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PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

By

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PREFACE

This book has been prepared with three purposes in mind. It is intended for use as a textbook in school administration, for use as a general reference work, and for the use of school people generally who may wish to broaden their understanding of the field of public school administration and its relations to teaching, supervision, curriculum work, guidance, and research, and to the more comprehensive aspects of the relation of social and political life to public administration in our country.

The book's claim to a position among textbooks in this field is to be found in its different approach to the teaching of the subject. Instead of a complete exposition of this realm of knowledge, with stress upon "how to administer a school system," it has given more attention to the underlying purposes of administration and how they are arrived at, and to the nature of school administrative problems, techniques, and processes, with emphasis upon "how to find out how to administer."

The author's reasons for this change in approach rest upon his long observation that even advanced students are too often unfamiliar with the broader reaches of the literature of the field, and that too few school executives keep in touch with this growing literature or participate as they should in the activities of their profession. More unfortunate than these factors, however, is the extent to which we have trained our students to be authoritarians and mechanics rather than scholars and statesmen in administration. This unsatisfactory state of affairs is believed to be due in part to our use of textbooks so voluminous and detailed as to make exposure of the student to the wider literature next to impossible, and in part to the fact that we have devoted too much time to teaching "right" plans, solutions, patterns, techniques, and procedures, and too little to the process of finding out what is needed, what recipe to use, and why, when, where, and how to apply it.

If patterns of administration are set out in full in his textbook, the student will learn the patterns and believe in and trust them. If the patterns are not there the teacher will have the challenge and the pleasure of developing the patterns with his students. This latter situation is what the author's experience has indicated is desirable as a means of stimulating initiative and originality, and of developing administration as a field that recognizes the authority of science as much as it does the authority of law.

The scope of this book is dictated more by the needs of the student seeking a position in educational leadership than by a strict definition of the term administration. If education is to play the part we have laid out for it in our country, then our school executives must know that part well and be equipped to carry it on, in all its wide ramifications among the many elements that make up our culture. Our schools are a part of, not apart from, our government and our many social, economic, and intellectual enterprises. To make them so in fact requires not only that our executives shall know the science of administration, but also, that they shall play a part in the wider leadership activities of their profession.

In accordance with this idea three unusual features have been included in this book: first, an explanation of the organizations and activities of the professional societies in this field; second, far more extensive, yet by necessity far from complete, bibliographies of the literature of the field, including a special treatment of the necessary library and research tools and materials; and third, a treatment of the historical, philosophical, social, and psychological backgrounds of school administration.

Aside from these special features, the matters treated here are as in most of our comprehensive texts. Effort has been made to enable the student to see all the wide reaches of, and reasons for, our American public education enterprise, and to sense public education as an institution, as one of our chief instruments of social progress, as a phase of our culture, as a part of our government, and as a science of management. Through its analyses, through the problems it has proposed, and the bibliographical helps it has offered, this book has at-

tempted to provide points of contact with the essential responsibilities of the school executive in all the many types of positions available to our school administrators, and to prepare the way for lectures, reading, discussion, and special studies which will afford training in the processes of finding out how to isolate, define, and deal with problems of school management.

The book is arranged in two Parts. Part I, of four chapters, introduces the reader to the field and to the tools by which the field can be entered and worked. Chapter 1 describes the field and characterizes the literature and its sources; Chapter 2 introduces and explains the library and scientific tools essential to its study; Chapter 3 presents the temporal, philosophical, institutional, and psychological background of the field, not only as a means of explaining the school as an institution and the general reaches of the practice of school administration, but also as the sources of facts and reasons by which the objectives and the processes of administration are so largely determined; Chapter 4 is devoted to the professional societies of which school administrators are members, and reveals to the student the nature of this outer realm of opportunity and responsibility and how to participate in its activities. The amount of time to be devoted to this Part by any class should vary with the degree of advancement, the experience, and the purposes of the students. The writer is convinced that it cannot properly be ignored by any who seek places of leadership in the field.

Part II, in eleven chapters, covers the subject matter of federal, state, county, and local school administration. Chapter 5 is devoted to a discussion of our theory of public education and our theory of school administration. Though textual treatment of the latter is brief, the author hopes that it may provoke study and discussion by which the nature of the administrative service may be examined and the reasons for our proneness toward authoritarian practices revealed.

Instructors will find it easily possible to change the relative emphasis given to federal, state, county, and local problems from that given by the text. Nothing short of encyclopedic treatment could cover all that one might wish for in any one of these fields. To meet this need care has been taken to indi-

cate the type of problems to be met, and extensive and classified bibliographies are appended throughout.

It remains to express here the author's debt to his students over a period of years. It was largely out of his students' continuous inquiries that this idea of a textbook was developed. To three of his recent graduate students, Hal W. Hamm, John R. Humphreys, and Irwin Switzer, the author is indebted for an extended study of this plan for a book in light of their own learning problems, and for some assistance in starting the bibliographical work.

JESSE B. SEARS

Stanford University
March 24, 1947

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PART I

THE FIELD OF PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

Chapter 1

AN APPROACH TO THE STUDY OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

1. General Description of Field Covered

The field of school administration, as commonly taught, includes more than the technical use of the term "administration" implies. Wherever there is consideration of public policy affecting education as it is or may be; wherever there is law-making or court action touching education; wherever there is planning or policy-making for the creation or management of educational service of any kind; indeed, wherever there is educational activity of any sort, administration in some form is involved, directly or indirectly.

Education is one of our most extensive and most costly public services. The federal government, all state governments, county, town, and township governments in many states, and each local school district in all states share responsibility for the management of public education. Besides public education, we also have schools that are developed and operated by church authorities, schools conducted as independently endowed institutions, and schools conducted as private economic ventures. Administration as a study is concerned with the creation and management of all these types of schools and with government, church, or private responsibilities bearing upon educational service. The primary concern of this book, however, is with public education.

Of schools there is the widest variety, offering programs suited to all, from early infancy to late adulthood. Nursery school, kindergarten, elementary, secondary, and higher institutions provide an educational ladder available for any who may elect to try to climb on it. Besides this coordinated line of serv-

ice innumerable technical, professional, and special schools and special education services are provided to meet the needs of special groups. For all these units programs have to be conceived and planned and policies have to be formed. For all, workers have to be trained, organized, and directed. Housing and equipment have to be provided, funds assembled, budgets planned and carried out. The task of planning for a suitable division of labor to care for the range and variety of functions thus suggested indicates the wide variety of activities with which the field of school administration has to deal.

Beyond one's regular work as an administrator there is the work of the profession in which every administrator will want to participate. In preparation for this, some attention should be given to the professional and scientific organizations in this field and to the activities of these organizations. In a proper sense these organizations afford a stimulus to continuous growth and an outlet through which members may give expression to their ideas or perhaps assist in shaping public sentiment or the legislation by which the school policies of the country are formed. In most of these organizations two lines of activities are carried on: public meetings for discussion and the presentation of papers and committee reports and the publication of proceedings, reports, yearbooks, and journals. The trained administrator will be familiar with all these avenues of expression.

Nor is this all that falls within this special field of study. There is a background—temporal, philosophical, and scientific—without which present day problems of school administration cannot easily be understood. The history of education, our political theory, our social philosophy and the social forces and problems of the present, the sciences of psychology and biology that throw light upon the problems of learning and teaching and school routines, also must be understood for their special contributions to school management.

2. Description and Characterization of the Literature

The study of school administration may be carried on in a library, in the classroom, in laboratories, and in responsible

practice. To gain the required knowledge a wide variety of methods of work is utilized. For all types of study and teaching, a first necessity is a library, filled with the accumulated knowledge and thought on the subject of interest. It would not be difficult to list as many as twenty thousand books and monographs that deal in an important way with one or more of the aspects of school administration. To gain an acquaintance with this literature, and one must if he is to be a scholar or a leader in this field, one must know how to find his way among these many titles. To assist in this some general description or characterization of the collection may be offered at this point.

In the first place, these writings have accumulated through a long period of time. Harvard College was founded in 1636. Colonial legislation affecting education began in Massachusetts in 1642. From the very beginning of colonial life schools have been fostered and from the start education has been a public as well as private or church-controlled service. It has everywhere been a basic interest of our people. Official documents—legislative, judicial, and directly educational—have been produced continuously by state and local units of government. Education has from the start been discussed by philosophers, statesmen, and schoolmasters. A vast professional and scientific literature has accumulated on every possible problem in the field. What other times and other peoples have done, what we should do and why, how to establish schools, how to organize and direct them, how to finance, and how to house them suggest wide areas back of which lie thousands of pages of carefully drawn statutes and regulations. Vast systems of published official reports tell the story of what has been done. Parallel to these types, through books, monographs, and journals, there has been published a continuous record of what men have thought and of what their researches have revealed about these many enterprises.

