoided unless administrative arrangements are failing to give maximum service in furthering the program. In most situations the following will probably be the major areas for co-operative planning.

First, the continuous clarification and redefinition of the purposes of the curriculum and related pupil service is a most important and fundamental concern of parents, pupils, teachers, and administrators. Participation of all is necessary to secure clarity of understanding and careful direction of action. Administration not only can contribute but also needs

³ *Group Planning in Education*, pp. 103-5. Yearbook of the Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development of the National Education Association, 1945. Washington: National Education Association, 1945.

⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 121-28.

⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 64-70.

this interaction with other groups as a constant guide to its own efforts. Only in this way can it obtain an adequate basis for making administrative policy and action a positive force in attaining major goals.

Second, the preparation of program plans and policies is a suitable area for co-operative planning. Where purposes have been jointly determined, the formulation of broad plans is a logical next step. While parents are concerned with only the general aspects of planning, teachers can contribute to the over-all arrangements as well as to the preparation for day-to-day activities. Pupils will naturally and easily participate at the points where they are directly involved.

Third, following the definition of purposes and the preparation of program plans, all parties to the educational process are naturally concerned with and can contribute to an evaluation of the effectiveness of the curriculum and related pupil activities. Parents, teachers, pupils, and administrators have contributions to make. Further, through carefully conducted evaluations, in which all share, administration can learn much as to the value of its specialized activities.

Finally, there is a fourth area in which group action is profitable. No program for the shared consideration and whole-staff development of administrative plans and procedures is likely to succeed unless an organization or method is established to make co-operative action possible. Definite arrangements need to be made so that participation of all concerned will be facilitated.

A plan of organization has been suggested by Koopman, Miel, and Misner for a single school which is based on four assumptions:

1. That teachers as a professional group, charged with important social responsibilities, should continuously study their own professional problems if the school is to function as a dynamic social agency. The need for such study suggests the formation of a committee which is called here the "Teacher-Affairs Committee." The essential functions of the Teacher-Affairs Committee are:
 - a. Keeping faculty members informed concerning the activities of professional organizations to the end that the rights and responsibilities of all professional agents may be recognized and discharged effectively.
 - b. Facilitating the personal and professional growth of all agents by making available the services of specialists and results of the significant studies, reports, and writings which will help each person to become an increasingly alert, informed, and useful member of the profession and of society.
 - c. Promoting optimum security for teachers.
 - d. Providing opportunities whereby professional agents may participate in recreational and social activities which will further normal human relationships.
 - e. Representing the faculty in the translation of accepted policies into action.

2. That a public school needs the application of intensive group thinking to the end that its activities may have unity of purpose. Opportunity for such group thinking is provided by a committee which is called here the "Curriculum-Activities Committee." The essential functions of this committee are:
 - a. Adapting general curriculum policies for use in a given building.
 - b. Organizing the learning experiences of students, including student participation in the administration of the school, and planning the use of specialists.
 - c. Developing techniques of evaluating the curriculum experiences of students.
 - d. Keeping curriculum records.
 - e. Planning the instructional budget.
 - f. Planning utilization of school plant.
 - g. Planning replacements and additions to school plant.
3. That real experiences must be the basis of the educative process and, therefore, that the total environment in which persons live must be recognized as the source of the most important learning experiences. This suggests the need for a committee that is called here the "Community-Relations Committee." The essential functions of the Community-Relations Committee are:
 - a. Facilitating the participation of all members of the community in planning, executing, and appraising educational policies and activities.
 - b. Planning interpretative programs and exhibits.
 - c. Making available objective data concerning community educational needs through the technique of the continuous community survey.
 - d. Co-operating with community groups in the continuous development of effective agencies and activities of adult education.
4. That the activities of these basic committees must be co-ordinated if they are to be effective in promoting socialization. This requires the organization of a co-ordinating committee which is called here the "Socialization Committee." The essential functions of the Socialization Committee are:
 - a. Surveying and evaluating social life in order better to criticize the functions of the school in society.
 - b. Interpreting results of evaluation activities in terms of the unitary objective of education—democratic socialization.
 - c. Determining steps, emphases, and sequences—the strategy of school administration.
 - d. Reviewing, co-ordinating, and integrating activities of students, teachers, specialists, and community groups.
 - e. Maintaining balance among the activities of students, teachers, and community groups.*

This plan thus provides for an over-all co-ordinating group, the Socialization Committee, and three other committees which clear

* G. Robert Koopman, Alice Miel, and Paul J. Misner, *Democracy in School Administration*, pp. 78-80. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1943.

through this central agency. These three committees are the community-relations committee, the teacher-affairs committee, and the curriculum-activities committee. Glencoe, Illinois, has worked successfully for several years with a modification of this plan.

Larger school systems will of necessity have to provide for the co-ordination of building units. The organization proposed for a single building can be adopted with appropriate modifications for city and county school systems and thus provide needed unity and continuity.⁷

Denver, Colorado, has developed a city-wide organization which places major responsibility on local units. Individual school faculties work with their principals through (1) teacher planning groups, (2) problem committees, and (3) the building committees on instruction. The city-wide organization for guidance and instruction consists of three committees on instruction: one for elementary schools, one for junior high schools, and one for senior high schools. Each of these is a representative group of teachers, administrators, and supervisors. An executive board, consisting of representatives from the various types of educational workers, co-ordinates the activities of the three city committees on instruction. Not only do individual buildings have great freedom of action but the city committees on instruction have great authority and provide leadership and initiative in developing programs and in guiding local activities.

It is particularly appropriate to have staff co-operation in the administration of schools in a democracy. Educational organizations which are to teach democracy must, of necessity, provide extensive opportunity for practicing democratic ways of behaving and working. Only thus can appropriate skills and attitudes be secured. Unless democracy is exemplified by the administration, it is unlikely that much success in this direction can be achieved through the educational program. Unfortunately, this need is not adequately recognized in the schools of the country. Administration all too often is a dominant force, making decisions on major matters of policy without consultations with those concerned. Sometimes this appears to be a simpler and quicker way. Over a long period of time, however, it is not the most effective process. Undemocratic administration fails to capitalize on the talents and ideas of the group and is a denial of the democratic way as a desirable goal for our schools.

3. *The educational program should be conceived, planned, and administered as a whole.* The welfare of children and youth, and thus effective administration, necessitates planning and operating the curriculum and related pupil services as a unit. This is important in order to secure both

⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 84-92.

vertical and horizontal unity. Vertical unity is needed to facilitate the normal and sequential growth of the individual. Consistency of guidance, in terms of the needs of individuals, from level to level, is to be desired. There is no apparent justification for gaps between grades or units of the system or for marked differences in the curriculum organization from one grade to the next. Planning on any level should be in harmony with the over-all organization of the curriculum and related pupil services. Faculty members at one level should be closely associated with those working with younger or older pupils. The present school organization frequently makes this difficult because the individual segments operate as entirely separate entities. Administration faces an important responsibility in bringing about continuity in the program.

Horizontal unity is equally necessary. Education is increasingly effective as the individual develops in ability to integrate and relate his various experiences. The plan and operation of the school program can do much to facilitate this integration. If the educational offering is planned in relation to a basic analysis of the total life of the child, it is more likely that balance and relationship can be achieved. However, special attention and continued effort must be directed to this problem if real unity is to be secured. The tendency is to break the program into subjects and compartments and to establish special and independent services. Not only should the regular classwork be organized to help the individual unify his experiences but also the recreational and extra-class activities as well as the special services, such as guidance, health, and the school cafeteria, should be operated so as to support, extend, and otherwise make effective the total program. This calls for more than management on the part of the administrative staff. Leadership is needed in discovering new and better arrangements than are found in most schools today.

Planning and administering the educational program are important at the state level as well as in county, city, or individual schools. However, the effect of administrative policy is particularly crucial at the point where it touches the individual child. Thus, while over-all co-ordination is necessary for each unit, whether it be the fiscal, attendance, or administrative unit, the individual school should be responsible for planning and administering the educational program. Only in this way can appropriate adaptations be made to the needs of individual children and youth and to local community conditions. Full participation by teachers, parents, and children is needed at the local level in developing administrative plans and procedures suitable to goals. This is possible and practical only where the responsible unit is small enough for the participants to be directly affected by decisions.

Unfortunately, in many cities and counties throughout the nation, the

individual school is not the really effective unit for planning and administering the educational program. Administration of the individual school is not only directed but also frequently dominated by controls from a city or county office. Courses of study are outlined in detail and administrative procedures are prescribed. In such situations authority flows down to the school from the next higher administrative unit, rather than up from the parents, teachers, and pupils in a particular school. Some of our larger cities reveal the formalizing and routinizing effects of such an arrangement. A few cities and counties are pointing the way out of these difficulties by releasing individual schools and making it possible for them to plan and administer their own programs in terms of the needs to be met. A desirable measure of co-ordination is, of course, maintained, and services to individual schools are provided by the central office.

The Denver organization described in the preceding section makes the individual school the unit in developing the educational program. This plan permits a maximum of adaptation to a particular community and its children. It enables a school to be organized and to function as a unit in relation to its unique conditional factors and it places responsibility upon the staff of the individual school for developing an effective program. There is, however, a considerable measure of co-ordination and service provided through the central organizations.

Several types of administrative units have been successful in establishing an organization which facilitates the participation of the various groups interested in curriculum improvement. In Wisconsin the State Department of Public Instruction and the Wisconsin Education Association co-operatively initiated a program in September, 1944, which is referred to as the Wisconsin Co-operative Educational Planning Program. Although the state superintendent of public instruction has legal responsibility for preparing a course of study, this is not interpreted to mean that a fixed course of study should be prepared. Instead, the state agency gives leadership and unity to a program which stimulates local initiative in the cities and counties. Emphasis is placed on the exchange of information and experiences among schools, assistance in the clarification of the task of the school, help to local agencies in carrying out the responsibilities of public education, and work with lay organizations in studying educational needs.

While the total Wisconsin program provides for a broad attack on a wide range of educational problems, the work in the curriculum area illustrates the means used for encouraging the individual school or school system to become the major determiner of detailed plans of operation.

There is a central planning group called the curriculum-guiding committee which includes representatives from various types of educational

workers throughout the state that is responsible for the direction of the program. Much of the actual work is carried on with and through (1) local liaison committees, (2) the curriculum staff, and (3) state-wide committees. The local liaison committees are selected by the various cities and counties participating in the program. They serve to co-ordinate state and local activities and to stimulate local effort. The curriculum staff is a large group, mostly staff members from teacher-training institutions who volunteer to serve as consultants for local curriculum study groups. The state-wide committees have responsibility for preparing curriculum guides which may deal with subject areas, with a problem approach to teaching and learning, with intergroup relations, and with various other problems. The emphasis is on developing materials of a resource type which can be used as a basis for planning by an individual teacher. The curriculum guiding committee, as the over-all state committee, has prepared various types of bulletins intended to stimulate local groups to study their own responsibility, to plan with lay citizens, to use available consultant help, or in other ways to take initiative in developing a satisfactory program geared to meet local needs. This, of course, places great demands on the leadership of city and county superintendents and principals in the individual schools.⁸

To regard the individual school as the unit for planning and administering the educational program makes necessary many changes in administrative structure and operation. For example, system-wide supervisory and curriculum services need to be modified to place emphasis on aiding each school to develop its own program. The principal and staff of the individual school must accept greater responsibility for over-all program planning and development in each school. Also, questions of budgeting, expenditures, and selection of new staff members are typical of other areas in which greater participation by the individual school is needed if the curriculum and related pupil services are to be conceived, planned, and administered as a whole.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE CURRICULUM

The curriculum is defined as the experiences which boys and girls have under the direction of the school. Thus, it encompasses the whole educational program. This section will deal with the total body of pupil experiences, and subsequent sections will single out various pupil services for special consideration. This procedure avoids certain difficulties involved in relating many pupil services to the schools' total program.

⁸ Ida A. Ooley, "Growth through In-Service Action," *Educational Leadership*, III (December, 1945), 126-28, 135; Gordon N. Mackenzie, "Organization for Curriculum Planning," *Wisconsin Journal of Education*, LXXVII (December, 1944), 173-76.

As already indicated, administrative functions are planned to serve or to further the educational program. These functions which relate specifically to the curriculum can, therefore, be best described in relation to the type of curriculum contemplated. A series of statements, descriptive of a desirable curriculum, and the means for its development, are herewith presented. A few examples of implications for administration are indicated.

1. *Administration should assist in providing a balanced program of living for boys and girls.* Because of changes in the home and other social institutions, an increasingly heavy responsibility has been placed upon the school to co-ordinate the various forces impinging on boys and girls and to help them achieve a balance of such factors as work, rest, relaxation, stimulation, and nutrition. This task is infinitely more complex than the provision of a program for teaching certain prescribed subjects. Classwork, extra-class activities, and out-of-school pursuits need to be properly related in planning pupil experiences of educational value. This calls for administrative co-ordination and leadership. Administration can do much to help teachers focus attention on the need for providing a balanced program of living. Administrative rules and regulations may force a narrow and unbalanced program on a school or may aid in securing proper consideration for all aspects of pupil growth and learning. Administrative vision is essential for bringing various educational influences into harmonious and reinforcing relationships.

The problem of providing a balanced program for boys and girls has long been the concern of many faculty groups. The school day in some schools has been organized with proper regard for physical and mental health of pupils. Appropriate variety of activity has sometimes been planned with the total welfare in mind. In some situations faculty members devote much time to co-operative planning in order that the whole program may be on a sound basis and that individual pupil cases can be considered to be sure that each is receiving appropriate stimulation as well as adequate rest and relaxation.

Few schools, however, have given full attention to the educative resources of the community and the bringing of school programs into proper relation to them. Some communities have made considerable progress in organizing co-ordinating councils of the various agencies concerned with education and welfare. Frequently, these agencies consciously supplement one another, by exchanging information on pupils and planning co-operatively to provide the best possible service to individuals and the total group.

The parents, teachers, and pupils in Glencoe, Illinois, have made a very unique contribution to the development of a balanced program of

living for their boys and girls. In a little booklet, *Together We Learn*, they have attempted to show "the whys of school for ways at home." Proceeding on the assumption that education should be a partnership between home and school, they have prepared a curriculum guide for parents and used many illustrations from children's drawings. The guide is intended as an aid to the home and the school in providing "learning experiences that are continuous, unified, and rich in meaning and purpose." After an introductory section which makes explicit the way in which the home and school can work together, the various aspects of the school programs are discussed and interpreted, and numerous suggestions made as to potentially valuable relations between in-school and out-of-school activities. The booklet is written so that parents will want to read and re-read it. Undoubtedly a project such as this helps to introduce balance and consistency into the lives of many boys and girls.⁹

2. *Administration should assist in securing a curriculum which will aid children and youth with their needs, interests, and concerns and help them relate these to broader social problems.* Needs are here defined as any basic physiological or mental requirements which should be satisfied, or any social demands which must be met, if the individual is to attain maximum self-realization. Interests are viewed as motivating forces in the life of the pupil. Concerns are those matters about which the individual is bothered or worried. The broader social problems include a wide range of issues which must be resolved if our citizens are to live a full and rich life. In theory, at least, educational programs have accepted a responsibility to both the individual and to society. Actually, schools have had only partial success in relating their programs to the immediate needs and interests of pupils and to the development of a sensitivity for and an ability to deal effectively with the great social problems of our day. Administration has a significant service to perform in furthering progress toward these goals.

A curriculum centering on the needs and interests of pupils requires freedom for teachers to work and plan for individuals, as well as leadership from administration in finding ever better ways of serving children and youth. Administration should continuously stimulate teachers to study the children in their classes, to gain added proficiency in recognizing needs associated with each stage of growth and development, and to utilize learning experiences which are of the greatest potential effectiveness for the outcomes sought. It is important that teachers be able to recognize the wide differences among children and that standards as to learning time, content of the program, and results anticipated be indi-

⁹ *Together We Learn*. Glencoe, Illinois: Board of Education, September, 1942.

vidualized. This argues for flexible marking and promotion systems. Too often an attempt has been made to meet individual differences solely on the basis of administrative adjustments such as ability grouping. The attempt to solve problems of individual differences through administrative arrangements has always proved inadequate. It is now generally recognized that the grouping is a relatively minor matter, which can often be cared for within single classes. The more important and more difficult problem is that of adjusting the curriculum, or selecting learning experiences, in accordance with individual needs.

The present high schools have good examples of administrative approaches to the problem of differences. Multiple programs have been set up, such as college preparatory, commercial, industrial, and general offerings. For each, a series of courses is listed. The supposition is then often made that, by distributing pupils to these programs, their individual differences will be met. In recognition of the inadequacies of such a plan, a constant-with-variables program has frequently been advocated. Under this arrangement certain courses are required or made constant for all pupils, with a range of electives or variables offered in addition. In connection with these programs, guidance has sometimes been regarded as an administrative arrangement for distributing pupils to the appropriate courses. These programs give a semblance of orderliness to planning and operation but are entirely unsatisfactory if used alone. Unless they are supplemented by a modification of the course content, that is, by proper consideration for the experiences that individual pupils have, they fail to meet individual needs. If the problem of individual needs and differences is to be realistically attacked, attention must be centered on what happens in the individual classroom. It would seem, then, that administration might well focus effort on providing leadership to secure appropriate modifications of the curriculum rather than to rely on mere administrative rearrangements.

In connection with the state curriculum program in Wisconsin great emphasis has been placed on studying children as they grow and develop in their school and community. A study guide has been prepared and has received extensive use throughout the state. This state program recognizes the importance of trying to have each of the 20,000 teachers in the state more consciously determine the curriculum in his classroom, and so seeks to aid teachers in studying their own pupils and in developing appropriate programs.¹⁰

¹⁰ *The Task of the School: A Study Guide for Use by Professional and Lay Groups.* Curriculum Guiding Committee, Bulletin No. 1. Madison, Wisconsin: Wisconsin Co-operative Educational Planning Program.

The Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education has recognized the importance of each teacher understanding his pupils and has provided help for both preservice and in-service groups.¹¹ Dr. Daniel A. Prescott, who headed this program, has since been providing leadership to study groups in many sections of the country. In the state of Maryland, for example, numerous groups of teachers are organized to study the children under their direction as a basis for guiding their development.

The problem of meeting individual interests and capacities takes a somewhat different form in elementary as contrasted with secondary schools. Under present arrangements, with one teacher to a class, there is difficulty in offering as wide a range of opportunities as would seem desirable. While the plan of one teacher to a class is essentially sound, it seems important to make possible the use of numerous laboratory situations in the fine, industrial, and home arts so that the variety of learning experiences may be suited to the broadened purposes of the modern school. On the secondary level the elective system is the chief administrative arrangement for meeting individual variations in capacity, interest, and concern. However, the extra-class activities help to serve youth more satisfactorily. Unfortunately, both the elective system and extra-class activities are usually rather formal and mechanical adjustments. They make possible the reaching of a large number of individuals, but by no means assure it. Teachers in the classroom must find ways and means of keeping experiences in harmony with the level of development of individuals. Staff members who really know boys and girls must guide them toward suitable experiences, wherever they may be had. On both the elementary and secondary levels there is an urgent need of more effective means for the discovery of worth-while interests. To help teachers progress in this whole area might well be an important goal of administration.

Administrative arrangements for class groupings frequently make it difficult for teachers to really get to know their pupils. In those elementary schools where class size is reasonable, teachers can become familiar with the backgrounds and ambitions of their pupils, as well as with the out-of-school influences which condition their development. By introducing a wide variety of free and flexible activities into the program of instruction they can come to know their pupils and guide them intelligently. Conditions in the secondary school are usually less favorable. Teachers having five classes with 150 to 200 pupils per day find it impossible to become sufficiently well acquainted to work out plans with

¹¹ Staff of the Division on Child Development and Teacher Personnel, *Helping Teachers Understand Children*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1945.

any considerable number of them in terms of their interests, needs, and concerns. Adding a brief home-room period to a heavy schedule of pupil contacts is not an adequate remedy. Some major reorganization is needed in order that each pupil may be well known by at least one staff member and have an opportunity to work with him for a considerable period of time. The introduction of core courses has been a useful approach to this problem. As another attack, some schools have organized what is referred to as a school within a school so that a team of three to five teachers might carry major responsibility for a specific group of 90 to 150 pupils. Problems in this area are difficult to solve and continuous administrative leadership is needed to secure the proper basic working arrangements and to focus attention on the real problems.

Over a period of years the secondary schools of Denver, Colorado, have experimented with a general education program based on a core or guidance sequence. In the junior high schools a class is under the direction of one teacher for a substantial block of time. In the senior high schools there is a similar arrangement but with considerable variation from school to school. Whatever the plan for instruction, a pupil usually has continuing contact for guidance purposes with one staff member throughout each three-year period. This makes it possible for each pupil to have at least one staff member who knows him well and with whom he is thoroughly acquainted. In addition, there is a co-ordinator in each school with time to aid staff members in co-operatively planning for their groups.

Staff members in East High School in Denver are organized in half-grade committees, such as 10A, 10B, 11A, and 11B. These committees include the general education teachers for the particular grade and other teachers representative of the various subject departments. These committees carry full responsibility for the total school activity of their group and seek to co-ordinate regular instruction, extra-class activities, and special services, such as guidance. Teaching programs are arranged so that members of these half-grade committees can meet on school time during the regular school day. These half-grade committees start with a class one semester before it enters the school and stay with that group until graduation.

Another administrative arrangement, known as the school-within-a-school, makes possible a great variety of adjustments. One of the most fully developed examples of this plan is to be found in the Evanston Township High School.¹² Although this is a somewhat atypical situation, in that a staff group working within the larger school has, for almost ten

¹² Charles M. MacConnell, E. O. Melby, and C. O. Arndt, *New Schools for a New Culture*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1943.

years, guided specially selected groups of pupils, the idea could well be applied to any situation with groups of three to five teachers carrying responsibility for one to two hundred pupils.

Records and reports which are sometimes viewed only as administrative techniques or necessary evils, can, with proper use, serve to help teachers understand their pupils. With stimulation and direction, interest can be created in gathering significant information and studying individual children. The techniques employed in making records, and in providing for their use, may have profound influence on their contribution to an understanding of boys and girls.

The task of aiding children and youth to relate their needs, interests, and concerns to the broader social problems has seldom been well handled by the schools. It is a complicated and difficult matter, demanding breadth of understanding, skilful teaching, and careful guidance of pupils. By helping to maintain a climate favorable for the attainment of desired goals, administration can markedly affect the results secured. If it be accepted that the school should be directed by the society in which it operates, a first and most basic aspect of the problem involves the guidance of pupils toward broad social-value patterns which are in harmony with the democratic way. Only as values are defined and analyzed will pupils develop bases for making decisions involving personal and social affairs. Certainly administration needs to assist teachers in their study of ways of operating more effectively through the instructional program to aid pupils in the clarification of values. This is a difficult responsibility to discharge, but, aside from this, administration can do much to secure relationships within and without the school which will contribute to democratic living. Through the method of operating the school, as well as through the encouragement of full faculty and community participation, an environment can be established which is favorable to growth of democratic behavior and action. For example, extra-class activities can be operated so as to provide opportunity for all. Regulations set up to guide the activity program can be arranged so as not to penalize pupils who could profit from participation. Individual organizations, which are often exceedingly undemocratic in their membership policy and method of operation, can be led to modify their practices. These and similar matters are appropriate objects of administrative concern.

If the curriculum emphasizes broad social questions which are of immediate concern to pupils, certain administrative problems are created. The purpose of giving direct attention to real, live topics and questions is to provide an education which really makes a difference. Schooling is too often limited to relaying knowledge which pupils might

be expected to use in solving problems of living more adequately. In contrast, the position taken here is that children and youth will profit from extensive and continuous experience in analyzing and solving real problems. This necessitates the use of a great variety of instructional materials and learning experiences. Community contacts become essential and so administrative leadership is needed to interpret the basic reason for the program and to aid the whole community in contributing to the education of boys and girls. If real problems are to be considered, some of them will inevitably be controversial. The need for community understanding and support is, then, particularly important.

During the 1944-45 school year pupils at Merrill, Wisconsin, organized a club which sent panels to lead discussions at service clubs and other community meetings. As an outgrowth of their classwork pupils prepared themselves to present subjects such as full employment and reforms needed in education. Citizens participated freely and developed a respect for the pupils' thoroughness and competence. Numerous members of the community obtained new insight into the program of the schools and were in a position to speak directly on the degree of understanding the boys and girls had acquired of the various aspects of the problems presented.

A curriculum which aids children and youth with their needs, interests, and concerns and helps them relate these to social problems probably requires a pattern of organization and administration different from that commonly found in elementary and secondary schools. A strict subject organization appears to be inefficient, if not actually detrimental to focusing on needs and problems. As has already been suggested, it is important to have experiences involving a variety of activities and drawing upon various subject areas. It is necessary to have time to work on individual needs, interests, and concerns or on wider social problems without being limited to any subject field or being restricted by the pressure of other ground to be covered. The experience of schools has revealed the value in relatively long periods of work as two to three hours. This facilitates the introduction of a variety of activities centering around some topic or problem, encourages the use of many kinds of laboratory situations, and even enables class groups or individuals to leave the school building as the conditions indicate this to be wise. Under such a program the basic skills of language, number work, and thinking are very important, and direct instruction is given as needed. Separate subjects, as such, have significance for special interests and skills and continue to receive major attention in any program. In schools totally organized on a subject basis, the development of the broad experiential phase of the instructional program to include a block of uninterrupted time presents

problems in relation to the assignment of staff, the scheduling of classes, the rethinking of the guidance program, and the participation of parents. The experience of schools with such programs has been such as to reveal the practicality of making the administrative arrangements needed.

3. *Administration should foster a curriculum which builds competence in the basic tools and methods of work.* School programs have long included the three R's, but more and more attention is being given other fundamentals such as methods of study, problem-solving, getting on with others, and habits of work. The greatest need for improvement in the teaching of the three R's is that of providing meaningful experience for boys and girls. Too large a portion of pupil time is devoted to barren and somewhat fruitless instruction in reading and arithmetic. Administration can lead the way to more significant effort with economy of time and better outcomes. The teaching of skills in a purposeful setting and the use of improved materials promise more adequate results. In most situations direct and carefully guided teaching will have to supply a wealth of supplementary experiences.

The scope of the so-called fundamentals needs to be broadened. The three R's alone are no longer adequate. The ability to solve problems, to get along with others, and to work effectively are suggestive of new and important objectives of good educational programs. Opportunity for pupils to grapple with day-to-day problem situations under the guidance of teachers who are able to help them improve their skill and techniques will be a necessity. Direct study of human relations, opportunity to work and play with others of various ages, and frequent attention to the skills involved are necessary emphases. Work experience centering in the home, school community, business, industry, or farm can well be an important feature of every program. Progress in these areas will necessitate in-service education of teachers and constant guidance by administration to introduce provision for these learnings. The administrative problems involved in such ventures are numerous, but here administration can provide valuable leadership by revealing how these vital and necessary activities can be conducted as a part of a modern program of education.

4. *Administration should encourage pupil planning and self-direction.* The best schools today are free from rigid disciplinary control and have fewer and fewer teachers who dominate and drive children and youth. The emphasis is upon leading, upon working co-operatively with pupils in planning what they will do or how they will do it, and upon evaluating their progress toward selected goals. Planning is an important part of the educative process and pupils require extensive and continuous opportunities to engage in purposeful planning under guidance, if they are to gain control of the methods of social participation and to learn to plan

habitually with care. In so far as programs are in harmony with the needs, interests, and concerns of the learners, it is only logical and appropriate that the individual pupil should assume considerable responsibility for working out his own plan of action. Where real pupil purposes exist, pupil planning naturally follows.

Pupil participation in planning has other justifications. First, such experiences are fundamental in democratic living. Shared responsibility necessitates a willingness to contribute to group thinking and action, and an understanding of the procedures for co-operative planning increases the individual's personal satisfaction and effectiveness. Second, the use of teacher-pupil planning is an important aspect of a program which seeks to provide for individual differences and needs. Certainly the value of specific experiences varies from individual to individual. Through teacher-pupil planning it is possible to guide individual programs in accord with needs.

In Montgomery County, Maryland, continuous attention has been given to problems of co-operative planning. Within individual classrooms there has been extensive participation by pupils in planning a great variety of special activities as well as what should be studied within certain areas and how individuals and groups should proceed in attacking problems. One middle-grade group has very successfully planned and carried through a project which involved checking erosion and beautifying the school grounds. Planning in another elementary school has become a school-wide activity. Through individual classrooms and the school assembly, children have shown enthusiasm and growing proficiency in planning for the improvement of their school and accepting responsibilities defined by group action.

Teachers require help in developing their ability to share planning responsibilities with pupils, and conditions which are favorable to this aim should be maintained. Administration can facilitate in-service growth in this area. Among other things, it is necessary to have administrative recognition of the importance of planning procedures, as well as specific assistance in the development of techniques and freedom for teachers to follow through on the basis of plans developed. The rigid prescription of subject matter to be taught seriously handicaps the teacher in planning. However, the clear definition of outcomes to be sought and agreement upon a broad outline of areas within which teachers and pupils may plan for specific experiences are desirable kinds of guides. Effective teacher-pupil planning requires that each classroom be a laboratory situation. Books and other materials, appropriate to the level of maturity and the areas of interest in the class, should be readily available. Further, there should be easy access to supplies and materials

not usually kept in the classroom. Furniture arrangements so flexible as to permit much small-group and individual activity are conducive to good planning. There should be a minimum of limitations covering pupil affairs such as groups leaving the classroom or building or individuals going to teachers other than their own or using other resources in the school or community. These suggestions do not imply that a lack of system or order is an aid to pupil planning; nor do they disregard the need for consideration of the maturity level of the learners. Many of the problems of such a program and their implications for administration are quite clear. Difficulties are particularly great where a transition is necessary from a rigid, fully prescribed program dominated by teacher or administrator.

5. *Administration should aid in using the community as a laboratory.* The effectiveness of the educational program in elementary and secondary schools will be very largely influenced by the relation existing between school and community. Meaning and understanding result from using the community and its resources, from seeing problem situations and conditions as they actually exist. In so far as schools become intimately related to the life and environment in which they operate, it becomes possible for them to contribute to the improvement of community living. Through surveying, studying, and analyzing various aspects of community needs and resources, the educational experiences of pupils may be enriched; and through rendering services to a great variety of community enterprises, the schools can become a constructive force in the betterment of community life.

Before any educational program can become closely related to the life of the community it is necessary that citizens understand something of the needs of children and of the ways in which schools and communities can advantageously serve one another. To make progress in this direction, administrative leadership in the systematic and continuous study of community interests and agencies is essential. Interpretations of the possible areas for co-operative school-community activity must be made repeatedly. Participation of adult citizens in planning for school-community co-operation is a basic necessity. A single teacher, or even two or three teachers working alone, can do very little. It is necessary for a faculty to work together under sympathetic and forceful leadership if worth-while results are to be secured.

6. *Administration should be adjusted to the type of curriculum planned.* Desirable features of a modern curriculum as outlined above are sufficiently in contrast with much current practice to necessitate considerable adjustment in administrative viewpoint and procedure. Emerging curriculums present problems and difficulties for administration because

adequate techniques and controls have not been established through experience with such curriculums. There is need for much pioneering in this area.

The foregoing statements, indicating the phases of curriculum development which administration should foster, emphasize the importance of the three basic administrative policies outlined in the first part of the chapter: (1) Administration is an important means for the attainment of effective curriculums. (2) Administrative plans and procedures should be developed co-operatively by the educational staff, the parents, and the pupils. (3) The educational program should be conceived, planned, and administered as a whole.

The importance of these policies is particularly great when the curriculum is of the type herein suggested. As the emphasis shifts from teaching subject matter to guiding boys and girls toward the development of desirable kinds of behavior, the need for co-operative effort in planning and executing a unified educational program is increased. All must be willing to modify personal interests and pleasures and work together in serving each child or youth.

The discussion thus far indicates that administration is regarded as having a broader function than that involved in the organization and management of a school. These are essential, but leadership is also important. Especially within the individual school, where the curriculum is finally determined, administration has a vitally necessary directing or guiding function. This can be exercised best through curriculum study, supervision, or in-service education. The following section will indicate the kind of in-service program through which it is believed administration can function best.

ADMINISTRATION OF IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

In characterizing the modern curriculum, continuous reference has been made to the need for teachers to study their pupils as well as the problems of teaching and learning with which they are confronted. The role of the administrator as a stimulator and guide, rather than as a mere manager or trouble-shooter, was stressed. Whether the function of administration is referred to as being one of in-service education or of curriculum development does not seem important. The essential consideration is that problems in this area should be attacked through methods which are in harmony with the kind of curriculum desired and with sound principles of learning. In this case, teachers, administrators, and other specialized workers are the learners, and only in so far as they modify their behavior can the appropriate changes be made in the edu-

cational program. Curriculum development, as is the case with in-service education, is fundamentally a problem of changing the people concerned. It is not, basically, a matter of writing courses of study. Approaching the subject on the basis of these assumptions, several guides for administration seem to be pertinent.

1. *In-service education should focus directly on the improvement of pupil learning experiences.* Time is often wasted by centering the effort and attention of in-service education programs on some aspect of teaching without any assurance of favorable influence on the learning of pupils. All too often energy is expended to secure a general improvement of teachers through inspection, appraisal, and counsel by the administrator or supervisor. In this process the relationship between specific teaching acts and particular learning outcomes remains somewhat uncertain, and teacher enthusiasm for self-improvement is only slightly motivated by the thought that someday it may be of value. If, however, attention is centered on pupil learning experiences and ways of improving them, it is possible to secure an eagerness on the part of teachers which is certain to result in professional growth and a desirable modification of behavior. It is important that teachers have a purpose which they wish to achieve. Improvement will then come from getting a better conception of the kind of pupil learning experiences needed and from the effort to find better means of providing them.

In Santa Barbara County, California, supervisors in co-operation with teachers have organized field trips to study, first-hand, important aspects of the natural environment or of local industries. Such excursions have been voluntary and were usually under the direction of expert leadership. In many cases guides and suggestions were prepared by teachers or the county office after the visit, for anyone wishing to take pupil groups through the same experience. These trips and the resulting guides enabled teachers to conduct similar tours with their own students on a much higher level of effectiveness than if they had not previously made their own carefully planned investigation.

In Denver, Colorado, teachers have been studying the health interests and concerns of their pupils and otherwise seeking to improve their instructional program. As they have worked during the 1945-46 school year they have come to see the need for more information and understanding in the health area. They have requested assistance, and seminars have been established to enable them to better handle the teaching problems they are encountering. This type of direct attention to improving the learning opportunities of boys and girls, given at a time when it is recognized as being needed, has promise of materially improving the effectiveness of instruction.

2. *Programs of in-service education should be products of co-operative staff activity.* Many efforts at in-service education have failed because they were planned by administrators or supervisors to achieve some improved educational program or procedure which they alone could visualize. Lack of success in such instances has not always been a result of presenting proposals that were unsound. Some efforts have resulted in failure because teachers did not recognize the need implied in the recommendation and hence did not accept wholeheartedly the suggested plan of action. The conclusion should not be drawn that administrative stimulation is undesirable. In most schools there is urgent need for leadership from a supervisor, administrator, or faculty group in bringing problems to the attention of the entire staff and in initiating activity. However, the actual work undertaken by individuals or by the group should be that which seems significant to them. The process by which an in-service program can be built is similar to that of teacher-pupil planning in which, after an initial and carefully developed interpretation of problems or issues by individuals or a committee, members of the group list interests that may become the center of attention for one or more participants. This is followed by the co-operative planning of a program for working on the various issues enumerated by the group. It is important that all staff members, regardless of position, work together as friends with a mutual regard for one another. Those with administrative or other leadership responsibilities should provide conditions under which a staff can define its problems co-operatively, develop plans, and work out a program of action. Real education in service can be expected to result from such efforts.

3. *Programs of in-service education should be flexible and should include many varied activities.* In-service education, such as is sometimes synonymous with faculty meetings, is frequently in bad repute. Reorganization is necessary to make possible a sufficient variety of activities to meet individual needs and to contribute to the attainment of many different purposes. Trips, excursions, workshops, individual projects in arts or science laboratories, and research in preparing resource units are but a few of the possible and desirable learning opportunities. There are many purposes which may be served by in-service programs. Some members of the staff may wish to re-examine the definition of their job or may desire help in clarifying the purposes of the educational program. Others may want assistance in studying the community or in meeting and working with citizens. Some may seek help in evaluating outcomes of instruction. A few may find it profitable to prepare resource units. It is exceedingly important that there be opportunity to work on the specifics. Too many programs have been limited to the discussion of theoretical questions.

The illustrations cited above which relate to the use of field trips in Santa Barbara County and the provision of health seminars in Denver suggest means for giving direct help to teachers.

In many situations in-service education has been regarded narrowly as a total group effort in which all staff members contribute to the same general project. If recognition is to be given to individual interests and needs, and if each person is to work at tasks which are significant to him, and on which he can make a contribution, considerable variation must be provided within any one program. Undoubtedly, desirable intra-group stimulation results from co-operative work on a common enterprise, and provision should be made for such opportunities. In small schools it may be necessary to relate most individual projects to some over-all program in order to get sufficient interaction and co-operation. In larger faculties, however, many small groups may be established. Also, there can well be many individual projects where sufficient motivation and self-direction are present.

At Tuskegee Institute in Alabama there are four laboratory schools participating in the teacher-education program; one is located on the campus, three are rural schools. Because all schools are small, staff members seem particularly anxious to work as a total group. In spite of travel difficulties, staff members assemble at a central location approximately once a month for an afternoon and evening work session. A workshop in the early summer has been an additional means which has been used to further work on their common problems. During the 1945-46 school year a careful analysis of major problems was made and three areas or groupings of problems were selected for intensive work. These were designated as (1) guidance and instruction, (2) health and recreation, and (3) economic conditions in the community served by the school. Each staff member is working in one of these areas and it so happens that teachers from a single school are well distributed with respect to the three groups. The development of this organization through discussion, the provision for flexibility in terms of group interests, and the pooling of efforts among staff members in small schools result in a commendable plan of organization for the problems being attacked in this type of situation.

In-service education sometimes has been centered entirely on a study of the philosophy of education; at other times it has dealt with the mechanics of school operation as though it were appropriate to consider operation apart from the purposes of the school or from the life of the community. Balance is needed. Staff groups not only should contact the professional materials in the basic areas of child development, learning, educational sociology, and philosophy but also should become familiar with the current social ideas and the traditional values which have

operated in the evolution of our culture. An acquaintance with such sources will help immeasurably in securing a vision of the possibilities of education in the years ahead.

It is quite uncommon for in-service education to involve participation on the part of children, youth, and the adults of the community. It is regarded more often as a bookish activity involving only the professional staff. Proposals already made indicate the need for going outside the school and encompassing a wide variety of projects. Many problems relating to the purposes and methods of schooling cannot be adequately handled unless lay citizens and pupils are brought into the deliberations and planning. The maintenance of channels for the continuous interchange of opinions and points of view among the professional staff, children and youth, and the adults of the community will do much to keep in-service programs focused on significant aims and problems.

The group working on "economic conditions in the community," in the Tuskegee program, is concerned with discovering ways and means of improving living conditions in the school community. Immediate problems of housing and nutrition, as well as the long-term economic conditions, are being studied to determine the ways in which the school can contribute most effectively. Effort is being concentrated in one rural district for the present. Representatives from various departments at Tuskegee Institute, as well as parents and children, are analyzing current conditions and possible solutions. Immediate attention is being given to the building of a new school through the co-operation of the Institute staff, the parents, and the children. Materials and methods will be used which it is hoped will lead to a reconstruction of homes in the community.

This kind of in-service program deals in a realistic way with the problems teachers encounter in developing a school program which serves major community needs. The close co-operation of parents and children almost assures that attention will center on real and urgent questions.

In-service education should result in improved practice. Frequently it has been limited to study and deliberation. Administration has an important responsibility to encourage the trial of carefully developed plans and to give support through the uncertain periods likely to accompany experimentation with new approaches. Without this encouragement, little significant change is likely to be made in school programs. Unless a staff has opportunity to carry deliberative study through to action, enthusiasm will not long be maintained. As has been suggested earlier, many changes are needed in school programs, and modification of prac-

tice should be regarded as a significant means of in-service education as well as a logical outcome.

In-service programs should have a quality of flexibility. In-service plans are sometimes outlined a year or more in advance and followed in detail, almost regardless of intervening events. If programs are to be established on a co-operative basis, in terms of individual interests and needs, it should be possible to make changes speedily in any manner that individual or group judgment may deem to be desirable. It should be possible to establish new groups easily and to abandon nonproductive activities promptly.

The focus of the above illustrations on professional problems is not an indication that the personal development of the staff member should be disregarded. The general education of the teacher is highly important. The person who is to provide leadership in a modern school should have many interests. Thus, general reading, participation in civic and cultural activities, as well as travel and other broadening experiences, can well be regarded as significant elements of in-service education and should be encouraged and fostered by the administration.

4. *Programs of in-service education should be included within the regular school program.* Usually in-service activities have been conducted on after-school time when staff members have already devoted a full day to tiring activities. Any measure as important for the improvement of education as is the in-service education program deserves time definitely scheduled as part of the regular day and year. Potential values in improved teachers and more effective educational programs justify the expenditure of sufficient funds to make this possible. In many communities the public may need to be educated to the importance of in-service education, but administration should not find this particularly difficult in view of the overwhelming evidence which can be presented. Teachers may well carry many in-service activities on their own time, but scheduled provision should be made for the major program of in-service activity as a regular part of the school day.

Several plans for doing this are becoming increasingly common: (1) scheduling staff meetings for a period of several days before the opening or at the close of the school year; (2) using workshops conducted by a teacher-training institution or by the school system itself; (3) scheduling staff meetings during the regular day, either by assembling teachers who are not working with children at a particular time or by dismissing children from school; (4) employing substitute teachers to free staff members for work on special projects involving occasional meetings or continuous work over a period of weeks; (5) employing teachers on a twelve-months' basis with a portion of the year given to in-service education. These pro-

posals are merely suggestive. Other means have been found by different schools to give appropriate time to this important phase of the educational enterprise. Administration has, of course, a major responsibility for making arrangements for such procedures as have been suggested.

5. *In-service education should be recognized as an integral part of the total school program.* Sometimes the assumption is made that in-service education can take place in isolation from the various conditions within the school. This is, of course, impossible. It is difficult to imagine the existence of an eagerly accepted in-service program where morale is low or where there is general faculty dissatisfaction. Conversely, the potential beneficial influences of in-service activity on morale should not be overlooked. If properly handled, it may be a constructive force. If the program is the creation of an enthusiastic staff, it will most certainly build morale.

There are other attendant circumstances which are of significant import in producing effective in-service education. Probably the most vital single factor is administrative support and leadership. This is a major concern not only in launching and sustaining a program but also in making sure that results of staff action find an outlet in school practices. Often the success of faculty efforts is dependent on physical facilities, instructional supplies and materials, administrative arrangements for handling pupils, or the co-ordination of the activities of all functionaries. Administration can help the staff to proceed with full knowledge of possible obstacles and can aid individual teachers by giving them every possible opportunity to observe progress and success.

6. *The responsibility of administration for in-service education and curriculum development should be clearly defined.* While the organization and management responsibilities of administration are well recognized, its leadership role in maintaining and improving the educational program is not as clearly recognized. Yet, the extent to which the schools achieve their purpose is almost entirely a matter of the kind of curriculum they provide. Administration at all levels, but particularly in the individual school, will need to assume greater responsibility in curriculum development if substantial improvements are to be made.

It is common to find administrators critical of teachers and teachers critical of administrators when educators seek to explain many of the inadequacies and failures of present educational procedures. Too often curriculum modification is regarded as merely a matter of writing or revising a course of study. Certainly this is not adequate. There is urgent need for a program of in-service education and curriculum development which enlists the full participation and co-operation of the entire professional staff and which leads to modifications in the behavior of school

personnel. The fostering of such programs as will be truly effective is one of the most challenging tasks facing educational administration in the next decade.

ADMINISTRATION OF PUPIL SERVICES

In an earlier section the curriculum was defined as the experiences which boys and girls have under the direction of the school. Thus, the curriculum was conceived of as being the total educational program. In describing the responsibility of administration in relation to the curriculum, attention was given to the full range of experiences which pupils have through the classroom, the extra-class activities, and other pupil services. Because of the complexity of the organization of many schools and the distinctive educational contribution of various special pupil services, some of these will be singled out for separate treatment in this section in order that examples of administrative problems can be noted.

1. *Extra-class activities should be planned as a part of the total educational program.* This suggestion was made earlier in characterizing the modern curriculum but deserves special attention because of its frequent negation. There is no rigid line of demarcation between regular-class and extra-class activities, the manner of classification for the same activities varying from school to school. Yet, there is a series of activities, such as student councils, class organizations, homerooms, honor societies, and special interest clubs, which usually operate outside of the required class-work for which credit is given. The "extra" character of these activities frequently means that they are not given careful attention when staff assignments are made and that the planning for them is most haphazard.

Experience with these activities, on both the elementary and the secondary levels, has revealed their great potential educational significance. They may improve and enrich the educational program or detract from its effectiveness. Where extra-class activities are not well supervised and planned they may contribute to behavior which is out of harmony with the aims of the school. Frequently, on the secondary level, they foster a form of undemocratic social behavior which is contrary to the teaching objectives of regular classes. It is important, therefore, for administration to work continuously with teachers and pupils to so conduct extra-class activities that they further, in a positive and direct manner, the purposes of the school. These activities are particularly valuable in broadening the curriculum, thus helping to meet special needs and interests and to develop special abilities. In addition they can provide much opportunity for practice in citizenship. When properly organized, they go far in affording relatively unsupervised situations in which the pupil can test his accomplishments. Continuous guidance of

the extra-class program is essential to insure primary consideration for pupil interest and welfare and to place greater responsibility on boys and girls without removing desirable adult supervision. Effectiveness in working with extra-class programs should be one important indication of the success of the teaching personnel. Careful and continuous guidance and co-operative leadership from both the teaching staff and the administration are essential to the success of these activities.

2. *Evaluation of pupil development should be based on the progress of the individual toward goals which are suitable to him.* In an earlier section consideration was given to some of the administrative means, such as grouping of pupils and course-of-study provisions, which have been used to adjust the school organization to pupil needs. A general dissatisfaction was expressed with most efforts to provide for normal individuals through administrative arrangements alone. The possible contribution of administrative leadership in relation to curriculum development was stressed. Administration definitely influences the adaptation of the school to individual needs and interests at many other points. One of the most important areas of administrative responsibility is the evaluation of pupil development. Policies with respect to promotion, for example, are usually school-wide and thus control the actions of individual teachers. Semi-annual promotions, which were instituted under a subject-matter-to-be-learned concept of the curriculum, are still maintained in many schools. One hundred per cent promotions have become the policy in some schools without careful consideration of the needs of individuals and without appropriate modifications in the curriculum and in the instructional procedures. Fixed promotion standards have generally been abolished, but standards based on an adequate assessment of the progress of the individual toward goals which are appropriate for him have not been widely established. Marking systems are seldom well related to the stated purposes of the educational program. Tests and other evaluation devices are often used on a school-wide basis in such a way as to encourage adherence to a single standard encompassing a narrow range of skills as the goal for all pupils. The seriousness and complexity of these problems should encourage faculty groups to give them their continuous and serious attention. The kind of curriculum or educational program provided may be fundamentally conditioned by the over-all administrative policies and practices regarding the evaluation of pupil development.

Solutions in this area are not easy to find. While much can be accomplished by a clarification of rules and regulations, continuous participation of faculty groups in the study of this problem and in the perfecting of techniques for meeting the situation will always be needed. Pupils change and faculty groups shift from time to time. The establishment of

goals suitable to each individual is a difficult process. Yet, true education for the general and all-round progress of boys and girls, education which will help each attain his maximum self-realization, will of necessity be realized in terms of individual rather than of fixed or standard goals. Evaluation of progress, if cast in any other framework, may upset the whole program.

3. *Guidance should be regarded as an integral part of the instructional program.* In an earlier section outlining the desirable curriculum, guidance was viewed as an inseparable aspect of the total educational process. Because this frequently is not the case in practice and because the possibility of achieving this goal is so dependent on administrative arrangements, there is justification for special consideration of the problem.

Guidance is a term used to describe that phase of the educational program which places emphasis on helping individuals to determine their needs, to discover their capabilities, to develop purposes, and to work out plans of action. Obviously, this is a central goal in the kind of education described in this chapter. It cannot be achieved by a single counselor or other specialized guidance worker who is responsible for a large number, possibly 200 to 500 pupils. The task is sufficiently complex to necessitate continuous contact over a relatively long period between a teacher and a pupil who know one another well. Viewing guidance as a separate supplementary service is a logical result of a rigid, prescribed course of study which does not give adequate recognition to individual differences among children and youth. For example, the establishment of the homeroom as a means of guidance, apart from the regular instructional program, can be viewed largely as a reaction against a nonfunctional curriculum. Too often the homeroom is organized by the administration, and the teachers responsible for it have little understanding of its relation to the purposes or techniques of guidance.

If guidance is to be effective, it must be part of the instructional program. To this end, teachers must be secured who are sympathetic to the idea and who have the necessary skills. In view of existing programs of preservice and in-service education, it is reasonable to assume that satisfactory teachers can be obtained. It is imperative also to have a plan of organization and administrative arrangements such that teachers can really come to know and understand their pupils. Competent administrative leadership is required to develop arrangements which will permit at least one teacher to really know each student and be associated with him in a considerable range of activities. In the elementary school, if classes are kept to a moderate size, this does not present a particularly difficult problem. In the secondary school, however, with the teacher meeting 150 to 200 different pupils per day, some definite adjustment is needed. As

previously noted, the organization of core programs, which center around problems significant to boys and girls and which enable one teacher to work with a group for two or three hours a day, gives considerable promise of being an improvement over the usual pupil-teacher relationships. To help teachers carry their guidance responsibility effectively and to provide adequately for all pupils, specialists, such as counselors, psychologists, psychiatrists, and vocational experts, are needed. Their role and responsibility will be indicated in the following section.

4. *Special services should be provided to meet the unique needs of pupils and to supplement the competencies of teachers.* One important task of administration is that of co-ordinating the services of various functionaries and making certain that pupil needs are adequately met. There are many areas in which teachers do not have sufficient competence to provide a satisfactory program. In such situations specialized assistance is required. Some of these problems arise because certain pupils cannot be successfully handled in regular classes, thus making special provision necessary.

Specialized guidance services are required to deal adequately with the full range of pupil needs and to supplement the kinds of assistance which teachers can give through the regular instructional program. The analysis of potential pupil capabilities frequently demands more expert testing and psychological service than the classroom teacher is able to give. A single area, such as vocational orientation and placement, calls for special training and continuous concentration of attention to collect essential data and guidance materials.

In like manner doctors are needed for health examinations and consultation on special problems. Even if the individual pupil be viewed from the limited standpoint of progress in school work, there are frequently cases where medical advice is important for an adequate diagnosis of pupil difficulties and the provision of appropriate remedial procedures. When schools seek to provide a balanced program of living for all pupils, the value of specialized medical assistance is even greater. There are other areas where the necessity for special help is very clear. Corrective physical exercises, speech correction, and certain severe reading difficulties can be handled effectively only by those with specialized training and competence.

Special classes should be organized for certain types of exceptional children. For the marked deviates, special education in residential schools under state or county auspices may be necessary and some home teachers may be required. For many others, partially or completely segregated classes under local educational authorities may be satisfactory. There are several categories of exceptional children, such as the blind and partially seeing, the deaf and hard of hearing, the mentally

deficient, the socially maladjusted, and the crippled. In many school situations there are inadequate provisions for these groups with the result that their abilities are not fully developed and they do not become competent to exercise maximum self care. There is considerable acceptance of the belief that these deviates should not be segregated to any greater degree than necessary. However, their welfare, as well as that of normal children associated with them, must be safeguarded at all times. Major problems for administration center in determining the extent and type of segregation which is desirable, defining the kind of education which is appropriate and feasible for various groups, selecting pupils who will profit from instruction in special classes, selecting specially trained teachers, providing transportation and exceptional facilities where needed, co-ordinating the services of public and private welfare agencies, and administering and supervising the special programs. Unfortunately, specialized services of the kind here suggested have not been well developed, with the result that many handicapped children and youth do not have adequate educational opportunities. The problem of providing well-rounded education for all the children of all the people will demand creative administrative leadership.

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CHAPTER IV

ORGANIZING THE PERSONNEL OF A DEMOCRATIC SCHOOL SYSTEM

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The purposes of education are as many and conflicting as are the purposes of the various ideologies and social systems which man has invented. They may center around the development of unquestioning followers, around raising the level of competence of individuals, around allegiance to a religious organization, or around any of countless other ideas or ideals. The school, as an institution, is set up by any given society in order that the education which conforms with its mores will take place.

The school, as an institution, has but one purpose—that of facilitating learning. Whatever may be the ends toward which the supporting society directs the activity of an individual school or a system of schools, the attempt to reach these recognized goals is designed to insure that the young people who attend school learn to do what is expected of them. The schools of Nazi Germany facilitated the learning of devotion to the fuehrer, of hatred of Jews, and of faith in the destiny of the master race. The schools of Japan inculcated the learning of emperor-worship, of the sublimation of the state, of the inferiority of women, and of the greatness of the Japanese. The schools of the United States have as their fundamental social aim the learning of belief in the importance of the individual, of faith in democracy, and of the principles of justice for all. The ends of these programs of education differ as the philosophies supporting the societies which direct them differ. An educational system does not proclaim or support an ideology alien to its community. It bends its efforts toward the learning of those understandings, skills, and attitudes which are approved by the culture of which it is a part. Its energies and sciences are directed toward improving the qualities of that learning. That is its constant and only purpose as an institution. Its success is measured by the degree to which that learning is acquired.

The purposes of the program of education which the United States as a democratic society sponsors and encourages are many and complex,

and, because democracy itself is a somewhat amorphous concept, rather vaguely defined. Special interests, minorities, organized groups, and the like, put forth their particular purposes and claim universality for them, producing a welter of conflicting objectives which is characteristic of democratic living. It is doubtful, therefore, that any statement of the purposes of education can be made to which large numbers of persons would not find some objection, unless the concept was couched in such broad generalities as to be practically useless for specific guidance. It is axiomatic that the larger the population considered, the lower the level of the ideas which all persons accept.

Therefore, in considering the purposes of education, it might be wiser to refrain from such generalizations and confine ourselves to particularizations on which we can find agreement. Instead of defining democracy itself, we can set up the aims of education in terms of those behaviors of persons which are believed to be best in a democratic society. Such a list has been prepared by a group of teachers after careful study and research.¹ This list reads as follows:

1. They respect the individual personality.
2. They consider the rights of others.
3. They co-operate with others.
4. They use their talents for both individual and social profit.
5. They discover and accept their own inadequacies and improve upon them if possible.
6. They lead or follow according to their abilities for the benefit of the group.
7. They assume responsibilities inherent in the freedom of a democracy.
8. They solve their problems by thinking them through rather than by resorting to force and emotions.
9. They govern themselves for the common good.
10. They accept the rule of the majority while respecting the rights of the minority.
11. They are tolerant.
12. They think, speak, and act freely, with due regard for the rights of others.
13. They adapt themselves to changing conditions in a democracy, for individual and common good.
14. They are constantly seeking to achieve the most effective democratic way of living.
15. They seek by their own example to lead other persons to live democratically.

If each new generation is to acquire these modes of behavior in a democracy, they must be learned. They are not an American birthright which comes to fruition merely by breathing American air. They must be acquired by the individual precisely as arithmetic is acquired, or as the

¹ Willard B. Spalding and William C. Kvaraceus, "What Do We Mean by Democracy?" *American School Board Journal*, CVIII (February, 1944), 50.

ability to play football is acquired. The facilitation of such learning is the purpose of the school. "Learning" in this discussion is used to mean both a product and the process by which the product is secured. One speaks of the "learnings" or bodies of knowledges and skills which the person will get from his schooling. One uses the same term to express the activity by which people acquire them, as learning arithmetic, language, and the like. Whatever the subject or skill or activity may be, learning, as product, simmers down to new ways of behaving or modifications of old ways of behaving. Every usable fact or generalization or skill is a function of behavior. Learning, as process, is made up of the observable behavior of the individual while doing the things which produce these new ways of behaving or modifications of old ways of behaving.

What is this "observable behavior" which we call learning and how does it operate? The process of learning may be broken down into a series of basic components. These include (1) an individual who is (2) motivated (i.e., feels the need for achieving satisfaction). He is prevented by (3) a problem-situation from reaching (4) the goal. He carries on (5) excess and varied behavior (unsatisfactory efforts at finding a solution) until finally (6) a response is successful in reaching the goal and in (7) reducing the motivation (easing the original tension). As he is confronted by similar problem-situations the successful response occurs after a diminishing number of unsatisfactory responses, until it finally occurs without any. This response may then be said to have been learned. The individual can now behave in a more competent manner. The accompanying diagrams indicate this process.²

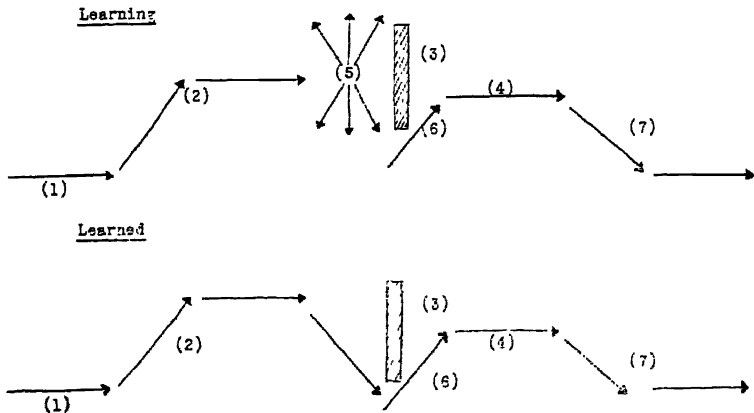
This is the basic method by which learning, any learning, takes place. It is the process by which American citizens learn to live in a democracy just as it is the method by which the American citizen learns to repair an automobile or solve a problem in algebra. In our society, learning to be democratic is more important than any other kind of learning, and the process in the one should be just as much in accord with the findings of psychology as the process in other learning situations.

Any proposal for the improvement of schools in the United States of America, and this involves the personnel working in them, should meet both sets of criteria. It should result in the development of persons, both teachers and students, who will behave in accordance with the purposes of education in a democracy. It should facilitate learning by being in accord with the process by which man learns. If it does not, the best intentions in the world will be of no avail. These sets of criteria will be used

² Cf. "Learning," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, p. 668. Edited by Walter S. Monroe. New York: Macmillan Co., 1941.

as guides to proposals discussed here for the organization of the personnel of school systems toward greater efficiency.

School people are expected by the community which employs them to be diligent seekers after ways of improvement, and rightly so, because that is a universal phenomenon in the American milieu. The dynamics of social interaction in this country results in the continuous upward pushing of many persons, making citizens of the United States more mobile socially than are those in other nations. It also makes them more eager to discover new and better ways of becoming successful in industry and business, so they may reach a higher status. The constant movement of individuals from one social class to another produces pressures by these



individuals upon the social agencies which they have created so that they, too, develop the urge to become mobile and to improve. This is as true of the public schools as of other social agencies. The difficulty lies in the fact that lay ideas of what constitutes real improvement in education are vague and often unreal. Public desire to have schools in the home community better, at least in reputation, than those in neighboring communities is definite and real. How they may become better in fact, as well as in name, is not so clear in the lay mind. Often it is no clearer in the professional mind. Most persons who are employed in public schools are sincerely devoted to children and strive earnestly to help them, but their ideas are often as vague and unreal as are those of the public, when they seek to invent or to discover definite ways of improving the result. They have high ideals, worthy intentions, and great purposes, but they have made slight progress toward attaining the goals which both they and their patrons have set up for American education.

Farnsworth³ has shown that the lag between the existence of a need and the time when the first school does anything about meeting it is about fifty years. Much of this lag is due to the complicated nature of the school, of society, and of the human organisms with which the school deals. Much of it, however, is due to reluctance on the part of the personnel in the schools to seek actively for new ways of doing things and to adopt them when such are discovered.

Improvement of the schools, desired by laymen and educators alike, and reduction of the time lag between need and adaptation do not depend entirely on methods of organization; or even on the administrative activity of leadership. Where these are effective, the beneficial results which they produce depend on the way in which those who work in the schools are encouraged to learn. Much has been written and more has been said on the importance of leadership. Whenever a new superintendent is employed, the underlying implication is that the change in administrative heads will result in new directives to the staff (a much abused word, "directive"!) which will transform the system from a moribund institution to one of vitality and growth. Very often reorganizations do take place. Supervisors are changed around; new departments are created, and old ones refilled; new curriculums are projected; new policies enunciated. For a time the scene is one of intense activity, but when the smoke clears away we find merely another illustration of the French aphorism, "Plus le change, plus la meme chose." The improvement has only been a superficial one because the activity of the leader has been concentrated on the administrative plane. It has not considered the ways by which individuals learn better modes of behavior.

It is only as the personnel in a school system acquire new ways of doing things, or modify old ways of doing things, that the system itself changes. That means everybody in the employ of the system and not just its administrators. No plan to improve the schools will be successful if it omits provisions for facilitating learning by the persons who work with children. No plan for getting the best out of the personnel in a school system will be successful if it fails to include plans and programs which will encourage them to learn to do their work in better ways. This concern with the process of learning, operative within the whole system, is the first important criterion of efficient organization. Implementing it with democratic procedures will make the learning of better ways desirable, easy of attainment, and productive of success.

³ Philo Taylor Farnsworth, *Adaptation Processes in Public School Systems*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 801. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940.

If schools are to develop persons who will behave democratically, they should be staffed with teachers who are learning to behave in these ways. It has been pointed out that democratic behavior, like any other, must be learned. The individuals who are employed in our schools should acquire these learnings and keep applying them as they work, since only those responses are learned which are practiced successfully. The conditions under which the personnel work and the rewards which may be achieved should be such as will insure that democratic behavior will become satisfying behavior.

BASIC IMPROVEMENTS

City school systems face at least three major problems which need consideration if they seek permanent improvement in operation and result. These problems are: (1) improvement in the methods used by educational and noneducational personnel in their daily work, (2) improvement in the curriculums used by the schools to provide the optimum educational environment for learning, and (3) improvement in the relations between the individuals in various branches of the system and the administrative staff. Each of these problems will be considered in terms of the major criteria—relationship to the laws of learning and the furtherance of democratic living. The same approach should be applied to all other situations which affect the general aim to improve the efficiency of the corps by administrative plan.

The program behind any particular organization of the personnel should always be such as will be most effective in reaching specific objectives. The nature and type of the procedure which is chosen are functions of the purpose toward which the activities of the organized group are directed. Each procedure must conform to the two general criteria which have been mentioned, but each also is likely to be unique in certain respects because of the unique purposes which it is intended to achieve. Each of the three problems to be discussed here in detail is different from its fellows. It is different in the relationship between the persons involved, in the qualities and backgrounds of these persons, and in the nature and component elements of the problem itself. No single plan can meet the varied situations which confront a school system.

Problem 1. Organizing the personnel toward the end of improving the methods used by employees in their work.

If school employees are to use new or modified methods of working, they must acquire the capacity to make these changes through a learning experience. It will not come to them by administrative fiat, or even by a program of exposition and study. The process which they must be led to follow by some plan of organization must be in accord with the way in

which man learns anything. This process, as has been explained above, includes the elements of (1) individuals who (2) through some form of motivation (3) meet a problem-situation, which (4) presents a desired goal, and (5) by excess and varied activity, achieve (6) successful response. These elements are basic aspects of the operation of any plan devised by any administration to improve methods of work in the schools—and they are equally valid whether the prospective learner is a teacher, a janitor, or a child in the kindergarten. Let us examine these elements separately.

a) *The persons.* The persons who should be included in any program directed toward this end are obviously those whose methods are inadequate, obsolete, inefficient, or otherwise unsatisfactory. The people already using the proper techniques may have other qualities which could stand improvement, but, in any plan for modernization of method, attention should be directed to those who need it.

How are these people to be identified? There are several ways. The administrative staff of the school system can examine records of the efficiency of the employees. It can confer with principals of individual schools. It can study the reports of supervisors and confer with them. After securing all of the available information, it selects those persons whose methods of work need improvement. These are the individuals who are to be organized into learning groups or induced to go to some learning center.

Sometimes members of the corps are themselves aware of their need for performing more effectively. This makes the task of selection merely one of guidance. The administrative staff may acquaint them, or groups of them, with its willingness to assist them in acquiring the learning experiences which they need. This it does in a variety of ways—workshops, in-service training courses, experiments within their own classrooms, building projects, etc.

The established policy of the school system, as expressed in rules and regulations, in salary schedule, or in credit increments, may be conducive to continual improvement in the methods of work. The policy acts as a source of motivation and the administrative staff presents specific programs each year which are available to those who respond. Those who select a particular program become the individuals organized for improvement.

The personnel may be members of professional or craft groups which seek, among other things, to improve the skill of the membership "on the job." When this is the case the assistance of the administrative staff is often requested, and the result is the organization of some portion of the corps for an improvement program.

b) *Motivation.* Whatever method is used, that method results eventually in the selection of a group of persons who, for one reason or another, seek to learn how to improve their professional techniques. If these persons are to put maximum effort into this learning, they must become motivated. Most employed individuals are already motivated to a large extent. They feel a critical need of continuous employment with its resultant income. They wish to be successful on the job. They desire to receive the praise and to avoid the reprimand of those to whom they are responsible. They may have some other inner drive, either of their own initiation or because the group with which they are affiliated has certain goals which an improvement plan will bring nearer. Whatever the sources of motivation may be in the case of any individual, the important consideration for the administrator is that the motivation be strong enough to elicit the effort to attain the objective. If it is, the problem of organizing these seekers-after-the-better-way becomes relatively simple.

Even if the selection of persons has been carried on wholly or almost wholly by the administrative staff, many of these motivating factors will still operate. It is true that the affective results of selection by the administrative staff are not always the most desirable ones. Teachers are expected to spend considerable time in meetings when they would prefer to be elsewhere. They are aware of the fact that the administrative staff, by the very act of choosing them, has labelled them as relatively less efficient than their co-workers. The activities which they are expected to carry on in order to become more efficient are in excess of the amount of work which their fellows perform. These and other elements in the situation are such as to produce undesirable attitudes toward the problem and toward the staff.

The problem of motivating these persons should include provisions for allowing them to act aggressively in order to reduce the amount of frustration resulting from the process of selection. Anonymous questionnaires with opportunities for free responses are usable devices toward this end. The Army calls it "griping," and recognizes its value as a safety valve. The selection by the staff of a leader for the group who can sympathize with them in their attitudes, rather than a person against whom these attitudes are directed, is another usable device. If adequate provision is made for aggressive behavior, the undesirable attitude may disappear and other, more favorable, factors prevail.

c) *The problem-situation.* The problem-situation for any group in the area under consideration is some particular improvement in methods of work. This problem-situation should be refined and defined by the group itself. It needs to be stated specifically, often in the form of many sub-

sidary specific statements contributed by the persons who are involved. Examples of such specific statements of problem-situations are as follows:

1. On the nonteaching level:

- How can the floors of gymnasiums be kept in good shape?
- What should be used to wash them?
- How often should they be washed?
- What machines should be used for this purpose?
- How are these machines operated?
- What finish should be used?
- How is it best applied?

2. On the teaching level:

- How should percentage be taught?
- What is the desirable level of maturity at which pupils should begin the study of percentage?
- How is the topic introduced best?
- What kinds of drill are desirable?
- What relations with fractions should be pointed out?
- What relations with decimals should be pointed out?

3. On the administrative level:

- What procedure should be used in requisitioning materials for use in the system?
- Are different forms necessary for books, supplies, and equipment?
- Should maintenance and repair items be requisitioned?
- How should emergencies be handled?
- Who should sign requisitions?
- How should requisitions be routed?

The leader of the group should endeavor to secure as many suggestions for the specific elements in the problem from the group as he can. He should suggest other specific elements as they occur to him. Out of the interaction of all participants will come the best possible definition of the problem-situation.

d) Goal. Goals are closely allied to motivation and motivation to goals. If the goals are sufficiently desirable, and in the case of most employed persons, continuous employment, higher income, greater success on the job, or the praise of the boss are in that category, then the prospect of attaining them produces the motivation which, in turn, leads to better types of behavior—or the effort to acquire them.

Sometimes a particular group may be so professionally enthusiastic that they will find adequate motivation in the mere hope of improving their methods of working. The achievement of efficiency is their goal just as with the artist the creation of abstract beauty may be enough to drive him to almost unending labor. The explanation of the substitution of a problem-situation for a goal involves a psychological discussion

which is too lengthy for the present purpose. When this happens, however, a series of subsidiary problem-situations arises. The selection by the group of some original problem-situation as the goal of their co-operative action is desirable and should be encouraged whenever possible. If the leader is skilled and astute, he can produce this result.

e) *Excess and varied behavior.* After the problem-situation has been defined specifically and in detail by the group, including the leader, the next step to be taken involves a discussion of various avenues leading to a possible solution. The group should be led to suggest the necessary knowledge which must be secured before attempts to solve it can be made and, further, to find out ways in which this knowledge could be secured. In each instance the suggestions made by each one should be listed in detail for the benefit and criticism of all members of the group.

At this point in the proceedings, when lists of what the group needs to know and what the group needs to do are to be prepared, the leader should suggest selection of a secretary, if no member of the group has already done so. Frequently, the suggestion will have arisen earlier. Whenever the occasion arises, this selection, like all others of the same type, should be made in a completely democratic manner.

The leader should keep in mind the two general criteria which were set up at the beginning, namely, that desirable changes in behavior are the consequence of the laws of learning and that a change is desirable only if it advances the cause of democracy. The process of organization which he is using is, on the whole, patterned after the process of learning. His own activity should be subordinated to the activities of the other individuals in his group. He should endeavor to enter into the picture less and less, encourage the growth of competent leadership within the group, and endeavor to allow the democratic process to flourish and become strong. If the group wishes to select a chairman as well as a secretary, he should welcome this action, allow the chairman to accept full responsibility, withdraw into the background as an advisor, and, eventually, find good reasons for being absent from some of the meetings.

When the group has completed its lists of things to know and things to do, it will usually find that it has more suggestions than it can handle as a group. This problem should be solved by the group. The usual and probably the best solution is that of assigning topics, research, interviews, and the like, to persons or to small committees. These may be chosen by the group or may be volunteers. This again is democratic interaction. The participants are solving an important problem-situation and are practicing democratic processes as they do so.

The group should be encouraged to set up time schedules for its own

actions and for those of its committees. These dead lines should be met. If they are not, the group should take steps to correct the matter.

The facts as reported by the subcommittees and by individuals are studied by the group. Tentative solutions are suggested. These are studied, tried out if they show promise, and evaluated. Finally a solution is proposed.

f) *The successful response.* If this final solution does result in better care of the floors of gymnasiums, or in the better teaching of percentage, or in the improvement of procedures in handling requisitions, it is successful in solving the problem-situation. It must also be successful in terms of reaching the goal. It should result in praise from the boss, in favorable recommendation for continuous employment and the resultant income, and (this is especially important) in the feeling of success on the job. The administrative staff should make sure that these evidences of success are attached to the desired responses.

School systems have looked down upon cash rewards as beneath the high standards of the profession of teaching. Such attitudes are entirely unrealistic, for teachers are in no way different from other human beings. Business knows the way in which cash "on the line" acts as a very real evidence of success. It uses cash as a reward for many of the activities and improvements which it wishes its employees to learn. School systems could profit from this example. This will be discussed a little later.

These suggestions for organizing the personnel in order to improve the methods used at work on the job have been presented in some detail in order to show how they parallel the way in which persons learn. During all of the steps by which the completed organizations with their selected officers are established, the democratic behaviors which have been listed on page 54 are being practiced. The employees are co-operating with each other and the leader. They are using their talents for individual and group profit. They are discovering and accepting their own inadequacies while endeavoring to improve them. In short, they are carrying on these activities as important types of *excess and varied behavior* in attempts to solve the *problem-situation*.

If these democratic ways of action are successful, they will become learned and thereafter practiced. The administrative staff should make sure that success does attach to them, unmistakably so. If it does, the result will be a constantly improving person as an employee of the school system. The process may be slow, but unfortunately the human being learns in no other way. It may seem easier and quicker to seek such improvement by just giving an order or by cracking the whip. The cry sometimes comes out of school boards and lay groups for an administrator to get tough. Such people confuse obedience with inner growth. Ad-

ministrative fiat may seem successful, but only on the surface. It takes the educational process to build below the surface.

Problem 2. Organizing the personnel toward the end of improving the curriculums in the school.

Improvement of curriculums is part of the continuous on-going activity of a city school system. Departments to direct this activity exist in all of the larger systems, with an expert professional staff whose duties lie wholly in this area. These departments face particular problems in developing individual curriculums.

It used to be the practice for administrations to issue courses of study written by some member of the staff or by a small group and to impose them on the corps. Such an approach to the problems of curriculum revision is neither democratic nor efficient. It fails to recognize both the nature and the purpose of a modern curriculum. It does not appreciate what must happen inside the teacher, if the new curriculum is to function. It pays no attention to the fact that the teacher must herself learn how to use it, and that means adherence to the learning pattern outlined under problem 1.

The necessity for deciding which among several curriculums should be improved first, which next, and so on, recurs at such frequent intervals that some plan of organization of personnel to be used regularly becomes imperative. Such organizations are labeled curriculum councils, advisory committee to the director of the curriculum, or some similar name. The problem of nomenclature is insignificant. Any name is a good name if the ones who bear it like it.

The persons who serve on this permanent group should be selected by procedures which are in full accord with the democratic purposes of education in our society. The methods for selecting persons given under problem 1, on page 59 ff., are examples of methods which can be used whenever the administrative staff is carrying on this particular activity.

One important addition to all of these methods should be noted in the case of preparing curriculums. The selection is not made *from* or *by* the school personnel alone. It is made *from* and *by* the community, of which this personnel is but a part.

A curriculum is part of the program of education. Among other things it sets up objectives which the school and its inhabitants will seek to reach by experiences, content material, and suggested activities which constitute the body of its text. These objectives state or imply changes in the behavior of pupils which will be evident after they have lived and worked with the new curriculum. Boys and girls will acquire new ways of behaving or modify old ways of behaving, if what is planned results in

action. The ultimate decisions about what is to be learned have never been made by the school alone, even when it has attempted to make them through curriculum councils and the like. These decisions are always made by the society which supports the school. In some particulars the school may educate the community to accept its ideas of what constitutes progress, but it can seldom get too far ahead of it. It is important, therefore, that society should be represented adequately on any council or committee which is making these decisions. Otherwise the school as a public agency may find itself without public support and its leaders may be compelled to seek private support.

The administrative staff should seek to include a representative cross-section of the community in any permanent group which is considering the problem of what curriculums should be changed. Methods for selecting these will be found in the various discussions of lay participation in professional literature. The topic has intrigued all progressive thinkers in the field of education and we may be on the threshold of a new and much stronger tie-up between community and school. The current work-study development in many cities (part employment and part schooling) is essentially a modification of a curriculum. It is also wise to encourage selected students in the schools to be represented in such groups.

The duties of this central committee vary as conditions in various communities may require. In general these duties include:

Decisions as to the order in which curriculums are to be revised.

Selection or assisting in the selection of groups which will work on the improvement of some individual curriculum.

Receiving and evaluating tentative proposals for new curriculums.

Giving final approval to completed curriculums.

Guiding committees in the techniques which should be used in building a new curriculum.

Conferring with teachers and supervisors about desired changes.

Introducing new curriculums to the schools.

Evaluating curriculums while they are in use.

In some school systems these central committees also deal with establishing standards for the books, materials, and supplies which are used in the schools. They may also initiate, guide, and recommend changes in the educational aids themselves.

The committee should decide what officers it needs and should select them. Representatives of the administrative staff or of the curriculum department should hold office only when elected by the group. No person should be chairman of such a committee by virtue of his position within the school system. Domination by a superintendent or his representative is all too easy—and the result is likely to be fatal to the central principle

of training the personnel to be more competent people. The democratic process must be used at all times in all situations if the American way is to be learned by those who serve on such a central committee.

When the permanent central committee has decided that an individual curriculum should be improved, a group should be organized to this end. This group should include personnel of the schools, students in the schools, and persons from the community.

Every one of these groups should be chosen, guided, and set to work in terms of the two criteria which are fundamental to the thesis of this chapter, namely, the laws of learning and the practice of democratic behavior. They should be motivated, should confront a problem situation, should be encouraged to carry on excess and varied behavior, should find responses which reach the goal, and should be made aware of their success through appropriate recognition and reward. The democratic ways of behaving will be learned as they achieve success in the practice of democratic action.

As has been mentioned previously, central committees of this type may have other duties besides the improvement of curriculums. Such duties fall into the following major categories:

- The selection of textbooks and reference books for adoption.
- The selection of equipment for use in schools.
- The development of educational specifications for school plants.
- The development of standard lists of consumable supplies.

If the school system is not too large, these additional duties can be carried on by such a central committee. There is a sufficiently close relationship between curriculums and the educational aids which implement them to warrant this procedure. Even in the largest systems it is probably best to channel all of these duties through a central committee and to have allied with it a subordinate group concerned solely with the construction or revision of curriculums.

In any school system permanent committees or councils should be recognized as part of the official paraphernalia of administrative techniques. Their duties should be defined broadly and generally, rather than narrowly and specifically. They should be established by the action of the board on recommendation of the administrative staff. Such a procedure would give the committee official status and increase the satisfactions which are an important factor in the learning process. Some plan for continuing the committee while changing its membership constantly should be included in the act of the board of education which establishes it.

The establishing of subsidiary committees for particular purposes should be possible at all times without action by the board. The right to

do this should be set forth clearly in the vote which sets up the original committee and in the rules and regulations which govern its action.

In turn the proposals of the committee should be submitted to the board by the superintendent. Opinion as to whether he should possess the authority to veto these proposals is divided. There is general agreement, however, that the authority, if it exists, should be used only upon rare and infrequent occasions.

Problem 3. Organizing the personnel toward better relationship with the administrative staff.

a) *The principle of collective bargaining.* School systems throughout the country have not kept abreast of the progress which has been made in methods of collective bargaining in business and industry. A revolution of major proportions is taking place in this field, the implications of which are of great importance in any area where employee-management relationships exist.

The relationships between employees and management are best when each group understands its duties, its rights, and its responsibilities and is conscientiously endeavoring to act in accordance with them. In many areas there appear to be conflicting interests between workers and those who oversee their work. In industry these conflicts are usually resolved by continuous effort to seek agreement. This can happen because the employees are organized strongly and can bargain collectively. When joint efforts to reach agreement fail, some provision is made to settle the dispute by arbitration.

In school systems the personnel which correspond to the worker group in industry are not as a rule well organized. They do not usually bargain collectively because they do not feel themselves strong enough to demand that right. The administrative staffs of some school systems oppose the establishment of any stronger, more universal type of organization; or, if they do encourage it, develop plans of organization which resemble closely the company union in the industrial field. Such organizations do not help their members to learn how to accept responsibility democratically. The administration deals continually with individuals rather than with organizations, which tends to prevent the organizations from becoming strong. When areas of conflict are generated, we find that teachers have no sense of unity; and, when agreements are made, it frequently appears that they have not learned to accept the responsibility of utilizing them to the fullest extent.

Much of the weakness found in organizations of employees, and particularly in those which are made up of teachers, centers around the curiously unrelated ideas which are called "professional." Because teach-

ing is so labeled, teachers are expected to accept extra duties without extra pay, such as coaching, serving on curriculum committees, attending faculty meetings, acting as sponsors of extra-curriculum activities, and the many tasks which are over and above the duties of the classroom. Because teachers are members of a profession, they are supposed to seek better pay and better working conditions only by making polite representations to the administrative staff and through them to the board, rather than by simple and direct request to the employing group for these betterments because they have a basic and demonstrable right to them. Because schools are operated to help boys and girls for the public good, the teachers who work in these schools are continually reminded of the fact that children come first and that it is unprofessional to do anything which might be interpreted as meaning anything else. These ideas are hokum of the rankest kind. Teachers are skilled employees working in the public interest. So are the electricians and engineers on the public payroll. What is true of one is just as true of the other.

The persistence of this moralizing has been one of the greatest factors in the continuance of low-level standards of pay and tenure imposed upon teachers by the employing public. The issue needs to be clarified. Even from the standpoint of the moralizers, the argument of subordinating the teacher's welfare to the asserted interests of the child is none too valid. Overworked and underpaid persons cannot render the type of service which the youth of this country need. The public interest is not served best by teachers or other school workers who are discouraged whenever they make feeble attempts to better their lot by organized effort. The extra duties which fall continually on teachers are not carried out efficiently when they result in no other reward to the teachers than increased fatigue and frustration. Schools will become better, boys and girls will be served better, when the label of "unprofessional" is removed from organized or individual attempts to improve the teacher's living and working conditions.

Many of the arguments which are presented to defend the many inequities and injustices which exist are similar to those which industrialists used in the last century in order to justify low pay, long hours, and bad working conditions. Their contention that any change would be harmful to the public interest has been refuted by the results of better pay, better working conditions, and shorter hours. Production has been increased and the prosperity of the country has grown until now the same industrialists boast of America as a country with the highest standards of living in the world. These gains have resulted from decades of effort by organized employees. The same gains could be made in education by the same forces.

It is true that in many ways education is a profession and, as such, has its professional problems. These can be solved only as all members of the profession work together to solve them. Organizations whose activities are directed toward these ends should be open to all persons who work in school systems or in schools. But not all problems confronting the teacher are on the plane of educational science. Some of them affect the teacher as a worker and an employee. Organizations which are created by teachers as working employees seeking to better the pay, the hours, and the working conditions of their members should be open only to teachers. Management, the administrative staff of the schools, has no place in such groups.