It must be remembered that students of school administration are concerned with many matters outside the realm of their immediate field. Administration is an aspect rather than a separate isolated division of the field of education. It is

concerned with every purpose, every activity, and every object of the school, and with the relation of all these to the life of the community, the state, and the people—the clientele of the school enterprise. The administrator cannot know administration without knowing much about the service he is to administer. Although he cannot be a specialist in health, guidance, teaching, and pupil care, yet he must know the fundamentals of these fields and keep in touch with the trend of developments. In like manner he must know much about the social philosophy back of the concept of free public schools and back of all other types of schools as well, since this philosophy has a most important bearing upon his problems. Quite as intimate, and for like reasons, also, must be his concern with the fields of politics, economics, and public finance. In similar fashion, too, his problems will lead him to the findings of many researches in psychology, sociology, and biology. All these areas require attention of the student of administration. Although it is beyond the scope of this work to offer more than a few sample excursions into these fields for their background value only, it must be kept in mind that each of these fields is supported by a large library of its own.

As a means of identifying and remembering titles and authors in connection with what the separate publications have to offer, it will be helpful to a student if the literature is viewed from four separate standpoints, as follows:[1]

1. How, or by whom the literature has been developed.
   (a) Government officials
   (b) Institutions
   (c) Societies
   (d) Groups—committees, boards, commissions, faculties
   (e) Individual authors
2. The form or the types of publications represented.
   (a) Books
   (b) Monographs
   (c) Pamphlets

[1] The beginning student would do well to go to a library and become acquainted with what these analyses show and with what they can do to acquaint him with his most important tools.

(d) Brochures
(e) Magazines
(f) Leaflets
(g) Graphic forms

3. The types of publications and method or general character of treatment offered.
   (a) Documentary and other source materials
   (b) Reference works
   (c) General treatises
   (d) Researches
   (e) News, opinions, and general discussion
4. The problems or the materials treated.
   (a) Social, psychological, philosophical, historical, political, and economic backgrounds
   (b) Law-making, court actions, board regulations
   (c) Finance, property, and business matters
   (d) Instruction, supervision, curriculum
   (e) Personnel—staff and pupil
   (f) Research and public relations
   (g) Administration

To master the field of school administration one must know the literature of the field and he will do well to know it from each of these four viewpoints. He must know the school—the institution—in all its forms of expression; he must know the leadership of the field—those who are running the enterprise and those who are producing its literature; he should be familiar with the forms in which the literature exists; and he should know the problems and circumstances and conditions of life of the enterprise in all its aspects. The above classifications may be helpful to these ends. To illustrate: One hears of a new title and wonders whether or not it would be useful. It will help greatly if he knows its classification as here suggested. Is it an official document of a government, of an institution, or of a society? Is it a book or a monograph or a magazine article? Is it a collection of facts or a reference work, a research, a general treatise, or a report of news? Does it pertain to the philosophical, the legal, the financial, the instructional,

or some other special aspect of his field? One tends, for very obvious practical reasons, to remember publications in these very ways.

The literature on school administration reveals that some men of importance in the field write, some teach, and others direct. Only occasionally does an individual rank high in all these categories. Horace Mann, Henry Barnard, Andrew D. White, Charles W. Eliot, and William T. Harris were men of action, with great vision and power as leaders, and at the same time were men of sound and productive scholarship.

In education, as in all other phases of our culture, most of the work is done by men of lesser talents. One who desires to enter the profession of school administration may need to know only the outstanding leaders of the past, but of the present he will have to know not only the leaders but also many who are playing relatively lesser parts. The names of these will be found in directories of the officers of institutions and professional societies, and foundations; in biographical dictionaries; attached to official governmental and institutional publications; and under the titles of books, reports and articles.

3. Knowing Those Who Have Produced the Literature

The literature of any field may be likened to a stream. It rises and falls, is shallow at some points and deep at others. In some places it may be clear while in others it is clouded with vagueness. At one stretch it goes rushing and troubled, at another it flows with calmness and deliberation. At times it appears to cut new channels and even to change its course, but always it keeps flowing on. A change in the mode of life (as from agrarian to industrial emphasis), a shift in national purpose, a change in the peoples' sentiment, new scientific developments—any one of these might do to the literature of a field what a shift in the earth's crust sometimes has done to rivers. Change is continuous, but catastrophic change is very rare in our stream of literature, as it is in streams of water.

It is in this sense that our literature reflects both continuity and change. Those who write do so mainly for their own

time and in terms of the problems of their days. In proportion as an author is able to foresee a change—social, economic, scientific—and is able to anticipate it, he writes ahead of his time. Some look forward, others look about themselves only and record what they see, and still others look backward to the past. Any one of these writers may be truly creative, depending upon his vision. As rivers have sometimes returned to old channels, so, in education, writers have often rediscovered old ideas and given them fresh illumination for use in their own time. The historian has often drawn from the past the richest and fullest meanings of the present. The recorder of facts (see the thousands of educational documents presenting official reports) who sees and records with wisdom has done much to solve the problems of days ahead. The most factual record or report, or the mere story, or the critical examination of the past is not of necessity dead literature or especially dry reading. Many contributors in these fields have shown vision, just as many of those who offer panaceas for future ills in school administration often are lacking in understanding as well as vision.

To get acquainted with men who write in this field then, the student will need to discriminate with care. He must remember the principles of continuity and of change. He must realize that there can be no science without data, and that if data are not recorded they cannot easily be studied; indeed without these records of facts our institutions could scarcely be run at all. Thus, bare records of important facts are an essential part of our literature. The facts for this particular field of study are set down in official reports of government officers and of authorities in charge of institutions and societies. From the members of the staff of the Office of Education there has come a continuous stream of factual documents and other streams of reports of researches and discussion that together form a collection of several thousand titles, many of them extremely valuable. From the offices of state school executives and their staffs have come like streams of titles relating, in most cases, to the educational problems of the state in question. From local school systems, also, and from indi-

vidual institutions similar accumulations of material have been developed. A competent scholar in school administration will not only know these documents but will know the people who are producing the more important ones.

What is true in the field of documents is equally true in the fields of textbooks and other general treatises. It is true of the research literature, of philosophy, or of news and current discussion. It is these writers—some plodding fact gatherers, others noted for their organizing and systematizing abilities, others for their imagination and insight as discoverers, others for their reasoning powers, or for their brilliancy in expression, or for their vision into the future—it is these men who are building the science and laying the course for those who steer the school administrative ship.

Behind these great documents, great treatises, great researches, and brilliant writing there are usually great men, men worth knowing intimately, quite beyond what they have revealed incidentally of themselves in their writings. To know these men is to know certain of the essential background elements of the science and practice of school administration. For this the biographical dictionaries, encyclopedias, and books of biography have provided very well. Whoever reads Henry James' illuminating life of Charles W. Eliot will have an understanding of the growth of Harvard University during Eliot's presidency that he could never gain by reading Eliot's excellent series of annual reports or any of his essays or addresses. Similarly, the story of Horace Mann as told by his wife, Mary Peabody Mann, illuminates the long and difficult struggle Mann led for free schools in his day. In that intimate story there is more than added fact, there is revelation of the character that was producing the leadership that was to win in one of America's great battles, and so to become a source of inspiration for the novice who is trying at a later stage to enter that same struggle. Some of these life stories should be read by every graduate student who desires to know how his profession and his science have been built up. How men have lived, how they have felt, how they have worked,

cannot fail to illuminate what they have set down in records or in books.

There is another important source from which the literature of this field has poured in a continuous stream through most of our history—the publications of professional organizations, scientific societies, and foundations devoted to education. The student of school administration will come upon proceedings, yearbooks, bulletins, and reports from these sources. In these volumes he will find evidence of the organized effort of the profession, and through acquaintance with these publications he will come to know the organizations that are active in directing scientific studies and that are equally influential in the practical field—organizations with which he will hope to identify himself when he has completed his studies and enters upon his career.

To know these important institutions and forces the student may seek information from directories and from histories of the organizations, but he will learn most through close acquaintance with their published works. From these he may see the growth of his chosen field of science, the shift in professional interest with the passing of time, and many of the leaders who have guided the profession.

Still another source from which the literature of this field has come in recent years is that of commissions, committees, and individual investigators. In many cases these groups have been formed by organizations, government departments, institutions of higher learning, or philanthropic foundations. Reference here is mainly to the educational survey work that has been done since the beginning of the present century. In the school survey there has been developed a remarkable extension of research activities into the practice of education. Several thousand school surveys have been made.[2] Every type of educational institution has been brought under this new type of scrutiny and from these sources have come many volumes of

[2] Henry L. Smith, *Bibliography on School Surveys and of References on School Surveys,* Bull. of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. VIII, Nos. 1 and 2, Sept., Nov., 1931; also, Supplement, Vol. XIV, No. 3, June, 1938, published by the University.

critical and factual analysis of all types of educational problems. While these studies relate to many divisions of the field of education, no field has benefited more from them than has that of administration.

4. Knowing the Types of Publications

The form of publications within the field of school administration is little different from that found in most fields. Books, monographs, pamphlets, brochures, magazines, maps and other graphic representations, all are used. Public documents, such as statutes and department reports, are sometimes bound, though less frequently now than in former years. Textbooks and other general treatises are usually bound. Reports, proceedings, and yearbooks of societies are about as often bound as unbound. Survey reports are more often in paper bindings only. Researches and other special treatises are often but by no means invariably bound and for hundreds of them abstracts alone are published.

5. Knowing the Literature as to Content and Method of Treatment

The data for the field of school administration are of wide variety and are to be found in many places. Schools themselves—their children, classes, and school groups—all organized for membership and life in the institution; the school staff, the physical plant, the teaching equipment, the system of business and finance, the community and the government at work—these elements constitute the most important source. Yet, they offer only cross sections of going institutions. The past of any institution holds much of the meaning of the present. To find this past one must turn to records. For the schools some of these are in manuscript form only, but there is much to be found in the library. Among the document collections above mentioned are the laws—national statutes, state constitutions and statutes, local charters and ordinances, state and district board regulations, charters and bylaws of institutions, constitutions and bylaws of professional societies—by which

education is institutionalized and guided. There are the curriculums, catalogues, directories, and other publications of institutions, and the scholastic and financial reports of national, state, and local officials. There are hundreds of survey reports in which many important collections of carefully gathered facts are set forth in reliable form. There are at least a few source books containing copies of original documents or records; there are many histories of schools, many of which contain valuable data; and finally, there are the files of current newspapers and journals reaching far back into the past. To these collections also, there is to be added biography, reference works, and researches. To be a competent scholar in school administration requires acquaintance with these many sources and a knowledge of how to find them and how to use them.

Closely related to these source material types of literature is the reference collection. Obviously, a source book, whether it be an official report, a statute book, a survey report, or a carefully prepared history or biography that makes use of original materials, is a reference work of importance. Beyond such records, however, all fields of scholarship have their special library and research tools: indexes, guides, dictionaries, cyclopedias, biographical dictionaries, biographical encyclopedias, bibliographies, catalogues, directories, collections of abstracts or critical reviews, and document lists. Such a working equipment is indispensable to the beginning and advanced student alike, whether for study alone or for research and writing.

A third division of the literature of the field may be classed as general treatises and discussion. Textbooks, both comprehensive and specialized, philosophical and historical discussions, and innumerable treatments of narrower fields are to be found. Aside from textbooks, these analytical and explanatory treatments of from a few to many or almost all phases of the field are found in yearbooks and proceedings of scientific societies, in books addressed to the teaching profession as a whole or to the lay public, and in the current journals.

The research literature of this field is published in many forms. Reports of extensive surveys and investigations appear

in from one to a substantial number of volumes, such as the thirteen-volume report of the Finance Inquiry Commission, the twenty-five-volume report of the Cleveland School Survey, the seven-volume report of the North Central Association on Evaluation of Higher Institutions, or the one-volume report of the survey of the Salt Lake City Schools.

There are numerous series of studies, such as university dissertations; the research bulletins put out by universities, such as Ohio State and Illinois; or studies by the Research Department of the National Education Association, the Administration Division of the State Teachers Association of Texas, the American Association of School Administrators, and other professional and scientific organizations. There are also the various mixed series, containing many research studies, such as the bulletin series from the United States Office of Education, and corresponding series from many state departments of education. Finally, there are the current journals, a number of which are devoted mainly to the publication of scientific studies, to reviews of researches, and to critical reviews of books. Besides these sources, numerous researches are published independently as monographs, and often as parts of general treatises.

One other collection of material of importance to students of administration is the current reports of what is going on in education throughout the country, both in the field of practice and the field of thought. Such journals as *School and Society, The American School Board Journal, The Journal of the National Education Association, School Life,* and (through the war period, *Education for Victory*), from the United States Office of Education, many state teachers' association journals, many serials from federal and state offices of education, and those from separate institutions and organizations, all provide a continuous flow of important news and current opinion in the field.

There are many publications in this field that would qualify in more than one of these divisions and a few that would fit but imperfectly into any one of them. In general, however, the student or research worker will find this picture of the

literature of his field useful. His study of school administration is sure to demand an understanding of these types of literature and some familiarity with their form and location in the great mass of printed material. To know the documents is to know where to go for certain kinds of facts; to know the reference collection is to know how to find what one needs; to know the general works is to know where to go when one is in need of perspective, of orientation, of general information concerning what he is working on. To know the researches—where they are, how they are published, who is putting them out—is to know one's subject up to date and to know where his own researches may properly begin. To know the sources of news and current opinion is to know how to keep in touch with the times and to build oneself into the profession with understanding.

6. Knowing the Literature in Terms of Problems, Functions, and Careers

A general understanding of the literature of one's field is desirable from the standpoints of (a) who is producing, (b) the form in which it is published, and (c) the general type of material and treatment. Such views provide the student with general library orientation and with practical working knowledge, without which he will waste valuable hours in vague and poorly directed search for the things needed in his studies. The only way to gain this sort of familiarity with the people, the physical make-up, the plan of publication, and the sources to look to, is to make this type of survey of his field. This arrangement of the literature throws much light upon the problem of school organization itself. One may learn all these things incidentally as he pursues his studies, but the writer has yet to see the job even moderately well done by more than a small per cent of beginning or even of graduate students who reach the doctorate.

Up to this point the object has been (a) to develop the idea that a student in this field should know the many types of educational institutions and activities, the people who are making

education what it is, and the various kinds of literature on the subject, all together, each as a phase or aspect of his subject; and (b) to provide a series of pictures or analyses by which the student may move intelligently in his search for knowledge within his chosen field.

At this point the purpose is to present a further picture of this special division of a library, the aim of which is to induct the student into the practical task of study and research. In this case the basis of classification is the student's plan of study, his program, or curriculum. Courses and curriculums in this field have been developed differently in different universities, due in part to size of staff, in part to the general objectives of the school, and in part to personal views and interests of instructors. Regardless, however, of how subject matter is divided for treatment in courses its facts are the same: What are the nature and purposes, the machinery, the processes, and expected outcomes of the American school system? Upon what social and political theories does public education rest? By what practical governmental processes and machinery are schools created and operated? By what theory are schools themselves organized and managed? How are the objectives of public education formed for the nation, state, community, school, classroom, and child? How are these objectives kept alive and adjusted to educational needs? How may the schools best be housed and financed? The subject matter includes the facts, the principles, the reasoning, and the activities by which these and hundreds of like questions raised about the American scheme of education are to be answered.

How best to organize this body of knowledge for systematic study is an old question. The best answer, judged by present day courses in school administration, seems to take account of the problems to be solved, of functions to be performed, and of jobs or careers open to students who equip for them. Depending upon method of instruction and study, the emphasis may be first one and then another of these approaches. At the same time all three of these viewpoints may be ignored in favor of the older academic subject-matter approach. The title of a course, or its factual content, does not always determine

what pegs the student will use to hang his facts and principles upon. Often, it is the spirit and method of work in the course.

In the bibliographies that follow, an attempt has been made to focus attention upon the problems, functions, and careers of school administrators. Problems may be narrow or broad; their solutions may have to be developed by one person or by many. The following may illustrate the difference between an academic and a problem approach: How to equalize the opportunities and costs of education in the United States is an urgent problem. Its solution awaits the work of tax experts, of educational statesmen, and even more, the development of public opinion. Such a problem is not to be solved in a day or even a generation. A student of school administration should develop an understanding of all technical and social phases of this long task. With his knowledge of what *ought* to be done about the problem he will need a knowledge of *how to help in bringing it about,* and *a feeling of interest and responsibility for leadership* in the matter. Mere academic interest may end with mastery of the facts and plans; professional study calls for interest and a sense of responsibility regarding the solution.