The existence of strongly organized, vigorously active organizations of teachers, of custodians, of clerical employees, and the like, is a fundamental prerequisite of any sound program for the improvement of morale, for the redress of grievances, or for the bettering of any other aspect of employee-management relations. For that reason the administrative staff should encourage their growth not only for the sake of the individuals but also as an essential part of the improvement of the school system.

In setting up the *modus operandi* of collective bargaining, the teachers, custodians, secretaries, and other similar groups should each be expected to select one organization, if they belong to several, to represent them in collective bargaining. The selection of a single organization is necessary because the administrative staff cannot expect all the employees of any one type to be bound by several agencies. If there is any question as to the proper bargaining agent for any group, all the workers in a given category may petition for an election to determine the agency they wish to represent them. If none receives a majority of the votes, then a run-off election between the two receiving the largest number of votes should be held. The organization finally receiving the majority of votes is the recognized agent in bargaining until the next election is held. This is done only after a specified period of time when another petition is received. If no request is made for a new agent, the original choice continues indefinitely.

After the bargaining agent has been selected, its first duty is to negotiate an agreement with the employing board. Both parties should seek to reach a common understanding. In the event the attempt fails, a procedure for arbitration should be agreed upon. This should occur only on rare occasions. The board should then appoint a representative from the administrative staff as its arbiter. The employees' organization should appoint a similar representative from its membership. The two persons should then select a third arbiter. These three make the final decisions and all parties must agree beforehand to abide by their decisions.

In those cases where a larger arbitration board seems advisable, and these are few, two or three arbiters may be chosen from each of the three sources. This is usually unwise as the group becomes too large for efficient work.

b) *The nature of the basic agreement.* The basic agreement between school employees and employer should cover at least the following main items as they apply to particular groups:

- Activity of the employees' organization during working hours
- Arbitration of disputes
- Assignments
- Discharge
- Duration and renewal of agreement
- Enforcement of agreement
- Examinations of other types
- Hours of work
- Improvement of efficiency in the school
- Insurance and benefit plans
- Lay-offs and re-employment
- Leaves of absence of all kinds
- Meetings called by employer
- Modification during life of agreement
- Pay for extra duties
- Pay for overtime
- Pensions and retirement
- Physical examinations
- Procedures for handling grievances
- Promotion
- Rates of base pay
- Rest periods
- Resignations or quits
- Seniority
- Substitutes
- Sunday and holiday work
- Temporary employees
- Transfers
- Travel pay
- Uniforms and equipment
- Use of bulletin boards
- Vacations

When items such as these are mutually agreed upon, the basis of much misunderstanding and consequent friction disappears. Both the administrative staff and the employees have had a part in arriving at the final agreement. Each understands the problems of the other. Each has a carefully prepared document to which he can refer for the definition of

his rights, his duties, and his responsibilities when he is in doubt. In the absence of such an agreement, staff and employees' relations are characterized by uncertainty, lack of uniformity, arbitrary action, and much unnecessary ill-will.

A strong organization of employees will make it necessary for the administrative staff to face the difficult problem of negotiating the many items which enter into an agreement. This is an activity which few persons who are on the administrative staffs of city school systems have faced. Many may be reluctant to face it. When it is done, finally accepted by both sides, and carried out in good faith, it offers respite from the petty troubles and complaints which otherwise arise continually. In the end it will mean less total work and effort than if separate and protracted conferences and struggles were necessary over each new controversy. An agreement is in operation over a period of time, and during that time the road is clear for other constructive tasks.

c) *The redress of grievances.* Those grievances which arise wherever large numbers of persons are employed can be dealt with best under the provisions of an agreement arrived at through collective bargaining. If this does not exist, and it usually does not, then some plan of organization should be set up for the redress of just grievances. This is absolutely necessary if relationships are to improve and harmony is to be restored. A study of the nature and type of the special grievances which affect school personnel is necessary before any plan is evolved. "A grievance may arise from any number of causes adversely affecting the mental attitude of the worker toward his job. The cause may be real or imaginary. But even an imaginary cause may point to some real source of dissatisfaction. For example, complicated rules and regulations which are not sufficiently explained may lead a worker to think he is being treated unfairly. Getting at the underlying conditions which give rise to the grievances is essential to good grievance procedure."⁴

Typical Examples of the Grievances of Employees in City School Systems

<i>Type of Grievance</i>	<i>Usual Cause</i>
A. The activities of principals and supervisors	The employee feels that:
1. Complaints about enforcements of rules	Principal or supervisor does not like him and picks on him. Principal or supervisor did not explain clearly what was expected.

⁴ "Settling Plant Grievances," *Collective Bargaining*. United States Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, Bulletin No. 60. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943.

<i>Type of Grievance</i>	<i>Usual Cause</i>
2. Objection to a particular principal or supervisor	Principal or supervisor will not listen to any point of view but his own. The principal or supervisor favors some person above others. The principal or supervisor is rude and arbitrary and discourteous. The principal or supervisor ignores complaints.
3. Objections to methods of supervisors or of rating employees	The principal or supervisor has filed a rating sheet on the basis of no or few observations of the employee at work. The principal attempts to judge the work from the comments of pupils and parents. He never gets but one side of the story. The principal or supervisor is always finding fault and never says a word of praise.
B. Salaries and salary schedules	
1. Demand for change in rate of pay for an individual employee	Other people with the same experience and training are getting more money. The method which is used in placing him on scale is improper. New employees get better salaries than he did when he began.
2. Complaints about the schedule	Too much emphasis is placed on degrees and too little on good work. A teacher is so busy getting more training that he does not have time to teach well and to relax.
C. General working conditions	
1. Faculty meetings	The principal talks too much. The material which is presented could be mimeographed and read. There is no need for the meeting. The meetings are too long. Teachers are compelled to pay for food at these meetings.
2. Sanitary conditions	There are insufficient toilets for the employees. There is not time enough for attention to personal needs.
3. Duties outside of the classroom	Extra duties are distributed unfairly. Coaches are paid extra sums while persons who carry on as difficult tasks are not. There are too many meetings.
4. Pressure to join organizations	The principal insists on 100 per cent membership in the N.E.A. Everyone is made to join the local building association and to pay dues.

Grievances are not confined to complaints against the decisions or practices of the employer. The administrative staff and the principals may also have grievances about the practices and competences of the employees. A good procedure for handling grievances works in both directions. Whenever there are conditions which tend to create conflicts between those who administer schools and subordinate members of the staff, there is need for a definite plan of organization by which these can be remedied.

Typical Examples of the Grievances of the Administrative Staff

<i>Type of Grievance</i>	<i>Common Cause</i>
	The administrator thinks that:
A. Dissatisfaction with an individual employee	<p>The employee is continually breaking rules.</p> <p>The employee will not do as he is told.</p> <p>The employee is absent from work too frequently.</p> <p>The employee arrives late and leaves early.</p> <p>The employee does not seek to improve continuously.</p> <p>The employee resists changes in methods of work.</p> <p>The employee will not carry on extra duties.</p> <p>The employee is a troublemaker in the group.</p> <p>The employee is harsh and unreasonable with pupils.</p> <p>The employee is discourteous to parents.</p>
B. Dissatisfaction with organization of employees	<p>The organization never seeks to improve the schools.</p> <p>The organization has poor leadership.</p> <p>The organization is always bringing faults to the attention of the staff. It never makes constructive proposals.</p> <p>The organization misrepresents the attitude of the staff toward its members.</p> <p>The organization does not stick to an agreement and does not attempt to keep its members in line.</p> <p>The organization encourages complaints by presenting them without prior investigation.</p> <p>Irresponsible statements are made in publications of the organization.</p>

If consistent decisions about grievances such as have been presented in the two lists above are to be made, then there must be a continuing group to make them. Such a group should work systematically and with business efficiency. To this end, written records of previous decisions are essential. A formal and standard procedure is desirable because:

1. It insures the use of established precedents and so reduces the number of conflicting decisions.
2. It makes certain that decisions are made by those who have the authority to make them.
3. It reduces the number of petty and unnecessary complaints.
4. It insures the use of the same facts by both parties involved in any grievance.
5. It is impartial and impersonal.
6. It is readily understood by all parties.

A good formal grievance procedure will meet all of these objectives. It will, in the long run, produce a high level of morale and better relations between employees and administrators. It would be wise to have such a procedure evolve out of co-operative planning by the interested parties. In the absence of a strong organization of employees, the administrative staff will need to find some way in which to select or to guide the selection of the persons who are to do this planning. Care must be taken that those chosen, whatever method is used, are actually representative of the employees. This is not easy where employees are knit together loosely. School systems, when there is no collective bargaining, will encourage the setting up of councils, conferences, assemblies, and the like, which are recognized as the official voice of the employees. Some of these groups are made up of representatives of existing agencies or organizations. Some are made up of persons who are selected by secret ballot of all employees for the purpose of representation. Some are constituted of persons selected by the administrative staff. Once organized, the group usually selects its own leadership or, if relations are cordial enough, the superintendent acts as chairman. The closer the leadership and the membership of this representative council are to the employees, the better.

The council should not by itself settle grievances. It should merely develop a plan for handling them which both sides will accept. Such a plan should be orderly in form. It should be operated smoothly. It should be administered wisely. Here is an example of such a plan which appears to be both practical and just.

Grievances arise on every job. If it is a school job, the responsibility for handling "gripes" as they arise naturally falls on the shoulders of the immediate supervisor of the employee, usually the principal of the school. The efficient principal will encourage his subordinates to take their grievances directly to him, and as quickly as possible. Most of them can

be handled very easily, if they are not allowed to grow and fester. It may also be desirable that the employee have the support and assistance of a fellow worker. Many people are too introverted to reveal their complaint and argue it through. The central council should request each group of employees at a school to select someone to act with the aggrieved person. If there are but few employees of a single type at the school, such as custodians or secretaries, the system-wide organization of such employees should designate some one person to act with the aggrieved employee. The use of this other person is at the discretion of the one who is making the complaint. If he does not wish assistance, he acts alone.

The first step in the handling of a grievance, then, is that of presenting it to the principal. This presentation should be an oral one. The principal should be expected to handle most of these complaints fairly and to give redress when such is needed.

No one in the school system is more important to good relations between the administration and the corps than the principal. He interprets the policies of the system to his co-workers in his building. He is, in effect, the school system in his relations with those who work in his school. He must have authority to settle grievances, if the first step toward that result is to carry weight. His decisions, of course, should be subject to appeal and the machinery of appeal should be uncomplicated and rapid in action, but, on the spot, he should be able to act as an executive.

The representative of the employees within the school or in the entire organization of employees should have authority from them similar to that which the principal has from the board. He should make sure that all of the facts are presented in each case. He should, in the case of an existing agreement, live up to it in all of his acts. When he confers with the principal, he is firm, courteous, and businesslike. He is not merely an advocate; he is also a co-operator. He strives to make sure that each grievance is settled on its merits. He follows grievances through the appeal machinery if they have arisen within his jurisdiction. He keeps himself informed about principles and established precedents so that he may guide those he represents whenever grievances arise in the future.

All grievances and complaints which are not settled by mutual agreement between principal and employee should be placed in writing. For this, a suitable printed form should be used which both sides have helped to construct. The written grievance should be filed with the administrative staff within a specified period of time, dating from the occurrence which caused the employee to be aggrieved. A copy of this should also go to the central grievance committee or a sub-committee of the central council of employees if collective bargaining has not taken place. If there

is an organization of employees which has been selected for collective bargaining, a copy goes to their grievance committee, which takes the place of any sub-committee of a council.

The grievance committee and the administrative staff investigate the grievance and seek additional facts independently of each other. The committee gets its facts from the report, the school representative, and the aggrieved employee. The staff gets its facts from the principal. If the grievance committee, after its investigation of the matter, is convinced that the original decision of the principal was correct, it should so state, notifying both the staff and the employee that it will not seek to further the appeal. If the administrative staff is convinced that the principal was in error and that the employee was right, then it should so state and give relief without further delay. If neither of these conditions prevails, then the staff and the grievance committee should confer and attempt to adjust the matter. Each should seek to dispose of the matter at this conference if it is at all possible to do so.

Where this is not possible, the appeal should go to a final board of arbitration. This board should be made up of the head of the organization of employees, the superintendent, and a third party chosen by them. The decision of this board should be final. When the appeal is sent to this board it should be accompanied by all records of previous discussions and action. The aggrieved employee should have the right to present his case if he wishes to do so, either to the conference of the grievance committee and the staff or to the final board of arbitration.

Settling grievances is a normal part of the activity of any school system. The costs of doing so are a legitimate charge against any budget. Employees and representatives of employees should be able to carry out their responsibilities in this respect on time for which they are paid. They should not be expected to present or consider appeals at odd and inconvenient hours.

The administrative staff also has grievances. When it has a grievance against the employees as a whole, the procedure begins at step two, the conference between the grievance committee and the staff. The appeal procedure goes on from there.

When the grievance is against an individual employee, two procedures can be followed. The principal or some member of the staff may reprimand the subordinate, correct his error, and seek to guide him into better ways. If the employee feels that this action is unjust, he proceeds as he would with any other grievance. A second procedure is that of a conference between the staff, or a member of the staff, and the grievance committee. The reasons for the grievance are presented, the committee then investigates them, confers with the employee, and, if it is convinced

that the complaint against him is sound, reprimands, corrects, and helps him to avoid similar errors in the future. If it is convinced that the complaint is unwarranted, it so reports to the administrative staff. If the latter disapproves of the verdict, it may appeal to the board of arbitration.

Outline of a Grievance Procedure

- Step 1:* Aggrieved employee and representative attempt to settle with the principal. If this fails, the grievance is written and submitted to
- Step 2:* Grievance committee, which attempts to settle with the administrative staff. If this fails, the grievance and accompanying records are sent to
- Step 3:* Arbitration committee (head of employees, superintendent of schools, and third arbiter) for final settlement.

Such a procedure in handling grievances is democratic. It places responsibility for adjustment on employees as well as on the administrative staff. It is simple in structure and speedy in operation. It will work well where a central council sponsors and develops it. It will work better when it is incorporated into an agreement between an organization and the employing board which covers grievances, working conditions, and collective bargaining.

THE PARTICIPATORY PROCESS

In the three problems which have been used as examples of ways in which the personnel of a school system should be organized in accordance with the criteria of democracy and the laws of learning, there have been certain common procedures. Persons have been given responsibilities along with opportunities to act freely. Employees have been encouraged to work together to improve their lot and to work with other persons to improve the schools. They have been given a voice in setting up the procedure by which their grievances are redressed and in the adjustments which are made to redress them. They have, in short, participated in the many activities which affect them.

This participation is made possible through specific planning based not only on the dictates of humanitarianism, justice, and more harmonious relationship, but also according to the principles by which all learning takes place. It is this latter consideration which is neglected by those who solve all their problems by formulas of expediency rather than of basic science. If the members of a school system are ever to learn how to behave as responsible members of a group, how to avoid difficulties, or how to settle them amicably once they have grown into grievances, then such learning is possible only by following the methods which psychology has found to be effective. The plans outlined here are in accordance with these methods. Employees are motivated toward goals which are reached by successful responses to a problem-situation after excess and varied

responses have been made. Among these successful responses are the solutions which result in new curriculums, or better working conditions, or the just settlement of grievances. These activities which are carried on in the process of learning and which are democratic in nature make up the participatory process.

The participatory process can be defined as the aggregate of those activities which are carried on by persons who seek to solve problems by co-operative methods, according to principles which are in accord with the way in which man learns and which include the specific behaviors of democratic people. Organization of the personnel is most effective when it results in the use of this process. It is least effective when it is carried on without participation.

The benefits of the participatory process come into play only when several persons are genuinely bothered by a problem and are concerned about securing a solution to it. This is another way of saying that those who are to participate must be motivated if they are to be expected to act. Motivation is a condition of the individual. That fact is frequently overlooked in discussions on this subject. Motivation is constantly being referred to as something apart from the persons. Occasionally it is even used as an aspect of a plan. Sometimes we find references to motives which appear to imply that these are environmental factors toward which the individual acts. Such definitions of motivation and of motive are unsound and tend to confuse people. The administrator does not motivate persons. He can only introduce incentives into the immediate environment of the employees. As these incentives appear to be desirable, the lack or need of them produces those imbalances, tensions, differences in potential, and changes in the chemistry of the body which are characteristic of true motivation and which result in subsequent action. Once the employees are motivated, the administrator can select individuals to organize in such ways that they will use the participatory process. Evidence that they are already motivated will form the basis for choosing the individuals who will work on the problem. When he does this, the results are better in every way; the choice of highly motivated people will produce more democratic behavior. Committees will seek the common good rather than personal advantage. This encourages social rather than antisocial behavior.

The participatory process, as its use is encouraged by the wise administrator, develops more resourceful persons than do other procedures. Each person who participates with others in the solution of problems which bother the group as a whole, acquires skill in the use of methods of solution which can be employed on other occasions with profit to him and to the schools. He also develops a sensitivity to the existence of problems

which were previously beyond the scope of his experience and will seek to solve them through co-operative interaction with others who are similarly aware of them. As present problems are cleared up, as new problems are discovered and solved, and as the practice which employees have in solving problems continues to increase their competence in this work, the school system improves rapidly and becomes dynamic.

THE IMPROVEMENT OF MORALE

Morale is one of those intangibles of the spirit which is essential if any group is to put forth its best co-operative effort. It is often sought by the administrator through efforts to improve rates of pay, working conditions, hours of work, and other factors which affect employees adversely. Sometimes it is sought through the media of group meetings, bulletins, radio addresses, and other procedures which are directed toward "pepping up" the employees. These activities and others like them arise out of the belief that, because morale is a quality of a total group, it arises solely out of what the *administrator* does with a total group. This belief is not tenable.

Morale is made up of the attitudes, emotions, and consequent behaviors of individuals. Because of what has happened or is happening to an employee, he feels in various ways. If what happens to him tends to restore the integration of his personality, then his attitude toward the school system which causes these happenings is favorable and his morale is said to be good. If what happens tends to retard the integration of his personality, then the reverse is true. It is doubtful that much happens in the way of increasing morale within any individual, which does not stem out of his personal satisfactions.

Allport⁵ defines personality as follows: "Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psycho-physical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment." Each individual seeks to create a suitable environment in which he lives. While he is on the job, his efforts may be fruitless or profitable as they are helped or hindered by what the administrator does. If his actions are in conflict with the demands of his environment, the results will be harmful, and his morale will drop. Occasionally the conflict in which the teacher is involved is due to his own limitations. Sometimes it arises out of some phase of the school system in which the employee works. Whatever the sources of the conflicts between the personality of the individual and the entire environment which impinges on it, they may cause feelings of in-

⁵ Gordon Willard Allport, *Personality: A Psychological Interpretation*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1937.

feriority to arise which will lead to compensatory behavior. If this behavior is directed toward the solution of the problems which caused the imbalance, the results may be beneficial, fitting into the needs of the school system and of the other employees. When this happens in many individual instances, morale is said to be high or good. On the other hand, the compensatory behavior may be aggressive or antisocial, in that it tends to be opposed to the school system or to other aspects of the environment. When this happens in many individual instances, morale is said to be low or poor. The compensatory behavior may take the form of withdrawing, becoming absorbed in one's self, slow to act, extremely cautious, or some other manifestation of introversion. Should this be the case in enough individual instances, the school system might appear peaceful on the surface, but the results would be equally poor and the morale just as low.

Morale is not a general condition of a group independent of the specific individuals involved. Treating it as such will usually result in the failure of any plan to raise or improve it. In general it is as inaccurate to speak of the morale of school personnel as it is to speak of their intelligence, health, stamina, and the like. One could not answer the questions, "What is the intelligence of the teachers in a school system?" or "What is their health?" or "What is their stamina?" except in terms of the degree to which individuals are wise or well or strong. Any attempt to do otherwise would result in meaningless generalizations or in valueless abstractions. Modern education has centered around the individual student for years, and modern administration of the personnel of a school system should also center around the individual employee. The wise administrator endeavors to encourage those activities which will help *individuals* to become more nearly integrated. Improvement of *group* morale will inevitably follow.

Redress of grievances, using the principles which have been presented in this chapter, is one of the organizational activities which helps to improve morale. One must be careful, however, to make sure that the grievance which is being corrected is the true one. Complaints about rates of pay, for example, may be corrected by a better salary schedule, but the real difficulty of the employee may not be the poor pay itself. Instead, it may be that he is involved with a loan shark who is taking a great share of his wages. Mere increase in pay will not help him unless it will also relieve him of his debt. The "morale" of this employee would still remain low.

Whenever man is disturbed he tends to place the cause of his disturbance outside of himself. He says, "The pupils are undisciplined," when the real cause of his unhappiness is that he has not been trained

thoroughly in carrying on an activity program and, therefore, is doing it poorly. The situation will not be corrected by punishing pupils or by transferring the teacher. Only by giving him more training so that he can do well what he is expected to do will he become capable of overcoming his difficulty with his pupils. He may say, "The principal is arbitrary and autocratic," when the real cause of the difficulty arises out of the fact that the teacher has recently learned to do some new things of which he is proud but finds no opportunity to demonstrate these talents in the school. Correcting this situation will change his opinion of the principal. The administrator, in dealing with employees, should always seek to discover the real and not the merely asserted causes of disturbances and help to remove them.

Remedial activities are necessary and desirable whenever grievances occur, but positive, constructive action is also needed and will produce far better results than corrective action. The participatory process outlined above is an ever-present aid in both directions.

Each individual person wishes to be important and to feel that his importance is recognized. Each wishes to be accepted by the group with which he works as one who meets the standards of conduct which it approves. Each wishes to be recognized as "belonging." Each, in short, seeks to associate himself with the many influences which impinge upon him, in such a way that his personality becomes more nearly integrated. Only then can he find the personal satisfactions which produce "morale."

The administrator wishes to secure loyalty to the school system, cooperation within the entire corps, continuous improvement in methods of work, and, in general, more efficient schools. Many of his activities to secure these ends may tend to affect individuals adversely and so impair "morale." This will not result if he uses the participatory process. With it he accomplishes many desirable aims. First, he takes advantage of the knowledge which many persons have acquired in their study and experience, and he uses this to improve the schools. Second, he provides opportunities for individual employees to identify themselves with an important human activity and to feel important because of this identification. Third, he provides opportunities for them to gain recognition from the group with which they work and from those for whom they work. Fourth, he gives the entire system a broader understanding of and sympathy with the problems which are faced by the administrative staff. Fifth, he is enabled to get better performance from them because they are carrying on activities which have resulted in a large measure from their own planning and which they wish to demonstrate to be wise. Sixth, he helps to facilitate the integration of each individual with many factors which impinge upon him and so helps him in his efforts toward

integration of his personality. Seventh, he makes the work of the individual more interesting and purposeful as he becomes aware of its relation to the work of others.

“Morale” improves as each employee improves in attitudes, skill, ability, and understanding. The participatory process provides many opportunities for this improvement. As it operates it reduces the amount of conflict between employee and employer, the number of instances of aggressive and antisocial behavior, and the frequency of the occurrence of withdrawing or introversion. As these are reduced, more individuals become well adjusted, and “morale” becomes high. More individuals show loyalty to the school system, seek to co-operate with others, and desire to improve the quality of their work and their technical skills. By the use of this process both employees and administrators will reach the goals which are most important to them with the greatest economy of time and effort.

SUMMARY OF BASIC PRINCIPLES

In the material which has been presented, some principles of organizing the personnel of a democratic city school system for greater efficiency have been stated. Other principles have been used and not stated. Both are summarized below:

1. Procedures used in organizing the personnel should be in accord with the way in which man learns.
2. The behaviors which make up democratic living should be used in the interaction between the various elements of the entire school population, including all branches of the service.
3. The nature and type of organization to be used is a function of the ends toward which it is directed.
4. Professional organizations which are directed primarily toward the improvement of schools through research, study, and discussion of the problems of education can draw their membership from administrators and employees alike.
5. Organizations which are directed primarily toward the improvement of schools, through bettering salaries, hours of work, and conditions, should draw their membership solely from a single type of employee.
6. The effectiveness of any organization is measured by the extent to which it changes the behavior of the personnel.
7. The persons who are included in any group organization change as the ends toward which their organized activities are directed change.
8. The organization of personnel to any end should produce more persons who are competent in democratic living by providing continuing opportunities to practice it.
9. Most persons who work are motivated by considerations of personal advantage, among the foremost of which is pay.

10. Tangible rewards are helpful whenever an organized group of employees achieves success in improving the schools.
11. The leaders of an organized group should be chosen by the group.
12. The final plan or organization for action should evolve from the group itself.
13. Lay participation in an organization is desirable whenever the interests of the public are directly involved.
14. The administrative staff should give technical and procedural help to any organized group which is trying to solve a problem. It should not influence the nature of the proposed solutions.
15. The principal is the key person in any plan of organizing personnel on a system-wide basis designed to improve the schools.
16. The administrative staff should encourage collective bargaining by strong organizations of employees which have been chosen to act in this capacity by a majority of workers in a particular field.
17. The distinction between the duties and responsibilities of the administration of the schools and of the employees in the schools should be clearly defined.
18. Arbitration should be used to settle disputes between the administrative staff and the employees only when sincere efforts to reach agreement have failed.
19. A formally-agreed-upon procedure for handling grievances is desirable. It should include provisions for appeal and for final adjudication.
20. There should be a basic contractual agreement between employees and employers which has been arrived at by collective bargaining.
21. Grievances of the administrative staff about the acts of employees should be handled through regular channels for other grievances.
22. "Morale" is made up of the attitudes, emotions, and consequent behaviors of individuals.
23. Those activities which tend to retard the integration of the personalities of individual employees tend to lower morale.
24. Those activities which tend to facilitate the integration of the personalities of individual employees tend to raise morale.
25. The participatory process includes many activities which tend to facilitate the integration of the personalities of individual employees and few which tend to retard it.
26. The board of education establishes the policies under which democratic administration is carried out. Policies in respect to grievances, type of curriculum, and other matters which involve personnel should be established clearly by it.
27. The board of education should be informed continually about the developing program for organizing the personnel and should participate at its level in the processes which are part of organization.
28. Access to the board of education by individual employees should be through the administrative offices of the school. This channel of communication should be speedy and unhampered.

29. The board of education should accept and carry out contractual items which are arrived at through collective bargaining and should insist that employees carry out contractual obligations which have been similarly determined.

TOWARD BETTER SCHOOLS

The human resources of the schools and of the communities which support them are rich and varied. Unfortunately the yield thus far in terms of vigorously growing school systems is slight when compared to the potential returns. Unlike the mines of the earth, these human resources refuse to surrender their values when attempts are made to secure them through force. They willingly give them up when they feel that the act is of their own initiation or when they are convinced that the cause is worthy. Note how people who hate taxation poured out their money in the war against fascism. They might be persuaded to do the same in the war against ignorance. Creative co-operative imagination, vigorous democratic interaction, and intelligent scientific solutions to problems, coupled with public support, are the inevitable results of any process which is based upon the full and free participation of those intimately concerned, once the imagination is fired and the road to act made clear. Organization is a tool by which these persons may co-operate to accomplish what they deem to be important. If it is to be an effective tool, it must be forged and shaped by them and not for them. The administrative staff should be the master teachers who encourage people to learn the techniques of organizing and of organized action, but it should not be the major source of that action. Rather, it should bend its efforts to develop persons who become increasingly effective in what they themselves do and increasingly competent in the use of the best methods of doing.

Good schools can never be built by the few executives who administer schools. The inertia inherent in the mass of persons in a city school system is too great for the tiny forces of the administrative staff to overcome. Motion forward, if it is to come, must germinate from within the mass itself and come into full power out of its own resources. When this happens, the kinetic energy is tremendous. Great changes occur with amazing ease and thoroughness. The astute administrator is the one who seeks to promote progress in this manner.

The schools which can be developed in this country are far better than any one person can imagine. They will be created by the inventions and adaptations of hundreds of individuals who seek to work together toward the improvement of the goals and the processes of education. These persons must have the courage and the strength to do this—a courage and a strength renewed and increased by the collective actions of fellow-

workers. The citadels of intolerance, ignorance, poverty, and greed cannot be stormed by the efforts, no matter how heroic, of single individuals. They will fall only to the concerted action of inspired groups. And it is not too much to hope that this will come to pass. Deep within each human personality lies the desire and the will to face the battle for a better world which the schools are designed to wage. This will can become action if it is re-enforced by a similar determination in others. It can stay hidden in wishful thinking, if it remains by itself.

Strong organizations of employees lend strength and courage and the will to action to each person. Many of these initial attempts at improvement will be of low intensity or perhaps even in the wrong direction. This is to be expected since the intricate processes of group action toward ever more desirable ends are not learned readily or executed perfectly. They will never be learned, however, unless there are frequent opportunities to use and practice them. As persons become more skilled in co-operation and in the scientific approach, the quality of their efforts will improve and the number of errors become fewer. This way, and this way alone, leads to the best schools for the children of the United States of America.

CHAPTER V
PARTICIPATION IN COMMUNITY CO-ORDINATION
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SCHOOL SERVICES AND COMMUNITY NEEDS

The war years added a long list of exceptional services to the already heavy responsibilities of school administrators. The acceptable performance of these services demonstrated the ability of the school through its administration to accomplish effectively such extra tasks as the needs of the community may require. In line with modern educational philosophy, which recognizes that "the school is the one institution touching all parts of the social fabric that is capable of serving as this focal point of unification,"¹ these new functions were logically and readily added to or incorporated into the existing school programs.

Earliest of these so-called educational extensions, inaugurated when the first peacetime conscription in history was still being debated in Washington, during the period when aggression on three continents had not yet merged into World War II, was the War Production Training Program. Originally called the National Defense Training Program, this program, designed to prepare workers for war-plant assignments to build material largely consigned to lend-lease, was but an adaptation of vocational education to the specialized needs of industries producing the implements of war. The War Production Training Program served youth and young adults, successfully bridging the gap between high school, with its generalized occupational preparation, and the specialized needs of intricate operations in war plants. In this program the pupils came to the school for training or, where more convenient or more feasible, the school

¹ George R. Koopman, Alice Miel, and Paul J. Misner, *Democracy in School Administration*, p. 279. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1943.

set up the training program in the industrial plant itself. In either case, educational organizations demonstrated their ability to serve specific needs of out-of-school youth. With military service on the part of the majority of the youth group, this same program served to train or re-train older, more mature workers and successfully fitted them for vital jobs.

On the other end of the educational ladder, school administrators were also called upon to develop programs for large numbers of so-called pre-school children. Opening nursery schools to accommodate children as young as two years of age, the schools freed young adults from the daytime responsibility for their young children and enabled them to engage in essential war work. Extended day care for elementary-school children to bridge the gap between school-dismissal time and the end of the working day was likewise helpful to the war production program.

Further extension of school services, developed because of the needs of the emergency, included the summer programs for children of preschool and elementary-school age to complete the necessary year-round care and supervision that would coincide with their parents' year-round war work. Likewise, the need for a rapid expansion of food service became evident when it was found that parents were not available at noon to prepare lunch for their children.

These are but instances of the increased responsibilities that have been assumed during the past few years by school administrators throughout the nation. That they have been carried on effectively there can be no question, and that the effectiveness has demonstrated the soundness of the school's assumption of over-all responsibility for in-school and out-of-school children and young people is also now a matter of record. The role of the school in peacetime is certain to parallel this wartime record of over-all responsibility for youth.

While the activities just mentioned have been nation-wide in scope, some communities have found it necessary to make the school the center for both youth and adults for all types of major community improvement activities—health, recreation, economic improvement and experimentation, community planning, and even marketing and production co-operatives. In other communities the school superintendent has found himself the leader in forming over-all community planning groups or commissions for studying and planning improvement of community life. In smaller communities the school has tended to become more of a center of community life than it has in the cities. However, the problem of trying to divide the larger metropolitan communities into smaller centers of neighborhood living gives expression to the idea of a community school even in the heart of the more populous cities. In any community, how-

ever, the possibility of the school's assuming a greater responsibility for social and community leadership is present, and the need for the administrators to become more adequately trained to assume broader administrative obligations is obvious.

RESPONSIBILITY OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS IN OVER-ALL PROVISION FOR YOUTH

Discharge of these added responsibilities is but further evidence of the logic of the placement of the responsibility for initiation of over-all planning and provision for the youth of any community in the hands of the educational administration. On the rolls of the school are registered the entire body of youth of the area, and from this preliminary acquaintance the school becomes increasingly familiar with the characteristics of its pupil membership and more aware of the needs of each one of the group as the acquaintance extends over a period of years.

Modern conceptions of education would, therefore, place in the hands of educational administrators the initial responsibility for the over-all community planning for its youth in the areas of schooling, health, recreation, and, in appropriate situations, the prevention or correction of juvenile delinquency. Today's conception of schooling is a far cry from the erstwhile three R's, the specifications of an adequate education including not only general education but also guidance to assure the best possible adjustment of the individual during school years and for his out-of-school career, and vocational education to yield a substantial measure of occupational competence in the field into which aptitudes, interest, and personal preference may lead him. Modern educational philosophy likewise recognizes the school's responsibility for the initial occupational placement of youth. This is a development of the practical vocational education which includes part-time work experience as an essential portion of the educational program. Responsibility for determining work experience opportunities and for co-ordinating and supervising the resulting activity makes the initial placement function a logical responsibility of the school administration. Such a service has been found to promote the further development of the educational program as well as the interests of the individual pupils. Follow-up is a natural corollary of placement and, in carrying on this activity, the school strengthens its own guidance and placement services. Where the initial placement does not yield the desired result and retraining becomes necessary, this responsibility, too, must be assumed by the school as the original training agency. In the entire field of service to youth the school administration serves as co-ordinator.

The areas of health and recreation are developed concurrently with

the educational program, and here again the school's responsibility is a major one. Health has long been recognized as a part of general education; and recreation, both in the aspect of extra-curriculum activities and in the larger life-field of worthy use of leisure, is now likewise included in the functional area of school training. The school's chief responsibility is to build well-rounded citizens; and in the administration of its training program attention must be given to all phases of individual growth and development.

Correction, if necessary, has been listed as still another area of the school's responsibility to youth. The preventive phase of this service has long been a responsibility of school administrators and attention has been consistently directed toward it. The service of visiting teachers in the school system has avoided many referrals to the juvenile court. Close co-operation with the court, however, assists in administering the corrective phase when such becomes necessary. Here again the educational administrator acts as co-ordinator.

The idea of the school assuming responsibility in these different areas is not merely theoretical; it is a reality in many communities in America. Several notable situations are described in recent reports. Among them is the work done at the Roger Clark Ballard Memorial School in Jefferson County, Kentucky, and at the Arthurdale School at Arthurdale, West Virginia. Both of these schools took shape in communities where health, recreation, and education were at "low tide." By skilful planning and the enlistment of the co-operation of adults, these schools became important factors in promoting the health and welfare of the community.²

Similar gains were made in communities scattered throughout the drainage areas administered by the Tennessee Valley Authority. This is one of the noblest examples of the enlistment of all the agencies of the community in co-operative endeavor for improved community living. Schools throughout the valley areas endeavored to strengthen community understanding of the resources available for improved living. Such schools as those at Wilson Dam and Gilbertsville are illustrative of the indigenous character of educational programs in the area and of how they improved health, recreation, and community understanding of the place and importance of education in community progress.³ These schools, as

² Elsie R. Clapp, *Community Schools in Action*. New York: Viking Press, 1939.

³ Maurice F. Seay and William J. McGlothlin (editors), *Elementary Education in Two Communities in the Tennessee Valley*. Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, Vol. XIV, No. 3, University of Kentucky, 1942. For a challenging and fascinating description of the Tennessee Valley Project, see David E. Lilienthal, *TVA: Democracy on the March*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1944. Published also in the Pocket Book Edition, 1945.

well as the Arthurdale School, were founded on the principle that the curriculum should not be hampered by traditional and formal courses of study but should be planned to suit the special needs of the community, that community activities should constitute the laboratory through which the pupils will get their educative experiences. This means that the community and the school are linked together. It means, furthermore, that when pupils leave these schools they will have an understanding of the place of education in the promotion of the general welfare. The principle on which such schools are founded merits more widespread acceptance in America, for, if the school is to justify its large measure of public support, it must teach men how to live better. It must teach them how to use the tools at their command to turn the resources of their community into human happiness and prosperity.

School leaders in many localities have been the creative force back of co-ordinated community activity, and the schools in such areas have frequently become the social as well as the intellectual center of community life. Many illustrations are available. Some of the less well-known ones are excellent illustrations of the principles here advocated.⁴

In recent publications of the Educational Policies Commission and of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, an educational program for a rural community was proposed, one which indicated the nature of community co-operation and the extent of community influence which could be exerted by the school.⁵ This illustrative community, called Farmville, centered its cultural life in the school and in a community-planning group of local leaders representing business, farming, the school, government, and home life. In the school were located the library, the health clinic, a community recreation center with indoor and outdoor facilities, an agricultural laboratory for the study of farming problems, an agricultural machine shop, and a group of community co-operatives owned by adults in the community but operated for them by boys and girls in the high school.

Some may think that these facilities were but the products of the imaginative minds of the authors, but they were actually suggested by the successful experiences of well-known communities. Carroll County, Georgia, is a community of 37,000 people, some living on home-owned farms, some on tenant farms, and others in a small center with four tex-

⁴ See "New Dominion Series" and Extension Division publications of the University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Virginia.

⁵ Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth*. Washington 6: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association, 1944. See also *Planning for American Youth*. Washington 6: National Association of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association, 1944.

tile mills. Little theorizing is going on here, but many actual changes are taking place. There are movements to grow cover crops and pastures for livestock; dairy and poultry enterprises are replacing complete reliance on cotton; more garden produce is being cultivated for home use and for the Atlanta market. People are beginning to look to the school for leadership in democratic living and are coming to believe that such assistance is as important as the teaching of skills. For an illustration of what is happening, the Sand Hill community may be observed.

Sand Hill has centered its development in the vicinity of the consolidated school, which also houses a co-operative cannery and a kitchen for the preparation of school lunches. Another building houses the corn and feed mills, an auto repair shop, a blacksmith shop, a woodworking shop for building furniture, and a barber shop. The aim of the Sand Hill Co-operative Association, the directing body, is to have a complete community-service center. The Association comprises six smaller communities which are included in the school district. Regular meetings of the community for sociability and for the discussion of community problems are held at the school in each of these centers. At Tallapoosa the school is the center, but the community carries the responsibility. A woman's clubhouse stands next door to the school, a cannery is close by, a feed mill has been built with a sign over the door indicating that the people of this community have paid for many feed mills but this one they really own. Consideration is being given to setting up a repair shop, a dehydrator, and a potato-curing house. The Smyrna School turned first to beautification of the schoolgrounds and to school sanitation and water supply. Some wanted a potato-curing shed, but community interest was low. Pupils in the school visited a near-by shed and reported on what was being done for that community. Adults became interested and the shed was built.

The school shops of Farquier County, Virginia, were opened to the community. Immediately, fifty pieces of expensive farm machinery were brought in for repairs. Junk was turned into workable equipment. New parts costing \$20 made new mowers worth \$115. But the school shop could not repair all the machinery; accordingly, the farmers were taught how to set up a minimum repair shop in their own barns.

In Southside, Virginia, where the word "crop" means "tobacco," the vocational-agriculture teacher became interested in promoting greater crop diversification. Through the organization of a group of farmers and the boys in the agricultural classes, production of grain, soy beans, and lespedeza was increased. Poultry and cattle production increased, and a feed mill became necessary. One was built, and this in turn increased the yield further to where a combine was needed. No one in the community

could afford to buy one, so one was purchased co-operatively, the plan being worked out in the night-school class in agriculture for adults.

The people of Habersham County, Georgia, have found a way to insure a varied and nutritious diet the year around by establishing a community-owned food preservation center at the Clarksville high school. It includes a quick-freezing and locker plant, a cannery, a dehydrator, a flour mill, and a sweet-potato curing house. This center serves about one thousand families within a radius of fifteen miles. The parents are taught how to do their own processing and the teachers and pupils serve as general managers of the project. Recently a community hatchery has been added and there is community ownership of a combine, a tractor, and a power mower. Those who have no ready cash can use the facilities by "toll payment" of goods. The school lunchroom has become a beneficiary of the toll system.

Fluvanna County, Virginia, needed a cannery, but the community was not sufficiently interested to persuade the Board of Supervisors to grant money to construct one. The principal of the school wrote a factual letter and the pupils delivered copies to about 1,200 families. The result was community pressure on the Board of Supervisors, the money being promptly appropriated. Purchase of a truck for hauling crops to the cannery followed later, labor was swapped, and now other plans are under way. Kents Store, Virginia, consolidated its schools and thereby abandoned one of the buildings. Instead of tearing it down, the citizens made a community center of it, adapting it to many types of activities. It serves the recreational needs of seven hundred children, and adult needs in health, recreation, and sociability. It gives motion-picture entertainment and serves as a U.S.O. center for Negro servicemen. It is open from 7:45 A.M. to midnight daily, and the cumulative attendance is approximately twenty thousand each month. The summer program includes a workshop for teachers, a community recreation center, a health clinic on two days each week, canning and laundry demonstrations, and projects in food production and conservation. The center has sponsored a health and sanitation program for Negro homes, a home beautification program, and home-garden and poultry-production programs, all based on a careful survey of the needs of the Negroes in the area.