Dealing with such large problems as national educational policies and activities, the administration of a state school system, public school finance, or city school administration inevitably means encompassing many lesser jobs, functions, and problems. The meaning of these lesser jobs and functions lies so much in their relations to the whole that they must be seen first in their setting and later as specialties. Many failures in school administration are due to lack of perspective for lesser things among greater ones.

The major lists of readings chosen for use in presenting the literature are meant to reveal a gross analysis of the field in terms of its greater problems; the sub-titles, in turn, are meant to provide a breakdown of the major problems in terms of lesser functions, lesser jobs, and minor problems. The lists of titles are meant to be representative of the best the literature has to offer. Care has been taken to include titles that together will reveal paths leading to many titles not included. In no

instance is a group of titles to be regarded as complete and in most cases they include by no means all that may be classed as excellent. A useful guide, and not a complete bibliographical reference work, is the purpose in this case.

If the beginning or the graduate student using this book desires, first, to make himself familiar with its viewpoint, pur pose, and plan, he may perhaps sum it up as follows:

The book assumes on the part of the reader the ability to do collegiate grade of work in the field of education. It assumes a professional, rather than an academic interest, and hence a desire for a career in the field, not merely a degree at the end of his studies.

In light of such a purpose, the book assumes that the user desires to know the leadership, past and present, of the profession; its leaders in action as well as its leaders in literature. The book assumes an interest in the profession—its organizations, activities, and problems; in the American school system as it stands; and in the science and art of administration as these are interpreted in the literature.

It assumes that he will want a sound background for his field and that for this he will desire some knowledge of sociology, politics, economics, psychology and related fields.

With this explanation, the chapter organization of the book and the arrangement of the bibliographies will be self-explanatory. The objects of the few annotations are to reveal the content of those special publications, to indicate their purposes, or to offer some evaluation of their contribution and, occasionally, suggest how best to use them.

Chapter 2

THE TOOLS OF RESEARCH AND LIBRARY USAGE

1. Specialization in Libraries and in Studies

A library is not a mere collection of books. It differs from a store or warehouse in that it is more highly organized. In a library of a million books one would be able, through the machinery of its organization, to find any individual book within but little more time than would be required to walk directly to its place in the building. Once this machinery is understood one is able to travel quickly over an endless number of intricate paths in search of books, documents, ideas or facts that he may have reason to think might be hidden away in the vast expanse of rooms, shelves, cases, or vaults of the library. What is the key to this organization?

The lists of books following will answer this question fairly well for any careful reader. A suggestion only can be offered here. It must be remembered that books came before libraries, and that books came after facts had been discovered, or ideas conceived, classified, interpreted and set down in writing or print. Libraries could be built up only as knowledge accumulated. How inevitable, therefore, that the arrangement of knowledge should determine the lines of organization of the library! This basic idea may be extremely useful to the searcher. It is true that paths of knowledge cross and recross, and change direction in ways not always understood. Yet, library science has set so many guideposts along the way and provided so many special instruments for the inquirer that travel is easy for those who know the tools and can read the signs.

Librarians are busy designing new guides by which the searcher may move more rapidly in his quest. At the same

time new knowledge is accumulating at a rapid rate. This is the situation a young scholar faces. He must master the tools of search and the organization of the library, or he should never attempt to become a scholar. Presumably, all high school students and undergraduates will have become familiar with the library card catalogue and with one or more of the three major systems of book classification, as explained in such books as *Guide to the Use of Libraries, A Manual for Use of College and University Students,* by Margaret Hutchins, Alice Sarah Johnson, and Margaret Stuart Williams (New York, The H. W. Wilson Co., 1932), or the more recent, *Introduction to Reference Work,* by Margaret Hutchins (Chicago, American Library Association, 1944). Also he will have learned his way among the general dictionaries, encyclopedias, and indexes. As a student advances he will discover that each separate field of scholarship has its own special library and library tools. There are special dictionaries, encyclopedias, indexes, guides, and bibliographies designed specifically for each of many separate fields of scholarship.

As one approaches graduate study he is expected to move from mere theme or report writing to creative research. For this new type of study and scholarship he will need other special tools. Some of these he will be introduced to in regular courses, but to some extent he will be left to his own resources, through use of which, it is assumed, he will develop independence and initiative in his field of scholarship. This type of self-instruction should begin early.

It is not the purpose here to rob the student of the chance to use his own ingenuity or to develop originality. Rather, it is only to answer for him, in brief space and for this one field, some of the questions he would otherwise ask of his instructors, of library assistants, or of fellow students. The two major questions are: (1) How may I learn to find my way about among the thousands of books and documents of this or any great library? and (2) Where may I find an explanation of what is meant by study and by research and of how research work is carried on? Although the titles here listed may in many cases cover a broader field than that here under discus-

sion they will enable him to find answers to these questions for the field of school administration.

2. Library Usage

A few of the works listed here may be referred to in later classifications for reasons that will be obvious. The purpose here is to bring together in one place the titles of the neccessary tools for this field of work. The number of special reference works devoted exclusively to education is not large, though with the general reference works containing sections devoted to education the field is well provided for.

There are many books that are designed to serve as devices for finding information published elsewhere. These are tools in a strict sense. Other reference works are designed to provide special kinds of information on selected topics or problems, or explanations of methods or formulae. Here the tool represents a collection of things likely to be needed in a very wide variety of connections and which, by its arrangement of the items, makes them all readily available to any worker.

It is not necessary to suggest that one has to learn how to use the tools of his trade or profession, especially tools that are as complicated and technical as are those used by graduate students. For this the first step is to know what tools are available. The object of this section is to introduce the workman to his first kit of tools—tools that open to him the stores of knowledge he desires to gain. The following listings will afford a useful classification of the more important library tools.

3. Bibliography on Organization and Use of the Library

I. General Guides to Reference Materials

Alexander, Carter. *Alexander Library Experiences* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941), 158 pp.

—— *How to Locate Educational Information and Data,* second ed. (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941), 439 pp.

Boyd, Ann M. *United States Government Publications,* revised to June 1, 1940 (New York, The H. W. Wilson Co., 1941), 548 pp.

Brown, Zaidee. *The Library Key* (New York, The H. W. Wilson Co., 1943), 124 pp.

Cannons, H. G. T. *Bibliography of Library Economy* [a classified index to the professional periodical literature relating to library economy, printing, methods of publishing, copyright, bibliography, etc., from 1876 to 1920] (Chicago, American Library Assn., 1927), 680 pp. New York, The H. W. Wilson Co.

Coffey, Willard L. "How to Find the School Law," *Fourth Yearbook of School Law,* 1936, pp. 119-154.

Eldean, Fred A. *How to Find the Law* (St. Paul, West Publishing Co., 1931), 782 pp.

Flexner, Jennie M. *Making Books Work—A Guide to the Use of Libraries* (New York, Simon & Schuster, 1943), 271 pp.

Hirshberg, Herbert S. *Subject Guide to Reference Books* (Chicago, American Library Assn., 1942), 259 pp.

Ingles, May, and McCagne, Anna. *Teaching the Use of Books and Libraries* (New York, The H. W. Wilson Co., rev. ed., 1937), 207 pp.

Mudge, Isadore G. *Guide to Reference Books,* sixth ed. (Chicago, American Library Assn., 1936), 504 pp.

Richey, Herman G. "Library and Bibliographical Procedures," *Review of Educational Research* (Dec., 1939), Vol. 9, pp. 453-455, 591-592.

Schmeckebier, Laurence F. *Government Publications and Their Use* (Washington, The Brookings Institution, 1939), 479 pp.

Severance, Henry O. *A Guide to the Current Periodicals and Serials of the United States and Canada,* fifth ed. (Ann Arbor, Mich., George Wahr, Publisher, 1931), 431 pp.

Shores, Louis. *Basic Reference Books* (Chicago, American Library Assn., 1939), 472 pp.

Ulrich, Carolyn F. *Ulrich's Periodical Directory,* Inter-American Edition (New York, R. R. Bowker Co., 1943), 314 pp.

Walraven, Margaret K., and Hall-Quest, Alfred. *Library Guidance for Teachers* (New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1941), 308 pp.

Wilcox, Jerome K. *Manual on the Use of State Publications* (Chicago, American Library Assn., 1940), 342 pp.

Wyer, James I., Jr. *Government Documents, Federal, State, and City,* rev. ed. (Chicago, American Library Assn., 1933), 56 pp.

—— *Reference Work* (Chicago, American Library Assn., 1930), 315 pp.

II. Dictionaries

Baldwin, J. M. *Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1901-05), 3 vols.

Baldwin, William E. *Bouvier's Law Dictionary—Baldwin's Students Edition* (Cleveland, Banks-Baldwin Law Publishing Co., 1934), 1245 & sup. pp.

Ballentine, J. A. *Law Dictionary with Pronounciations* (Rochester, N. Y., Lawyers Cooperative Publishing Co., 1930), 1494 pp.

Crowell Dictionary of Business and Finance (New York, Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1930), 601 pp.

Fairchild, Henry P. *Dictionary of Sociology* (New York, Philosophical Library, 1944), 342 pp.

Good, Carter V. *Dictionary of Education* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1945), 495 pp.

Kurtz, Albert K., and Edgerton, Harold A. *Statistical Dictionary of Terms and Symbols* (New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1939), 191 pp.

Warren, H. C. *Dictionary of Psychology* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1934), 371 pp.

Webb, Augustus. *The New Dictionary of Statistics—A Complement to the Fourth Edition of Mulhall's Dictionary of Statistics* (New York, E. P. Dutton & Co., 1911), 682 pp.

III. Encyclopedias

American Law Book Company. *Corpus Juris* (New York, American Law Book Co., 1914), Vol. 56 covers School Law.

Fletcher, Alfred E. *Sonnenschein's Cyclopedia of Education* (London, Swan, Sonnenschein & Co., 1892), 2 vols.

Monroe, Paul, ed. *Cyclopedia of Education* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1911-1913), 5 vols., o.p.; reissue in 3 vols., 1925.

Monroe, Walter S., ed. *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1941), 1344 pp.

Rivlin, H. N., and Schueler, Herbert. *Encyclopedia of Modern Education* (New York, Philosophical Library, Inc., 1943), 902 pp.

IV. Bibliographies and Lists

Alexander, Carter. *Bibliography on Educational Finance*, Vol. IV of the Report of the Finance Inquiry Commission (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1924), 257 pp. Contains 2,196 classified and annotated references in this field.

Alexander, Carter, and Covert, Simon. *Bibliography of Educational Finance, 1923-1931,* U. S. Office of Education, Bull. 1932, No. 15 (Washington, Government Printing Office, 1932), 343 pp. Carries forward the above work of Alexander.

America's Educational Press. Seventeenth Yearbook of the Educational Press Association of America (Washington, the Association, 1941), 42 pp. Contains a classified list of educational publications issued in the United States with a limited listing of foreign journals.

Charles, Dorothy, and Joseph, Bea, eds. *The Bibliographic Index: A Cumulative Bibliography of Bibliographies* (New York, The H. W. Wilson Co., March 1937-date).

Childs, James B. *An Account of Government Document Bibliography in the United States and Elsewhere* (Washington, Government Printing Office, 1930), 57 pp.

Cowley, W. H. *The Personnel Bibliographical Index* (Columbus, Ohio State University, 1932), 433 pp.

Davis, Sheldon E. *Educational Periodicals During Nineteenth Century* (Washington, Bureau of Education, Bull. 1919, No. 28), 125 pp.

Educational Policies Commission. *A Bibliography on Education in the Depression* (Washington, National Educational Assn., 1937), 118 pp.

Monroe, Walter S., and Asher, Ollie. *A Bibliography of Bibliographies,* University of Illinois Bull., Vol. XXIV, No. 36 (Urbana, Ill., 1927), 60 pp.

Monroe, W. S., and Shores, Louis. *Bibliographies and Summaries in Education to July, 1935* (New York, The H. W. Wilson Co., 1936), 470 pp. Contains more than 4,000 annotated bibliographies and summaries.

U. S. Office of Education. *Bibliography of Education,* in Bull. 1908, No. 3. For the years 1899 to 1906, J. I. Wyer, Jr. and M. L. Phelps had published an annual bibliography of education in the *Educational Review,* first in April, 1900. This Office of Education Bulletin is a continuation of that work, which appeared for several later years as Bulletins 1909, No. 9; 1911, No. 10; 1913, No. 59; 1915, No. 30. Many special bibliographies appeared in still later numbers of the Bulletin series.

U. S. Office of Education. Ruth A. Gray, ed. *Bibliography of Research Studies in Education.* Published as bulletins since 1926. Lists doctors' and masters' theses, published and unpublished, for a large number of institutions.

V. Indexes, Guides, and Reviews

American Educational Research Association. *Review of Educacational Research.* Washington (bi-monthly, Oct.-June), Jan., 1931-date. An indispensable resumé of the important researches by fields, usually in three year periods. On research methods see especially Vol. IV, Feb., 1934 and Vol. IX, No. 5, Dec., 1939.

Barnard, Henry, ed. *American Journal of Education, 1855-1881, Analytical Index* (Washington, Government Printing Office, 1892), 128 pp.

The Book Review Digest, annual cumulation (New York, The H. W. Wilson Co., 1905-date). Vol. I was entitled *Cumulative Book Re-*

view Digest. Reviewed in Leading American Periodicals (Bloomington, Ill., Index Publishing Co., 1902).

Burke, Arvid J., and Alexander, Carter. "Guides to the Literature on Public School Administration," *Elementary School Journal* (June, 1937), Vol. 37, pp. 764-778.

Carpenter, Dorothy R., ed. *The Education Index* (New York, The H. W. Wilson Co., 1929-date). Cumulative author and subject index. Covers practically all educational journals and selected materials from other sources. Contains directory of publishers.

Nelson, Charles A. *Educational Review—Analytical Index to Volumes 1-25, January, 1841 to May, 1903* (New York, Educational Review Publishing Co., 1904), 218 pp. A second volume by the same title carries this index through the years June, 1903 to December, 1915.

Nelson, Martha F. *Index by Authors, Titles, and Subjects to the Publications of the National Education Association for Its First Fifty Years, 1857-1906* (Washington, the Association, 1907), 211 pp.

Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature (New York, The H. W. Wilson Co., 1900-date).

U. S. Office of Education. *Index to the Reports of the Commissioner of Education, 1867-1907.* U. S. Office of Education, Bull. 1907, No. 7 (Washington, Government Printing Office, 1907).

VI. Directories and Handbooks

Cattell, J. McKeen, et al., eds. *Leaders In Education,* second ed. (New York, The Science Press, 1941), 1134 pp. A biographical directory of leading men and women in American education.

Cook, Robert C., ed. *Who's Who in American Education,* eleventh ed. (Nashville, Who's Who in American Education, Inc., 1943-1944), 1,008 pp.

Hull, Callie, et al., for National Research Council. *Handbook of Scientific and Technical Societies and Institutions of the United States and Canada, fourth ed.* (Washington, National Research Council, National Academy of Sciences, Bull. No. 106, Jan., 1942), 389 pp.

Hurt, H. W., and Hurt, Harriet, J. *College Blue Book,* third ed. (Hollywood-by-the-sea, Florida, The College Blue Book, 1933), 580 pp. Condensed information about institutions of higher learning.

Marsh, C. S. *American Universities and Colleges,* fourth ed. (Washington, American Council on Education, 1940), 1120 pp. Successor to this is *A Guide to Colleges, Universities, and Professional Schools in the United States,* Carter V. Good, ed. (Washington, American Council on Education, 1945), 681 pp.

Patterson, Homer L. *Patterson's American Educational Directory* (Chicago, American Educational Co., annually since 1904).

Research Division, National Education Association. "National Deliberative Committees in Education," *Research Bull.* (Washington, D. C., the Association, 1934), Vol. XII, No. 4, pp. 147-238. While this presents reports, it also provides through its brief reports and topical index, almost the equivalent of a directory of such committees in American education then active. Later issues of these reports, somewhat less complete, have been published by the Educational Policies Commission at the same address.

Rowden, Dorothy. *Handbook of Adult Education* (New York, American Assn. for Adult Education, 1934), 384 pp.

Seybold, Geneva. *American Foundations and Their Fields* (New York, Raymond Rich Associates, 1942), 247 pp.

U. S. Office of Education. *Educational Directory,* published annually as a Bulletin (Washington, Government Printing Office). Contains a directory of officers of state, county, and city school systems and of higher institutions; also a directory of educational associations, foundations, boards and libraries, and list of directories.

—— *A Handbook of Educational Associations and Foundations in the United States,* Bull. 1926, No. 16 (Washington, Government Printing Office, 1926), 82 pp.

4. Research Tools

All college students are in search of knowledge. Much of the knowledge they will need is readily available in published form, providing they know how to find it. To assist them in this rather intricate task the above lists of titles are offered as an introduction through which, as the years of practice accumulate, they may discover many others. Besides mastering the knowledge already established, the beginning student wants to grow. It is at this point that he enters a second phase of the scholar's career, that of learning how to reorganize facts so that they will reveal additional knowledge, and how to search for and isolate new facts and so to develop entirely new knowledge.