Another interesting community project was carried out in the Jordan area of Greenville County, South Carolina. In a period of seven years, an active community council developed a co-operative exchange, a credit union, a dramatics club, a health center and a library, a co-operative sharing program for exchange of cuttings, bulbs, and shrubs, a community cannery, wood and metal shops, and a potato-curing house. The school curriculum has been entirely made over to fit the needs of the com-

munity and to serve adults as well as young people. One of the interesting innovations was the development of a "pig chain," which has for its purpose the improvement in quantity and quality of hogs raised in the community. A boy is given a pig to care for, and when it produces a litter he is to return two pigs which are given to two other boys who repeat the process. A registered sow and boar started the chain.

These illustrations are actual living examples of the principles of community co-operation centering around the school. After observation of these and other projects, leaders in Virginia communities summarized their conclusions regarding such activities as follows:

1. The total community must be kept in mind and the concept of community relationships must be continuously growing.
2. Any project that meets a real need is a good starting-place.
3. Drawing in all existing agencies as early as possible is desirable.
4. Public sentiment must be enlisted. This is best done by keeping all people informed at all times.
5. Agencies and individuals should be as quick to relinquish leadership as to assume it at the right moment.
6. Projects undertaken should have reasonable chance of success.
7. Emphasis should be upon *better living* for the entire community.
8. One criterion for judging the soundness of a program is the extent to which participating laymen can interpret it.
9. We found *evidence* that democracy can function at a high degree of efficiency.
10. In addition, we found evidence that one of the greatest values in community programs is the spiritual and civic growth of the people.⁶

Another illustration is the work done in the rural sections of Delaware where the organization of communities for improved living began with the studies of folk music and art in the area. Community groups came together and out of this activity grew handicrafts, music festivals, and greater community consciousness and co-operation.⁷

MAKING A COMMUNITY SURVEY

If the educational administration is to discharge effectively its over-all responsibility to youth, it must first take inventory of all that the community offers in behalf of its young people. When all opportunities are known, a complete and well-balanced program can be developed. The school should assume responsibility for setting up a central inventory record in which the youth to be served are registered and the services

⁶ *Plans without People*. New Dominion Series, No. 65, March 1, 1945. Charlottesville, Virginia: University of Virginia, 1945.

⁷ *Enriched Community Living*. Wilmington, Delaware: Division of Adult Education, State Department of Public Instruction, 1936.

afforded are indicated. From such record the administration can determine if there are those to whom the services are not available and if there are some who are involved at times in too many activities. In every community today there are many agencies offering opportunities and facilities for the advancement of youth. The school is in a position to determine the nature of all these services. It is able likewise to discover whether the offerings cover the entire area adequately, whether they recognize and meet every need, and whether there is evidence of duplication of service.

A community survey is essential for the purpose of listing all available services. The organizations, their programs, and their offerings must be determined. This can be accomplished in an informal manner in a small community; in urban centers, an extensive formal survey may be desirable. In most instances, however, co-operative practice within the community readily permits a building principal and his staff, with the aid of the pupils, to compile a fairly complete and accurate listing for the particular neighborhood. The several neighborhood lists can then be combined into one community roster. Such a survey will bring to light many little-known efforts, some of which may be strengthened and extended through co-operative procedures. Conferences with representatives of these agencies will afford additional information and furnish leads for the complete rounding-out of the listing.

Likewise necessary, to serve both the youth and the educational program of the community, is an occupational study of the area. Such a study serves to reveal job opportunities within the community and the requirements for those jobs. This type of study enables the school to prepare its pupils more adequately for the employment they will enter and to render more effective placement service for the pupils in the co-operative phase of their education as well as for full-time employment after graduation. The occupational study, moreover, should be a more or less continuing survey so that, as conditions change, immediate adjustments can be made to new opportunities and new requirements.

In listing opportunities for youth, the school administrators should include all the educational as well as the leisure-time and recreational offerings that are provided outside of the school itself. The educational programs of the various agencies are exceedingly helpful to young people, most of whom are generally eager to take advantage of any offerings that satisfy their needs or interests.

Since the school has a complete register of the youth of the district, it is logical that it should likewise maintain a record of those being served by one or more youth agencies and of those needing such assistance or service. In this manner the educational administration can help to direct

the services of community agencies so as to reach those who need them most.

Many excellent illustrations of activities in the area of community surveys could be cited. One example of a carefully conducted vocational survey is to be found in Kansas City, Missouri, where business, industry, labor, and the schools co-operatively studied the job opportunities and the characteristics of these jobs in the greater Kansas City area. The survey not only afforded the school much information which was needed in planning an adequate program of vocational education but also joined together the leaders in business, labor, industry, and education in a common effort to solve the problems of the employment of youth.⁸

In Des Moines, Iowa, a co-operating group of school and community leaders compiled a useful report on the number and variety of community resources available for educating youth. It served to make the teachers aware of the value of these resources for teaching, and to make the community cognizant of the fact that community institutions were the extended classroom of the school. All community agencies were studied, those dealing with business, consumer education, education, government, health, home, industry, intercultural relations, occupational opportunity, fine arts, public welfare, recreation, religion, and safety. The study was based on the five channels by which the school reaches the community—excursions, guest speakers, pupil participation in community activities, demonstrations, and visual materials.⁹ As another example, the San Francisco, California, teachers prepared a volume for the use of teachers and other community workers which set forth the combined facilities of the city for the recreation, education, and welfare of youth. This volume was useful in acquainting all workers with the total facilities of the community and was of service to workers in guiding youth into those activities of most benefit to them.¹⁰ Again, the teachers of Santa Barbara County, California, surveyed their community resources in the county. The report dealt with the history of the county, the topography and natural resources, the population, health and safety, home and family life, recreation, government, organized group life, and transportation and communication facilities. The rest of the volume showed teachers how

⁸ Kansas City Public Schools, *Occupational Study: Greater Kansas City Area*. Kansas City, Missouri: Board of Education, 1943.

⁹ Des Moines Public Schools, *Community Resources*. Des Moines, Iowa: Board of Education, 1940.

¹⁰ San Francisco Public Schools, *Community Planning for the Leisure Time of San Francisco Youth*. San Francisco: Board of Education, 1944.

these resources should be used as materials of instruction in the elementary and secondary schools.¹¹

One of the most extensive surveys of natural and social resources was made in the State of Georgia. The movement started in 1937 with a group of people seeking light on the paradox of their state—its natural wealth and its human poverty. Seventeen state-wide organizations later met and started the Citizen's Fact-Finding Movement. These organizations represented about 5,000 local units and some 250,000 citizens. The purpose of the movement was to collect and disseminate facts about Georgia in a dozen areas of interest—historical background, natural resources, industry and commerce, health, political system, taxation, education, public welfare, penal system, agriculture, and federal activities in the state. Material was to be gathered for reports. Data for the report on agriculture, for example, were secured by asking one thousand people in the state to list what they thought to be the ten major agricultural problems in Georgia. Three series of reports were published in the period from 1937 to 1941. One was a factual inventory of Georgia in each of the fields listed; the second compared Georgia with other states; the third presented a series of constructive suggestions for action. The group was not organized as an action body, but as a fact-finding committee. Its reports have been used by adult groups, by the extension services of colleges and universities, and by the public schools. Virginius Dabney, in his book, *Below the Potomac*, has described the movement as "an indigenous movement organized pursuant to the novel notion that the state ought to know the facts concerning its affairs."

The examples here cited are indicative of the reorientation of school administration in forward-looking communities. It is not, however, the common characteristic of American schools that the center of education lies in the problems of the community in which the school is located. The idea has been current for years, but it has had to wage battle with the idea that education is not related to time or place, a notion that has had acceptance in high places and which in turn has formalized education and kept it out of harmony with the life of youth in every lowly community in America. Education will truly come into its own and improve the life of mankind when its curriculum provides the needed correctives for conditions which prevent men from living co-operatively and securely.

ORGANIZATION OF THE COMMUNITY FOR YOUTH

The public school is the one agency in every community which devotes full time to the advancement of an unselected group of youth of all ages.

¹¹ Santa Barbara County, *Teachers Guide for the Use of Community Resources*, Vol. III. Santa Barbara, California: Schauer Printing Studios, 1941.

Since the responsibility of the educational administrator is to plan and carry on a program for the maximum benefit and satisfying adjustment of each pupil, it is logical that this same administrator should take the initiative in helping the entire community to organize its over-all program in behalf of youth.

Following the community survey an outline may be made of the services that are available. It can likewise be determined as to whether or not gaps exist and in which areas the offerings are weak or insufficient. Evaluation of existing offerings should likewise be made so that the most effective program may be developed. By strengthening and enlarging activities in areas where such need is indicated and by initiation of new projects designed to complete the coverage in purposeful manner, the maximum welfare of each individual will be assured, and complete and satisfying adjustment both for the individual and the community will be realized.

In its impartial operation the educational administration can assist the community in setting up such a program. From its familiarity with the entire body of youth in question and from its initial store of records and information concerning its pupil membership, the school is in a position to direct the collection of necessary data, to evaluate the operating programs and to interpret the need for expansion and new development. Because of its contact with the entire community and the various agencies operating in behalf of youth, the school can likewise aid materially in the formation of steering and executive committees to plan and carry out the necessary projects.

DEVELOPMENT OF CO-ORDINATION

In all areas where more than one service is operating, a co-ordinator should be provided to supervise the work and to see that each of the areas is functioning at maximum effectiveness and that none is encroaching upon the responsibility or field of another. In the area of planning in behalf of youth, for the complete rounding-out of the life of each girl and boy, many agencies must participate. Their services, although differing in major interest, may overlap to a marked degree unless there is a co-ordinating agency operating through a central clearinghouse.

The school may well serve as the clearinghouse, and the educational administration should assume the responsibility of co-ordinator for the establishment of a steering committee or advisory group to chart the course for harmonious agency co-operation in an effective and non-overlapping program. With all programs evaluated in terms of other existing offerings and plans developed for complete coverage of needed areas, maximum effectiveness in meeting the needs of each individual may be expected.

ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS INVOLVED IN OPERATING THE PLAN

Guidance and Evaluation

Setting up an all-inclusive nonoverlapping program in behalf of youth is but a part of the job of administering the community's youth-serving agencies. There remains the even larger task of interpreting the offerings to the girls and boys and of developing adequate guidance plans for directing all the youth into the programs best suited to their needs. Likewise, there must be developed means of evaluating the services offered in terms of their effectiveness in the realization of goals for those for whom they are intended. Full determination of the evaluative process will require an extended period of time, but careful checking along the way will indicate the trend and reveal likely success or failure in time to institute appropriate adjustments or major changes in the program.

Participation of youth in the program offered affords an adequate measure of its effectiveness. Its continuing appeal is evidence of its ability to meet the constantly changing needs of those whom it serves. Since the entire program in behalf of youth is designed to provide for the well-rounded development of personality, competence, and leadership, the extent to which the offering encourages participation in the planning and carrying on of activities will determine largely its ultimate success and its favorable regard by the community and by the particular group it is serving. Interpretation of the program is gained through such participation, and guidance of the individual into the activities is accomplished readily when there has been adequate interpretation. Furthermore, evaluation is accomplished as a natural corollary of the democratizing and interpretative process which is thus established.

A System of Referrals

For the carrying-out of the plan the school must develop a system of referrals through which youth may become acquainted with and be served by the agency best suited to the particular needs of the individual, the one best able to render the most practical and immediate assistance.

The system of referrals, if maintained in the school, may be kept as an exceedingly simple procedure. A brief personal-interest questionnaire to the entire student membership will serve to indicate preferences and the manner in which these are being met. These questionnaires are supplemented by information contained in the usual guidance records of the school. Combined, these records furnish the complete picture—educational, vocational, and avocational—of every girl and boy. It then becomes an easy task to determine which offerings will most adequately

round out the individual's development and, from such determination, to initiate a referral to the proper agency. Where no program seems to meet adequately a particular need, the community council should seek to develop such an activity either as an extension of a program already in operation, as a new venture of an existing agency, or by setting up an agency to accomplish this purpose. In any event, the system of referrals should lead to the most adequate meeting of the needs of each individual, seeking his maximum adjustment in all areas. In educational programs, guidance is providing the assurance of the best type of education to meet individual needs for greater competence. It assures not only maximum academic preparation but also direction into the most suitable vocational field as determined by aptitudes and interests. The same process can likewise serve in the area of avocational interests and needs for the fullest rounding-out of the individual.

There are many illustrations of community councils, the co-ordinating council idea having been tried for years in American cities. California and Ohio early assumed leadership in promoting community councils of various types. Some of these have been large agencies with full-time paid workers and executives. Others have been loosely organized affairs, with success depending upon the co-operative interest and spirit of the members. It is believed that this kind of council is preferable to the one with paid officers, except in those metropolitan centers where the job becomes too exacting for such volunteer leadership. In the majority of communities in America, however, the councils for community co-ordination and co-operation can remain closer to the people they serve and enlist more effective co-operation if they represent the community leaders at work on the basic community problems without thought of prestige or economic gains from their activities.

Two illustrations of types of councils may show the thinking in this area. The first is drawn from Santa Barbara, California, where there is a strong centralized guidance program in the school system. The other is in the community of Palo Alto, California, where the youth-serving program is decentralized but focused in the activities of a community youth council.

In Santa Barbara, a city of about 40,000 people, there is a highly trained and efficient director of child guidance in the school system and a co-ordinator of recreation who serves both the schools and the city recreation department. These people co-operate with every agency affecting child welfare in the community and plan for the activities of youth both in and out of school. Whenever a boy or girl gets into difficulty or needs special health or welfare service, the worker who comes into contact with the case will find in the central school office a complete account of the

activities of the youth in and out of school. If a matter of delinquency is involved, the guidance director will work with the police, the court, or the juvenile worker in studying the situation and in helping to recommend appropriate action for restoration of normal living habits on the part of the delinquent youth. No agency acts on cases alone without consultation with the others which may be concerned. The activities of the workers in the city and county are discussed in the meetings of the County Council of Social Agencies, a body of workers in all these fields acting voluntarily and without paid assistants to conduct the affairs of the council.

In Palo Alto, California, there are four regular youth agencies with full-time executives—Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, YMCA, and YWCA. Municipal agencies also deal with youth and their problems, chief among them being the Community Center Commission which operates the recreational program of the city for both children and adults. Besides a central group of buildings and playgrounds there are branch centers. The central group contains large playgrounds, swimming pools, a junior museum, scout headquarters, children's library, children's playhouse, adult theater, a kitchen, and dance floors, as well as meeting rooms for community groups. Many civic, religious, and other private interests are working with youth also.

A Community Youth Council was organized four years ago and has developed a vigorous program without any paid executive. Its three officers are chosen from the council membership. The council is composed of the four paid executives of the youth agencies; a representative of each municipal agency dealing with youth, such as schools, recreation, health, welfare, police; a representative from any community group actively concerned with a program for youth, such as the Rotary Club, the Parent-Teacher Association, the women's clubs; and four youths, two each from the junior and senior high schools. The council surveys the total activities of the community, experiments with new activities and programs until it can turn them to the proper agencies to administer, stimulates groups to new and improved programs, and keeps the community informed of the success of the existing programs and the need for others.

Whether the councils are sponsored by schools or by all groups in the community working together is not of great importance. The vital thing is for leaders to work together and to utilize all their resources so as to afford youth the opportunity for orderly development and to insure the community an efficient program of social service.

Other types of planning groups have achieved success in given communities and have grown into co-operative enterprises. In Lexington, Virginia, the Children's Clinic came into being as a result of startling

reports by the Health Department. Initiated by a group of women in the community, the program now brings together the local hospital which cares for youth, civic groups which provide funds, the schools which supply hot lunches, the Girl Scouts who run a nursery, and the welfare department which provides for increased distribution of milk. Similar plans have evolved in the Pine Grove Community of Page County, Virginia, where the work on community health was stimulated by the Episcopal Church. The extensive program of recreation in Fairfax County, Virginia, had its beginning in 1942 when the children were noted returning to school with many bad habits they had picked up during the summer vacation. Some had even been in court. An interested group of citizens organized a committee consisting of representatives from such groups as the Parent-Teacher Association, the welfare department, public and private schools, and the courts. Out of the disturbing situation grew the Fairfax County Recreation Association, and many agencies are co-operating in the program.

Other planning groups have developed around other needs. Near Fredericksburg, Virginia, is the Old Dominion Home Industries Co-operative which was an established business before the war, but which is temporarily closed. It grew out of the need for farm folk with skills and resources on their own lands to produce handicrafts which could be sold to give them some ready cash. The co-operative is a marketing agency which collects materials from over the state and sells them to tourists. It evaluates each article, keeping only the good objects for sale, and thus stimulates increased quality of production, giving accent to learning as well as providing a higher standard of living and a recreational and evening hobby for many farm families. Similar marketing co-operatives have been established for poultry, milk, and other products where people have come together and formed local planning groups, often under the leadership of the school.

Another interesting rural county council is operating in Estill County, Kentucky, where a survey to determine the needs of the county was undertaken under the leadership of the county superintendent of schools. From the survey, twenty needs were listed as follows: improvement of health habits; improvement of diet practices, production of more and varied types of food; better facilities for storing food; improvement of sanitary conditions; better use of the health department; increased planting of fruit and nut trees; improvement of educational programs; improvement of recreational programs; provision for greater cultural advantages; encouragement of home industries, such as weaving and quilting; establishment of co-operative marketing; improvement of farm practices; increased use of the services of the County Agent; prevention

of soil erosion; conservation of natural resources; provision of better housing facilities; development of industries; preservation of community churches; and better use of government agencies.

It would be hard to find a better and more realistic list of the needs of most small communities in America. It is obvious also that most of these needs are primarily educational in nature. An advisory council was formed from which grew the Planning Council of Estill County, which includes representatives of the schools and other community agencies. This group set up four objectives: (1) to promote a total educational program in which adults as well as pupils can have a part; (2) to locate needs in Estill County and to find ways of meeting these needs; (3) to secure the participation of all groups in the planning of an educational program for Estill County; and (4) to provide a co-ordinated educational program through co-operation of all county agencies.

Two types of planning councils have been described. The one attempts to bring together the workers in all areas of youth activities to discuss and co-ordinate the activities of the various groups; the other centralizes the educational, recreational, and other community programs for youth in the schools with all groups planning together. It might also be pointed out that two ways of using community resources have been illustrated: One of these is the type found in Santa Barbara County and Des Moines, where the community is considered an extension of the classroom—a school laboratory, so to speak; the other is the community-centered school, where the resources of the school and the community are pooled and the problems of the community become the curriculum of the school. In this instance the schools are actually geared to the community.

Follow-up

Perfection of programs depends in large measure upon the adequacy of evaluation in the form of careful follow-up to indicate progress and to determine if readjustment is necessary. Oftentimes, and because of varying factors and conditions, the original guidance of an individual into vocational and avocational areas does not lead to a satisfying adjustment. In such instances redirection is essential and, to effect the necessary development, training must again be instituted. Periodic check-ups on the individual are, therefore, essential, and a regular program for such activity must be devised. A semiannual schedule is not too frequent for a regular all-inclusive review and, in addition, there must be immediate investigation and action on such individual cases as may come to the fore because of either irregularity or unusual significance.

The system of follow-up, moreover, must be characterized by follow-through as well. Where need for readjustment is indicated, it should be

attempted without delay; where need for retraining because of unsatisfactory accomplishment, lack of competence, or loss of interest or where inability to adjust becomes evident, such retraining must be provided at once. Every day saved in initiating the steps that will lead to satisfactory readjustment heightens the effectiveness of the follow-up procedure.

Co-operation for Co-ordination

For complete co-ordination of activity, full co-operation among all agencies must be developed. The adjustment of programs is developed through the activity of the co-ordinating council, but only through widespread interpretation of what is being done is the fullest co-operation assured. The co-ordinating council itself is an interpretative medium because of its pooling and evaluating of ideas and its suggestion of plans and activities. Council representation, covering the entire area, should serve as an incentive to full and complete co-operation for the furtherance of the democratic aims implied by the council organization.

The operation of the council serves to strengthen the identity of each of the participating groups. Through the deliberations of the council the function of each agency is defined; it is in following council objectives that this function remains unique and individual. Carried on together, the functions of the different agencies contribute to the development of the whole program and serve in the complete rounding-out of the offering to the community. Operating in its individual sphere each agency will endeavor to make its program as far-reaching as possible. The interchange of ideas afforded through council participation assists the agencies materially in the development of their own plans, and the interaction of the various participatory activities results in a dynamic community program.

Co-ordination of Local, State, and Federal Agencies

Establishing the co-ordinating council for a local area is but a beginning in this field. In addition to its activities in co-ordinating existing local activities and planning for additional service as needs become apparent, the local council must likewise co-ordinate its program with the activities and offerings of state and national councils, committees, commissions, and institutions. The alert community council will study and evaluate the implications of the programs of these area organizations in order that the opportunities and advantages offered by them may be made to serve the local effort. Since state and national councils and commissions are usually set up to afford an equalization of opportunity throughout the state or nation, participation of these agencies should be accepted to the full extent of local need not otherwise served.

By virtue of its organization and over-all responsibility, the co-

ordinating council is in a position to determine the extent to which state and federal participation should be sought or accepted. At the same time, operating relationships should be set up through the local council for the co-ordination of offerings on all regional levels. Where local offices of state and national agencies are established, these should be given representation on the community council to assure co-ordination as well as maximum participation. In this way inclusion of state and national services is accomplished as simply as would be the addition of another local agency which the council had proposed for the handling of a specified program. Participation stimulates co-operation at any level.

Where local representation of state and federal agencies is not afforded, however, the co-ordinating council must, through contact with field workers and the area offices, secure the information necessary to integrate the offering into council activities and see that the maximum benefit of the program accrues to the youth of the community. Likewise there must be assurance that the state or federal program does not merely duplicate a local effort. Where such becomes evident, the council should attempt to redirect the governmental program as it affects the local situation or, if this is not possible, the local duplication should be abandoned or the effort guided toward another need.

The function of the co-ordinating council in developing harmonious and effective operating relationships among local, state, and federal agencies is a most important and significant one. In assuring the successful co-ordination of all efforts and the participation of all known agencies, the council fulfils its purpose and responsibility.

Interpretation of Programs and Policies

The co-ordinating council by its very nature is an interpretative medium. Participation of representatives of all youth-serving groups—governmental, public, and private—effects an interchange of thought and an interaction of programs which serve to keep the council membership informed of the plans of the co-operating agencies. For the general public, however, systematic interpretation is necessary so that all may be aware of what is being done by the council and by the individual agencies and of how youth needs are being met.

The council in determining policies must see that interpretation is provided as a means of acquainting the community with large-scale objectives and broad aims. The school administrator, in his relations with both the council and individual community groups, is in a position to interpret the aims and objectives to a large part of the community. The participating pupils can likewise interpret the various offerings to their families.

Interpretation of objectives and aims permits, at the same time, attention to unmet needs and ways of satisfying them. Following interpretation, the council or any of its participants, individually or through their agencies, can advocate programs of action for the community at large or for any of the agencies. If the community is properly informed, response is usually ready and the desired procedures may be promptly initiated.

In interpreting the program to the community, however, every effort must be made to focus attention on large-scale objectives lest interest be absorbed in the numerous specialized and individual efforts. Through community understanding of the broad aims of the program, the green light will always be turned on to permit movement of the procession toward the realization of the large over-all purpose.

Descriptions have been given of co-operating councils dealing with the problems of children and youth, and illustrations have been supplied showing how small rural communities and counties have banded together to improve the total life of the community. Point has also been made of the need for the representation of all community agencies on such councils.

Another phase of this problem might be mentioned. In many communities there are established large over-all community planning commissions which deal with the economic and political life and plan for the physical improvement and the industrial and business development of the community. Many of these councils are under the mayor, the city council, the chamber of commerce, the city engineer, or the executive officer of the city planning council. Sometimes the chief school officer in the community is included in the membership of such organizations, while in other instances the school is not much concerned with the over-all planning of the city life.

One of the best illustrations of a major job of over-all city planning can be found in San Diego County, California, which gave attention to the problem of what San Diego would be like after the war and what needs it would then have. Under the direction of a committee appointed by the chamber of commerce, a group of business and civic leaders, including the superintendent of schools, spent three years in planning for the postwar city of San Diego. The planning started with a survey of what the 75,000 workers in the war plants and the workers in the Navy yards would do after the war. From a survey of these conditions there grew up a program of recreation, business and industry, city building and zoning, parks, roads, school building and curriculum planning for children and adults, and the study of other phases of community life. The schools were constantly kept before the community as the central agency for stimu-

lating public participation in community improvement, for educating the workers for new jobs, for increasing familiarity among the workers who had been drawn from other states with the ways of living in California, and for cultural pursuits. Attention was also given to the needs for school construction along with other community building programs. The school became an active participant in the planning for improved living in San Diego after the war.

One of the most helpful manuals for over-all community planning came from the Department of Regional Studies of the Tennessee Valley Authority, which has constantly given attention to community planning in the area of the Authority and to keeping the people working together on their own problems. While the manual is prepared to "stimulate an understanding of the possibilities for southern community development in the schools and among the citizens of the Tennessee Valley and the Southeast," it has equal value for the people of other communities and for schools everywhere.¹²

An example of community participation in educational planning on a state-wide basis is provided by a recent co-operative movement in New York. In the spring of 1944, the State Education Department published a manual entitled *Problems Confronting Boards of Education* with subtitle, *A Manual for Community Participation in Educational Planning*. This project was launched with the active support of the New York State Council of School Superintendents, the New York State School Boards Association, and the New York State Association of District Superintendents of Schools.

The publication was designed to encourage local school authorities to enlist the co-operation of leading citizens and local groups in planning for education after the war.

In designing the manual the Committee attempted to outline procedures that could be used by local school authorities in any community, regardless of size, rural or urban. The plan of procedure consists of four main steps, as follows:

1. What will the community (city, village, or school district) be like by 1950?
2. For this kind of community, what kind of education is needed and for whom?
3. In terms of the kind of education we want, what are the outstanding deficiencies in the present program?
4. How can the community move from where it is to where it wants to be?

The procedure called for the appointment by the Board of three sub-committees. Committee One studied and reported on community factors

¹² F. Stuart Chapin, Jr., *Communities for Living*. Athens, Georgia: University of Georgia Press, 1941.

that would affect educational need; Committee Two concerned itself with the kinds of education which would be needed in the community; and Committee Three reported on the changes needed to achieve the goals set by the second committee. With the reports of the three committees the board of education rendered the report on Question 4.

Boards of education report enthusiastic and willing response of citizens invited to take part in these studies. In some communities, committees have worked for a full year, not infrequently reporting ten, twenty, or thirty sessions ranging from one to three hours each. Many of the committees have invited varied groups of people to participate in their discussions. The net result in the communities that have participated in the study appears to be a general educational awakening, a better understanding of the problems that will confront the schools in the years ahead, and the building-up of a public opinion that will support the board of education in developing an educational program suited to the needs of the community.

Operating Relationships

Operating relationships among the various agencies must be set up in such a way as to permit co-operation through independent, nonrestrictive activity. Through participation in the council and from awareness of programs and activities gained through such participation, the framework is laid for the development of these desired operating relationships. The central index of functions and services clears the way for unrestricted activity in a designated area, avoiding interference in programs of other agencies or duplication of effort.

In the development of these desirable operating relationships among the agencies the central council can exert an important influence. In its advisory capacity it is in a position to chart programs designed to reach every area and serve every known need. In following up the findings of the community survey it is able to indicate areas needing attention and to suggest suitable programs.

Likewise, contemplated development of a new program or extension of an existing activity on the part of any agency should be cleared through the council before the enterprise actually gets under way. This clearance of activity, through participation in the central organization, will result in effective and desirable operating relationships.

Frequent meetings on a regular schedule of the advisory group will afford opportunities for presentation of projected plans, as well as for reports on functioning activity. Free discussion of these plans and activities not only provides the necessary clearance, but at the same time yields helpful suggestions for carrying out the proposed program. At all

times, however, participation, co-operation, and interpretation are essential to desirable operating relationships.

Training of Staff

In all service activity, successful functioning is dependent on the scope and purpose of the program and on the effectiveness of the staff carrying out the objectives. Training of the staff is, therefore, essential in order that the over-all program may be developed in accordance with the major objectives. Individual agencies must assume responsibility for the selection and direction of capable workers. For increased accomplishment and greater efficiency, however, the central organization can be of much assistance.

Assistance to staff members is, of course, rendered through the interpretative activity of the council itself. Tangible and effective help may be provided, however, through the scheduling of conferences, meetings, workshops, and institutes at which specific guidance is given through lectures by recognized authorities, or by means of discussions and programs directed by these leaders, but in which opportunity for wide participation is afforded. Institutes and meetings of this kind furnish information on how other communities are meeting similar problems, thus providing both inspiration and concrete assistance in terms of successful practice. In-service training of staffs is an important responsibility of the central organization, the effective administration of which contributes measurably to the successful operation of the program.

Standards for Determination of Effectiveness

It is likewise the responsibility of the central organization to establish appropriate standards by which the effectiveness of any program may be evaluated. Standards such as the number of referrals, the effectiveness of the adjustments resulting from the operation of the program, and the competence of the individuals reached by the program may be established on the basis of actual and possible activity in the individual community. Minimum standards should be determined, however, and so interpreted that they will serve as evaluation media. Satisfaction of minimum standards may then be recognized as the qualifying requirement for enlargement or extension of agency activities. These standards can be determined on the basis of the area to be served and the potential youth group involved.

Supervisory Service

For the successful operation of any co-operative or co-ordinated program there must be a system of supervisory service for the evaluation of

offerings and for the continued relating of activities to the over-all objectives. Operating as a part of the central organization, supervisory workers will promote these essential objectives.

The central organization itself is primarily an advisory and policy-forming body. For the determination of the extent of realization of objectives and the effective functioning of the individual agencies there must be some system of supervision. The success of the supervisory system may well be the means of evaluation of the central organization itself.

A supervisory system so established will not only serve the evaluative purpose already indicated, but will also be helpful in the area of in-service training for the agency workers. The supervisor not only assists the worker in carrying on his program but also is helpful in pointing out, for all-time recognition on the part of the worker, the over-all community objectives and the ways of accomplishing them through co-operative endeavor.

The organization of the administration for a community youth-service program does not differ from recognized organizational standards for other educational programs. Such a program is but an extension of service and an integration of all activity in behalf of youth. Leadership of the school administration in this activity establishes the school organization in its rightful place as the heart of the community. Participation in community planning serves to enlarge the scope of influence of the school administration by adding to its already functioning organization the extensions which afford maximum opportunity for growth and adjustment of every individual. The supervisory organization of the school may well determine the pattern for the promotion of effectiveness of all other services.

In planning for new school construction the larger sphere of influence must be taken into account and the building should be designed with the view of providing facilities for community activity. In so doing the school administration participates whole-heartedly in the planning and in the life of the community.

THE TEACHERS AND COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

Teachers have not been trained to engage effectively in community planning or even in many extensions of the services of the school into the community. They know too little about the operation of community affairs and frequently know too little about the community and its resources to utilize them as tools of instruction. Too much emphasis has been placed on the use of resources in the community only after the regular materials of instruction have been taught, thus leaving the

teacher little time for the very important but more difficult task of drawing upon community resources for the enrichment of the learning experiences of the pupils. A new orientation is needed in teacher-training institutions and in the preparation of instructional materials. More time must be spent on such problems as understanding community life and using the resources of daily living to develop the abilities of boys and girls.

In general, teachers have not been accustomed to taking part in many community affairs. Many communities still do not expect such activity on the part of their teachers, nor do they even desire it. A recent study of the community of Red Wing, Minnesota, bears out this fact. When representative adults were asked in what community affairs they thought their teachers should engage, the parents replied with two suggestions, church and youth activities; others in sizable numbers suggested civic affairs of clubs; only a few (16 per cent) thought local or federal politics was suitable; and a still smaller proportion (13 per cent) mentioned state politics.¹³ In other words, teachers are not generally expected to identify themselves with the forces which control local, state, and national life. They are not to participate actively in seeing that the proper people are elected. They are to *serve* the community in which they teach—lead youth organizations, teach Sunday school classes, and speak to civic clubs and serve on their committees, but they are not to be concerned with the really stirring issues of democracy. Little wonder that our schools are sterile of the issues and the vitalizing forces of modern life! Until communities come to realize that such attitudes are unintelligent, they can expect neither vital teachers nor vital social learning.

The first and foremost responsibility of schools in a democracy is that of developing social competence to act speedily and intelligently to improve living in a democratic society. Community participation on the part of both teachers and pupils is essential. The materials of instruction are the problems of living; the process is the scientific method of analysis and the co-operative method of arriving at group decisions. The school is a vital factor in both of these, and when the school really comes into its own it will be found to be a community laboratory with its teachers a compelling force in community growth.

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS AND STAFF OFFICERS

Community problems are becoming so complicated that more extensive training and experience in planning and carrying out major projects is

¹³ Nelson L. Bossing and Leo J. Brueckner, *The Impact of the War on the Schools of Red Wing*. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1945.

necessary for school administrators. According to the concept developed here, the chief school officer in the community is a master co-ordinator of community activities affecting the education, recreation, and welfare of children and youth. In addition, he must be able to take his proper place with other community leaders to plan for the physical, the economic, and the political improvement of the community. This means more training than school administrators generally have secured and it means a different kind of training. The administrator must know more about community agencies and their work; he must acquire knowledge beyond the areas of school buildings, school finance, personnel, and curriculum. He need not be a specialist in all of the fields he administers, but he must have a vision beyond any one field and he must possess the ability to blend into a total pattern each area of activity which relates to the education of the pupil. Each agency or activity worker with whom he associates needs to have a feeling of security and understanding and to recognize in the administrator a champion of all major interests. The training of such administrators opens a new field of leadership training for the universities.

The administrator needs also to surround himself with a competent staff of specialists to assist him. All specialists need to possess a common understanding of the total needs of the community and of the existing relations among the co-operating agencies and workers. They need to have a point of view which goes far beyond their immediate specialty, for without this they may become tyrants and break down entirely the co-operative nature of all projects attempted. These specialists should also be chosen for their ability to get their satisfactions from the success of the total projects in the community; they should be well balanced personally and be able to work without having to be constantly drawing credit to themselves; and they should, of course, be highly competent in their several special fields.

The size of the staff varies with the size of the community. In small communities, it is better to secure one or two really competent people, and then depend upon volunteer workers, than to secure a larger staff of poorly trained or incapable people. Usually inferior capability and insecurity go together, and those are frequently followed by personnel conflicts over prestige. In communities of 50,000 or more population there should be several competent workers. The following chart illustrates a sample pattern which can be enlarged along the same lines as the volume of the work increases owing to the size of the community.

Superintendent of Community Affairs

(Education, Recreation, Welfare, Correction)

<i>Director of Child Guidance</i>	<i>Director of Recreation</i>	<i>Director of School Curriculum</i>	<i>Director of Welfare</i>
Staff made up of:	Recreational and	Supervisors	Staff made up
a) physician	health leaders	Principals	of visiting
b) psychologist	in department	Teachers	teachers and
c) counselors	and commu-		social work-
d) juvenile workers	nity		ers in com-
e) psychiatric social worker			munity
f) nurse			

The four directors listed should work with all special agency representatives in the community. For instance, the director of child guidance would work with the schools, the police department, the courts, and the parents; the director of recreation would work with schools, city recreation commission, and agencies operating recreational programs. The same would be true of the other directors, each one endeavoring to secure co-ordination of programs.

The directors should also work closely together on the interrelationships of their problems. Many problems of behavior arise from a poorly planned curriculum, or from poor home conditions or poor health.

CONCLUSION

In this chapter an attempt has been made to show the need for community co-ordination, the areas in which co-operation can best proceed, the responsibilities and organization for co-operative planning. Illustrations have been given of various kinds of community planning. If school administrators can see the need for improved community service, with the initiative taken by the school in many instances, the school can become a far more significant institution in improving daily living. As it does this it will be more vital and indispensable to those whom it serves.

CHAPTER VI

THE FINANCIAL SUPPORT OF EDUCATION¹

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INTRODUCTION

Expanding educational needs, the stubborn facts of cost, and the myriad difficulties involved in adequate support are fundamental to the complex problem of financing education. Educational need derives from the population and from the conditions of the society which it comprises. Every element of need—every element of educational policy—carries with it a presumption of cost, or, in other words, casts its cost shadow. But cost, just as surely, presupposes support. The financing of education thus becomes a very complex thing and constitutes a serious problem area in education—the more serious, indeed, as the whole fabric of social, economic, and political conditions looms larger and itself becomes more complex.

This very complexity of the financing of educational need forces us into a certain selectivity in the development of a single chapter dealing with this special field of educational administration. There is very little room afforded for going into historical and philosophical aspects of finance. We can hardly afford to review even the landmarks of the rich contributions of research and practice in this area since the turn of the century. We cannot take time to establish the real place of educational finance in the field of the social sciences, nor even to trace its descentance

¹ This chapter is the result of a co-operative undertaking on the part of a group of advanced graduate students of administration at the Harvard Graduate School of Education. While the one indicated as author has been the leader of the participatory group, a major part of whatever value the chapter possesses is due to the contributions of the group of participants, consisting of: Mr. Carl M. Bair, Jr., Principal of Littleton (Massachusetts) High School; Mr. James R. Foulger, High-School Teacher, Ogden, Utah; Mr. John K. Moulton, Research Assistant in Educational Administration, Harvard Graduate School of Education; and Mr. Cyril G. Sargent, Teacher, Phillips Academy, Andover, Massachusetts.

from education and political economy. The exigencies of time and space forbid the full coverage of the subject matter of the specific field itself. Selectivity of treatment must be our primary consideration. This is the way of yearbooks; and it is not bad withal, because it makes us adhere to timeliness and to relative values.

What, then, shall be the scheme of this chapter? For better or for worse let it be this:

First, to define the currently fundamental problems in the financing of education as those of central aids and intergovernmental relations; and within that frame to consider some of the problem aspects of federal-state-local fiscal relations, with special emphasis on the great need of federal support for education.

Second, to consider the financing of that great area of educational expansion which is now with us in the form of extended educational opportunity for older youth and adults.

Third, to consider the financing of the most strategic and expensive functional segment of the educational system, namely, the personnel of the public schools.

A few words may be important at the outset concerning the basis of our selection of these clusters in the problem of educational finance.²

Federal-State-Local Fiscal Relations. If the cumulative experience of the past quarter-century or more has any one thing to teach us about the financing of education, the lesson lies most clearly in the area of the inadequacy, inequity, and yet the necessity of the local tax base. Over a hundred years ago we began to learn to avoid complete reliance on the local property tax, but even now we lag as states in putting into practice what experience and research have to teach us about the why or the how of turning to the broader fiscal auspices of the state or nation. This hesitance is likely due to our general devotion as a people to the democratic way, and to our general fear of centralization and controls. With respect to the latter, it is probable that our fears are due to our lag in developing understanding of them and effective means of handling both centralization and controls. The whole difficulty is compounded by the expanding concept of the service role of government, the need of education, and the complexity of the educative process. Hence, when the traditional local support is seen to be inadequate, we turn to the larger units, but at the same time we feel certain that there is a true role for each of the govern-

² If we were to add a fourth cluster it would undoubtedly be on plant financing. Aside from the capital outlay features of this topic, and they are most clearly matters of school business administration, plant financing is bound increasingly to depend upon federal and state aid, which will be dealt with as a general area herein.

mental levels. In short, we are in the very midst of our problem of federal-state-local relations.

It is only necessary to call attention to the fact that the research in educational finance of the past quarter-century has been predominantly in the fields of state and federal aid, to bring home the essential dependency of our financing problem upon the broader problem of federal-state-local relations and its counterpart, the relations of education and general government. If it were not for the complexities of our relationship problem, founded as it is upon our sure belief in a true educational role for each governmental level, the aid problem, as such, would be erased, leaving us to be concerned exclusively with the budgetary aspects of finance. This is not to say that we should make the erasure here predicted, but its noting may assist in clarifying the relationship view of educational finance.

The Financing of Extended Education to Older Youth and Adults. The reason for the selection of this problem cluster for special consideration must be rather clearly apparent. The whole force of external conditions impacting upon education—after World War I, during the depression, and in future view during and after World War II—has been to open up the necessity of extending the scope of educational opportunity both downward and upward. The extension downward is into the earlier years of childhood, an area much neglected. But we are here particularly concerned with the extension upward for increasingly large groups into the years beyond the present high school, and then of broadening out this opportunity for the adult population. The movement is clearly here. It raises serious problems, not the least of which lie in the special field of finance. In financing this extended education we are challenged both by the very fact of our already inadequate support of the lower existing schools and by the at least partial inapplicability of our present aid techniques to the particular financial problems here considered.

The Financing of the Educational Personnel. Here is no new problem cluster in the field of finance. It has been an age-long concern and struggle both to know how best to arrange salary policy and to secure the necessary financial support. But the very fact that personal service is by far the most significant cost element in financing education makes the inclusion of this area a "must" in this chapter. The combination of salary level and pupil-teacher ratio is the real determinant of the cost of schools at any level. Hence policies in this area require constant research and development. In our research at this point we seem to be on very much of a plateau. Our problem is also compounded by a host of external conditions which raise issues that need to be resolved.

The Significance of "External Conditions"

To a considerable extent education has kept its concern within its walls and its thinking based upon the conditions within the function. Its concern has been real and serious and the approach to its problems has been commendable, but it may be fair to say that we have been too inattentive to those great clusters of external conditions of a social, economic, and political nature, and to their detailed elements which have their continuous impact upon our function. The factors conditioning the work of schools are both internal and external. It is not to criticize ourselves unduly that we call attention to the need of looking out upon these external conditions—inventorying and analyzing them as we approach problem areas in education—but it *is* that we may take the broader and perhaps the more realistic view of educational need and of ways of meeting it. It may even be ventured that education's greatest neglect as a professional field has been the failure to recognize and to study and analyze its external conditions. We shall not go into these extensively, but in each of the following sections some of these external conditions will be enumerated as they bear upon the problem of financing education.

The Nature of Educational Finance

But what, let us first ask, *is* the field of educational finance and what are its various relations? The more one works in the field and studies it in its practical setting, the more distracted he becomes in the ramifications of his experiences and the reflections they stimulate. But one thing is certain. The field is as broad as all education; for, what element of the educational program does not, as has been said, cast its financial shadow? This is to say that the financing of education cannot be separated from the whole of education. "Public finance" may be regarded as a special field; and against too much of this view one in educational finance has to be on guard. The pressure from without is upon him also to regard himself as the "watchdog of the treasury." But this is not his role. Educational finance is education; this is not to be lost sight of, but, being remembered, must be held also to involve the principles, the content, and the method that public finance in its true sense and range involves. Above all, finance is means, not end. Its function is facilitating.

Furthermore, educational finance is not inclusive of school business administration, however much the two fields may be related or together treated, or, in fact, confused. The financing of education is concerned with the support of education and the basis of support, as distinct from the processes of business management. However questionable the term "funding the educational program" may be, it describes well the major

concern in educational finance, because it indicates that first there is the program whose financing is the task. Educational finance, therefore, is concerned with revenue, with the state and future of the economy, with the fiscal auspices, with taxation, with cost, with the relationships among supporting levels, with fiscal aids from central government, and the like. Budgeting in its long-term planning aspect lies in finance, not in business management. Thus regarded, a case may be made for the budgetary process as being broad enough, when properly conceived, to embrace or to be coterminous with the whole administrative process.³

In essence, with whatever the general educational administrator is concerned, with each such element there is the financial aspect. One may properly divide educational administration into some ten to twelve subdivisions of the field, broadly classified. But immediately he has to caution that these classes are not mutually exclusive; they overlap and are interrelated. "The financing of education" is one of them; "intergovernmental relations" is another; hence, it is certainly as proper to choose to approach the former as the latter.

Educational finance has its roots in several branches of the social sciences, although its lineal descent is most directly from education. Its basic disciplines are economics, political science, public law, and public finance, including taxation. Included among its ancillary disciplines would certainly be statistics.

The financing of education also has its principles. No one should think that they have reached the stage of "laws." They are more in the nature of guides or "requisites," grown thus far out of experience. Among these are the following: (1) *Adequacy*—which holds that any element of the educational program requires an ascertainably adequate or appropriate financial support attached thereto, lest it be destined to failure or, at best, limited success;⁴ (2) *equity*, within which is embraced the equalization of educational opportunity, classically defined a quarter-century ago by Strayer and Haig;⁵ (3) *adaptability*, which is to "liberty" as equity is to "equality," and requires of financing, within any administrative unit, the leeway which gives the fiscal margin essential for adaptation

³ See Alfred D. Simpson, "The Budgetary Process as an Instrument for the Realization of Home Rule," *Harvard Educational Review*, XI (May, 1941), 339-46.

⁴ See *Schools in Small Communities*. Twelfth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators. Washington: American Association of School Administrators, National Education Association, 1939.

⁵ George D. Strayer and Robert Murray Haig, *The Financing of Education in the State of New York*, p. 174. *Educational Finance Inquiry*, Vol. I. New York: Macmillan Co., 1923.

to changed conditions;⁶ and (4) *prudence*, which is prone to be mistaken by many for parsimony, but which means "good stewardship" and "administrability," and is thus the connecting link, in principle, between finance and business administration.⁷

Thus, it will be seen that the financing of education is no dry-as-dust field; it has dynamics; it has a soul. It *is* complex and it *is* a broad field, changing in emphasis and need as the times and their conditions change, but anchored in its line of progression to education and to educational need. So orientated, let us proceed with our problem clusters in the field of finance which we left for the purpose of this thumbnail sketch.

FEDERAL-STATE-LOCAL FISCAL RELATIONS (With Special View toward the Federal Level)

Any discussion of the financing of education takes on a complexity, but at the same time an intriguing interest, as the problems and issues are indicated. At the same time, the seriousness of these can be easily seen if one but considers the inequalities which exist among the various states. These inequalities may be expressed in terms of educational opportunities, educational leadership and personnel, the extent and range of state and local fiscal capacity, taxing programs, state financial aid to local subdivisions, and the like. While the estimated annual cost of education in the postwar era has been set at such figures as \$4,592,700,000 and \$6,100,000,000 (twice or thrice the amount of current expenses for public schools in 1939-40)⁸ these figures do not represent an undue increase, if the national income stabilizes at something like twice the prewar high. These estimates, at any rate, are not too large for a nation that has confidence in democracy and that has the hope and desire to continue in leadership among the nations. Nor need they become serious burdens for a nation that puts real faith in educational growth as basic to national vigor, even though the national income does not stabilize at hoped-for high levels. They do become serious if national policy draws into an ultraconservative shell. And they do very obviously become serious unless we somehow succeed in coping with such disproportionate ratios as those of 1 to 60 in educational expenditures of the different states,

⁶ See Paul R. Mort and Francis G. Cornell, *Adaptability of Public School Systems*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938.

⁷ For a discussion of this and other principles, see Paul R. Mort and Walter C. Reusser, *Public School Finance*, pp. 95-113. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1941; and *Schools in Small Communities*, *op. cit.*, pp. 348-52.

⁸ *Proposals for Public Education in Postwar America*. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XXII, No. 2. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1944.

which have been forcefully and recently called to our attention by Norton and Lawler.⁹

While a range of from \$100 a classroom unit to one of more than \$6,000 (1939-40) has been endurable in the past—laughed off, as it were—in the name of freedom or rough-and-ready statehood, it cannot for long be justified in a land of “equal opportunity.” Although it is often argued that some of those pupils in the low-expenditure schools may be getting an educational experience equal to or superior to those in the higher brackets, the Educational Conference Board of New York State has found “more unusually good educational practices in schools where the most money is spent per pupil per year.”¹⁰

To point up our problem more forcefully, one might take the following statement:

For millions of children the opportunity for anything more than a modicum of meager, formal education is conditioned largely by place of birth. In communities where fertility is too low for family replacement, where the burden of child care and education is light, where economic resources are more abundant, and where the cultural-intellectual status of parents is high, we support education liberally. In communities where the birth rate is high and the economically productive age group is carrying a disproportionately heavy child population, where the plane of living is low, where the cultural heritage is the poorest, and where the home has the least to contribute to cultural and intellectual growth, we support education niggardly. These conditions constitute a challenge to American democratic ideals. If, for a long period of years, we draw each succeeding generation in disproportionately large numbers from those areas in which economic conditions are poorest and the cultural-intellectual level the lowest, if the population reserves of the nation are to be recruited from a definitely underprivileged class, and if we fail to make good the deficit by conscious educative endeavor, the effect on our culture and on our representative political institutions may be appalling.

Education can be made a force to equalize the condition of men; it is no less true that it can be made a force to create class, race, and sectional distinctions. If formal educational attainments condition entrance to some economic and social spheres, and if great opportunities for educational advance are open to some groups while the educational facilities for others remain meager, it is obvious that education becomes an instrument of social stratification and of regional and racial inequality. If in some settings education becomes a vital, stimulating, intellectual process, while in other situations it remains formal and disassociated from daily life, the schools may function as a mechanism of social differentiation. The evi-

⁹ John K. Norton and Eugene S. Lawler, “An Inventory of Public School Expenditures in the United States.” Washington: American Council on Education, 1944 (mimeographed).

¹⁰ *Education—A Mighty Force!* Washington 6: National Education Association. See also *What Education Our Money Buys*. Albany, New York: Educational Conference Board of New York State (152 Washington Avenue), 1943.

dence indicates clearly that continuance of present practices creates grave danger that our schools, which we have heretofore regarded the bulwark of democracy, may in fact become an instrument for creating those very inequalities they were designed to prevent.¹¹

Many attempts have been made to develop formulas which would adequately answer the problems. State after state has made attempts. Yet, with each attempt, certain limitations have been accepted for practical purposes so that even the best of programs are compromises.

Some years ago the Research Division of the National Education Association published a valuable bulletin in an endeavor to determine the efforts of the states to support education, with particular emphasis on "adequacy" and "ability."¹² The conclusions are significant; they should "give us pause" that the picture is unchanged for the better in ten years in America:

1. In general, rich states provide more adequate support for their schools and with less effort.
2. There is considerable range in the relative efforts of the states to support education.
3. There is a wide range among the states in the relative adequacy of the financial support accorded education.
4. There is no significant relationship between the two factors, "effort" and "adequacy."
5. There is a significant, but low, negative relationship between the two factors, "effort" and "ability," except in 1930 when, on the basis of Newcomer's data, there was a fairly high negative correlation of $- .77$
6. There is a rather high positive relationship between the two factors, "ability" and "adequacy."
7. Many states could not provide a national defensible minimum program of financial support, even with great effort.

These facts alone would indicate that even a state-supported financial program, commensurate with abilities, as important as improvement in this direction is, would not provide a solution in all of our states.

Grouping the ten highest states and the ten lowest in financial support of education led Norton and Lawler to these significant conclusions:

Some states are rich in wealth, poor in children, generous in expenditures, low in financial effort to provide these generous expenditures, and fortunate in their educational results.

¹¹ Newton Edwards, *Equal Educational Opportunity for Youth*, pp. 150-52. A Report to the American Youth Commission. Washington: American Council on Education, 1939.

¹² *The Efforts of States To Support Education*. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XIV, No. 3. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1936.

Other states which are rich in numbers of children, but poor in ability to pay for their education, provide only a meager expenditure for their schools and get inferior educational results, on tax rates which are high as compared with the country as a whole.¹³

The Need and Outlook for State Support

Obviously, the extension of state aid in the financing of education may be expected, even though the history of the movement indicates that this will come slowly and haltingly. The expansion of present efforts and the correction of the present deficiencies seem certain to involve the development of higher minimum standards and requirements. The process will involve, first and foremost, the assurance of equitably distributed educational opportunity through the establishment of adequate state foundation programs. It will require a more effective governmental structure of education, including school-district reorganization, at the state and local levels; longer school years; higher teacher standards; better salary laws, schedules, and levels; better plant facilities; and, above all, great administrative stature and developed skill in democratic leadership. These and other things will have to be provided if state and local initiative are not to degenerate into the mere right to lag behind need.

According to a chart in a recent issue of the *Journal of the National Education Association*,¹⁴ state financial support of education varies within the United States all the way from 1.4 per cent of the total school revenue in one state to 92 per cent of the total in another. Eleven state governments provide more than half, and twenty-one states less than a fourth, of their total school funds.

The state support situation and the outlook for it, based on the facts, is very discouraging. States have the clear responsibility for educational support under our constitutional structure. They just haven't lived up to it. These low-level, state-aid states—the 2 per cent to 10 per cent states—take a seeming pride in their almost complete dependence upon the local autonomy, unmindful of the meagerness of the educational program which this necessitates for many boys and girls. Other states, which have moved to higher levels, often fail miserably in the methods of distribution, unmindful of, or failing to heed, the fundamental principle of equalization of educational opportunity. After more than a quarter-century of research and experience with modern state-aid patterns and techniques, far too many of these federal states of ours lag either in level or in equitable distribution. They fiddle, while Rome burns.

There are valiant movements in the form of state studies. Practically

¹³ John K. Norton and E. S. Lawler, *op. cit.*, p. 316.

¹⁴ *Journal of the National Education Association*, XXXII (March, 1943), 84.

every state in the Union has been competently surveyed and practical programs have been developed, too often only to fail of enactment. Paul Mort has done this job in state after state, and others, including the writer, have done their part in several commonwealths. Forward-looking, realistic, local educational leaders have led valiantly; their lagging brothers have complacently looked on, some of them from the fiscally favored local units wherein chance concentration of property values makes possible the relatively stronger and more adaptable school systems.

And the people—they do not seem to be disturbed—they do not seem to know. They and their legislative representatives—some, but of course not all—seem unaware of what is happening to the local economy, especially in our large cities. Take Boston, for example: (a) *Property-tax reliance very high*—nearly 80 per cent of total municipal requirements in 1943, and rising—higher for schools alone; (b) *property-tax base inflated*—from 4 per cent on up, depending upon sources; (c) *property-tax rate very high*—many say a capital levy—\$41 per thousand in 1943 and higher now; (d) *receding population*.¹⁵ What does one make of the local economy? In the midst of all this precarious and fading local economy the Commonwealth's aid for schools amounts by most generous computation to only 9 per cent of the total current cost of education. But the legislature failed in 1945 to pass a survey bill proposed by the Finance Commission of the City of Boston (a state agency, sponsoring the survey) which called for a commission study of state-local fiscal relationships in Massachusetts, with an appropriation of \$25,000; and, instead, created a four-point omnibus study commission with an appropriation of \$1,000.

This situation is not held to be typical; but throughout the country there are many spots—state and local—which represent much the same pattern. Somehow, people have not been reached, and many of them find solace in the untutored unconcern of those in the profession. We have far to go in the art of developing and motivating realistic public policy in education. We need to be on the road.

But there are bright spots. Perhaps outstanding are the developments in California and New York. Somehow in these states there is vigor. Both of these states materially strengthened their state-aid systems during the past year. Both have had a succession of researches over a period of years. New York has been in the vanguard in its application of the principles of adequacy, equalization, and adaptability—the three basically essential principles governing developments in this area. California's

¹⁵ See *Report of a Survey of the Public Schools of Boston, Massachusetts*, pp. 1087–93. George D. Strayer, Director. Boston: City of Boston Printing Department, 1944. For a complete study of educational finance in Boston, see Vol. VIII, prepared by Alfred D. Simpson.

state aid has long been larger, but not until the present year did it get a real start with equalization, and this was against tremendous odds.¹⁶ What, then, is the explanation of this recent success in California? The answer lies primarily in two forces which have much significance for the future, if states are to rise educationally to possible levels: *First*, outstanding and brilliant professional leadership, largely local, within the state; and, *second*, the fact that the current state studies referred to embraced the participatory process—the broadened base—in the development of public policy. These states represent and are examples of state vigor; refusal to be by-passed. Theirs is the only way in the long run to prevent by-passing.

All evidence at hand indicates, however, that to provide the approximately five to six billions of dollars which various groups have estimated to be needed to finance education properly, local and state sources of revenue, combined, will be insufficient. The great problem is to harmonize the various sources of school funds at all levels through the medium of good interlevel relationships and good education—general government relationships—so that too much of the good things in our traditional structure may not be lost, so that the dangerous lag may be overcome, and so that real educational need may be met.

It being clearly predicated that American education must turn to the economic resources of the whole nation, and also that the entire nation (since we are one people) must look to its total educational foundations, it will be well at this point to re-examine the problem of financing education at the federal level.

External Conditions Which Impact on Education at the Federal Level

Of primary importance among the conditions which impinge upon education at the federal level is the trend, accelerated by the depression and briefly interrupted by the war, toward raising the age level of the employment of youth. The proportion of young people gainfully employed has been declining since 1910, and each year there are 600,000 more youth entering the labor market than the number of openings due to deaths and retire-

¹⁶ See *The Administration, Organization, and Financial Support of the Public School System, State of California* (printed) and "The Financial Support of Education in California" (mimeographed). Sacramento: State Reconstruction and Re-employment Commission, Alexander R. Heron, Director, 1945. Dr. George D. Strayer was the Commission's Special Consultant for the complete project, reported in the first reference, while the latter was a study of state aid, with special reference to equalization, made by Alfred D. Simpson, also Special Consultant, and Hubert C. Armstrong, Collaborator.

ments.¹⁷ The growth of the secondary school from 15 per cent of the youth of high-school age in 1910 to 51 per cent in 1930 and to 73 per cent in 1940 is based on the bedrock reality that youth have, except in recent war times, been forced out of the employment game.¹⁸ The American Youth Commission estimated, as of 1935, that no less than 3,000,000 youth between the ages of 16 and 24 were both out of school and without any employment whatever.¹⁹ The Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, setting as it does a minimum work age of sixteen in nonagricultural interstate employment points up this trend toward the extension of the non-working life of young people.²⁰ The Federal Government has, therefore, an obligation to assist in making available to the youth, so deterred, educational facilities and economic benefits to insure their continued development until the time when the economic system is ready to accept them as full-fledged employables.

Another area of concern for education is the numbers within the population who are being demobilized from the armed services, industrially displaced, or otherwise occupationally upset, and who are knocking at the door of education for one or another type of instructional service. The number who would seek further educational training, if available at public expense, has been estimated at 1,627,000.²¹ In addition, the same source estimates that the number of civilian personnel needing further training is 1,187,000, for an average training period of about seven months. It is further anticipated that after the war we will have thirty-two to forty million whose vocational experience will be in manufacturing and mechanical industries, which amounts to three to five times the prewar proportion.

An external force acting on education and its expenditures will be the growth of the national debt, due both to increased governmental activity generally and especially to the huge war expenditures. The Treasury Depart-

¹⁷ *Schools and Manpower*, p. 277. Twenty-second Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators. Washington: American Association of School Administrators of the National Education Association, 1944.

¹⁸ Computed from *Statistical Summary of Education, 1941-42*, Vol. II, Chap. II, p. 9, Table 9. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1944.

¹⁹ Howard M. Bell, *Youth Tell Their Story*, p. 106. Washington: American Council on Education, 1938.

²⁰ See J. Laurence Phalan, "The Impact of the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 and Allied Labor Legislation upon the Employment and Education of Youth," for an extended consideration of the problems and issues arising out of certain labor impacts. Bound manuscript, Doctoral Dissertation, Harvard Graduate School of Education, 1944.

²¹ *Proposals for Public Education in Postwar America*. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XXII, No. 2. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1944.

ment reports that the total (federal-state-local) per capita debt in the United States has risen from \$131 in 1930 to \$1,456 in 1944.²² There will be the usual urge to retrenchment, curtailing of government services, and a reduction of tax rates.

The well-recognized phenomenon of population mobility also conditions our approach to educational responsibilities at the federal level. The farm and rural areas provide the steady excess of population to enable the cities to maintain themselves. In every census since 1850 more than 20 per cent of the persons born in the United States resided at the time of the census in states other than those in which they were born. From 1920 to 1930, 60 per cent of the net farm-to-city migration, or 3,437,000, came from the southeastern and southwestern regions. The economic significance of this migration from farm to city has been shown by an estimation that the cost of rearing children, who will later migrate, until they are fifteen years old, amounts approximately to an annual contribution of \$14,000,000,000 by the farming communities to the cities.²³

Closely allied with population mobility is the age distribution of the population. It is a well-known fact that our population is growing older. As pointed out by T. L. Norton, drawing upon studies of the National Resources Committee and the Social Security Board, the increase in persons over 65 years of age may be from the 7,500,000 in 1935 to as much as 22,000,000 in 1980.²⁴ This represents a rise in the proportion of the total population from 6 per cent in 1935 to an estimated 15 per cent in 1980. With a rise in the educational level and a tendency to earlier retirements or lay-offs, it is clear that increasing proportions of the population must be dependent on others or on the government for support. There have been various estimates of the governmental costs of old-age benefits and to these must be added other social welfare costs.²⁵ These essential services by an enlightened people may be characterized simply as growing uncompromisingly. They have a decided meaning for education, especially in financing it. They mean that unless the tax burden is increased some

²² *Report for 1944, United States Treasury*, p. 627, Table 23. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1945.

²³ O. E. Baker, "Rural and Urban Distribution of the Population in the United States," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, CLXXXVIII (November, 1936), 272.

²⁴ T. L. Norton, *Public Education and Economic Trends*, pp. 37-38. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1939.

²⁵ As long ago as 1938 the Social Security Board estimated the 1980 annual cost of benefit payments under the contributory old-age-benefits system to be as high as five and one-half billion dollars, or about as much as the highest estimates of postwar annual education costs.

other governmental service will suffer. This, coupled with the growth of governmental services in general, will have serious impact on the competition for public funds, in which competition education is of necessity a participant.

Still another factor for education to respond to is the war-heightened awareness of, and resulting urge to eliminate, illiteracy and curable physical defects and weaknesses. As of August 1, 1944, 4,217,000 men had been rejected for the armed services. Of this number, 250,000 were illiterate with no other defects, while 681,000 were rejected for illiteracy but had other defects which would have disqualified them in addition to illiteracy.²⁶

The concentration of wealth of our modern industrial society has a strong bearing on the problem of financing education, particularly at the federal level. This concentration of wealth has been shown by Norton and Alltucker in their study of *Wealth, Children, and Education*,²⁷ wherein they developed a composite index of economic ability based on the yield of a modern tax system, three selected taxes, and ten weighted economic items. According to this measure the three states of New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania have 27 per cent of the economic resources of the country, at the same time possessing but 19 per cent of the educational load, while the South Atlantic states of Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, and West Virginia have 8 per cent of the economic resources and 13 per cent of the educational load. The range of individual states is even greater. In terms of income per child of school age the range is from \$1,838 in Mississippi to \$8,300 in California. The national average is \$4,769. Thus, California is 4.5 times as able to support schools as Mississippi, according to this measure. Fifteen states had an income of more than \$5,000 per school-age child in 1943, while eight had less than one-half that amount.²⁸

And finally we have the problem of the maintenance of a high-level national income. Many economists, and the majority of political leaders, though with fluctuating beat, are agreed that the maintenance of this high-level income is not only possible but necessary. Looking into the postwar years, no one can be very sure about the national income, except that there will be one, and that it will always be a truly climactic external condition of education. As we may say of the "belongingship" of the

²⁶ Committee on Education and Labor, "Wartime Health and Education." Hearings before a Subcommittee of the Committee on Education and Labor, U.S. Senate, 78th Congress, second session, p. 2034.

²⁷ John K. Norton and Margaret Alltucker, *Wealth, Children, and Education*, p. 45, Table 13. New York: Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, 1938.

²⁸ *Education: Why the Federal Government Must Help*. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, March, 1945.

schools to the people, so with the national income: "We hope it will deal well with the education of children, youth, and adults; but deal it will." And, furthermore, the maintenance of a high-level economy and national income will demand certain contributions. Not only will the training and retraining of workers be involved as an essential part of the task but a raising of the economic literacy in general is necessary if we are to achieve this goal.

General Status of Support and Need

Since 1933 the funds for education at the federal level have been in general increasing. Table I gives the amount of federal funds for educa-

TABLE I.—FEDERAL FUNDS FOR EDUCATION, 1933-1942*
(In thousands of dollars)

Year	Regular Appropriation	Emergency Funds
1933-34.....	\$16,942	\$ 24,711
1934-35.....	28,140	41,009
1935-36.....	27,285	266,641**
1936-37.....	38,913	287,726***
1937-38.....	52,122	168,683
1938-39.....	53,588	121,592
1939-40.....	55,117	98,454
1940-41.....	55,363	168,321
1941-42.....	55,711	230,689

* Source: "Federal Funds for Education," U.S. Office of Education, Leaflets No. 30, 45, 54, 61, 70, Circular No. 162. Does not include appropriations for Office of Indian Affairs, Schools of District of Columbia, West Point, Annapolis, Marine Schools, and Funds from the use of oil and timber lands, part of which may be used for education.

** Includes allotments for NIRA and ERA for 1935, and WPA cumulative through June, 1936.

*** Includes PWA allotments from beginning of program through June, 1937.

tion for the years 1933 to 1942. These amounts are separated as to the type of appropriation. Column 1 indicates the regular fund totals, and column 2 the emergency appropriations. It is clearly evident from this table that the Federal Government has been increasing its support, though chiefly on an emergency basis, but that the approach has been one of a series of temporary measures resulting in a short-term program of great instability.

Reference has already been made to the American Council on Education study, published in 1944, by Norton and Lawler, on public school expenditures as of the year 1939-40. Current expenditures per classroom for the country as a whole were found to range from ten classroom units at less than \$100, to 790 units at \$6,000 to \$6,099. The median unit was found to be at the \$1,600 to \$1,699 level. Nine million children were in

classrooms below this level, while 4,800,000 were in classrooms spending below \$900 per unit.²⁹ The median level of support by states ranged from a low of \$400-\$499 in Mississippi to a high of \$3,500-\$3,599 in California, and \$4,100-\$4,199 in New York. Thus, the highest state-median level of support per classroom unit is more than ten times that of the median of the lowest state. All but one of the states with the lowest expenditures are in the South. These nine lowest states have a median classroom expenditure below \$1,000. This extreme range in the financial support of schools represents a denial of our ideal of equality of educational opportunity. To bring the level of support among the poorer states up to the national level would have required \$315,832,100 in 1940.³⁰

TABLE II.—CURRENT EXPENDITURES FOR EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES IN 1940 AND ESTIMATED JUSTIFIABLE MINIMUM ANNUAL EXPENDITURES IN THE POSTWAR PERIOD (Millions of dollars, 1940 purchasing power)*

	Expenditures 1940	Postwar Period
Preschool, elementary and high school..	\$2,158	\$3,900
Junior college.....	26	400
College, university, and professional schools.....	460	1,000
Adult education.....	57	300
Student aid.....	66	300
Public library.....	50	200
Total.....	\$2,817	\$6,100

* National Resources Planning Board, *National Resources Development Report for 1943*, p. 73, Table 1.

The cost of providing education in terms of expanding programs and groups to be served indicates a sharp increase in the financial support necessary to carry on the proposed program. The National Education Association, in its study of postwar education, has estimated that the annual current expenditure of the "goal" program would be \$4,592,000,000.³¹ The National Resources Planning Board has estimated that adequate education for the postwar period will cost approximately \$6,100,000,000 in terms of 1940 purchasing power. Table II shows the 1940 current expenditures together with the Board's postwar "justifiable minimum" annual expenses.

The Board has also estimated the annual capital outlay for the post-

²⁹ J. K. Norton and E. S. Lawler, *An Inventory of Public School Expenditures in the United States*, pp. 7, 8. Washington: American Council on Education, 1944.

³⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 122.

³¹ *Proposals for Public Education in Postwar America*, *op. cit.*, p. 68.

war period to range from \$775,000,000 on a twenty-year program basis to \$2,300,000,000 on a five-year program basis. This compares with the 1940 outlay of \$382,000,000.³² Thus we see that either from the viewpoint of equalizing the level of the present program or from that of the postwar educational need the situation demands large increases in the annual amounts devoted to educational services.

Problems That Result from the Status Demands

The immediate problem that confronts us in either equalization endeavor or the process of broadening and enriching the educational program and the extension of the group to be served is that of securing adequate funds for this purpose. The period of the depression has in it a clear example of the need to seek support beyond the local and state level.

TABLE III.—GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES IN MILLIONS OF DOLLARS, 1928-1942

Year	Federal	State	Local	Total	Educational Expenditures
1928.....	\$ 2,894	\$1,774	\$6,409	\$11,077	\$2,343
1930.....	3,237	2,170	6,630	12,073	2,466
1932.....	4,712	2,257	6,448	13,417	2,161
1934.....	6,784	2,044	5,621	14,449	1,968
1936.....	8,547	2,433	6,038	17,018	1,711
1938.....	6,977	3,391	5,223	15,601	2,233
1940.....	8,824	3,612	5,628	18,064	2,344
1942.....	33,980	3,644	5,213	42,837	2,322

Sources: National Industrial Conference Board, "Economic Record," March, 1943, and "Cost of Government in the United States, 1935-37." For last column, the U.S. Office of Education, various issues of *Biennial Survey of Education*.

The rise of the general fiscal ability at the federal level and the relative decrease of that at the local level, as measured by general governmental expenditure, is shown in Table III. Here it can be seen that governmental expenditures on the federal level have increased from \$2,894,000,000 in 1928 to \$8,824,000,000 in 1940, the last of the prewar years. During the same period the total local expenditures have dropped from \$6,409,000,000 to \$5,628,000,000.

Table IV gives the percentage change, in terms of the base year 1928, of expenditures at each governmental level. In 1940 the Federal Government was spending 205 per cent more than in 1928, the state 103 per cent more, while the local level had decreased expenditures by 12 per cent. Educational expenditures were continuously below the 1928 level from 1932 to 1938, but were restored to the level of the base year by 1940.

³² *Ibid.*, Table II, p. 74.

Another approach to the same situation is shown in Table V which contrasts the relative change in importance of the federal, state, and local units in terms of the total expenditures of all units for the years 1928-42. Again the picture is that of the rising importance of the Federal Government to a position of predominance in the expenditure field. In 1928 the Federal Government spent 26 per cent of the total, while in 1940 it

TABLE IV.—PERCENTAGE CHANGE IN GOVERNMENTAL EXPENDITURES, 1928 TO 1942, EVEN YEARS

Year	Federal	State	Local	State and Local	Total	Education
1928.....	0	0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
1930.....	12	22	3.4	6.2	8.6	5.3
1932.....	63	27	0.6	5.1	21.2	- 7.8
1934.....	135	15	-12.3	- 7.4	21.4	-16.0
1936.....	195	39	- 5.8	- 2.3	53.5	-27.0
1938.....	141	91	-18.5	4.1	40.9	- 4.7
1940.....	205	103	-12.2	11.6	63.0	4.0
1942.....	1,074	105	-18.7	6.9	287.0	- 0.8

Source: Computations from Table III.

TABLE V.—PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF LOCAL-STATE-FEDERAL EXPENDITURES 1928 TO 1942, EVEN YEARS

Year	Federal	State	Local	Total	Percentage Education is of State and Local
1928.....	26	16	58	100	28.4
1930.....	27	18	54	100	28.0
1932.....	35	17	48	100	24.8
1934.....	47	14	39	100	25.6
1936.....	50	14	35	100	20.1
1938.....	45	22	33	100	25.9
1940.....	47	19	31	100	25.3
1942.....	79	9	12	100	26.3

Source: Computations from Table IV.

spent 47 per cent. The local level spent 58 per cent of the total in 1928 and only 31 per cent in 1940.

The situation is well summed up by the National Resources Planning Board in its report for 1943 when it states:

During the years immediately following the war it does not appear probable that the total revenue available for education from state and local sources combined can be greatly increased, although many states can and should increase the school revenue of their state governments and decrease the school revenue of the local governments in order to reduce the heavy tax burden now resting on property and the local government. It also appears improbable that any great in-

crease will occur in nongovernmental funds for education. It is, therefore, evident that most of the increase in expenditures for education in the postwar period must be financed almost if not entirely by federal funds.³³

There is, then, a clear picture of unmet educational need. The problem of satisfying this need forces us to the federal level for support. Our solution to the problem lies in meeting the issues which must be resolved. When we have found the means of harmonizing these, and, of course, other on-coming differences, we shall be able to see our program of education for America broadened in scope, enriched in substance, facilitated by harmonious organization patterns, and attained by realistic method. Thus, our level of life as a nation will be raised significantly, both economically and spiritually.

Issues That Arise in the Support of Education at the Federal Level

The first issue that confronts us is that of control. Will federal aid result in a national education system? Does this mean increased rigidity, leveling conformity to national standards, and the loss of the distinctly traditional and established pattern of a group of state school systems? The arguments for and against centralization have been many. Most people, including the public school personnel, have favored decentralized control. Most frequently, however, the discussion has been in terms of the best of decentralization versus the worst aspects of centralization. National committees have differed in their approach to the problem. The report of the National Advisory Committee of 1931 stated:

Any federal financial support for education in the states shall be given only for education in general and not for special phases of education. . . . This general policy should apply to all financial aid given to the states. The distribution of lands or moneys in aid of education is a long-established policy of the National Government. The change of policy which appeared soon after the middle of the last century, when federal grants were first made for specific phases of education, has not been altogether fortunate in its political, social, and financial consequences, regardless of the immediate educational gains in rapid stimulation, quick spread, and high standardization of the special activities favored by federal action.³⁴

This report represented the extreme noncontrol point of view, stating in another section concerning the auditing of federal funds:

³³ National Resources Planning Board, *National Resources Development Report, 1943*, p. 73. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1944.

³⁴ *Federal Relations to Education*, Part I, pp. 83-84. Report of the National Advisory Committee on Education. Washington: National Advisory Committee on Education (744 Jackson Place), 1931.

Restrict the audits of the federal government to those made by the Treasury Department, merely to determine whether or not the moneys granted have been spent for the general or special educational purposes as defined in the several federal acts of appropriation without making audit an indirect method for controlling or determining educational standards or processes.³⁵

The committee appointed by President Roosevelt, known as the Advisory Committee on Education, issued a report in 1938 calling for federal aid. They took the position that:

Federal grants for special educational purposes may properly be used to bring about attention to educational matters of special national concern and thus to improve the educational programs conducted under state and local auspices, but such grants should be considered with very great care to see that improvement does in fact result.³⁶

They further state:

The organization of education within the states must be given consideration in determining whether to grant all education aid in a single fund. . . . The Committee is thus forced to conclude that a realistic and comprehensive study of educational needs can only result in the recommendation of several different federal aid funds, continuing the present practice in that respect.³⁷

Or again:

The Committee is of the opinion that the distribution of the federal funds within a state is not a matter that should be left entirely to state officials in view of the source of the funds, and the purposes for which the grants are recommended. . . . The Committee therefore recommends that the proposed grants be conditioned upon the designation by each state of its department of education, or a board of education controlling that department, to represent the State in the determination of the distribution of the federal grants within the states, through plans jointly agreed upon by the state education authority and the United States Office of Education.³⁸

In line with the recommendations of the proposals of President Roosevelt's Committee the report on federal, state, and local governmental fiscal relationships by a Treasury Department Committee states:

The control features of an aid program can be a very salutary influence and ought to receive more rather than less emphasis in the future. In addition to the traditional control devices—such as auditing and inspection and approval of

³⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 38.

³⁶ Advisory Committee on Education, *Report of the Committee*, p. 42. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938.

³⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 44.

³⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 50.

state plans—educational aids should give attention to internal equalization, re-districting, and division of funds between whites and Negroes.³⁹

Or again:

For seventeen states and the District of Columbia average expenditure per pupil in average daily attendance (1935-36) was \$20 for Negroes, and \$50 for whites. . . . Their continued existence raises serious questions as to the effectiveness of federal financial aid alone in equalizing educational opportunity. Latitude for federal-state consultation and advice on this subject should be provided.⁴⁰

The report contends further:

Much weight needs to be given to the view held by many people that education is a part of their way of life and that national participation means regimentation and the loss of important minority rights and interests. Concessions can and should be made to this feeling, but considering also the overwhelming national interests in the maintenance of minimum standards of educational opportunity the concessions should not extend to a veto of federal aid with equalization features. Nor should it block a control program necessary to secure the federal objectives.⁴¹

In general the application of administrative controls leaves plenty of room for improvement, but the trend has been toward more effective control and there can be no doubt that the aids have exerted a salutary effect on the quality of state and local administration (oddly enough the history of conditional grants in Canada indicates little effective Dominion control, and the trend has been generally in the direction of less effectiveness).⁴²

And the Committee concludes finally:

Whether we like it or not the trend toward centralization is likely to go on irresistibly. The great fiscal resources of the federal government with its large taxing and monetary powers, its superior strategic position in managing the economic system as a whole, the growing urge for minimum standards, and the interest in uniformity with developing interdependence all point toward centralization. The problem is to seek a balance, some independent resources for the smaller units of government, and a genuine interest in the vigor of local government.⁴³

The issue of control is brought into clear focus and perspective by two bills concerning federal aid presented to the Seventy-ninth Congress. The two bills merit examination as to their implications. The Thomas-Hill Bill (S-181) to be cited as the "Educational Finance Act of 1945," is essentially a noncontrol bill. It calls for the distribution of \$300,000,000, of

³⁹ *Federal, State, and Local Government Fiscal Relations*. Committee on Intergovernmental Fiscal Relations, U.S. Treasury Department. 78th Congress, 1st session, Senate Document No. 69. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943.

⁴⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 31.

⁴² *Ibid.*, p. 168.

⁴¹ *Ibid.*, p. 32.

⁴³ *Ibid.*, p. 180.

which \$200,000,000 is to be apportioned for payment of salaries of public school teachers, and \$100,000,000 for "more nearly equalizing public elementary- and secondary-school opportunities among and within states." The formula for distribution is given in the bill, the \$200,000,000 to be distributed in terms of average daily attendance figures, and the \$100,000,000 according to an index of financial need determined objectively in terms of total estimated income payments of each state. The bill states: "No department, agency, officer, or employee of the United States shall exercise any direction, supervision, or control over, or prescribe any requirements with respect to, any school, or any state educational institution or agency with respect to which any funds have been or may be made available. . . ." The only aspects of control concern the stipulations that the funds are for public schools, and that minority races shall have an equitable apportionment of the funds. In general, then, the picture here is one of minimum control.

The Mead-Aiken Bill (S-717), also to be cited as the "Educational Finance Act of 1945," is sponsored by the American Federation of Labor⁴⁴ and presents a new approach to the question of federal aid. The bill sets up a National Board of Apportionment composed of five representative citizens to be appointed by the President, the members to hold five-year terms of office, and the United States Commissioner of Education to serve as secretary to the Board. The method of distribution of funds is not given in the bill but is left to be developed by the National Board: "It shall be the duty of the National Board to formulate policies for the allocation of funds among the states . . . and to review the operation of the program." (This is true, however, only of the \$300,000,000 part of the fund intended to raise substandard educational conditions.) The most novel, and at the same time the most controversial, feature of the bill is the stipulation that no state may receive the funds provided by this bill without distributing them with no discrimination to all public and private nonprofit-making schools, and that, furthermore, where a state is prohibited by law or constitution from doing this, the National Board shall set up a trusteeship for the distribution to the nonpublic schools within such state.

While the full implication of this bill for the American public school system has yet to be realized, it is clear that it proposes controls differing not only in degree but also in kind from previous approaches. The bill would not attempt "to bring a state in line" by control, but would

⁴⁴ According to a letter to the writer from Joseph P. McMurray, Economic Consultant to the Senate Committee on Education and Labor, July 30, 1945, Mr. Mathew Woll, Vice-President of the A.F.L. and officers of the A.F.T. testified before the Committee that S-717 was sponsored by the A.F.L.

actually circumvent the state in most cases, for forty states have either constitutional provisions or laws forbidding the use of public funds for nonpublic schools.⁴⁵ Thus the states would be placed in the position of being forced, if they accepted federal aid for public schools, to allow funds to be distributed to nonpublic schools over which the state itself actually exercises but the barest minimum of control. The issues involved in this bill clearly bear upon the relations of church and state, the bypassing of the state educational system through direct federal aid to local school support, and the future of the American *public* school system.

This issue of control still seems to be a major obstacle to the successful participation by the Federal Government in education and to the establishment of good federal-state relations. Moreover, these bills have been sponsored largely by organized groups. As Moehlman points out, "The public agencies that should be most interested in this program, the several state educational authorities and the state legislatures, are not represented at all. . . . In fact the majority report of the Senate Committee on Education and Labor in the Seventy-eighth Congress stated, 'No state has come before us affirming its inability to deal with the educational program.'"⁴⁶ He proposes that the Council of Chief State School Officers be made the official agency for maintaining federal-state relationships and providing for rational, well-balanced appropriations as well as for their intelligent administration.

It seems fairly certain that not in recent times have the issues over control, which are so surely embedded in the problem of federal-state-local fiscal relations in education, been so clearly focused as they have been by the two federal-aid bills of this year. Both bills say "no control," but, while this is more nearly true of the Thomas-Hill Bill, the Mead-Aiken Bill is a long way from the elimination of the control issue. Certainly, if there is no control in the latter, it is because the issue is side-stepped by the device of taking the problem at issue in the support of nonpublic schools out of the realm of federal-state-local relations. But even with this done, we are left with the provision to determine much of the precise amount of federal aid through the sure-control technique of discretionary action by a federal board. All in all, however, the presentation of the Mead-Aiken Bill seems to be a hopeful sign, if for no other reason than that it will help us as a people to come to grips with the issues.

⁴⁵ F. N. Pitt, "Federal Aid for Catholic Schools," *Catholic Educational Review*, XL (February, 1945), 65-82.

⁴⁶ A. B. Moehlman, "Pattern of Federal Aid," *Nation's Schools*, XXXV (May, 1945), 19.