For this latter task there is much to be learned in addition to the knowledge of how to find one's way in a library; there are many research tools which are not in books. The botanist, for instance, requires a microscope, the astronomer a telescope, the physicist exact measuring instruments, the philologist a deep knowledge of the history of languages, and a mastery of

word books of many sorts. While each field of study has its own special study and research tools, many of the simpler tools are common to all fields. If one uses self-evident truth as a basis for interpreting facts about him he will need to have a mastery of syllogistic reasoning, of deductive logic. If from a mass of facts he is trying, by analysis and classification, to arrive at a new generalization he will need skill in the use of scientific method, of inductive logic. Although any line of study may progress by either of these methods, it is virtually impossible to progress very far without some use of both. Where one observes facts with the utmost discrimination, the other must observe his words as symbols. To get far with syllogistic reasoning one must know how to examine a premise and how to hold all words to their exact meanings while they are being used in a chain of reasoning. To get far with the scientific method one must know how to identify, collect, observe, classify, test, and measure facts individually or *en masse* and how to experiment with them.

Much thought has been given to the development of these tools, and not a little to the task of training students in their use. In presenting selected materials for use in this connection the student is advised to avoid narrowing prejudices, such as the idea that syllogistic types of inquiry are useless, or that a technique that has frequently been abused, (such as the questionnaire), has no value. A scientific mind should be rich in knowledge and free from prejudices.

With library tools provided for above, Section 5 will present four types of materials selected in light of the character of the work likely to be undertaken in the field of school administration. The first collection will introduce the reader to the essentials of deductive method, the second to scientific types of research, the third to the theory and techniques of statistical analysis, and the fourth to the preparation of research reports. In most of these books will be found extensive footnote and other references that will open the way to a very large literature covering the many details of research in all its aspects. These are tools for a novice quite as much as they are for a master workman.

5. Bibliography on Research Methods and Techniques

I. Philosophic Research

Bliss, Henry E. *The Organization of Knowledge and the System of the Sciences* (New York, Henry Holt & Co., Inc., 1929), 433 pp.

Columbia Associates in Philosophy. *An Introduction to Reflective Thinking* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1923), 351 pp.

Creighton, James E. *An Introductory Logic* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1907), (new ed., revised and enlarged), 392 pp.

Dewey, John. *How We Think* (Boston, D. C. Heath & Co., 1933), 301 pp.

Freeman, F. N. "Scientific and Philosophical Methods in Education," *Science* (Jan. 16, 1931), Vol. 73, pp. 54-59.

Hibben, John G. *Logic—Deductive and Inductive* (New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1906), 439 pp.

Holmes, H. W. "The Philosophic Element in Scientific Method," *School and Society* (January 12, 1935), Vol. 41, p. 41.

Hullfish, H. "The Relation of Philosophy and Science in Education," *Journal of Educational Research* (Oct., 1929), Vol. 20, pp. 159-165.

Kilpatrick, W. H. "The Relation of Philosophy to Scientific Research," *Journal of Educational Research* (Sept., 1931), Vol. 24, pp. 97-114.

—— *Source Book in the Philosophy of Education* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1923), 365 pp.

Raup, R. B. "Limitations of the Scientific Method," *Teachers College Record* (Dec., 1928), Vol. 30, pp. 212-216.

Rusk, R. R. *The Philosophical Bases of Education* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1928), 205 pp.

II. Scientific Research

Abelson, Harold H. *The Art of Educational Research* (Yonkers, N. Y., World Book Co., 1933), 332 pp.

Alexander, Carter. *Educational Research,* third ed. enlarged and rev. (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University Press, 1931), 115 pp.

Almack, John C. *Research and Thesis Writing* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1930), 310 pp.

Crawford, C. C. *The Techniques of Research in Education* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1928), 320 pp.

Edwards, Newton. "Methods and Materials of Legal Research," *Review of Educational Research* (Feb., 1934), Vol. 4, pp. 85-91, 116-117.

Freeman, Frank N. "Scientific and Philosophical Methods in Education, *Science* (Jan. 16, 1931), Vol. 73, pp. 54-59.

Good, Carter V. *How to Do Research in Education* (Baltimore, Warwick & York, Inc., 1928), 298 pp.

Good, Carter V., Barr, A. S., and Scates, Douglas E. *The Methodology of Educational Research* (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1936), 882 pp.

Hicks, Frederick C. *Materials and Methods of Legal Research with Bibliographical Manual,* second ed., rev. and enlarged (Rochester, N. Y., The Lawyers Cooperative Publishing Co., 1933), 651 pp.

Hocket, H. C. *Introduction to Research in American History* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1931), 168 pp.

Kelley, Truman L. "The Scientific Versus the Philosophic Approach to the Novel Problem," *Science* (March 21, 1930), Vol. 71, p. 299.

—— *Scientific Method: Its Function in Research and in Education* (Columbus, Ohio State University Press, 1929; New York, The Macmillan Co., 1932), 195 pp.

McCall, William A. *How to Experiment in Education* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1923), 281 pp.

Monroe, Walter S., and Engelhart, Max D. *The Scientific Study of Educational Problems* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1931), 504 pp.

National Society for the Study of Education, Committee on Education as a Science. *Thirty-seventh Yearbook,* Part II: *The Scientific Movement in Education* (Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co., 1938), 529 pp.

Ogg, Frederick A. *Research in the Humanistic and Social Sciences* (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1928), 454 pp.

Pearson, Karl. *The Grammar of Science,* third ed., rev. and enlarged (London, Adam and Charles Black, 1911), 394 pp.

Reeder, Ward G. *How to Write a Thesis* (Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co., 1925), 136 pp.

Scroggs, Schiller. *Systematic Fact-Finding and Research in the Administration of Higher Education* (Ann Arbor, Mich., Edwards Bros., Inc., 1938), 133 pp.

Sears, Jesse B. *The School Survey* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1925), 440 pp.

Spahr, Walter E., and Rinehart, John S. *Methods and Status of Scientific Research—With Particular Application to Social Science* (New York, Harper & Bros., 1930), 533 pp.

Trow, William C. *Scientific Method in Education* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1925), 159 pp.

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Having mastered such works as these, the student will then learn much by studying research reports. For this he should select such studies as doctors' theses, school surveys, and reports of research groups, and of these not always those in his own field. Such research reports as the *National Education Association Research Bulletin, the Journal of Educational Research,* the *Educational Research Bulletin* of the Bureau of Educational Research of the Ohio State University, and the *Review of Educational Research* will be very helpful illustrations of research reporting on a wide variety of studies.

Chapter 3

THE BACKGROUND OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

1. Schools a Part of Our Culture

There is no such thing as administration apart from something administered. In this case the thing administered is education, a public service in a country where the prevailing social philosophy is democracy, where the government is in part directed by the people and in part by representation, and where science and scientific method are highly regarded. In this country, too, the schools are held in the highest esteem, both as an expression of the people's intellectual and social ideals, and as a definite means of attaining their cultural and political aspirations. In the fullest sense, therefore, education is related to the life of the people, past and present, and its administration cannot properly be considered apart from other interests and activities that surround and condition it.

2. The Temporal Background of School Administration

There are three basic ways in which the background of school administration has had, and must continue to have, much to do in determining its nature and its practice. The past affects the present and future, the philosophy of the people helps to determine the lines of their striving, and the conditions and modes of life tend to shape our institutions. The first suggests a temporal or historical background. The present is an outgrowth of the past. History reveals revolutions in which sudden and vast changes were effected, to be sure; but a close study usually shows that the outcome was clearly anticipated by forces that had long been dammed up. The nature of free schools in America has been a matter of slow but fairly continuous growth and of many adjustments. Neither in theory nor in practice

have our schools ever changed suddenly; yet the accumulation of changes has made a vast difference between a school of the 18th century and our present system. Further, one need not look back very carefully to see that accompanying each change there has been a corresponding change in the government, in the social life, in the economic structure and processes, and in the accumulation of knowledge among the people. So one cannot face the facts of history and fail to see that the past does explain much of the present and, within limitations, foretells the trend ahead of us.