Questions To Be Answered in Resolving Issues

In all probability, before we deal adequately with the question at issue, we shall have to ask ourselves more serious questions than we have yet fairly met:

1. Are we one nation, or forty-eight, so far as the education of our children, youth, and adults is concerned? Do we need and want to be a nation undivided educationally?
2. Can we safely proceed longer along the lines of national action on education by the method of legislation through the indirect medium of finance, or should we frankly face the issue of giving to the Congress of the people the properly restricted right to legislate directly on general educational policies?
3. Do we need to settle through direct national legislation the question of policy with respect to the relationship procedure in education, as between the national government and the states?
4. Can we find a formula for settling the problem of religious education and provision for it in such a way as to eliminate the trend toward disunity in educational policy and achieve a unified public policy in education?
5. Can we not achieve at the national level a more effective organizational structure for education; and will such achievement not help us to achieve an answer to the previous questions?

There are, of course, many other questions of which the discussion and broad public consideration seem to be necessary before we can resolve the issues which are current and destined to remain with us until resolved. These, however, are vital ones. They require the attention of the philosopher as well as the scientist. The answer lies with the people; hence it would be well if administration brought them into real participation in this greatest of all processes, the development of public policy.

Another issue involved in the problem of the use of federal government funds for education is that of the role of the national government in our economy, involving, as it does, such questions as the wise general governmental expenditure level, debt growth and service, the increase in the demand for social services, and many other questions, depending on one's basis of classification—all of which depend for their answers upon our whole philosophy toward government, as well as upon facts.

During and since the depression there has been emerging a new concept of the role of the government in the area of economic activity. When under the older theories of economics we were unable to explain adequately or to find remedies for the financial collapse of 1929 there began to be a searching of theories which would better explain the instability of the economic system, with its periodic slumps and its chronic unemployment—this latter even in times of prosperity. While there is still not agreement as to the emergent theory, there is increasing understanding

of the role and function of government spending, debt, and taxation in providing a high level of economic activity and national income. Fiscal policy has advanced from its position of a more or less negative check and control of certain activities regarded as undesirable, and from the theory that taxes are "unproductive" expenditures representing an unfortunate waste, to the revolutionary function of insuring the full employment of the factors of production. With this change in concept has come the development of a distinction between public financing and private financing, particularly in relation to debt. The National Resources Planning Board has this to say about the public debt:

The public debt is something very different from the private debt of an individual. An individual will always improve his asset position if he is able to pay off part of his debt. But a nation may make itself poor by reducing public debt. This is because such reduction tends to cause deflation, depression, and unemployment. It is a good thing to retire a part of the public debt if you want to check an excessive boom. It would be ruinous to retire the public debt in a post-war period when unemployment was spreading. A public debt internally held has none of the characteristics of the private debt of an individual. A public debt is an instrument of public policy. It is a means to control the magnitude of the national income and in conjunction with the tax structure to affect income distribution.⁴⁷

This same planning board presents a clear statement concerning the question of whether or not we can afford all the increase in governmental expenses seemingly demanded by our increased sensitivity to social needs.

There is not—there cannot be—any financing problem which is not manageable under a full employment income. From a 125 billion income we can raise large tax revenues—large enough to service any level of debt likely to be reached and to cover all other governmental outlays—and still retain for private expenditures far more than we had left in former years under a 70 billion income with lower taxes. Taxes are merely one way of paying for social services and public improvement projects which we need. . . . Stated broadly we should keep in mind that balanced against the taxes required to cover interest charges are the interest receipts of institutions and individuals who own the bonds. Thus the fact is that our public debt, owned as it is mainly by institutions performing useful and necessary service, is no such burden on the community as is commonly supposed. The tax funds collected to meet interest charges are not lost. They are paid right back again, largely to institutions that benefit the community as a whole. At the worst the taxes are collected from one group of citizens and paid out to another group—the bond holders.⁴⁸

⁴⁷ National Resources Planning Board, *After the War, Full Employment*, p. 8. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943.

⁴⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 6-8.

It remains to be seen whether this newer philosophy of public spending and debt expansion, or the older traditional one of close budget-balancing and keeping all governmental expenditures down, will emerge as our public policy in the immediate future. As this is written, it may be suggested that the trend toward large governmental expenditures for needed social services, including education, will continue and that more and more people are being made conscious that a huge debt can be serviced with a high-level income and progressive taxation; and that, further, the forces involved in our economic life will tend irresistibly to continue the expanded role of government, and education, in our time.

Pertinent Speculations on the Outlook

How often those of us who deal with problems in the social sciences, with problems of public policy in education, have to recognize that, regardless of our particular branch, ours is not an exact science. The answer to our problems, after all, lies mostly in what people say the answer is. We hope, to be sure, for more and more factual enlightenment and skill, and for better and better reasoning; but our greatest strength lies in the broad participatory process, in broadening the base, as it were, in lay as well as professional participation in the development of public policy in education. This is the greatest administrative challenge of the future.

We, here, make no pretense of knowing the right answers to the problems of federal-state fiscal relations, though we venture some suggestions toward the answers. It seems that in looking at external conditions, as has been done in a previous section of this chapter, enough of sample fact has been reviewed to make it clear that just more of the old way and emphasis in financing education cannot suffice. The path, however, will have to be left to reasoned or to unreasoned action. Administrators may well be at the work of broad field study and of stimulating broad lay and professional participation in order that action may have more of reason and less of unreason.

Two years ago the writer developed upon request of the National Council of Education fourteen propositions for financing education during wartime and, at the same time, a more extended treatment of the problem as a paper for the annual meeting of the American Association of School Administrators.⁴⁹ There it was made clear that, in the author's

⁴⁹ Alfred D. Simpson, "A Financial Program for Education during Wartime." Prepared for the National Council of Education of the National Education Association. Washington: National Education Association, 1943; and "Educational Finance in Wartime: The View on the Higher Level," *Official Report of the Convention Never Held*, American Association of School Administrators, 1943. Washington: American Association of School Administrators of the National Education Association, 1943.

view, the problems of war and peace have continuity, are coexistent, and that the problems of education and its support "can no more be neatly divided between those of peace and war than can the totality of the problems of America herself." The author still holds his views, in general, as expressed in the references given.

In the long run it is futile to expect to solve the problem of the support of American education apart from its basic determinants. Financial support is always to be considered a facilitating agency. Beyond immediate, even if tentative, financing America should at once set in motion the processes which will result in the definition of policy with respect to the following basic determinants of national financing: (a) The national purposes to be served by education in the life-stream of the Nation, (b) the national responsibility to be declared for achieving these purposes, and (c) the determination and establishment, nationally, of the structural counterparts of purpose and responsibility.

This is the gist of the matter. It means that of course we are one nation, and that we must be undivided. And this in turn means that we require a national system of education—that is, if we really believe that education is basic to the life of the nation, and makes it, in reality. What do we propose? To have a nation, but with the education of our citizens left to the caprice of separate geographic segments? Can we completely cleave the education of our citizens into states without cleaving the nation—except as the urge of wartime drives people together?

What we need to do is to be about national purposing as to the role of education in the life-stream of the nation. See that everyone has an equitable chance at education regardless of the factor of state of residence, economic circumstance, or racial status. This means personnel, and it means plant and equipment. It means scope and substance of educational program. And it means finance. Let there be a national foundation program of education; let it be not low, but defensible. All this can be done within reason, and still leave room for adaptation and for variation at the upper reaches. It is not uniformity that is sought, but equity and adequacy. There is still room for both liberty and equality. Furthermore, there is going to be equality of educational opportunity in this nation. Without it we do not come to youth with clean hands; nor do we practice democracy. If states will lag, the nation won't.

There is unquestionably a growing and considerable, perhaps even a majority, recognition of the need of much greater national participation in the financing of education. But there is much less feeling for a national educational policy beyond or basic to finance. Under our constitution, with education left to the states, we are very limited as to national action on educational policy. Our chief method is by indirection and through the medium of proffered financial aid. We can adopt financial-aid programs,

and we can, if we choose, attach financial conditions to the receipt of the aid by the states or local units. The history of federal aid is that we very often do just this. To be sure, we do not need to do so, and many would say "no" to proposals for attaching conditions. At any rate the legal situation confronting the problem of national financing has two significant angles.

There is the question of whether or not a policy of exclusive financial grants, devoid of real attachment to the fundamental educational purposes to be served, is wise public policy. There is grave concern over thus separating the educational program from its financing, over the wisdom of thus producing a dichotomy between fundamental policy and its funding. Attention needs to be called to the fact that to do so is to separate finance from educational policy. A case may well be made that to refrain from the gross separation and to combine reasonably the basic educational policy with its financing is better in the long run for education, as well as for the national good.

Then there is the question of whether or not it is wise for us to continue in this situation wherein Congress can legislate national policy only indirectly and only through the backdoor of financial aid, the same to be effective or not, depending upon state action in acceptance or rejection. As a matter of fact, almost never do the states refuse to accept the aid and whatever conditions are imposed. It might even be argued that this system is somewhat responsible for the development into well-nigh habit of the discretionary administrative type of central control accompanied or not, as the case may be, by the stipulation that state plans must be submitted which are to be approved by the central authority.

But there is a deeper issue still which is involved. Does not this system of restricting legislation to conditional aid (which may be taken or not by the state, depending upon whether they like the conditions) make the basic educational policy secondary to finance, when in truth it ought to be primary? Finance, it should be remembered, is only means; it is a facilitating agent. Would it not be preferable to open the way for direct, rather than secondary, action on educational policy in those areas wherein the substance of the policy is vital to the national good and, therefore, of primary national concern? Thus it seems that the control problem would be more safely and responsibly dealt with at the national level. This by no means limits national aid to that which is accompanied by control attachments, but it makes possible responsible policy, at the national level on the basis of what is considered good policy rather than whether or not a state chooses to accept aid. The real question begged is whether national action on education should not be on the main educational issues, with financing attached, rather than in the reverse order.

These problems raise in due course the question of constitutionality. There is at least a serious question, as we enter the phase of national financing of education on any broad scale, as to whether we shall not be wise to grant limited legislative powers to Congress in this functional field. There has been very little thinking, study, and discussion on this question since the early days, but such application seems bound to come. It seems unquestionably to be a most important future question.

One of the most serious of our educational problems, quite generally admitted by all, is the improvement of federal-state relations in education. There is no question about the importance of state functioning in education, any more than there is about local. There is, however, a real question about interlevel relationships in all matters wherein any higher level has a part to play which is the concern of a lower level.⁵⁰ Quite possibly, in view of our experiences of the past fifteen years, one of the strong arguments for constitutional revision with respect to education lies in our ability through it to determine and safeguard proper federal-state relationship channels in any matter of national activity in education which affects the states or their subdivisions.

In considering this problem we should remind ourselves of the condition we would be in with respect to state-local relations if states were restricted to financial-aid conditions as the sole means of making state policy effective in local units. As time goes on, and the cumulative experience points up the vital importance of federal-state relations, it seems at least worth our close consideration to explore the possibilities of national legislative determination of method and procedure in this area. It is well established that school districts, including towns and cities, are state agencies of local jurisdiction in education. Yet along with "agency" these districts are by no means denied broad spheres amounting to "principalship." Similar application to the federal-state situation would, it is true, involve a fundamental departure from the *status quo*, but it is not unlikely that some such thoroughly fundamental steps will have to be taken in the future as we move into new conditions and face more squarely the need of united national action in education.

These considerations are but some of those which are basic to effectively designed federal policy. They may seem far removed from problems of financing education. Yet such is not the case. Finance is a broad, not a narrow, area of educational concern. Problems of educational finance are too often considered in their narrow gauge, when in reality they require

⁵⁰ "Federal-State-Local Relations," *Paths to Better Schools*, pp. 182-207. Twenty-third Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators. Washington: American Association of School Administrators of the National Education Association, 1945.

the comprehensive view. They overlap with every problem area. It is just the failure to recognize their breadth that tempts too many actions on financial policies as "ends" instead of "means."

We are in the very midst of the period of important national policy development in the financing of education. Of this there can be little question. The danger is that we shall adopt financial policies only, without sufficient regard for their meanings, underlying problems, and interrelations. One or another, or some combination, of the aid bills now before Congress may, or may not, be passed. Certainly the aid is needed. In amount it is only the first rays of that which will be forthcoming from the national government in future years.

The Thomas-Hill Bill is innocuous so far as the fundamental issues of future national policy in education are concerned. It is almost entirely a *status quo* measure. The negative control clause against a state's distribution of any of the aid to nonpublic schools is rather widely opposed. It would be well within the present status of governmental structure in education to eliminate this restriction, since educationally the state is principal. This bill is deserving of support, though its sledding seems destined to be tough. Its chief merit lies in its start, inadequate though it be, at national equalization. Probably its real weakness lies in its limited fiscal extent and in its failure to recognize that the best way to help states improve salary status on the national front, as in states, lies also in the equalization approach.

The Mead-Aiken Bill is more clearly controversial because it really ventures into provisions beyond the *status quo* and into those which involve serious issues. It raises important problems of structure and of administrative relationships. It provides for questionable central agency discretion in the determination of aid. It raises pointedly the whole question of aid to nonpublic schools by providing for it, even by going so far as to circumvent established state policy in this area. In reality the measure gets into a very basic problem of federal-state relations, and solves it altogether too quickly, it would seem, by by-passing the state without facing head-on the issues of national versus state responsibility. Here in one bill we find issues of federal policy in education heightened as never before. It is broadly illustrative of the very need which we have been indicating, that is, of making a more fundamental examination into the role of education in the life-stream of the nation.

We may be thankful for the Mead-Aiken Bill because of its clarification of issues. This bill should prove a landmark of influence upon studies of federal educational policy. The embedded issues are so important, however, for the future of public education that before any bills resolving

them are passed they ought to have the benefit of extended and organized study and deliberation.

Probably the greatest and certainly the most controversial of the issues involved in the Mead-Aiken Bill is the one bearing directly, but also with ramifications, on the question of public aid to nonpublic schools. The search for a formula with which to deal with this question on a high plane of public policy has thus far been virtually fruitless. We either have to stay by the general *status quo* policy or we have to find a new policy. We are obviously not ready now. Even those who are swayed by the greatest possible earnestness, broadmindedness, and good will are not ready.

We shall be ready only when we find a solution that satisfies one criterion. That criterion is the all-important one of what is best for the future of the unique institution of public education in America. An America without a great public school system cannot be our America. The function and vigor of public education must have a guaranty—quite possibly at the national level. This is equally important for those of all creeds. This is the great criterion that must always be satisfied in our future search for national educational policy and its financial counterpart.

Extended Educational Opportunity for Older Youth and Adults

The American people have long been committed to the view that since education and self-government are inextricably linked, opportunities for elementary and secondary education—eleven or twelve years of schooling—should be made available to all the youth of the nation. Although that goal has never been reached, nevertheless, since the acceptance of the principle of free education, rapid progress has been made in the direction of its attainment.

More recently, however, changes wrought by recent social, economic, and political factors have been emphasizing the need for opportunity for universal education beyond the high school for both social and vocational purposes.⁵¹ Increased training necessary to do the world's work is simply a part of our culture and unless our cultural level keeps pace with the strides in material development, the continuing progress for which we aspire cannot be realized. Conditions growing out of the war compel us to a realization of the extension of educational opportunity on the secondary level; and the problems that arise from our continuing progress in industrial development will be solved very much in pro-

⁵¹ Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth*, chap. v. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the American Association of School Administrators and the National Educational Association, 1944.

portion to our willingness to organize our educational institutions and extend their programs to include education geared to the interests, needs, and abilities not only of adolescents but also of older youth and adults.

The institution that can most easily be developed to provide these necessary educational facilities is the public junior college, or its equivalent by another name. Situated in the center of community activities, it can serve in the most natural setting for the continuous learning demanded by our increasingly complex society. In addition to its two-year undergraduate programs, it can offer an adult program which will challenge the curiosity and cultivate the interests of those possessing more advanced training in a special field; it can provide for specialized training for those who are seeking the development of special skills; and it can broaden the horizons of those whose previous schooling and experience lacks perspective.

In recent years the junior college has made such rapid strides in this older-youth and adult area that for the academic year, 1943-44, almost 65 per cent of the junior-college enrolment consisted of adults.⁵² Significant in this respect, and perhaps indicative of the future trend in the extension of secondary education, is the composition of the enrolment in one California junior college. Here it was reported that over 5,300 different people were enrolled in adult classes, which is more than one-third of the town's estimated adult population.⁵³

Although the junior college has shown a phenomenal growth in recent years,⁵⁴ if the educational needs of all the people in the postwar era are going to be met, continued rapid growth and development must take place, especially in those states where the junior college's adequate development is overdue. Indications are that most educational leaders are awake to the junior college's possibilities. The National Resources Planning Board has recommended a six-fold increase in junior-college facilities immediately following the war, and bills are now before the legislatures in several states authorizing establishment or expansion of and increased support for junior colleges within their borders.⁵⁵

⁵² W. C. Eells, "The Community College," *Adult Education Journal*, IV (January, 1945), 13-17.

⁵³ W. M. Pugh, "One-Third of Modesto's Adults Go to College," *Junior College Journal*, XIV (January, 1944), 197-99.

⁵⁴ At the time of World War I there were only about one hundred small junior colleges, their total enrolment being less than five thousand students. During World War II the number of junior colleges was over six hundred, their enrolment in excess of three hundred thousand.

⁵⁵ W. C. Eells, "Junior College Legislation Proposed in 1945," *Junior College Journal*, XV (March, 1945), 314-17.

Problem of Support. The need for an institution similar in purpose and design to the junior college is well established. Whether this need can be met by an adequate finance program, without a complete reorganization of the public support of education, is questionable. Due to great concentrations in economic ability,⁵⁶ some states can support a system of junior colleges accessible to all the people in the state. In fact, there are instances where the local unit alone is able to support adequately a junior college, but for every one of these there are hundreds of other local units which are unable to maintain, even with present state help, a defensible minimum foundation program comprising the traditional twelve-grade organization only.

These great inequalities of wealth make the problem of financing the public junior college, in many areas, one that will not admit of easy solution. This fact is emphasized in a cogent study reported by Stillwell, in which he attempts to ascertain the ability of the southern states to support state-wide systems of junior colleges.⁵⁷ Assuming an annual cost of \$150 per student to be a conservative estimate⁵⁸ as to the amount of money needed to educate one full-time junior-college student, Stillwell then calculated the total amount of money each southern state would need if it should attempt to educate its high-school graduates who would likely attend junior colleges. His estimates were based upon the expectation of one-sixth of the high-school enrolment being graduated, and one-half of these graduates going on to attend the junior colleges. As a further basis for his computations, he calculated the amount of money each state should be expected to raise if it should appropriate as much per student in junior colleges as it would have revenue available for education per child in its public schools, when it makes average effort as compared with all other states. On this basis, it was found that at peak load within the next ten to twenty years, the states in the Southern Association⁵⁹ would have a combined total of 249,000 junior-college students, and would need 804 junior colleges of average size (300 students). On a minimum basis of \$150 per student annually, these colleges

⁵⁶ "Education: Why the Federal Government Must Help." Washington 6: Research Division of the National Education Association, March, 1945.

⁵⁷ H. W. Stillwell, "The Public Junior College in the South," *Junior College Journal* X (September, 1939), 21-24.

⁵⁸ In a recent study on junior college costs, Henry G. Badger, U.S. Office of Education statistician reports (*Junior College Journal*, October, 1944) an average public junior college cost per student for 1937-38 to be \$175. This figure, incidentally, is only 68 per cent of the \$257 cost reported for a public senior college.

⁵⁹ Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia.

would cost the states \$37,350,000, and the states would have available from their own resources—as calculated on their ability with average effort to support their public schools, only \$5,929,210, or only a little more than one-sixth of the needed amount.

The obvious conclusion to be drawn from this study, and from other evidence, is that the future of adequate post-secondary education depends upon the evolvement of a new finance structure in which the federal government must play an increasingly important role. Not only is this especially true for the states comprised within the Southern Association, but many other states as well have an insufficient fiscal capacity⁶⁰ to extend post-secondary offerings to meet even the minimum demands for such training.

Issues. Two issues of paramount importance involved in the prospective expansion of the post-secondary unit⁶¹ deal with the following questions:

1. Should publicly controlled junior colleges be supported entirely from public funds with no charge to students—as in public high schools today? If not, what proportion of the cost should be met by the student?
2. What type of junior college should be fostered—as indicated by the auspices of control and direction? Specifically, should the policy be one of establishing junior colleges that are units in local systems, reorganized as necessary, or state junior colleges set up to serve regions or areas within the commonwealth?

Tuition Free. Since the junior college is coming to be recognized, along with its occupational preparation function, as the period of completion of a general education, and as a medium for adult education, there are many who argue that its offerings should be tuition free, as is the practice in such public junior-college states as California, Arizona, Kansas, and Mississippi.⁶² Others feel that since many of the terminal courses are designed to serve occupational-training purposes the student should, therefore, pay a part of the cost of such education. In response to a questionnaire to a miscellaneous group of educators and laymen, Eells found the greatest support for free tuition coming from labor-union

⁶⁰ J. K. Norton and E. S. Lawler, "An Inventory of Public School Expenditures in the United States," pp. 190-97. Washington: American Council on Education, 1944 (mimeographed).

⁶¹ Most of these units are designated by the name "junior college"; however, in some states the name differs, even though the type of education offered may be at the junior-college level.

⁶² W. C. Eells, *Why Junior College Terminal Education?* p. 52. Washington: American Association of Colleges, 1941.

leaders and editors of educational periodicals; greatest opposition from private junior-college presidents and presidents of private colleges and universities.⁶³

Due to many factors, such as the public importance of education at the post-secondary and adult levels, the far-reaching effect on the democratization of publicly supported education, and the demands of such a society as ours for the elimination of individual economic barriers to education, it seems a foregone conclusion that tuition charges will be eliminated.⁶⁴ It seems clear that the scope of free public education will be extended quite universally through the fourteenth year and into adult life. In addition, a highly desirable, and in a sense necessary, social policy would involve the granting of a substantial public subsidy for work scholarships (similar in nature and scope to the former Student Work Program of the National Youth Administration), to give assistance to students coming from the lower economic brackets.

Control. There is much controversy at the present time as to the desirable junior-college policy with regard to control. Shall the junior college be of local nature as is the case in California and Kansas; or, shall it be conceived as a state unit, set up to serve areas or regions, as exemplified in the states of Georgia and Utah, and as proposed in the Regents' Plan for the state of New York? Involved in this question of administrative jurisdiction is also the problem of local, state, and federal support, and the method by which junior college costs may be apportioned among these three sources in the interest of equalization of facilities. State practices in this regard show wide variance.

In some states, such as Nebraska and Kansas, no state funds may be appropriated to the junior colleges, while in Utah and Georgia, they are supported wholly by the state with no assistance from the local unit. In other states, such as California and Washington, junior-college education is supported through local taxation with substantial state aid. Such states as these, whose policy involves support from local-state sources, have shown greatest growth and development in the junior-college area.

Another concomitant issue which evolves with this question over control is that of internal organization (shall the junior college be a two- or a four-year institution). State control implies a separate two-year institution, while local control either indicates or facilitates a four-year type of organization. Much attention has been given in the literature to

⁶³ *Ibid.*, pp. 82-84.

⁶⁴ See Leonard V. Koos, "How To Democratize the Junior College Level," *School Review*, LII (May, 1944), 271-84.

the possible resolution of this issue,⁶⁵ but as matters stand, it is still far from being settled.⁶⁶

Problems and Policies. These conflicting theories and practices are natural in the light of the newness of the movement and the many perplexing problems to be confronted. We do not know just how the program, the structural and control organization, and the financing of this oncoming extension of educational opportunity will or should take shape. It is apparent that the answers are not clear even in states that have gone far either in planning these programs or in putting them into effect. The need of much research is apparent. Just now there is no more fertile field for research in educational policy areas than in this one. Two fundamental problem areas require thorough examination before we can move forward in this field with anything but the greatest reliance on trial and error:

1. Are the values which have in the past been held to reside in local autonomy still important enough to make it essential to find a regional, or district, structure below the state level for extended educational programs for older youth and adults? If so, what shall this be?
2. Is the general pattern of state aid which has been developed through research sufficiently good to warrant its application to the treatment of aid in the extended educational area? If so, what are the unit measures and what are the unit-cost levels of a satisfactory foundation program of state and federal aid in this extended educational area?

FINANCING SCHOOL PERSONNEL

The Status of the Financing of School Personnel

The adequacy or excellence of any educational program depends to a very large extent on the personnel conducting that program. The popular conception of education, as Mark Hopkins and a student seated on opposite ends of a log, demonstrates the general realization of the importance of the role of personnel. The number and quality of teachers, administrators, and others engaged in the instruction of children and youth, and the degree to which these persons are suited to their tasks, both in preparation and in personal adjustment, are matters of fundamental importance. It can be accepted without further discussion that personnel is a primary concern of educational finance. The task here is to examine the adequacy with which finance is meeting the personnel requirements for education.

⁶⁵ T. H. Wilson, "The Four-Year Junior College." Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Harvard University, 1935.

⁶⁶ Leonard V. Koos, "Opinions of Administrators on Organizing the Junior College," *School Review*, LII (April, 1944), 215-27.

Almost one million persons are engaged in public school instruction, as shown in Table VI. This table, prepared by the Research Division of the National Education Association, reports the salary levels for an estimated 900,000 persons engaged primarily in the teaching-learning process in public schools in the United States. The estimated average salary, excluding superintendents, reported by the Research Division from the data of Table VI is \$1,550. Not only does this average salary seem distressingly inadequate to make possible a professional standard of living, but it represents a decrease in the "real wage"—measured in terms of the purchasing power of the dollar—from the 1938 level. In that year, the average salary of public-school teachers, principals, and supervisors was \$1,374, which represented a purchasing power of \$1,363.⁶⁷ In 1943, while

TABLE VI.—DISTRIBUTION OF PUBLIC-SCHOOL TEACHERS, SUPERVISORS, PRINCIPALS, AND SUPERINTENDENTS ACCORDING TO ANNUAL SALARY IN 1942-43*

Annual Salary	Estimated Number Receiving Salary	Per Cent
\$5,000 and over.....	3,500	0.4
4,000-4,999.....	12,000	1.3
3,000-3,999.....	57,000	6.3
2,000-2,999.....	147,000	16.3
1,000-1,999.....	405,000	45.1
Below 1,000.....	275,000	30.6
Total.....	900,000	100.0

* *Teachers' Salaries and the Public Welfare*, p. 114. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XXI, No. 4. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1943.

the average salary—not of teachers alone but including supervisors and principals—had risen to \$1,550, the purchasing power of that salary decreased to \$1,259.

It may be argued that teaching is a "white-collar" occupation, and that types of occupations thus classified always suffer in times of economic upward trends. However, there is some evidence that, as a group, teachers have benefited from salary increases even less than have most "white-collar" groups. The United States Department of Labor, reviewing the situation in a recent bulletin⁶⁸ finds that, while retail-trade em-

⁶⁷ *Teachers' Salaries and the Public Welfare*, p. 114. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XXI, No. 4. The purchasing power is computed by dividing the average salary by the cost-of-living index for cities furnished by the U.S. Department of Labor, which uses the 1935-39 period as 100.

⁶⁸ *Trend of Earnings among White-Collar Workers Serving the War*. U.S. Department of Labor Bulletin No. 783. Reprinted from *Monthly Labor Review*.

ployees received wage increases of 25 per cent as compared with prewar levels, and white-collar workers in general received increases of 15 per cent or more, the average salary of school teachers was only 8 to 10 per cent higher. Thus, it can be said that the average salary levels for teachers are very, very low; and, although salary levels have risen in recent years, the rise has not been commensurate with increases in cost of living and does not compare favorably with increases in other occupations.

And, above all, let us not fail to observe this fact from the preceding table: In 1943, even during the high wages of wartime, less than 1 per cent of those going into public education as a career could look forward to receiving a salary, should they perchance reach the highest administrative posts, which crossed the \$5,000 line.

External Conditions Bearing upon Salaries

Conditions outside the schools themselves, those which are beyond and external to the structural confines of school systems, have a bearing upon the salary problem both in its practical everyday aspects, and in more fundamental considerations. To ignore these external conditions in the study of the salary problem is to ignore the very factors that in the long run condition salary policy. A list of these external conditions, without elaboration, includes at least the following:

1. Fluctuations in the cost of living. The continually changing economic cycle has a direct impact on school-salary policy.
2. The general trend toward equal pay for men and women. In its broader aspects, this might be thought of as personnel policies in government, business, and industry. Both private and governmental enterprises are beginning to come to grips with this problem, as the status of women in the United States advances. The trend is definitely toward paying men and women equally for equivalent services, often with some provision for family-load adjustment. This trend is definitely affecting personnel policies in education.
3. The shifting of the tax base,⁶⁹ and, with it, the diminishing role of the local government as a tax unit. Real estate, once America's principal tax base, is unable to be the main support of governmental functions. This means, also, that revenue is tending to flow, in increasing proportions, to the state and federal governments. Thus education, while operating locally, is faced with the impact of state and federal support upon personnel policy.
4. The growth of the lay concept of, and demands upon, education. The war is no small factor in this. Europe and Asia must have their education redeveloped and redirected. At home, millions of returning servicemen need the services and guidance of education.
5. Population movements and composition. These are especially to be noted in the concentration or the spreading of population in metropolitan areas. The

⁶⁹ *Teachers' Salaries and the Public Welfare, op. cit.*, Table 7, p. 118.

wartime movements of population have had a decided effect upon personnel policy in all its aspects.

6. Technological and social advances in society. Education must use and prepare youth for increasingly complex and amazing devices—such as radar and television. The impact of these and other advances upon the personnel problem, greatly weighted by war, is still in its early stages.

Trends in Salary Scheduling. The majority of school districts in the United States have definite schedules regulating the salaries of their employees. The National Education Association reports that about two-thirds of the cities and towns with a population of 2,500 or more have salary schedules.⁷⁰ As might be expected, most large cities have schedules (97.5 per cent of cities over 100,000 and 90.5 per cent of cities 30,000 to

TABLE VII.—NUMBER OF CITIES AND TOWNS REPORTING VARIOUS TYPE SCHEDULES, 1940-41 AND 1944-45

TYPE OF SCHEDULE	1940-41		1944-45	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Position type.....	402	30.6	287	22.9
Position-preparation type.....	501	38.1	425	33.9
Preparation type.....	412	31.3	541	43.2
Total.....	1,315	100.0	1,253	100.0

* Table derived from two Research Bulletins of the National Education Association: *Salaries of City School Employees, 1940-41*, Vol. XIX, No. 2, Table 22, p. 92; and *Salaries of City School Employees, 1944-45*, Vol. XXIII, No. 1, Table 19, p. 22. Both report data for cities and towns with population 2,500 or more by the 1940 census, but the number of replies differs.

100,000), while the proportion decreases in smaller communities. Fifty-four per cent of the school systems in towns of 2,500 to 5,000 population, for example, do not have schedules.

In general, salary schedules for teachers may be said to fall into one of two types: the "positional" type, and the "preparational" type. The relative frequency of these types, as of the years 1940-41 and 1944-45, is shown in Table VII. From these data it is clear that the trend is away from position-type schedules. This trend is strongest in the case of the cities of 100,000 or more population, as shown by detailed data, not reported in Table VII but presented in the same source. In this group, 33.3 per cent had preparational schedules in 1940-41 while 57.7 per cent reported preparational schedules in 1944-45.

⁷⁰ *Salaries of City Schools Employees, 1944-45*. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XXIII, No. 1. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1945. Table 18, p. 22, reports the situation for 1,879 school systems located in cities and towns of 2,500 or more population.

Minimum Salary Laws. So far, attempts to improve the financing of higher salary levels, other than in purely local situations, fall into three general categories: federal aid, state aid, and state minimum salary laws. Federal and state aid, important to school salary policy, are treated elsewhere in this chapter. The situation concerning minimum-salary legislation has significance for school-salary policy. State minimum-salary laws are designed to raise the lower level of school salaries on a state-wide basis, while leaving maximum salaries to the discretion and ability of the individual communities within the state. At present, twenty-six states have minimum-salary legislation.⁷¹ Twenty of these states had minimum-salary legislation prior to 1937, four adopted such legislation between 1937 and 1940, and two, Maine and Utah, have enacted minimum-salary legislation since 1940. In addition, of course, there have been many recent upward changes in the levels. Minimum-salary legislation, by and large, is of one of two kinds: The minimum salary may be fixed by statute (as in Massachusetts, for example), or the power to regulate minimum salaries may be delegated to the state board of education, as is the case in Alabama, Delaware, Georgia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Washington. Fifteen of the twenty-six states "classify salaries according to preparation, and of that number nine recognize experience through guaranteed increments, thus setting minimum salaries for teachers with different amounts of preparation and experience."⁷² Six states fix the minimum salary at \$1,200 or more, while twenty fix the minimum salary below \$1,200. The median minimum salary established is \$876.

Problem Areas in the Financing of School Personnel

The present status of school-salary scheduling, as briefly summarized in the preceding section, indicates that many problems of financing educational personnel have not been solved. Education, like the society it serves, is constantly in a state of flux; both its internal and its external conditions change. Trends, while indicating solution of certain problems, or at least a repeated preference for one of several alternatives, lead to a new set of conditions and thus in turn to a different set of problems. Any discussion of status, then, leads inevitably to unsolved problems. Some of the more important problems confronting the financing of school personnel follow.

⁷¹ *State Minimum-Salary Standards for Teachers, 1944.* Report of the Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom, National Education Association, November, 1944. Washington: National Education Association, 1944.

⁷² *Ibid.*, p. 11.

The Stimulation of Professional Growth. The preparation-type salary schedule, increasingly used, seeks to encourage the teacher to continue his professional growth. The exact nature of professional growth, and the method of measuring such growth in units which can be recognized in a salary schedule, are still matters that are not entirely clear. It is fairly clear that merit ratings are passing out as measures of professional growth for salary purposes. The whole problem of salary in terms of individual merit needs much further study; but there is not much hope for it on the basis of present practice and conditions. Further consideration concerning the factors which can be used to measure professional growth is necessary. Through what stipulations can salary money be applied better than at present to raise the level of professional qualifications and keep growth coming? How are salary and professional growth related? In what respects are they unrelated?

The Attracting of Desirable Personnel into the Teaching Profession. Salary is not, of course, the only factor which attracts young men and women to the teaching profession. Many other considerations enter into the choice. Yet salary definitely is one factor, and, as such, its effect on the recruitment of desirable personnel should be a matter of concern. To what extent does change in personnel quality lag behind salary? To what extent do other conditions affecting personnel neutralize salary changes?

The Ratio of Minimum and Maximum Salary Levels. There is no one definitive ratio of minimum to maximum salary. Certainly minimum-salary levels ought to be high enough to attract desirable personnel. At the same time, however, the salary schedule should exert some holding power through the granting of increases in salary. The span between minimum and maximum, then, needs careful consideration and may vary locally, as personnel policies do.

Adjusting Salaries to Changes in Cost of Living. The story of the depression "cuts" and recent war-boom "bonuses" is well known. Such salary changes, often on a percentage or flat-rate basis, represent crude attempts to adjust school salaries to external conditions of education, such as declining revenue and changes in the level of the cost of living. Most communities have found it necessary to make salary adjustments to compensate, partially at least, for the recent rise in the cost of living. The National Education Association reports⁷³ that, of 1,253 communities of 2,500 and over in population, 67 per cent have granted "wartime salary adjustments," and 27 per cent have revised their salary schedules, generally upward.

This aspect of school salary policy, perhaps more than any other, has

⁷³ *Salaries of City-School Employees, 1944-45, op. cit.*, Table 20, p. 22.

been influenced by and tied to practices in municipal government. "Bonuses" have often been granted on a city-wide basis, including school employees, thus leaving the school officials little leeway in developing their own policies. Usually, these adjustments take the form of a flat-rate increase or a percentage increase, such percentage computed on the employee's basic wage. Public Administration Service of Chicago, in making a municipal-wage study for the city of Hartford, Connecticut, reported that, of a selected group of fifteen cities, twelve had adjusted pay rates to meet increases in cost of living and three had not.⁷⁴ Seven of the twelve adjustments were in the form of flat-rate increases, three were increases in percentage of employee's salary, one was an upward revision of the basic wage scale, while one city adjusted its salaries annually according to the cost of living index of the U.S. Department of Labor.

Relative Pay Levels for Men and Women, and Recognition of Dependency. Men have been, and still are, receiving higher salaries in education than women.⁷⁵ Whether or not this is as it should be is a matter that is still vigorously discussed. Proponents of equal pay for equal work assert that justice demands equal pay when the quality and quantity of the work is the same. Those favoring higher salaries for men cite the law of supply and demand, and argue that, to retain men's services in education, their salaries should be higher.

The question of family-load adjustment is directly related to, although not identical with, the question of equal pay for men and women. By and large, men have a larger dependency load than women, although women teachers are not without responsibilities of this nature. A recent study based on 800 teachers in New York State, reports the following average dependency loads for teachers: married men, 2.4; single men, 0.4; married women, 0.9; single women, 0.6.⁷⁶ Family responsibilities may be recognized in a salary schedule, usually in one of two ways. The less precise way is to provide higher salary levels for married men teachers than for all other teachers, on the theory that married men, as a group, have greater family loads. The other way consists of paying differentials,

⁷⁴ Memorandum from Public Administration Service to the Director of Finance and Budget of Hartford, dated December 21, 1944, p. viii.

⁷⁵ *Progress and Problems in Equal Pay for Equal Work*. Report of the Committee on Equal Opportunity of the National Education Association, June, 1939. Washington: National Education Association, 1939.

⁷⁶ Theresa P. Pyle, *The Teacher's Dependency Load*, Table IV, p. 22. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939.

over and above the salary schedule, on the basis of recognized family loads—wife, husband, children, and the like. These differentials may apply to men and women alike, or they may be granted only to men.

These questions—equal pay for men and women and family-load adjustments—are not easily resolved and cut rather deeply into educational personnel policy. They call for much research application. Certainly no thinking educator wants to decrease the proportion of men teachers, but would prefer quite the reverse. Men, or women, with family responsibilities represent the normal and desirable situation. Perhaps at no place do “external conditions” bear more closely than here upon educational policy. In effect, they seem to lead to the fundamental principle of equal pay for men and women and to the necessity of developing effective devices for family-load differentials.

Cost Analyses of Salary Policy. It is well known that salaries consume a major share of the school budget. Burke reports⁷⁷ that in 1930 salaries and wages required 64.4 per cent of the total public school expenditures in the United States, including the construction of buildings and interest and fixed charges. Since the salary dollar looms large in the total expenditures, it might be expected that considerable attention ought to be devoted to analyzing the effectiveness of its expenditure. It might be expected, also, that much would be done in the way of forecasting costs of salary policies. Once adopted, a salary schedule commits a city to a definite rate of expenditure. Prudent planning would indicate that salary-cost estimates under a particular annual salary schedule should be projected five or ten years into the future. Too little is done, however, either in analyzing the effectiveness of salary expenditures or in projecting salary costs.

Understanding, on the Part of the Public, of the Problem Areas in School Salaries. The need for the understanding on the part of the layman of the problems involved is not confined to school salaries, nor even to school finance. Public participation makes for more effective development of public policy, as few in America will deny; but too few administrators apply themselves to attaining skill in the process. Yet the layman has more opportunity to see some of our problems in the area of salaries than, let us say, in curriculum methods. Then, too, personnel policies in education are being continually influenced by personnel policies in government and business areas, familiar to the layman. Hence, education will do well to include the thinking, study, and experience of the public as school salary policy develops.

⁷⁷ Arvid J. Burke, *Defensible Spending for Public Schools*, Table 8, p. 43. New York: Columbia University Press, 1943.

The Major Problem-Cores in the Salary Field

From the preceding discussion, two major problem-cores may be seen to confront American education in the field of school salary policy:

1. Financing the personnel adequately to staff the schools for a modern educational program.
2. How the moneys allocated to financing the personnel shall be expended.

Though stated separately, these problem-cores are by no means mutually exclusive. The methods, or criteria, governing any expenditure are affected by the amount available in relation to the total need. Even so, it would be well to think of our problems as clustered in two major groups; the one involving adequacy of salary levels in general, the other involving alternative choices in methods of expenditure.

The importance of adequately financing the personnel hardly needs emphasis. Modern education—no simple, cut-and-dried process—requires professional competence of the highest order.

The development of a true, continuous-program system is a long, slow process. Philosophies, curriculums, methods of teaching, administration must be slowly reorganized. . . . The modern school makes every effort to discover the real, often deeply hidden, cause of failure, to adjust the pupil sympathetically, so that he is able to profit from the learning experiences provided and which are well adjusted to his level and maturity. . . . Directional progress goals replace arbitrary grade standards. Remedial work is prominent. Under ideal conditions, failure could theoretically be eliminated.⁷⁸

Such a program calls for highly skilled, carefully chosen personnel. It cannot, just in the nature of things, be conducted by persons whose average annual salary is \$1,550, which Table VII indicates to be the average of instructional and supervisory salaries in 1942-43. Furthermore, the need for adequate financing involves all school personnel, not just those located in highly favored urban areas. The issue is not resolved by citing the fact that a teacher in Hartford, Connecticut, for example, may receive an annual salary of \$4,000, provided certain experience and preparational requirements have been met. Table VII shows that three-fourths of the teachers in the United States, about 675,000 persons, received less than \$2,000 in 1942-43. If education is to advance, if its personnel—and thus its program—are to be increasingly good and desirable, then the general level of finance must be raised. There is no alternative.

Whether the financing of the personnel is adequate or inadequate,

⁷⁸ William H. Burton, *The Guidance of Learning Activities*, pp. 451-52. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1944.

however, the methods governing the expenditure of these moneys require consideration. Commonly accepted purposes govern salary schedules; securing more able and better-prepared persons, attracting more men into the profession, relieving teachers of hardship due to marked changes in the cost of living, and the like. Certainly a salary schedule can be designed so as either to encourage or ignore professional preparation, regardless of the salary levels. True, the encouragement is more effective, given adequate financing as contrasted with parsimony. Yet, the problem of stimulating professional growth through salaries is in the cluster-core that comprises the issue of method. If the financing of the personnel were at a high level, equal pay would be possible while at the same time meeting salaries which attract men into other professions. Where the financing of personnel is not adequate, however, it may be necessary to recognize the greater dependency load carried by men. Forward-looking policy, while using family-load adjustments expediently, can anticipate the day when levels will be adequate and the inherent justice of equal pay for equal work can be recognized.

The Outlook for the Solution of the Problems and the Resolution of the Issues

The answer to some of the problems as previously stated are fairly well indicated by present practices and trends. In other cases, the best future course is not so clear. The preparation-type salary schedule, for example, gives promise of steadily raising the level of professional preparation of school personnel. But it is not clear just in what manner, or to what extent, salary policies affect the recruitment of school personnel. Many administrators are convinced that equal pay for men and women is fair and in keeping with good business practice, yet confess reluctance to institute equal pay in their own systems, arguing that it conflicts with "the law of supply and demand." It should be noted in passing that equal pay for different educational levels is no longer a moot issue; teaching on the elementary level is commonly recognized as just as valuable, and requiring just as much in the way of professional competence, as does teaching on the secondary level.

It seems safe to say that the preparation-type schedule is steadily replacing the position-type and will continue to do so. But this does not mean that everything is known about stimulating professional growth by means of the salary schedule. Not only are there various salary devices for stimulating such growth, but there is also the larger question of just what is meant by professional growth. Then there remains also the question of minimum- and maximum-salary levels. It is rather generally accepted that a system of regular increments is desirable, and that such

increments should be fairly automatic. Certainly the practice of awarding increments on the basis of merit-ratings is not common and is declining. Rather, units of professional preparation are coming to be accepted as the most nearly objective—and thus the most fair—means of gauging merit. But any increment system must operate within limits, within minimum and maximum levels. In the past there have been attempts to fix the optimum ratio between minimum and maximum salaries. One such attempt fixed the ratio at three to one.⁷⁹ Observation of current practice reveals considerable variation in this ratio, depending on the community's fiscal ability and long-range personnel goal. In some places it may be wiser to attract top-flight young teachers and not try to hold them many years, a situation which would call for relatively high minimum salaries, but at the same time a small number of increments. Other places, with a larger operating budget, can establish maximum salaries attainable only after considerable service, in which case the ratio of maximum to minimum would be considerably larger than in the first instance.

Another problem in financing the personnel for which an effective answer seems indicated is that of adjusting salaries to changes in cost of living. As has been previously noted, the most common form of such adjustment in the past fifteen years has been a lopping off or an adding on of a stipulated sum, either on a flat-rate basis or a percentage of the employee's salary. A few places, such as St. Paul, Minnesota; San Diego, Inglewood, and Santa Monica, California; Fordson and Grosse Point, Michigan; Brookline, Massachusetts; and Barrington, Rhode Island, have adopted more refined methods, which use a basic salary schedule with a cost-of-living differential. The differential changes as the cost of living, measured by the index of the U.S. Department of Labor, changes.⁸⁰ There still remains unanswered the question of how most accurately to measure living costs of teachers as a group. However, the practice of relating a cost-of-living differential to some effective measure of living costs holds considerable promise as an instrument of school-salary policy.

Most of the problems in financing the personnel cluster about the adequacy of school support. Until this issue has been met and resolved, the problems will remain, unsolved or partially unsolved. And this issue

⁷⁹ Arthur B. Moehlman, *Public School Finance*, p. 151. New York: Rand-McNally & Co., 1927.

⁸⁰ For a more refined treatment, see Ralph C. McLeary, "Barrington Cost-of-Living Salaries Adjustment," *American School Board Journal*, CVII (November, 1943), 26-28; (December, 1943), 21-23.

will be resolved only when the public—those supporting education—become convinced of the need of greater investment in the education of their children and youth. To some extent the vicious circle is present, since one of the most effective ways to win public support is by doing a first-class job, which, in turn, depends on more adequate financing. But this is not to say that the situation is without hope. More attention to the public's concept of education, and more consideration of the building up of that concept so that educator and layman see eye to eye, will prove effective.

What seems to be the outlook as to adequacy and salary-schedule method?

Adequacy. If ever adequacy in personnel financing were to be reached, it would seem that the past few years would have been the time. Yet the farthest we have gone is to some slight advance over the admittedly inadequate levels reported in Table VII. The conclusions seem to be few and simple. *In the first place, as just pointed out, the public concept of personnel and salary needs in school systems is low and must be raised.* The most effective way to meet this situation is to bring laymen increasingly into the study of schools and school systems. Lay participation in the development of salary policy leads to heightened realization of the strategic importance of the school systems' personnel. *In the second place, it is simply impossible to finance the requirements of adequacy in school salaries within the present dependency on local tax support.* The failures to develop extensive state-aid systems and to utilize federal aid are unquestionably responsible for inadequate salaries and for the tremendous range in salaries throughout the country. Of course, economically favored local units here and there can rise to reasonable salaries within a heavy reliance on the local economy. This but blinds the eyes of people and leads them to the common error of appraising a whole region's progress in terms of a few sectional bright spots. *The outlook for adequacy, with salaries correlating so highly with total school costs, lies beyond question in the development of increased state and federal aid.* If you do not believe this, cast your eye over such states as New York and California.⁸¹

Salary-Schedule Method. *The characterizing technique of scheduling in recent times is represented by the preparation-type of basic schedule.* This has become the method of the single-salary principle. It has been of great value in raising elementary salaries and equalizing them with high-school

⁸¹ See Alfred D. Simpson and Hubert C. Armstrong, "The Financial Support of Education in California." Sacramento, California: State Reconstruction and Re-employment Commission, 1945 (mimeographed); and "What Education Our Money Buys." Albany, New York: State Educational Conference Board, 1943.

salaries. It has also been a practical way by which school systems could use new salary money to purchase better professional preparation, and thus use it to produce better schools. In reality, however, it has been a technique adapted to a period of recognized inadequate salary levels and teacher preparation. It has been a practical technique of upgrading. At its best it can hardly be thought of as a satisfactory solution to the problem of personnel classification in a situation wherein an adequate preservice preparation level has been reached.

The preparation-type of personnel classification has great virtue and has served us well in the developing years of a developing profession. It is still good. *There is need, however, for study and experimentation with other forms of classification at the basic-schedule level.* Is the type of classification used at the college and university level preferable? What can we learn from the developments in the field of personnel classification in other areas of public administration? What public reaction is there to a classified teaching service, and what may we expect as reclassification develops? What classification is of most worth, assuming reasonably adequate levels? School systems which have gone farthest on the road to adequate levels are the places which most need to consider this problem.

Research Problems in Financing School Personnel

There are a host of research problems begging for attack in the salary field. Many of these have been referred to in preceding sections. In the main, they relate to such questions as the following: The type of personnel needed; what constitutes personnel growth; the relation of salaries to recruitment, growth, and morale; the nature and significance of salary adequacy; teacher-load and conditions of work; the implications of an extended policy participation by teachers for load adjustment and salary cost; central government aid in relation to salary adequacy; questions of salary law and its refinements; the relation of basic salaries to differentials; the future development of cost-of-living indexes for the teacher group; personnel classification for all service groups; the family-load, or dependency, differential; the applicability of the single-salary principle to nonteaching posts and to extended higher education; and the like.

We have, as it were, reached a certain plateau in personnel and salary research. While, to be sure, there is still great lag in practice behind our conceptual design, probably in no field do we need new design, dependent as it is on careful and expensive research, more than we do in this area.

CHAPTER VII

PROVIDING APPROPRIATE HOUSING FOR SCHOOLS

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THE SCHOOL-PLANT LAG

There is considerable evidence that the gap between what is known to be desirable and necessary and what is actually provided is wider in the field of school-plant provisions than in most other major aspects of educational services. The preparation of this chapter is an attempt to consider the steps necessary to narrow that gap.

It may be of value to state briefly some of the reasons for the existence of the excessive gap in this area of educational planning.

1. School buildings traditionally have belonged to the communities where they are located, while school administrators and teachers have been brought in and sent out at frequent intervals, thus making it difficult, if not impossible, to have their ideas and needs incorporated in school plants. The good school employee has been the one who uncomplainingly finds a way to get along with the facilities provided.

2. The long life and heavy construction of school buildings, especially those designed partially as monuments, contribute to the gap. Such buildings make modernization and retooling for a changing educational program difficult, expensive, and often well-nigh impossible unless they were especially engineered for flexibility.

3. The domination of school planning and construction by small school-board building committees and often by a single board member almost inevitably leads to the provision of good structures but poor implements of a modern educational program. Any narrowly-based domination of school-plant planning and construction, whether it be by school superintendent, business manager, architect, or contractor, fails to take into account the complexity of today's school plant and its implementing relationship to the educational process.

4. The application to local situations of school-building standards that have been developed around past or, at best, current educational prac-

tice tends to make some buildings somewhat obsolete the day they are occupied. An alternative is to design facilities to stimulate and accelerate sound educational trends.

5. The presence on the staff of influential school business officials and maintenance superintendents whose primary objective is to reduce expenditures for school facilities tends to detract from the importance of the school plant as an educational instrument. Likewise, the failure to provide competent staff with responsibility in the area of schoolhousing will result in neglect and deterioration of the plant. Fortunately, recent strides in the professionalization of school business officials are minimizing this problem.

6. Many institutions which train school administrators and teachers have given but scant attention to preparing their students for responsibilities in planning, maintaining, and using the school plant. As a minimum, trainees should be made aware of the potential educational contributions of the school plant, available resources in planning school buildings, and procedures in using these resources effectively; and they should be practiced in the skills of manipulating properly the important devices found in school buildings, such as lighting, heating and ventilating controls, and the adjustment of seating equipment.

7. The general failure of curriculum makers and revisers to follow through with the school-plant implications of the proposals makes an almost inevitable lag between their proposals and the adoption of them in practice. Unadjusted school plants may make the proposals difficult if not impossible to adopt.

8. The lack of appreciation on the part of school officials of the key importance of the architect in planning school buildings often results in the selection of less competent and less specialized architects than are available. This practice accounts for many nonfunctional school buildings.

9. Because of inappropriate and archaic school-districting and financing laws, some school districts are unable to finance a desirable type of school plant. In other situations there exists the belief that spending less for the school plant makes it possible to spend more on the staff. This belief appears to be based upon the theory that having poor facilities with a good teacher is better than providing good facilities with a less able teacher, or on the assumption that both good facilities and good teachers cannot be provided. It has been interesting to note that good teachers in situations having poor facilities are inclined to leave as soon as possible. It has also been revealing to note that good teachers have preferred spacious, well-lighted, inexpensive, emergency-type rooms to the more expensive but less suitable rooms in traditional permanent buildings. Also to be considered are the school districts which have ade-

quate financial ability to construct appropriate facilities but are unable to secure the necessary popular support for needed funds because of inept public relations, poor presentation of facts, or other reasons.

10. The presence of noneducational federal agencies in the field of school-building finance and construction has tended to improve the construction standards for schools, but has, through national application of some rules and regulations, retarded functional planning, especially in cities and states somewhat advanced in that respect.

11. Competent educational consultants on over-all school-plant planning are not available in sufficient number to give desired assistance to local school-district officials. The planning of major school plants occurs in most school districts infrequently. The presence in the situation, on an advisory basis, of someone familiar with the planning of school buildings is essential if functional adequacy is to be secured. State departments of education and schools of education in universities are logical sources for such personnel.

12. Presence on school boards of individuals who are not willing to regard policy-making alone as their part in school administration, and who feel that school-plant planning is the one major area in which they can participate directly, sometimes constitutes a barrier to vital participation in functional planning of school buildings by the superintendent and his staff. Such direct board-member participation tends to stress the architectural and construction elements in a building as opposed to their potential educational services.

CONSIDERATIONS BASIC TO SOUND PLANT EXPANSION

When a superintendent asks his governing board for authority to proceed with a plant-expansion program, the board will want to know what makes additional housing necessary before granting the request. It will also want to know how much and what types are needed, where the plant should be located, how much it may cost, how the money is to be secured, and what staff adjustments or additions will be required to facilitate the program. The board will also request information on what occupancy of the proposed new facilities may do to the budget for school operation. That, however, is outside the scope of this discussion.

The School Survey

The school survey is the common method of supplying answers to most of these basic questions. Whether the survey should be made by outside experts or by the local administrative staff is often open to debate. If the local staff is inadequate, or if the board, either with or without the concurrence of the superintendent, believes a check-up from the outside

is desirable, the answer is to bring in a competent school-survey staff to do the job. In most situations, assuming the presence of well-trained administrators and educational research workers, the formal survey should not be necessary. The regular administrative staff will have available in well-organized form the data necessary to answer the questions raised. However, the school district would secure an extra measure of protection if it had the local interpretation of data and plant recommendations reviewed by a competent educational plant consultant.

School-building surveys often propose curriculum changes, changes in instructional procedures, school-grade groupings, school-district boundary changes, and major redistricting of the area. When such proposals come from outside the district, timed to precede a building program, a great deal of confusion results just when unified purpose and action are essential if the new school plant is to facilitate an approved educational program. This is not intended as an argument against complete surveys, but rather to urge the necessity of completing district changes and substantial changes in educational organization and instruction procedures before entering seriously upon the planning of new buildings. In most instances where pressures for new schoolhousing are felt and financing has been arranged, the planning and construction will proceed whether or not policy decisions have been reached on proposed educational reorganization. When this is permitted, it probably reflects a belief on the part of the board and the superintendent that the school plant does not have much influence on the administration of an educational program—that a good teacher can conduct a good program in almost any type and arrangement of shelter. If that is true, there is no justification for the point of view presented in this chapter.

The collection, organization, and interpretation of data in a school survey should result in the framework for a long-term plan for the school plant and a plan for financing the capital outlays involved. In broad outlines, it should answer the questions of "what," "where," and "when." The "what" states the total current plant needs and estimates additional needs for a given period of years. The "where" should be sufficiently specific to permit the purchase of new sites and the enlargement, when needed, of existing school sites well in advance of construction. The "when" permits the programming of school construction in a sequence that meets school needs in priority order and permits adoption of an extended financing program for capital outlays. A master plan for each campus now occupied is of vital assistance in the preparation of a long-term plan of plant development for a school district. The campus plan should show present buildings, other fixtures, and all play areas, and should indicate at least one scheme for the future development of the

campus to its optimum capacity. Plans for future development should show locations for additional buildings and services needed to round out and enrich the educational program, as well as the need for additional classrooms and play areas. The preparation of a master-plan sketch pertaining to a parcel of ground proposed for a new school site is an ideal way to determine its inadequacy or to help answer the question of how much area is needed.

Staffing for the Provision of Educational Plants

A good beginning point for providing appropriate school facilities is to set up an adequate local staff with responsibilities for school-plant planning and use. Such a staff, however well-selected and organized, cannot overcome limitations imposed by inadequate financing or by a mediocre or incompetent school architect. Conversely, adequate financing and a competent specialized architect will not produce as good a school plant without appropriate staff assistance as when such assistance is available throughout the planning process.

The magnitude and complexity of the local school-plant problem and also the quality and completeness of architectural service available should be prime determinants. A long list of variations in local situations could be presented here, but it will serve better to give attention to the desirable tasks of this type of staff as the basis for determining its composition and organization.

Such a staff, under the immediate control of the superintendent, should:

1. Be the clearinghouse for all contacts between the school district and its architect and all other planning and engineering consultants.
2. Be responsible for the preparation of a complete and comprehensive statement of educational need in the area of school plant. This statement would conform to board policy and incorporate in organized form the contributions of supervisors, teachers, and custodians.
3. Assemble, for the purposes of stimulation, guidance and comparison, appropriate standards and illustrations of school buildings, furniture, and equipment and make these available to the general staff. A school-plant workshop or laboratory is fully justified.
4. Hold conferences with members of the teaching staff and provide drafting service to enable teachers to reduce their recommendations to specific proposals that can be understood by the board, the superintendent, and the architect. Permanent-type committees of teachers are more effective than hastily called conferences when plans are under production in the architect's office.
5. Together with the architect, prepare and keep up to date a complete control budget for each construction project undertaken. Such a budget should

include actual or estimated costs of such items as appear in the following list prepared by Don L. Essex.

Item	Cost Estimates ¹
1. General construction	\$.....
2. Heating and ventilating
3. Plumbing
4. Electric
5. Sewage system, if by separate contract
6. Other contracts (a)
(b)
7. Subtotal (building only)	\$.....
8. Architect's and engineer's commissions
9. Clerk of the works (salary)
10. Legal services
11. General administration and incidental costs
12. Insurance during construction
13. Site: purchase price
14. Site: development, including roads and walks
15. Furniture and equipment
16. Grand total (estimated project cost)
17. Interest during construction	\$.....

Complete project budgeting is not only necessary to determine the actual cost of the school plant but provides at least a chance that practically all available capital outlay funds will not, as is often done, be used for construction alone.

6. Be informed on the best current practices and trends in school lighting, sanitation, heating, ventilation, acoustics, audio-visual aids, intercommunication devices, and other general school-plant services.
7. Supervise the initial occupancy of a new building and give assistance where needed to insure proper use of facilities provided.
8. Supervise maintenance and repair operations.

Operational Procedures of School-Plant Staff

The nature of the tasks to be performed indicates the necessity of heading up the school-plant staff with an educator rather than a business manager or an architect, unless, of course, the business manager or

¹ Don L. Essex, "The Architect's Preliminary Studies," *American School Board Journal*, CX (March, 1945), 31-32.

architect is also an educator. In small districts the superintendent frequently adds these tasks to his other duties. This practice is not good for the building program or for the smooth operation of other school services. Even in small districts a reassignment of duties to free someone, at least on a part-time basis, to give guidance to plant planning is essential. The superintendent is most often the one best qualified.

Even in relatively small projects a designer or draftsman should be available to assist staff and committee members in presenting their recommendation in definite form understandable to the architect. In some cases he would be loaned from the architect's office. In large districts full-time employment is justified at least during the period when preliminary plans were being prepared.

The school-plant staff under discussion here does not contemplate the inclusion of architectural service for the development of plans and specifications for school buildings. It contemplates rather an organized approach to the task of securing the maximum potential contributions of all available resources to the functional planning of school buildings and of organizing these contributions for use by the architect. It contemplates also the continued availability to the architect of a well-informed and responsible representative of the school district to assist in the interpretation of school needs in relation to an organized building plan. Whatever personnel, in addition to a director and draftsman, are needed to accomplish these purposes should be provided.

It is inevitable and proper that the school-plant staff should spend much time with building principals in the preparation of a statement of educational need. That being the case, the principal for a proposed new school should be selected prior to the time the intensive and detailed planning of the building is undertaken. This need is most noticeable when a major building program includes the housing of a revised or expanded school grade-grouping organization; for example, the introduction of junior high schools, junior college, neighborhood primary schools, or nursery schools.

The objective of the school administrator in constituting a school-plant staff may well be to create the opportunity and establish the procedures most likely to secure from every school employee, from specialized technicians, and from other persons and sources the best they have to offer on plant planning; and to have incorporated in the plans and specifications the meritorious offerings that can be financed.

Flexibility in Construction

The need is now well recognized for school buildings to be amenable to inexpensive alterations as a means of keeping them adjusted to the

changing scope and procedures of education. Recognized also, in areas where school enrolments are not stabilized, is the need during planning to anticipate building additions from time to time. These needs should give a high priority to flexibility as a basic consideration in planning school buildings. Some of the items that must be considered, if flexibility is to be achieved, are:

1. Ample area for school sites.
2. Location of building on site where the building can be expanded.
3. Continuous fenestration rather than architectural groupings of windows.
4. A structural design which requires few load-bearing cross walls.
5. Oversized boiler-room, and radiators placed at short intervals; or individual room heaters.
6. Lighter types of construction than concrete and masonry.
7. Single-loaded corridor, single-story type of plan.

Desirable flexibility in school construction usually is not as easily achieved in large cities as in small cities and rural areas. In new subdivisions, however, and in situations where new primary neighborhood schools are to be provided, large cities will have an opportunity to achieve some flexibility.

FINANCING CAPITAL OUTLAYS

Planning for financing capital outlays gives rise to much controversial discussion. Are the funds to be provided by the sale of bonds, by accumulated reserves, or by substantially increased tax levies for short periods of time? Should local funds be supplemented by tapping the much broader tax bases of state and federal governments?

Theoretical considerations show but slight differences in merit between bond financing and accumulated reserves. Attitudes of electors, however, may make a controlling difference in a given community. When bonding is adopted as the method of financing, there is strong temptation both to let plant needs accumulate and to construct beyond current needs so as to widen the time-span between bond-election campaigns. Such a procedure gives the financing plan a priority over pupils' needs for facilities and also introduces the danger of overbuilding. Under the accumulated-reserves plan, facilities may be provided more nearly when needed but they might be constructed in units so small that costs are higher. Because of maximum tax rates and other legal restrictions, some districts are denied the use of the accumulated-reserves method. The potential evils of either method would be mitigated with state and federal equalization funds.

The gross and indefensible inequalities found in plant provisions among school districts and the stress and strain accompanying major bond campaigns will continue as long as plant financing is considered

exclusively the responsibility of local districts. Many states have accepted responsibility for sharing with local districts the current costs of education. Only when a similar responsibility for capital-outlay costs is recognized, is there any hope of equalizing educational opportunity in so far as plant provisions are concerned.

The current war period with its ready money, high federal taxes, and sharp building restrictions has seen a substantial growth of accumulated reserves for needed construction. Very low interest rates on school bonds and a less critical attitude on the part of the public in financial matters have resulted in many bond issues being authorized to finance needed construction at an uncertain future date. These current practices emphasize the desirability of raising needed capital outlay funds when it is most readily possible and by the method most acceptable to the voters, rather than with consideration exclusively for the most construction for the building dollar. Equal and properly enriched educational opportunities can be provided for all children only on a basis of providing plant facilities when and where they are needed.

EDUCATIONAL SPECIFICATIONS FOR A SCHOOL PLANT

A sound basis for a good working relationship among school-district officials, the architect, and all specialized consultants during a building program is a comprehensive written statement of the educational requirements for the new school plant or additions to the existing plant. The preparation of such a statement is a difficult and time-consuming task. Its completeness and validity, however, serves as one important measure of how well the superintendent of schools is discharging his responsibility in providing appropriate housing for the educational program in his district. A one-man document may be complete, but, generally speaking, its validity depends upon an intelligent use of staff and consultant contributions.

A brief definite statement of the educational philosophy under which the school system operates will serve a good purpose throughout the planning process. The same is true for instructional procedures and teacher-pupil relationships. Such statements to be effective need to go further than mere labels, such as conventional, progressive, or middle of the road.

The total number of children to be served on the campus will need to be grouped as to age, grade, and sex, the average and maximum class size being indicated. The operating time schedule for the school should be given. Each kind of service which cannot be performed in a regular type classroom must be described and the number of student stations and special facilities required for such service must be noted.

Desirable groupings and interrelationships of rooms and services in the interests of convenience and good school operation should be indicated. The acquisition of adequate space for teaching, including storage of wraps, supplies, and equipment, is the best reason that can be given for undertaking a school-building program. This can be assured only when the architect knows the specific type of furniture, equipment, and wall boards that will be used in the room, as well as the number of students. He must also know in detail the instructional materials used and to some extent how they are to be used and stored. He must know what interest and group-work centers are needed over and above seating, aisle, and storage areas. If extra floor space is desirable to permit regrouping within the room from time to time, this fact should be stated.

After each instructional space has been planned carefully and the units grouped for good operation, there are a number of general considerations of real importance that should be covered in the educational specifications. The normal movements of students about the campus during the school day to meet scheduled requirements result in certain points of crowding and congestion. A clear statement of this problem permits the architect to plan for good student-traffic circulation in the new plant. Areas in the building and on the playgrounds most in need of easy supervision should be identified so the plan may be arranged accordingly. Rooms and corridors needing noise control should be specified in order that appropriate acoustical treatment may be planned. Places where audio-visual equipment is to be used in the building need to be known by the architect so that essential services and space conditioning may be provided.

The requirements for lighting deserve careful consideration in any statement of need. If maximum use is to be made of daylight, the orientation and shading of main classroom windows should be determined. In any event, light reflection factors of interior finishes should be specified. The artificial light source—incandescent or fluorescent—should be determined, as well as the desired foot-candle levels and ratios of brightness to be maintained.

While the general provisions for heating and ventilation may best be left to the architect and his technical advisors, the educational statement should call attention to the rooms where special solutions are required; for example, the need of primary rooms for a floor warm enough to be used as instructional space even in cold weather. The maintenance experience of staff and custodian should be called upon to designate areas and services in need of special attention by the architect.

A carefully drawn set of educational specifications not only makes possible a building that will facilitate the educational process but also

makes an important contribution in school district-architect relationship throughout the planning period.

A statement by the school staff regarding sanitary facilities should result in improvement of the toilet and drinking fountain facilities traditionally provided. For example, the location of ample handwashing facilities in reasonable proximity to a cafeteria should permit school practices which comply with the instructions for handwashing before a meal. Similarly, foot or automatic flush valves for toilets and wash basins in schools would bring them more in conformity to what is found in hospitals and modernized offices and in line with precautionary measures taught in the schools against the spreading of germs through using manually operated faucets and valves.

CO-OPERATION WITH THE ARCHITECT'S OFFICE

Another critical area of the superintendent's responsibility in a building program is the establishment of a good procedure for continuous and authoritative exchange of information and decisions between the school officials and the architect. No matter how complete a set of educational specifications is prepared, adjustments are necessary throughout the planning process. Furthermore, there is the obvious necessity for frequent interpretation to the architect by an educator of the significance and application in the building of the educational specifications. If these adjustments and interpretations are not available to the architect at the proper time during the process of his work, delays in construction and friction with the architect are inevitable.

Another important protection to the district may be realized by having specialized consultants available to the architect when needed. For example, an architect frequently considers his office competent in the field of illumination and acoustical treatment, while the school district may desire to check the architect's recommendations with an outstanding expert in those matters. In one situation the school board left to its architect the matter of securing acoustical engineering advice on plans being prepared for an auditorium. The architect failed to secure the acoustical engineer's services until after the plans were completed, resulting in the necessity of abandoning the entire set of plans and developing new ones for an auditorium of the shape recommended by the acoustical adviser.

The time may come when architectural firms, specializing in school business, will have a staff so complete that the need for calling in specialists will disappear. Because many firms are not now so completely staffed, supplemental technical advisers are warranted. This problem should be faced frankly when the agreement between the school district and the architect is drawn.

Of assistance in the smooth working relationship between the school district and the architect is a somewhat detailed description of what constitutes a complete set of preliminary plans. Common practice followed by architectural offices is to secure written approval of preliminary plans from the school board before they proceed with the expensive phase of preparing detailed plans and specifications. Should the architect secure this preliminary approval on an incomplete set of plans, the school district often is placed on the defensive in securing important planning adjustments during the preparation of final drawings. An attempt should be made to have the school district's desires in all possible matters pertinent to the educational adequacy of the building incorporated in the preliminary plans and specifications. Furthermore, when a district has at hand a complete set of preliminary drawings it is then in a position to use available school-planning consultants more intelligently.

The following list of items to be included in preliminary plans has proved helpful in the relationship of school architects to a state planning division. It should be equally helpful to school districts in situations where no state approval of school plans is required.

1. Plot plan (to scale)
 - a) Size and shape of entire site with over-all dimensions
 - b) Point of compass and data on prevailing and storm winds where significant
 - c) Topographical conditions (engineer's survey is required except on level site)
 - d) Location of proposed building on site, its future additions, and existing structures
 - e) Student-traffic connection between all buildings
 - f) Service roads and parking areas
 - g) Buildings on adjacent properties within forty feet of property lines (indicate only)
 - h) Existing growth (trees) and natural barriers (rocks, cliffs, streams, etc.)
 - i) Adjacent streets, highways, sidewalks, railroads, etc. (Designate major highways, county roads, or residential streets.)
2. Floor plans (to scale, not less than $\frac{1}{4}$ in. to 1 ft.)
 - a) Location, sizes, and purposes of all rooms
 - b) Location of all doors, windows, etc.
 - c) Location of plumbing fixtures, chalk boards, bulletin boards, built-in equipment, and casework
 - d) General method of heating, ventilating, and lighting
 - e) Over-all dimensions
 - f) Possible future additions to the building
 - g) Tentative furniture and equipment layouts, including student stations
3. Elevations (same scale as plans, of at least two sides)
 - a) Finished floor and ceiling levels
 - b) Finished outside grades

- c) Windows, doors, steps, areas, retaining walls, etc.
- d) Materials, especially as related to acoustics and maintenance
- 4. Sections (same scale, to explain condition not made clear in other drawings)
- 5. Miscellaneous
 - a) Dates of drawings and revisions
 - b) For auditorium-assembly units seating over 200, evidence that acoustical adequacy has been considered in relation to shape and form of unit

In its relationship to the architect, a school district should provide an additional major protection by requiring that working drawings for a school project shall not be undertaken by the architect until he has the written authorization from the district.

BUILDING AND CONSTRUCTION

If the plans and specifications for a school building have been cooperatively, completely, and competently prepared, the process of advertising for bids, awarding contracts, and proceeding with the construction is one requiring a minimum of attention or interference on the part of school officials. The one notable exception would be if a number of alternates appear in the plans and specifications. Too often the adjustment of bids to available funds by means of hastily prepared alternates nullifies much of the careful work of the staff in its educational planning. A safe procedure to follow is to process proposed changes to an adopted plan through the same channels and in the same manner as the original plans were developed. One of the frequent and serious errors in adjusting plans to meet available funds is to reduce the area in each classroom. The possible adverse effect of such procedure on the educational program is obvious. It is better to do with one or two fewer classrooms than will be needed for a year or two than to endure cramped quarters in all rooms for perhaps a half century.

Incredible as it seems, there are numerous instances in which the actual construction is found to differ substantially from the approved plans and specifications. Sometimes these differences are traceable to an on-the-project verbal agreement between a representative of the school district and the contractor. Protection to the district requires that deviations from the plans be made only on the basis of formal action of the board and the recommendation by the architect. It is the primary concern of the school district's inspector of the work to see that the plans and specifications are followed, not to attempt to improve upon them. The superintendent of schools or individual board members should have no power to authorize the builder to deviate from the approved plans and specifications.

OCCUPYING AND USING THE BUILDING

A modern school building is complex and has in it unfamiliar equipment and mechanical devices. To secure the maximum value from the building, custodian, teachers, and pupils should be instructed in its use and care when it is first occupied.

The school administration and maintenance staff and the architect may well co-operate in giving such instruction. Heating and electrical equipment, window and window-shade adjustment, floor and wall care, and cleaning procedure are some of the items concerning which the architect may be of assistance. The administration should explain the educational thinking back of the building spaces and the provisions that differ from those traditionally found. Where multi-use rooms are provided, their special use and storage problems deserve explanation.

A similar process of education in the use of a modern plant should be given to new staff members and to transfers from traditional buildings.

PROGRAM OF ACTION

Thus far in the chapter certain criticisms have been made and implied regarding past and current administrative practices in connection with school-plant planning, construction, and financing, and regarding the facilities resulting from these practices. A program of action designed to diminish or eliminate the currently observed weaknesses would involve:

1. Development of appropriate courses in universities and colleges to fit educational trainees for responsibilities relating to the planning and use of the school plant.

2. Provision for continuous educational staff participation in studying the significance of the school plant and equipment in the educational program and in attempting to improve their functional relationship.

3. Provision of a sub-committee of each committee working on curriculum construction or revision whose responsibility would be to determine the plant implications of curriculum proposals.

4. Redirection of emphasis from economical maintenance and operation of buildings to maximum implementation of educational services, and from minimizing plant depreciation to combating educational obsolescence of buildings.

5. Support of equalization of capital-outlay financing by means of state and federal funds, but retaining local control.

6. Provision for an adequate school-plant consultation staff in all state departments of education and in the United States Office of Education.

7. Improvement in the method of selecting architects and special engineers for school buildings and of using their services during the planning period.

8. Improvement and expansion of training programs for custodians and all other school-building operation and maintenance personnel.

9. Revision of policies and procedures of selection, purchase, and distribution of furniture, equipment, and instructional supplies, giving greater emphasis to educational implementation.

10. Development of effective liaison with the designers and manufacturers of school furniture and equipment in the hope that educational and hygienic requirements may dictate what is produced, rather than reliance on manufacturers to decide what is to be made available for school purchase.

CONCLUSION

In no other area of responsibility does the school administrator have a greater opportunity to influence the growth and development of a forward-looking program of education than in the planning for school-plant facilities. Improvement in the fulfilment of that responsibility is more promising in the realm of staff organization and duty assignment, and in planning procedures and controls, than in an attempt by the school administrator to aspire to competence in each of the many and highly technical phases of schoolhouse planning and construction.

CHAPTER VIII
THE PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION
OF SCHOOL PERSONNEL

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Rules and regulations governing the licensing of teachers, administrators, and other school personnel represent minimum requirements for admission to the profession. Ultimately, it is probable that admission will be on a basis similar to that presently prevailing in the legal and medical professions.

No matter how rigid or how loose the certification rules and regulations of a state may be, the initial responsibility for the professional preparation of school personnel is vested in the training institution. If there are incompetent individuals in the professional staff of the educational system, it is because certain institutions accepted them for training and subsequently sponsored them for admission to the profession. The training institution has many responsibilities in relation to the professional personnel of the schools, among which the following may be mentioned: (1) initial selection of trainees, (2) continued guidance and follow-up, (3) adequate professional preparation, (4) effective specialization, (5) personality development, (6) scholarship, (7) final recommendation of the candidate. It is the purpose of this chapter to indicate the importance of these particular functions.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF TRAINING INSTITUTIONS

Initial Selection. The first step in admission to the teaching profession is the selection of competent candidates by the training institution. It is exceedingly doubtful that the training institution can select wisely in all cases from the high-school graduating classes or, in the case of prospective administrators, from those who already have had experience in the classroom. In some cases the Freshman in college will have made up his mind to enter the profession and, in many cases, this decision eventually proves wise. It is probable that the training institution may improve the opportunity for effective selection by requiring the candidate

to demonstrate his aptitude for professional service in education during his first two years in the training institution. In the case of the school administrator, we shall most likely come to an internship in administration.

Continued Guidance and Follow-up. There must be wise counseling on the part of those who guide the destiny of the prospective teacher. Whatever goes on in the teacher-training classroom should be based on sound theory and should be an example of what we expect the prospective educator to do in his assignment. There must be close relationship between the instructor and the individual student and every effort should be made to discover the strengths and weaknesses of the individual in order to capitalize on the strengths and to eliminate the weaknesses. Results of experience in the adequate guidance of students in training will have a strong bearing on selective procedures as well as on the adaptation of instruction to individual needs. Guidance throughout the training course is a most important phase of professional training and the institution should provide a follow-up service for its graduates during the first two or three years of employment.

Adequate Professional Preparation. Some hold the opinion that since Aristotle and Plato had no professional education courses—no methodology, courses in administration, or internship—educational personnel of the present age need no such program. Some validity might be attached to such views if all who sought admission to the profession were Platos or Aristotles. It has become increasingly evident that there must be adequate preparation for admission to employment in the schools if those in teaching, administrative, or supervising positions are to be regarded as belonging to a profession.

Each state department of education should review its rules and regulations governing certification and eliminate any specific course requirement which might hold the university or college training institution to an unwarranted pattern. However, in the professional preparation of an educator, the following areas should be mastered by the individual:

1. A thorough knowledge of human behavior and child development.
2. The ability to regard method as a means to an end. Too many acquire technique with little knowledge of the individual to whom the technique is to be applied. Educators must learn that no one technique is sufficient, that in teaching reading, for example, one method may apply to one individual or several individuals, and other methods may apply better in other cases.
3. A thorough understanding of and sympathy for democracy and the ways of democratic living.
4. Understanding the value of opportunities to learn, or to administer, or to teach by doing.

5. A thorough knowledge of the administration, organization, and purpose of the American school system.
6. The ability always to keep the objectives of education in the foreground. Techniques and methods should not be permitted to interfere with the attainment of the objectives.
7. The ability to evaluate and appraise the results of instruction.
8. Understanding and skill in relationships with others.
9. Ability to organize material for instruction.

Other areas might be mentioned. These represent the fundamentals.

Effective Specialization. The question frequently arises concerning the extent of the specialization required in a particular field. While there should be mastery of the subject matter of a selected area, it has become increasingly evident that success in the educational profession may be impaired as a result of too narrow specialization. A broad cultural background or liberal education should be the foundation upon which specialization rests. The effective administrator must be an educated man. It is expected that all educational personnel will become masters of English; therefore, no individual should be accepted as a candidate for the administrative course or be admitted to the teaching profession who is not able to read, write, and speak English correctly and effectively.

Personality Factors. Personality is difficult to define. It certainly has nothing to do with the race, religion, political affiliation, or the financial status of the individual. Candidates for educational positions should not be admitted on the basis of these or other irrelevant factors. So far as the teaching profession is concerned, personality should include the following traits:

1. Ability to organize thinking logically and to present facts in an interesting, convincing, and dispassionate manner. This means the ability to think rationally.
2. Ability to read, write, and speak English fluently.
3. Disposition to acquire the dress that fits the personality rather than to follow the fashion at the moment.
4. Willingness to withhold tactless, embarrassing, injurious, or sarcastic comments about others. Ability to suppress cynical remarks about personalities or events.
5. Emotional stability and regard for the laws of physical and mental health.
6. Ability to be a good listener, one with patient, tolerant consideration of the views and problems of others.
7. Recognition of the attainments of others.
8. The habit of doing one's work thoroughly, neatly, and accurately, whatever the assignment.
9. Ability to co-operate and work with others.
10. Possession of such qualities as unassuming reliance, esthetic appreciation, creativeness, self-direction.

Scholarship. An element which is needed for success in the educational profession is scholarship. This need not mean the meticulous production of a book or monograph. It need not mean the search for the unknown. It is reflected somewhat in the following characteristics:

1. Ability to organize thinking logically. To express one's self by the precise choice of words. To avoid vulgarisms and the use of unusual or inappropriate vocabulary.
2. Ability to impart knowledge simply and to continue the process of self-education, which should be a major objective of all education.
3. Thoroughness, neatness, and accuracy in the art of teaching or in administration and supervision.
4. Presentation of concepts on the basis of facts and not on the basis of emotionalism.
5. The capacity to humanize knowledge and to maintain standards compatible with student potentialities.
6. Mastery of essential knowledge.
7. Ability to evaluate techniques of acquiring and testing knowledge.
8. Intellectual integrity.

SOME REASONS FOR FAILURE IN THE ADMINISTRATIVE FIELD

One of the major weaknesses in the training of school administrators has been the failure to follow up the product of the institution and to ascertain from time to time the areas in which the graduate has shown strength, or, in case of weakness, to assist the individual to overcome the particular difficulty he has encountered. A board of education frequently may be charged with responsibility for the failure of the individual, whereas, in many instances other factors are indicated as the cause of dissatisfaction. From observation, the following appear to represent some major causes for lack of success in the administrative field.