To understand this temporal background the student will need to know the history of education. To know this is to know the ideas—the science and philosophy—by which education has been developed, as well as the institutions and processes through which it has gained expression. Tradition and prejudice, inertia and indifference, selfishness and low ideals have left their impress through the years; but science and philosophy, the felt need for education, and the intellectual ambitions of the people have also made their impress, and the result has been a movement, slow perhaps, but mostly forward, toward a better plan of education. The story of how America has built up its system of free schools, the story of the growth of our curriculums, the story of our shift away from local and toward state and national school support, all reveal forces at work that have been continuous and persistent. When seen in their proper setting they are dramatic and impressive revelations of the thing we call the American spirit. No one who knows the rise of the district system will expect the consolidation movement to be completed in a year or a decade. No one who knows the history of local school support and control will expect a proper equalization of school costs in any brief period. Psychology has made vast strides in recent years but the history of schools tells us plainly that these contributions will filter only very slowly into our classroom practice.

3. The Background of Basic Concepts

Along with the retarding, the steadying, and the stimulating influences of the past, school administration is faced with the

realities of the present. These realities bring influences, good and bad, with which administration must deal. Public schools are the people's schools and they must be built to fit the people's needs as the people interpret them. This raises the whole question of the nature and meaning of education. Is the school to be thought of as an instrument of social progress? Is it to point the way as a leader in our social evolution? Or is it to be a means whereby we preserve and hand on the accumulated cultural heritage of the people? As a public concern, what is its place in our scheme of social control? Is the school system a mere tool of our government, or is it a part of the government? And what is its relation to the currents of social and economic life? If it is a free and independent leader pointing the way for social progress then how can it, through its program and its management, help to solve the pressing current problems of society—unemployment, bad health conditions, poverty, poor housing, social insecurity, race discrimination, crime, poor government services, inequitable taxes, public debt, capital and labor disputes, suppressed minorities, and the like? Surely these are points at which we hope for progress. If, however, it is but a mere conserver of culture, what should be its concern with these problems?

It is apparent that those who direct our schools must have some social foundation upon which to build.[1] Back of our government, behind each of the state constitutions and each of the thousands of statutes there is, implied at least, a social philosophy and a political philosophy, and back of school law there must likewise be an educational philosophy by which an approach to the answers to these problems can be made. If the theory of the state and of the school are not consistent with one and the same philosophy, then the superstructures of government and school administration can scarcely be expected to work in harmony either as to objectives or in their programs.[2]

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[1] David Snedden. *Educations For Political Citizenship* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932), Chs. 6 and 7.

[2] Max Black. "A Lend-Lease Program for Philosophy and Science." The *Scientific Monthly* (Sept., 1945), Vol. LXI, pp. 165-172. In this article the reader will find a stimulating background idea for the above.

Thus it is that for school administration there is a philosophical background that gives rise to the basic founding principles of our free school system and to the major goals it seeks to attain.

4. The Background of Daily Living

It is not in matters of theory alone, however, that our schools are related to our social life. The concrete facts and experiences of our people and their institutions are, if possible, even more vitally related to the problems of school administration. Here the relationship is factual and scientific, rather than philosophical; immediate and concrete, rather than abstract. The range of these contacts is from the selfish, personal, and urgent antagonisms of pressure groups to the patient, impersonal work of scholars who seek to shape the training of youth to the well-being of the youths themselves and to that of society in general. What shall the schools teach young people about poverty in our country—what facts about its causes and effects, what theories of possible remedies, what attitudes shall the schools stimulate and nourish? Shall the schools teach all or only part of the truth about government, business, social life; and if part, then what part? If the development of a favorable emotional set as to our country and its place among nations is to be a purpose of the school, what facts shall we teach about our country and other countries? Shall our children be trained in matters of controversy—labor versus capial; communism versus democracy; liberalism versus conservatism; youth versus age in social control? If so, what facts shall they examine?

This contact of administration with social, political, and economic life is not all of this nature. Administration is concerned with finance, with budgets and business, and in a wide sense contacts the business and industrial currents day by day. Taxation in a wide sense is a concern of school administration. Schools use a third of all local and state income. How may the schools handle their business—purchasing, accounting, inventorying, wage and salary scales, building construction, and legal contracts—without close knowledge of the business, financial, and political mechanisms and processes of the time? In-

flation and deflation are as much realities for the school as they are for any part of government or business, any employer or employee. Shall the district enter upon occupational training? The right answer is to be found only in the life of the community and of the state. Shall the district enter upon a retrenchment program when faced by a period of depression? This is a problem of economics. Whether the program should be expanded in better times is likewise a problem that calls for business foresight. Such problems call for knowledge of inflation and deflation economics. In plant expansion, shall the board follow the policy of pay-as-you-go, or of bonding?

Such a list of problems could be lengthened. Indeed, it would soon be apparent that school administration cannot solve its problems in any proper manner without knowing society, government, and business processes in a wide sense, in the sense implied in the terms sociology, political science, and economics. And the facts and principles of these sciences in a broad and general sense must be supplemented by the special facts for the particular community served by the schools in question.

5. The Background Provided by Nature

As already indicated, there is yet one other important division of the background of school administration. This is the background of psychology and biology that provides the key to the solution of many of the more technical problems of learning, of pupil management, of discipline, of the curriculum, and of the social life of the school. The field of administration has to occupy a wide field, with problems ranging from the intimate care and the learning activities of the children at one extreme to those of public finance, law, building construction, and public relations at the other. The test of the value of all the general laws, policies, and educational objectives is what they contribute to the processes of life and learning in the classroom. When any system of administration is constructed about the administrative task without considering the underlying reason for the existence of the problem—which is to facilitate the learning and development of the children—it is making administration an end rather than a means.

One could not determine class size, classify children, organize teaching and study programs, plan for curriculum development, develop a social program, build a school house, select furniture and equipment for a school, develop a play program, devise a report card, conduct a school cafeteria, select a school staff, devise a guidance plan, or do any of the organizing and directing that may come close to the study and activities of the children without taking account of the biological foundations of mental and physical health and of the psychological problems associated with maturation and of personality development and all other forms of learning. There are reasons back of the decisions of all the many administration questions to be faced and the reason in such cases as the above is in no small way biological or psychological in its essence.

6. Approach to the Study of these Backgrounds

If the school administrator is to understand his problems as something more than learning a few recipes for executing maneuvers by which to keep the schools running and hold his job, he must have some way of getting at the roots of them. These roots are to be found in the life of the people, in the past as well as the present. The major problems of life—getting food, shelter, and clothing; rearing of young; providing for safety against enemies and against disease; satisfying intellectual, aesthetic, and social desires and aspirations—are basic starting points for all institutions, schools as well as business, religion, government, and home-making. If the school is to contribute constructively to the development of attitudes, knowledges, and skills that help to rationalize the struggle around these basic needs, then those who guide the schools must know much of these problems and much about the handling of human nature in its effort to learn.

How the school administrator is to gain a suitable understanding of these foundation sciences is a problem. If one undertakes to master the essentials of the fields of philosophy, sociology, economics, politics, psychology, and biology he will find it a large task. Some general orientation in these knowl-

edges as organized sciences, such as may be available in general undergraduate courses, would be extremely useful if not almost indispensable. Beyond such surveys, however, the student of school administration has a specialized interest that may be served better by courses designed to deal with the social, political, or psychological problems from the standpoint of their implications for education. It is conceivable that one might become proficient in one of these fields as a separate science and by that method of study distract his attention from the particular view of problems necessary to the educator. Obviously, there is no danger of learning too much sociology or economics. The danger is in learning too little of the implications of social and economic facts and principles for the management of the institution of education.

With this suggestion there must also go the warning that what is offered here is not proposed as a short cut to a mastery of these fields. No mere smattering of knowledge in these areas can ever satisfy the scholastic needs of the school administrator. The proposal is that with a general systematic survey course as a starting point (more if possible), the school administrator should proceed to a systematic study of the social, psychological, economic, and historical foundations of his own problems. In doing this he must be prepared to master the facts, principles, and methods of the best works in these several fields.

In each of these fields there is an extensive literature—general treatises, researches, interpretations, collections of original data—from which to choose. The choice of titles for limited bibliographies here presented has kept in mind the breadth of the several fields, the relative importance of different types of material for the problems of the administrator, and the extent to which findings of additional studies are made available. No doubt in some cases equally good lists could be made with entirely different titles. Even so, the reader will find these lists illuminating and representative of the best, and with them he will find bibliographical suggestions that will point the way to most of the pertinent literature bearing upon his problems.

7. The History of Education

The history of education is the history of one aspect of social life, the history of one among the many enterprises or institutions of many different peoples. History of education is studied by educators because it tells how the struggle for intellectual freedom, for cultural development, for schools, has been carried on. By following its course one catches the spirit of this struggle and senses its trend. In it he sees the forces that have been at work in the past and so is better able to understand the forces at work today.