1. Failure to keep the policy-determining board informed. One fundamental responsibility of the executive is to keep the policy-determining body informed at all times on all matters within the jurisdiction of such a board.
2. Lack of a sense of timing. Some administrators do not seem to possess the faculty of taking the proper action at the right time. There is a sense of timing in administration. This means the capacity to sense the need for courageous action at the right time and in the right cause.
3. Inability to make decisions. No policy-determining board should tolerate indecision. It is better to make a decision and be wrong than to fail to make a decision and thus to keep the board dangling in mid-air, unable to establish a policy or to take action.
4. Inability to keep pace with social change. This implies that educational leadership should emanate from the administrator's office and that he must be an educator as well as a business agent of the school system. Frequently school systems lag because of unenlightened leadership at the top or because

- of a feeling that any movement away from the traditionalism of the past might be misinterpreted in the community. A step at a time is better than no forward step at all. Awareness of the needs of society must be ever present.
5. Dealing with part of a board. There is nothing that contributes more certainly to administrative failure than sharing confidences about policy with individual members of a board. Educational business should be equally available to all members of a policy-determining board.
 6. Unwillingness or inability to democratize procedures. Delegation of authority and responsibilities must be accompanied by a willingness to permit the individual to exercise the authority delegated to him. Occasionally there is a fear that the sharing of planning will lead to difficulties on the staff. A school system must be organized to make full use of its available talent.
 7. Revolution versus growth. Occasionally an administrator will come into a community without taking the time to become acquainted with community tradition, organization, institutions, ideals, or composition. A complete revolution of educational philosophy, procedure, and method takes place. The inevitable result is difficulty in the community and, in many cases, a search for a new administrator. An administrator must be certain that the people are aware of the condition of affairs before a plan of operation is developed. Evolution is always better than revolution, and will result in sounder progress.
 8. Critical judgment about a predecessor. One of the weaknesses in administration is the tendency, as shown by an occasional individual, to criticize the predecessor who may have been discharged or eliminated for one reason or another. One of the first lessons that an administrator should learn is that whatever has preceded in the past may make good history for the record, but that making this record a subject of common discussion is neither ethical nor in the interests of the educational system.
 9. Inability to present a point of view clearly and forcefully. Every school administrator in his training course should be taught how to organize material logically, to present it effectively, and to defend a point of view. The capacity to write and to speak with good effect is important. The school superintendent should have a course in public speaking during his training period.
 10. Fear of citizen organizations. Citizens should be brought into partnership in the planning of the community program. Administrators sometimes fear the influence of citizen groups, and in occasional instances the thought seems to prevail that the less people know about the school system the more effectively it can be operated. The board of education itself should encourage an advisory organization of citizens. The schools belong to the people, not to the representatives who constitute the board of education or to the administrator who is the employed executive of the board. One of the most effective means of securing progress in educational systems is the use of citizen organizations in the development of a suitable adult-education program.
 11. Inability to be a good listener. Another type of administrator is the one who

never listens or permits the other person to do any talking. More has been learned by being a good listener than by being ever willing to express an opinion on practically anything. The capacity to listen intelligently and sympathetically is something that should be acquired in the training course.

12. Failure to develop a program. Operating a school system is something more than buying nails for shingling the roof and wax for the gymnasium floor. School administration involves leadership. It requires the capacity to present a program for the consideration of the board and the interpretation of that program in terms that can be understood by every citizen in the community.

Perhaps others will add to this list. Certainly these are not generalizations that apply universally. They do, however, represent some of the major areas which apparently are not discussed or considered in courses in school administration. Some may come under the general category of human relations, others may be variously classified. The point is, institutions engaged in the training of administrators should deal realistically with problems such as these.

SOME RECOMMENDATIONS ON THE TRAINING OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

Any analysis of the courses in education, particularly in the field of administration and supervision, indicates a tremendous overlapping in subject matter and content and the failure to distinguish between the various levels and types of administration. Too much attention is paid to individual course requirements and too little to the personal equipment, the scholarship, and the personal fitness of the individual for an administrative position. The following recommendations are submitted merely as a basis for discussion of desirable changes in training procedures.

1. Each institution should carefully survey the course content required for the training of school administrators to discover the gaps, the duplication, and the irrelevant material.
2. An internship of not less than one year should be developed either on a scholarship basis or in co-operation with the educational system of the state in order that young talent may obtain experience in the administrative field.
3. Greater utilization of the resources of a university should be made. For example, few schools of education use the department of architecture or engineering in the development of courses having to do with the engineering problems of school systems. There is a limited use of schools of public affairs and citizenship by departments of education and yet the school superintendent should be well informed about state and local government. Equally valuable is the training that is made available to potential city managers and directors in municipal government.

4. Certification rules in the several states should be redirected in the sense that specific course requirements should be eliminated from the certification rules and regulations. If the state is not able or willing to adopt an examination procedure on a merit-system basis for the development of an eligible list of school superintendents, then the certification procedure should be liberalized and the general requirement hereinbefore indicated should prevail.

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CONSTITUTION AND BY-LAWS
OF
THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE
STUDY OF EDUCATION
(As adopted May, 1944, and amended June, 1945)

ARTICLE I

NAME

The name of this corporation shall be "The National Society for the Study of Education," an Illinois corporation not for profit.

ARTICLE II

PURPOSES

Its purposes are to carry on the investigation of educational problems, to publish the results of same, and to promote their discussion.

The corporation also has such powers as are now, or may hereafter be, granted by the General Not For Profit Corporation Act of the State of Illinois.

ARTICLE III

OFFICES

The corporation shall have and continuously maintain in this state a registered office and a registered agent whose office is identical with such registered office, and may have other offices within or without the State of Illinois as the Board of Directors may from time to time determine.

ARTICLE IV

MEMBERSHIP

Section 1. *Classes.* There shall be two classes of members—active and honorary. The qualifications and rights of the members of such classes shall be as follows:

(a) Any person who is desirous of promoting the purposes of this corporation is eligible to active membership and shall become such on payment of dues as prescribed.

(b) Active members shall be entitled to vote, to participate in discussion and, subject to the conditions set forth in Article V, to hold office.

(c) Honorary members shall be entitled to all the privileges of active members, with the exception of voting and holding office, and shall be exempt from the

payment of dues. A person may be elected to honorary membership by vote of the active members of the corporation on nomination by the Board of Directors.

(d) Any active member of the Society may, at any time after reaching the age of sixty, become a life member on payment of the aggregate amount of the regular annual dues for the period of life expectancy, as determined by standard actuarial tables, such membership to entitle the member to receive all yearbooks and to enjoy all other privileges of active membership in the Society for the lifetime of the member.

Section 2. *Termination of Membership.*

(a) The Board of Directors by affirmative vote of two-thirds of the members of the board may suspend or expel a member for cause after appropriate hearing.

(b) Termination of membership for nonpayment of dues shall become effective as provided in Article XIV.

Section 3. *Reinstatement.* The Board of Directors may by the affirmative vote of two-thirds of the members of the Board reinstate a former member whose membership was previously terminated for cause other than nonpayment of dues.

Section 4. *Transfer of Membership.* Membership in this corporation is not transferable or assignable.

ARTICLE V

BOARD OF DIRECTORS

Section 1. *General Powers.* The business and affairs of the corporation shall be managed by its Board of Directors. It shall appoint the Chairman and Vice-Chairman of the Board of Directors, the Secretary-Treasurer, and Members of the Council. It may appoint a member to fill any vacancy on the Board until such vacancy shall have been filled by election as provided in Section 3 of this Article.

Section 2. *Number, Tenure, and Qualifications.* The Board of Directors shall consist of seven members, namely, six to be elected by the members of the corporation, and the Secretary-Treasurer to be the seventh member. Only active members who have contributed to the Yearbooks shall be eligible for election to serve as directors. No member who has been elected for two full terms as director in immediate succession shall be elected a director for a term next succeeding. This provision shall not apply to the Secretary-Treasurer who is appointed by the Board of Directors. Each director shall hold office for the term for which he is elected or appointed and until his successor shall have been selected and qualified. Directors need not be residents of Illinois.

Section 3. *Election.*

(a) The directors named in the Articles of Incorporation shall hold office until their successors shall have been duly selected and shall have qualified. Thereafter, two directors shall be elected annually to serve three years, beginning March first after their election. If, at the time of any annual election, a vacancy exists in the Board of Directors, a director shall be elected at such election to fill such vacancy.

(b) Elections of directors shall be held by ballots sent by United States mail as follows: A nominating ballot together with a list of members eligible to be

directors shall be mailed by the Secretary-Treasurer to all active members of the corporation in October. From such list, the active members shall nominate on such ballot one eligible member for each of the two regular terms and for any vacancy to be filled and return such ballots to the office of the Secretary-Treasurer within twenty-one days after said date of mailing by the Secretary-Treasurer. The Secretary-Treasurer shall prepare an election ballot and place thereon in alphabetical order the names of persons equal to three times the number of offices to be filled, these persons to be those who received the highest number of votes on the nominating ballot, provided, however, that not more than one person connected with a given institution or agency shall be named on such final ballot, the person so named to be the one receiving the highest vote on the nominating ballot. Such election ballot shall be mailed by the Secretary-Treasurer to all active members in November next succeeding. The active members shall vote thereon for one member for each such office. Election ballots must be in the office of the Secretary-Treasurer within twenty-one days after said date of mailing by the Secretary-Treasurer. The ballots shall be counted by the Secretary-Treasurer, or by an election committee, if any, appointed by the board. The two members receiving the highest number of votes shall be declared elected for the regular term and the member or members receiving the next highest number of votes shall be declared elected for any vacancy or vacancies to be filled.

Section 4. *Regular Meetings.* A regular annual meeting of the Board of Directors shall be held, without other notice than this by-law, at the same place and as nearly as possible on the same date as the annual meeting of the corporation. The Board of Directors may provide the time and place, either within or without the State of Illinois, for the holding of additional regular meetings of the board.

Section 5. *Special Meetings.* Special meetings of the Board of Directors may be called by or at the request of the Chairman or a majority of the directors. Such special meetings shall be held at the office of the corporation unless a majority of the directors agree upon a different place for such meetings.

Section 6. *Notice.* Notice of any special meeting of the Board of Directors shall be given at least fifteen days previously thereto by written notice delivered personally or mailed to each director at his business address, or by telegram. If mailed, such notice shall be deemed to be delivered when deposited in the United States mail in a sealed envelope so addressed, with postage thereon prepaid. If notice be given by telegram, such notice shall be deemed to be delivered when the telegram is delivered to the telegraph company. Any director may waive notice of any meeting. The attendance of a director at any meeting shall constitute a waiver of notice of such meeting, except where a director attends a meeting for the express purpose of objecting to the transaction of any business because the meeting is not lawfully called or convened. Neither the business to be transacted at, nor the purpose of, any regular or special meeting of the board need be specified in the notice or waiver of notice of such meeting.

Section 7. *Quorum.* A majority of the Board of Directors shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business at any meeting of the board, provided, that if less than a majority of the directors are present at said meeting, a majority

of the directors present may adjourn the meeting from time to time without further notice.

Section 8. *Manner of Acting.* The act of the majority of the directors present at a meeting at which a quorum is present shall be the act of the Board of Directors, except where otherwise provided by law or by these by-laws.

ARTICLE VI

THE COUNCIL

Section 1. *Appointment.* The Council shall consist of the Board of Directors, the Chairmen of the corporation's Yearbook and Research Committees, and such other active members of the corporation as the Board of Directors may appoint.

Section 2. *Duties.* The duties of the Council shall be to further the objects of the corporation by assisting the Board of Directors in planning and carrying forward the educational undertakings of the corporation.

ARTICLE VII

OFFICERS

Section 1. *Officers.* The officers of the corporation shall be a Chairman of the Board of Directors, a Vice-Chairman of the Board of Directors, and a Secretary-Treasurer. The Board of Directors, by resolution, may create additional offices. Any two or more offices may be held by the same person, except the offices of Chairman and Secretary-Treasurer.

Section 2. *Election and Term of Office.* The officers of the corporation shall be elected annually by the Board of Directors at the annual regular meeting of the Board of Directors, provided, however, that the Secretary-Treasurer may be elected for a term longer than one year. If the election of officers shall not be held at such meeting, such election shall be held as soon thereafter as conveniently may be. Vacancies may be filled or new offices created and filled at any meeting of the Board of Directors. Each officer shall hold office until his successor shall have been duly elected and shall have qualified or until his death or until he shall resign or shall have been removed in the manner hereinafter provided.

Section 3. *Removal.* Any officer or agent elected or appointed by the Board of Directors may be removed by the Board of Directors whenever in its judgment the best interests of the corporation would be served thereby, but such removal shall be without prejudice to the contract rights, if any, of the person so removed.

Section 4. *Chairman of Board of Directors.* The Chairman of the Board of Directors shall be the principal officer of the corporation. He shall preside at all meetings of the members and of the Board of Directors, shall perform all duties incident to the office of Chairman of the Board of Directors and such other duties as may be prescribed by the Board of Directors from time to time.

Section 5. *Vice-Chairman of the Board of Directors.* In the absence of the

Chairman of the Board of Directors or in the event of his inability or refusal to act, the Vice-Chairman of the Board of Directors shall perform the duties of the Chairman of the Board of Directors, and when so acting, shall have all the powers of and be subject to all the restrictions upon the Chairman of the Board of Directors. Any Vice-Chairman of the Board of Directors shall perform such other duties as from time to time may be assigned to him by the Board of Directors.

Section 6. *Secretary-Treasurer*. The Secretary-Treasurer shall be the managing executive officer of the corporation. He shall: (a) keep the minutes of the meetings of the members and of the Board of Directors in one or more books provided for that purpose; (b) see that all notices are duly given in accordance with the provisions of these by-laws or as required by law; (c) be custodian of the corporate records and of the seal of the corporation and see that the seal of the corporation is affixed to all documents, the execution of which on behalf of the corporation under its seal is duly authorized in accordance with the provisions of these by-laws; (d) keep a register of the postoffice address of each member as furnished to the secretary-treasurer by such member; (e) in general perform all duties incident to the office of secretary and such other duties as from time to time may be assigned to him by the Chairman of the Board of Directors or by the Board of Directors. He shall also: (1) have charge and custody of and be responsible for all funds and securities of the corporation; receive and give receipts for moneys due and payable to the corporation from any source whatsoever, and deposit all such moneys in the name of the corporation in such banks, trust companies or other depositaries as shall be selected in accordance with the provisions of Article XI of these by-laws; (2) in general perform all the duties incident to the office of Treasurer and such other duties as from time to time may be assigned to him by the Chairman of the Board of Directors or by the Board of Directors. The secretary-treasurer shall give a bond for the faithful discharge of his duties in such sum and with such surety or sureties as the Board of Directors shall determine, said bond to be placed in the custody of the Chairman of the Board of Directors.

ARTICLE VIII

COMMITTEES

The Board of Directors, by appropriate resolution duly passed, may create and appoint such committees for such purposes and periods of time as it may deem advisable.

ARTICLE IX

PUBLICATIONS

Section 1. The corporation shall publish *The Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, such supplements thereto, and such other materials as the Board of Directors may provide for.

Section 2. *Names of Members*. The names of the active and honorary members shall be printed in the Yearbook.

CONSTITUTION

ARTICLE X

ANNUAL MEETINGS

The corporation shall hold its annual meetings at the time and place of the Annual Meeting of the American Association of School Administrators of the National Education Association. Other meetings may be held when authorized by the corporation or by the Board of Directors.

ARTICLE XI

CONTRACTS, CHECKS, DEPOSITS, AND GIFTS

Section 1. *Contracts.* The Board of Directors may authorize any officer or officers, agent or agents of the corporation, in addition to the officers so authorized by these by-laws to enter into any contract or execute and deliver any instrument in the name of and on behalf of the corporation and such authority may be general or confined to specific instances.

Section 2. *Checks, drafts, etc.* All checks, drafts, or other orders for the payment of money, notes, or other evidences of indebtedness issued in the name of the corporation, shall be signed by such officer or officers, agent or agents of the corporation and in such manner as shall from time to time be determined by resolution of the Board of Directors. In the absence of such determination by the Board of Directors, such instruments shall be signed by the Secretary-Treasurer.

Section 3. *Deposits.* All funds of the corporation shall be deposited from time to time to the credit of the corporation in such banks, trust companies, or other depositories as the Board of Directors may select.

Section 4. *Gifts.* The Board of Directors may accept on behalf of the corporation any contribution, gift, bequest, or device for the general purposes or for any special purpose of the corporation.

ARTICLE XII

BOOKS AND RECORDS

The corporation shall keep correct and complete books and records of account and shall also keep minutes of the proceedings of its members, Board of Directors, and committees having any of the authority of the Board of Directors, and shall keep at the registered or principal office a record giving the names and addresses of the members entitled to vote. All books and records of the corporation may be inspected by any member or his agent or attorney for any proper purpose at any reasonable time.

ARTICLE XIII

FISCAL YEAR

The fiscal year of the corporation shall begin on the first day of July in each year and end on the last day of June of the following year.

ARTICLE XIV

DUES

Section 1. *Annual Dues.* The dues for active members shall be \$2.50 for each calendar year.

Section 2. *Election Fee.* An election fee of \$1.00 shall be paid in advance by each applicant for active membership.

Section 3. *Payment of Dues.* Dues for each calendar year shall be payable in advance on or before the first day of January of that year. Notice of dues for the ensuing year shall be mailed to members at the time set for mailing the primary ballots.

Section 4. *Default and Termination of Membership.* Annual membership shall terminate automatically for those members whose dues remain unpaid after the first day of January of each year. Members so in default will be reinstated on payment of the annual dues plus a reinstatement fee of fifty cents.

ARTICLE XV

SEAL

The Board of Directors shall provide a corporate seal which shall be in the form of a circle and shall have inscribed thereon the name of the corporation and the words "Corporate Seal, Illinois."

ARTICLE XVI

WAIVER OF NOTICE

Whenever any notice whatever is required to be given under the provisions of the General Not For Profit Corporation Act of Illinois or under the provisions of the Articles of Incorporation or the by-laws of the corporation, a waiver thereof in writing signed by the person or persons entitled to such notice, whether before or after the time stated therein, shall be deemed equivalent to the giving of such notice.

ARTICLE XVII

AMENDMENTS

Section 1. *Amendments by Directors.* The constitution and by-laws may be altered or amended at any meeting of the Board of Directors duly called and held, provided that an affirmative vote of at least five directors shall be required for such action.

Section 2. *Amendments by Members.* By petition of twenty-five or more active members duly filed with the Secretary-Treasurer, a proposal to amend the constitution and by-laws shall be submitted to all active members by United States mail together with ballots on which the members shall vote for or against the proposal. Such ballots shall be returned by United States mail to the office of the Secretary-Treasurer within twenty-one days after date of mailing of the proposal and ballots by the Secretary-Treasurer. The Secretary-Treasurer or a committee appointed by the Board of Directors for that purpose shall count the ballots and advise the members of the result. A vote in favor of such proposal by two-thirds of the members voting thereon shall be required for adoption of such amendment.

SYNOPSIS OF THE PROCEEDINGS OF THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS OF THE SOCIETY DURING 1945

I. MEETING OF FEBRUARY 24 AT CHICAGO

The Board of Directors met at the Shoreland Hotel, the following members being present: Brownell (*Chairman*), Charters, Horn, and Henry (*Secretary*).

1. The Secretary reported that the annual election of 1944 resulted in the re-election of Messrs. Brownell and Charters, each for a second term beginning March 1, 1945.

2. Mr. Horn was elected Chairman of the Board for the ensuing year. Mr. Henry was re-elected Secretary-Treasurer for a term of three years.

3. The Board approved a proposal for transferring the agency for the sale of yearbooks to the University of Chicago Press, arrangements having been made at the University for removal to the Press of the publications office of the Department of Education, through which the yearbooks have been distributed since 1943.

4. Mr. Brownell reported that satisfactory progress was being made on the yearbook, *The Measurement of Understanding*, and that most of the manuscripts would be available for examination by the committee at the meeting to be held in April.

5. The Secretary presented the report of the committee on educational administration. The Board approved the request of Chairman Grace that Mr. Stoddard be appointed a member of this committee.

6. Mr. Horn explained the projected plan of the National Council for the Social Studies and the National Council of Geography Teachers for the publication of a yearbook on geography. The Board requested Mr. Horn to confer with the chairman of the joint committee appointed by these organizations with the view of determining whether or not it would be desirable for the Society to cooperate with that committee in the preparation of the proposed yearbook.

7. The Secretary was instructed to request Professor William S. Gray to prepare an outline of a possible yearbook on reading in accordance with the tentative proposal he presented for consideration at the last Board meeting.

8. Mr. Charters was requested to conduct inquiries concerning the possible need for a yearbook dealing with the problem of juvenile delinquency.

II. MEETING OF JUNE 10 AT CHICAGO

The Board of Directors met at the Shoreland Hotel, the following members being present: Brownell, Charters, Freeman, Horn (*Chairman*), and Henry (*Secretary*).

1. After reviewing a statement of the present status of the securities and savings accounts of the Society, the Board instructed the Secretary to reduce the savings deposits, which amounted to approximately \$4,800, to a maximum of

\$2,500, the sums withdrawn from the cash reserves in savings banks to be invested in appropriate securities.

2. The Board adopted an amendment to the Constitution and By-Laws to provide an additional class of membership in the Society to be designated *life membership*. [The text of this amendment appears in paragraph (d) under Section 1, Article IV, of the Constitution and By-Laws as printed in this year-book.]

3. The Board adopted an amendment to the Constitution and By-Laws in furtherance of the established policy of the Society in maintaining an appropriate representation on the Board of Directors of the various institutions and agencies with which members of the Society are identified. [The text of this amendment appears as the final clause of the third sentence of paragraph (b) of Section 3, Article V, of the Constitution and By-Laws as printed in this yearbook.]

4. The Secretary reported the proceedings of the meeting of the committee on educational administration, held in Albany on June 1. The Board approved recommendations of the committee relative to certain modifications of the earlier outline of the yearbook.

5. The Board reviewed the proposal for a yearbook on early childhood education submitted by Mr. N. S. Light, Director of the Bureau of Supervision, State Department of Education, Hartford, Connecticut. The Secretary was instructed to summarize the suggestions offered by the Board for modification of the outline and to request Mr. Light to confer with Mr. Stoddard and Miss Goodykoontz relative to the final revision of the outline and the selection of members of the committee for the preparation of the yearbook.

6. Mr. Horn reported the status of his negotiations with representatives of the National Council for the Social Studies and the National Council of Geography Teachers regarding their plans for a yearbook on geography. The Secretary was instructed to prepare a statement relative to the financial requirements of this project for consideration at the next meeting of the Board.

7. The Board considered the plan suggested by Professor Gray for a yearbook on reading and requested that the proposal be revised for reconsideration at the next meeting.

8. Mr. Freeman reported on his conference with Dr. Eurich relative to a suggested yearbook dealing with the college curriculum. The Board requested Mr. Freeman to continue his inquiries regarding a yearbook in this area and to report at a later meeting.

9. Mr. Charters presented a written report of the results of his exploration of the problem of juvenile delinquency, including comments of a number of persons who responded to his inquiry. The Board requested Mr. Charters to continue this inquiry and to seek advice relative to appropriate selections of personnel for the yearbook committee.

III. MEETING OF OCTOBER 21 AT CHICAGO

The Board of Directors met at the Shoreland Hotel, the following members being present: Brownell, Freeman, Horn (*Chairman*), Melby, and Henry (*Secretary*).

1. The Secretary reported that the membership of the Society had increased to 1583 during the present year, the number enrolled for the year 1944 being 1355.

2. Mr. Charters being absent on account of illness, the report of his inquiry concerning the problem of juvenile delinquency was presented by one of his associates. The selection of members of the committee for this yearbook was deferred to a later date.

3. In view of transportation difficulties, the Board decided that it would not be advisable to plan for meetings for discussion of the yearbooks in connection with the Regional Conferences of the American Association of School Administrators.

4. Mr. Horn reported that further conferences would be required before suitable arrangements might be made for co-operation with the geography committee of the National Council for the Social Studies and the National Council of Geography Teachers.

5. The Board approved Mr. Light's recommendations of members of the committee on early childhood education and appropriated \$1,000 for expenses of the committee.

6. Mr. Brownell presented the proposal of Professor Victor Noll for a yearbook on science. This proposal was approved and an appropriation made for expenses of the committee. Professor Noll was appointed chairman of the committee.

7. The Secretary presented a communication from Professor Edgar Dale to the effect that it would not be possible for him to serve as chairman of a committee for the preparation of a yearbook dealing with the use of concrete materials in classroom instruction. Mr. Brownell and the Secretary were requested to confer with Professor Stephen M. Corey regarding a yearbook in this field.

8. Mr. Horn was appointed as representative of the Board in further negotiations with Professor Gray regarding the proposed yearbook on reading.

REPORT OF THE TREASURER OF THE SOCIETY
1944—1945

Receipts and Disbursements

Receipts:

Membership dues	\$ 4,513.21
Fees for quotations	3.00
Sales of yearbooks	10,068.67
Payments on principal of notes	2,877.01
Interest on notes	312.71
Interest and dividends on securities	279.26
Interest on savings accounts	106.46
Miscellaneous	38.55
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Total receipts	\$18,198.87

Disbursements:

Yearbooks:

Manufacturing and distributing	\$ 7,635.78
Reprinting	2,632.34
Preparation	1,816.85
Meetings	1,047.75

Secretary's office:

Editorial, secretarial, and clerical services	3,081.50
Supplies	274.90
Telephone and telegraph	60.32
Auditing	200.00
Miscellaneous	287.85
Purchase of securities	3,000.00
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Total disbursements \$20,037.29

Excess of disbursements over receipts	\$ 1,838.42
Cash in banks at beginning of year	5,619.38
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Cash in banks at end of year	\$ 3,780.96

TREASURER'S REPORT

STATEMENT OF CASH, SECURITIES, AND
NOTES RECEIVABLE

As of June 30, 1945

Cash:

University National Bank, Chicago, Illinois, Checking account	\$ 1,280.96
Danvers Savings Bank, Danvers, Massachusetts, Savings account	1,500.00
Salem Five Cents Savings Bank, Salem, Massachusetts, Savings account	1,000.00
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	\$ 3,780.96
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Securities:

Bonds:

	Cost
\$1,000 Pennsylvania R.R. Co. General Mortgage, 4½% due 6/1/65	\$ 960.00
£200 Canada Atlantic Ry. Co. Cons. 1st Mortgage, 4% due 1/1/55	937.98
£200 Canada Atlantic Ry. Co. Cons. 1st Mortgage, 4% due 1/1/55	928.26
\$8,200 U.S. of America Savings Bonds, Series "G," 2½%, due 12 years from issue date	8,200.00
\$1,000 dated 9/1/43	
\$1,500 dated 2/1/44	
\$2,700 dated 5/1/44	
\$2,000 dated 2/1/45	
\$1,000 dated 4/1/45	

Stock:

25 Shares First National Bank of Boston, Capital stock	1,031.25
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Total securities	\$12,057.49
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Notes receivable, Public School Publishing Company:

4% Secured note dated 1/2/43 due on or before 1/2/49	\$ 5,367.00
4% Unsecured note dated 1/2/43, due on or before 1/2/49	1,242.24
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Total notes receivable	\$ 6,609.24
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Total assets	\$22,447.69
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NELSON B. HENRY, *Treasurer*

MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION

(This list includes all persons enrolled December 31, 1945, whether for 1945 or 1946. Asterisk indicates Life Members of the Society.)

HONORARY MEMBERS

Dewey, Emeritus Professor John, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.
Holmes, Manfred J., Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Ill.

ACTIVE MEMBERS

Abelson, Dr. Harold H., College of the City of New York, New York, N.Y.
Abernethy, Professor Ethel M., Queens College, Charlotte, N.C.
Abernethy, Dr. R. R., Superintendent of Schools, Brookline, Upper Darby, Pa.
Abraham, H. G., Superintendent of Schools, Woodstock, Ill.
Acuff, Davis H., Superintendent of Schools, Troy, Mo.
Adams, H. W., Superintendent of Schools, Eureka, Calif.
Adams, Ruby M., Director, Elementary Education, Cumberland, Md.
Addicott, Dr. Irwin O., Asst. Supt., Fresno City Schools, Fresno, Calif.
Adell, James C., Chief, Bureau of Educ. Research, Cleveland, Ohio
Aiken, E. S., Supervisor, Rapides Parish Schools, Alexandria, La.
Albright, Frank S., Asst. Principal, Froebel School, Gary, Ind.
Alexis, Brother, S.C., Dean, St. Joseph's House of Studies, Metuchen, N.J.
Allen, Clara B., 145 East Maple Avenue, Ottumwa, Iowa
Allen, D. W., Director of Education, Ohio State Reformatory, Mansfield, Ohio
Allen, Edward E., Supervising Principal of Schools, Akron, N. Y.
Allen, Ross L., Professor of Health Educ., State Teachers College, Cortland, N.Y.
Allman, H. B., Superintendent of Schools, Muncie, Ind.
Amberson, Professor Jean D., Home Economics Bldg., State College, Pa.
Ambrose, Professor Luther M., Box 514, College Station, Berea, Ky.
Ambruster, John R., Principal, The Greendale School, Greendale, Wis.
Anderson, Esther L., Superintendent of Public Instruction, Cheyenne, Wyo.
Anderson, G. Lester, Director, University High School, Minneapolis, Minn.
Anderson, Harold Albert, Dept. of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
Anderson, Harry D., Supt., Ottawa Township High School, Ottawa, Ill.
Anderson, Howard R., School of Education, Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y.
Anderson, J. L., Superintendent of Schools, Trenton, Mich.
Anderson, John E., Dir., Inst. of Child Welfare, Univ. of Minn., Minneapolis, Minn.
Anderson, Marion, Ginn and Company, Boston, Mass.
Andrews, Annie, Supervisor, Amite County Elem. Schools, Liberty, Miss.
Andrus, Ruth, State Department of Education, Albany, N.Y.
Angell, John H., 5555 Woodlawn Ave., Chicago, Ill.
Anketell, Richard N., Superintendent of Schools, North Adams, Mass.
Antell, Henry, 120 Kenilworth Pl., Brooklyn, N.Y.
Archer, C. P., Lt. Col., AUS, 1381 N. Cleveland Ave., St. Paul, Minn.
Armstrong, Sara M., State Normal School, Framingham Center, Mass.
Arrants, John H., Superintendent of City Schools, Bristol, Tenn.
Arsenian, Professor Seth, Springfield College, Springfield, Mass.
Artley, A. Sterl, Stephens College, Columbia, Mo.
Asgis, Dr. Alfred J., 7 East Forty-second St., New York, N.Y.
Ashbaugh, Dr. Ernest J., Miami University, Oxford, Ohio
Atkinson, William N., Dean, Jackson Junior College, Jackson, Mich.
Avery, George T., Marvin Avenue, Los Altos, Calif.
Ayer, Jean, 8 Scholes Lane, Essex, Conn.

- Babcock, E. H., Superintendent of Public Schools, Grand Haven, Mich.
 Babcock, George T., 182 Second Street, San Francisco, Calif.
 Backus, Joyce, Librarian, State College, San Jose, Calif.
 Baer, Dr. Joseph A., State Department of Education, Hartford, Conn.
 Bagley, Professor William C., 525 West 120th St., New York, N. Y.
 Bailey, Dwight L., Western Illinois Teachers College, Macomb, Ill.
 Bailey, Francis L., President, State Teachers College, Gorham, Me.
 Bailey, Thomas D., Supervisor of Schools, Tampa, Fla.
 Baker, Edith M., Acting Librarian, Clark University, Worcester, Mass.
 Baker, Harold V., Principal, Daniel Webster School, New Rochelle, N. Y.
 Baker, Dr. Harry J., Director, Psychological Clinic, Detroit, Mich.
 Baker, Lt. Col. Harry Leigh, 1901 B St., Lincoln, Neb.
 Baker, Ira Young, Supervising Principal, Manchester, Pa.
 Baker, M. P., Superintendent of Schools, Corpus Christi, Tex.
 Baldwin, Professor Robert D., West Virginia University, Morgantown, W. Va.
 Ball, George, Principal, Chatham Junior High School, Savannah, Ga.
 Balyeat, Professor F. A., University of Oklahoma, Norman, Okla.
 Bamberger, Professor Florence E., Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.
 Barber, Fred H., Box 247, Emory, Va.
 Bardy, Joseph, Bellerich Apartments, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Bare, J. M., 2009 Bennett Ave., Chattanooga, Tenn.
 Barrett, Rt. Rev. Msgr. John I. *Deceased.*
 Barrie, Margaret J., Principal, Lincoln School, Hawthorne, N.J.
 Barth, Rev. Pius J., St. Peter's Church, 816 S. Clark St., Chicago, Ill.
 Barthold, Harold J., Supervising Principal, Bethlehem, Pa.
 Bartlett, Roland O., Principal, Westmount Senior High School, Westmount, Que.
 Bash, Abraham, 162 East Fifty-second St., Brooklyn, N. Y.
 Batchelder, Mildred L., American Library Association, Chicago, Ill.
 Bateman, Dr. E. Allen, Supt. of Public Instruction, Salt Lake City, Utah
 Baugher, Dr. Jacob I., Dept. of Educ., Manchester College, North Manchester, Ind.
 Beall, Dr. Ross H., University of Tulsa, Tulsa, Okla.
 Bear, Professor Robert M., Dartmouth College, Hanover, N.H.
 Beardsley, Florence E., State Department of Education, Salem, Ore.
 Bechtel, Blair B., Moorestown High School, Moorestown, N.J.
 Beck, Professor Hubert Park, 523 West 121st St., New York, N. Y.
 Bedell, Professor Ralph C., University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Neb.
 Beechel, Professor Edith E., University Elementary School, Athens, Ohio
 Behrens, Minnie, Sam Houston State Teachers College, Huntsville, Tex.
 Bell, Dorothy M., President, Bradford Junior College, Bradford, Mass.
 Bell, Dr. Millard D., Superintendent of Schools, Wilmette, Ill.
 Bell, R. W., Principal, Jenkintown High School, Jenkintown, Pa.
 Bemmer, C. W., Superintendent of Schools, Muskegon, Mich.
 Bender, John F., School of Education, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Okla.
 Benner, Thomas E., College of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.
 Benson, J. R., 6131 Magnolia Ave., St. Louis, Mo.
 Benz, H. E., College of Education, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio
 Berg, Locksley D., Principal, Monroe School, Minneapolis, Minn.
 Berg, Selmer H., Superintendent of Schools, Rockford, Ill.
 Bergan, K. W., Superintendent of Schools, Browning, Mont.
 Bergesen, B. E., Jr., Educational Test Bureau, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Bergman, Frank V., Superintendent of Schools, Manhattan, Kan.
 Bergquist, E. B., Superintendent of Schools, Rapid City, S. D.
 Berkson, I. B., 39 Claremont Ave., New York, N. Y.
 Berman, Dr. Samuel, Principal, FitzSimons Junior High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Berry, Professor Charles S., School of Educ., Ohio State Univ., Columbus, Ohio.
 Best, Howard R., Supervising Principal, Cranford, N. Y.
 Betts, Emmett A., Dir., Reading Clinic, Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Beumer, Edward H., 6462 Devonshire St., St. Louis, Mo.
 Bickel, Dr. L. G., Dean, Concordia Teachers College, Seward, Neb.
 Bigelow, Karl W., American Council on Education, Washington, D. C.
 Billett, Professor Roy O., Boston University, Boston, Mass.
 Billig, Dr. Florence Grace, College of Educ., Wayne University, Detroit, Mich.
 Binnie, Clara G., 9 Tennis Crescent, Toronto, Ont.

- Bishop, Frank E., Superintendent of Schools, Corona, Calif.
 Bishop, S. D., Principal, Community High School, West Chicago, Ill.
 Bixler, H. H., Dir., Research and Guidance, Bd of Educ., Atlanta, Ga.
 Bixler, Professor Lorin, Muskingum College, New Concord, Ohio
 Black, H. B., Superintendent of Schools, Mattoon, Ill.
 Black, Dr. Leo P., Department of Public Instruction, Lincoln, Neb.
 Blackburn, J. Albert, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, N.J.
 Blackwell, G. L., Superintendent of Schools, St. Joseph, Mo.
 Blair, Professor Glenn M., College of Educ., Univ. of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.
 Blodgett, Darrell R., Superintendent of Schools, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Blommers, Paul, 12 Woolf Court, Iowa City, Iowa
 Bloomingdale, Lewis M., Jr., Elm Ridge Farm, Scarsdale, N.Y.
 Boardman, Professor Charles W., College of Educ., Univ. of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.
 Boehm, Charles H., County Superintendent, Doylestown, Pa.
 Boehme, W. F., Superintendent, Wayne Schools, Cable, Ohio
 Boggan, T. K., Superintendent, Carthage Consolidated Schools, Carthage, Miss.
 Boland, Professor Michael P., St. Joseph's College, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Bole, Lyman, W., Superintendent of Schools, Springfield, Vt.
 Bole, Rita L., Principal, State Normal School, Lyndon Center, Vt.
 Bolton, Professor Frederick E., University of Washington, Seattle, Wash.
 Bond, G. W., Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, Ruston, La.
 Bond, J. C., Dean, Teachers College, Kansas City, Mo.
 Book, Clare B., Principal, Senior High School, New Castle, Pa.
 Booker, Ivan A., Research Division, N.E.A., Washington, D.C.
 Bookwalter, Professor Karl W., Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.
 Booth, John M., Superintendent of Schools, Kellogg, Idaho
 Boraas, Julius, St. Olaf College, Northfield, Minn.
 Boros, Arnold L., 396 East 170th St., New York, N.Y.
 Bosshart, John H., Commissioner of Education, Trenton, N.J.
 Bossing, Professor Nelson L., University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.
 Boston, W. T., Superintendent, Dorchester County Schools, Cambridge, Md.
 Boswell, Sidney, Principal, Glynn Academy, Brunswick, Ga.
 Bourgeois, William L., Superintendent of Schools, Jewett City, Conn.
 Bowen, H. S., 106½ N. Monroe Ave., Columbus, Ohio
 Bowman, Clyde A., Dir., Dept. of Industrial Arts, Stout Inst., Menomonie, Wis.
 Boyer, Vernon, Board of Education, 223 N. LaSalle St., Chicago, Ill.
 Boyce, Arthur Clifton, American Mission, Teheran, Iran
 Boyd, Fred, Spear Lake School, Marked Tree, Ark.
 Boyne, Edwin M., Superintendent of Schools, Mason, Mich.
 Bracken, John L., 7500 Maryland Ave., Clayton, Mo.
 Brandon, Helen D., 348 Mentor Ave., Painesville, Ohio
 Brammell, Roy, Dean, School of Educ., Univ. of Connecticut, Storrs, Conn.
 Branigan, John, Superintendent of Schools, Redlands, Calif.
 Branom, Frederick K., Chicago Teachers College, Chicago, Ill.
 Branom, Dr. Wayne T., Supervising Principal, Hillside, N.J.
 Brantley, G. D., Principal, Summer High School, St. Louis, Mo.
 Brechbill, Professor Henry, University of Maryland, College Park, Md.
 Breed, Professor Frederick S., Dune Acres, Chesterton, Ind.
 Bresnehan, Dr. Ella L., Dir., Dept. Ed. Investigation and Meas., Boston, Mass.
 Brewer, Karl M., Superintendent of Schools, DuBois, Pa.
 Brickman, Benjamin, Dept. of Education, Brooklyn College, Brooklyn, N.Y.
 Bridgett, Alice E., Colony Street School, Wallingford, Conn.
 Bright, O. T., Jr., Superintendent of Schools, Lake Bluff, Ill.
 Brin, Joseph G., Boston University, Boston, Mass.
 Brinkley, Sterling G., Emory University, Emory University, Ga.
 Brinkman, Rev. Gervase J., O.F.M., St. Joseph College, Westmont, Ill.
 Brish, William M., Prince George's County Schools, Upper Marlboro, Md.
 Brislaw, Maurice J., Principal, Kessler Blvd. School, Longview, Wash.
 Bristol, L. M., University of Florida, Gainesville, Fla.
 Bristow, William H., Bureau of Ref., Research, and Statistics, Brooklyn, N.Y.
 Britton, Edward C., 10015 Eighty-seventh Ave., Edmonton, Alta.
 Broening, Angela M., 2 Millbrook Road, Baltimore, Md.

- Bronfenbrenner, Lt. Urie, Borden General Hospital, Chickasha, Okla.
 Bronson, Moses L., 870 Seventh Ave., New York, N.Y.
 Brooks, Charles D., Vice-Principal, Stanton High School, Jacksonville, Fla.
 Brooks, Professor Mary B., Georgia State College for Women, Milledgeville, Ga.
 Brougher, John F., 5804 Eleventh St., N., Arlington, Va.
 Brown, Professor Clara M., University Farm, Univ. of Minn., St. Paul, Minn.
 Brown, Dorph, Dean, Herzl Junior College, Chicago, Ill.
 Brown, Edward W., Headmaster, Calvert School, Baltimore, Md.
 Brown, Francis W., Superintendent, Ottawa Hills Schools, Toledo, Ohio
 Brown, George Earl, Superintendent of Schools, Ocean City, N.J.
 Brown, Harold N., School of Education, University of Nevada, Reno, Nev.
 Brown, Harold S., President, Chas. E. Merrill Co., Inc., New York, N.Y.
 Brown, Hugh S., University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.
 Brown, Joseph C., Superintendent of Schools, Pelham, N.Y.
 Brown, Josephine H., State Teachers College, Bowie, Md.
 Brown, Marjorie Dowling, Manual Arts High School, Los Angeles, Calif.
 Brown, Nina H., Simpson College, Indianola, Iowa
 Brown, Ralph Adams, Cornish Flat, N.H.
 Brown, Raymond N., Superintendent of Schools, Meriden, Conn.
 Brown, Stella E., State Teachers College, Towson, Md.
 Brownell, Professor S. M., Grad. School, Yale University, New Haven, Conn.
 Brownell, Professor W. A., Duke University, Durham, N.C.
 Browning, Roy W., Professor of Education, Ottawa University, Ottawa, Kan.
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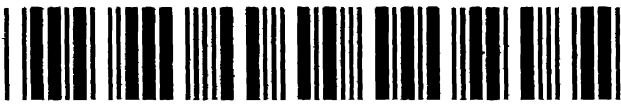
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