Because education is so closely related to other aspects of life, the literature of the field is very broad. In the lists here presented no attempt is made to present titles lying outside the direct study of institutionalized education and educational thought. Obviously, one cannot appreciate the history of education and be ignorant of the social, political, and economic history of the people whose schools he studies. For this broader field, the history of civilization, these lists provide no adequate guide, though through many of the books listed this approach to the interpretation of the history of education will be evident. Citations to studies in the broader field will also be found in the lists.

In the history of education each reader will have his own special interest. Everyone who enters the field of administration or who later advances to our highest university degrees in education should have two purposes: first, to know the major aspects of the complete story of education as an institution and of the development of our theory of education; and second, to know in fuller detail the history of his own special field. Only a few people will desire to become specialists in this field. For such specialists the lists here presented will provide a substantial introduction. They will also serve well for students in other fields of school work.

The lists have been chosen to provide representative titles from all types of materials. For purposes of convenience in using the lists, the titles have been classified under bibliog-

raphies, general treatises or textbooks, researches, source materials, and biographies.

If one is interested in a particular country or a particular type or division of education the titles themselves or the tables of contents will serve to guide the reader. There is one valuable division of the literature which is only a little represented here: histories of our important institutions of higher education. In some cases a half dozen historical studies are available; and sampling of this type of literature will more than repay the student of school administration.

For one desiring a general background acquaintance with the field, there would be wisdom in trying to formulate a list of questions to read to. For instance:

1. Who are the men who have developed the meaning of education from age to age and people to people?
2. What general philosophies of education have we had and how in various cases has the accepted philosphy of education been related to the social and political philosophies of the times?
3. When, where, and how has scientific study contributed to the building of the theories of education?
4. What was the school like, age by age, and people by people? How was it related to the home, the church, and the state, to charity, to philanthropy, and to private enterprise?
5. For whom were schools provided, what did they teach, how were they organized, how were they taught, how were they housed, how were they supported?
6. Who did the teaching and how were the teachers trained?

In his own specialty one's studies should lead him to more details to be found in source materials and researches.

8. Bibliography on the History of Education

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—— *Textbook in the History of Education* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1905), 772 pp. Covers education of all types and in all countries including that of primitives. Emphasis upon broad movements of educational thought and how it expressed itself in institutions, and especially with connections, between educational thought and practice and other phases of the culture. Good reference to source and other important materials.

Mulhern, James. *A History of Education* (New York, The Ronald Press Co., 1946), 647 pp.

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9. The Philosophy of Education

The general place of philosophy as an approach to the solution of education problems has been stated above. A few of the problems to be examined from a philosophical angle may be indicated here as a basis upon which to select titles suited to guide the reader in this field.

Philosophy in education is concerned with what is called the Good Life and the Good Society and with how to bring these about through education. Incidentally, it must deal with such concepts as democracy, freedom, individualism, social progress, and social control; and in its inquiries it cannot be ignorant of the physical, intellectual, aesthetic, and emotional nature or capacities and limitations of man, individually and in societies. What values shall we seek through education?

Public schools as a feature of our government must be concerned with our political philosophy. What is the nature of the service of education with us that it should be public service?

What postulates do we set up to explain the world we are trying, through education, to create? If education is essential to democracy, what is democracy when expressed in terms of things that can be produced by education? On these problems three fairly distinct viewpoints—the pragmatic, the idealistic, and the realistic—are to be found among the writings in this field.

The question of aims—aims in general education, in vocational education, in kindergarten or nursery school, in high school or in college—is a question of values, values that contribute to the supreme values of life. What are these? If we say individual liberty, democracy, social progress, or citizenship, then the objectives of education will need to be shaped to these ends. But how to shape them is the question, considering what we are, the way we live and govern ourselves, and the laws of learning and personality development.

Through the ages thoughtful men have sought to construct a philosophy of education, a concept of the nature and purposes of education, that would unify life in all its aspects—political, social, physical, religious, intellectual, aesthetic, and emotional —through a system of training. Plato, St. Thomas Aquinas, Locke, Kant, Spencer, and dozens of others, leading down to present writers, have been concerned with "what education is of most worth." They have weighed values against each other and sought for the best they believed attainable. The aim of education must be vastly different in a country where the state is the people, on the one hand, and where the people are subjects of the state, on the other. Philosophy is not only concerned with the major purposes, it is also equally concerned with its own implications for life within the school, for organization, instruction, management, housing, curriculums, and community relationships as well.

The literature in this field is large. The selections presented are primarily concerned with present-day thought and not with the history of educational philosophy. As there have been different philosophies, so there are different emphases in educational philosophy. The following titles are representative of a wide number of approaches and viewpoints. The reader

should consult titles in bibliographies of Chapter 5 and those of Section II following in this chapter.

10. Bibliography on the Philosophy of Education

Adams, G. P., et al. *Knowledge and Society* (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1938), 417 pp. An excellent philosophical introduction to the various aspects of modern civilization.

Albig, William. *Public Opinion* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1939), 486 pp.

American Council of Learned Societies. *Liberal Education Re-examined* (New York, Harper & Bros., 1943), 134 pp.

Amidon, Beulah, ed. *Democracy's Challenge to Education* (New York, Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1940), 263 pp. A collection of papers dealing with the present status and the more important issues of education in their bearing upon the concept and practice of democracy.

Arrowood, Charles F. "Educational Issues in the Light of Contemporary American Philosophy," *Studies in Education-Yearbook, XXV,* pp. 87-116 (Chicago, The National Society of College Teachers of Education, 1937).

Bagley, William C. *Education and Emergent Man* (New York, Thomas Nelson & Sons, 1934), 238 pp. Is concerned with a theory of education for the United States. The idea of social evolution is a basic starting point.

Beard, Charles A. (for the Educational Policies Commission). *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy* (Washington, National Education Assn., 1937), 128 pp. A brief, clear, and forceful presentation of the essentials of the problem with special reference to problems of adjustment in present practice.

Beard, Charles A., and Beard, Mary R. *America in Midpassage* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1939), 977 pp.

Benne, Kenneth D. *A Conception of Authority—An Introductory Study* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943), 227 pp.

Berkson, I. B. *Preface to an Educational Philosophy* (New York, Columbia University Press, 1940), 250 pp.

Blanshard, Brand, et al. *Philosophy in American Education; its Tasks and Opportunities* (New York, Harper & Bros., 1945), 306 pp.

Bode, Boyd H. *Fundamentals of Education* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1921), 245 pp.

Breed, Frederick I. *Realism and the New Education* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1939), 237 pp.

Briggs, Thomas H. *Pragmatism and Pedagogy* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1940), 124 pp.

Briggs, Thomas H., and Russell, William F. *The Meaning of Democracy* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1941), 413 pp.

Brody, Alexander. *The American State and Higher Education* (Washington, American Council on Education, 1935), 251 pp. A study of higher education as a function of government, based upon analysis of constitutions, statutes, and court decisions affecting the institutions. It reveals the social as well as political policy back of the founding and controlling government instruments.

Brubaker, John S. *Modern Philosophies of Education* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1939), 370 pp.

——, ed. *The Public Schools and Spiritual Values* (New York, Harper & Bros., 1944), 222 pp.

Chapman, Crosby J., and Counts, George S. *Principles of Education* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924), 645 pp. Comprehensive, and with implications for all phases of education. The approach is sociological and the values sought take account of the nature of the learner and of society and social progress as goals.

Childs, John L. *Education and the Philosophy of Experimentalism* (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1931), 264 pp. Vigorous application of the philosophy of experimentalism to the field of education.

Cohn, Alfred E. *Minerva's Progress: Tradition and Dissent in American Culture* (New York, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1946), 101 pp.

Counts, George S. *The Social Foundations of Education*, Report of the Commission on Social Studies—Part IX (New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934), 579 pp.

—— *Education and The Promise of America* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1945), 157 pp.

Cunningham, William F. *The Pivotal Problems of Education* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1940), 588 pp.

Dewey, John. *Democracy and Education* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1923), 434 pp. Though not Dewey's latest work in this field, its breadth of treatment affords an excellent starting point for one who desires to understand Dewey's educational philosophy. Dewey's pragmatic viewpoint is apparent.

—— *Experience and Education* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1938), 116 pp. A thorough analysis of the negative or opposition attitude, showing the wrong interpretation and inadequacy of the theories of "progressive" educators, incident to which it reveals the author's philosophy.

—— *Freedom and Culture* (New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1939), 176 pp. An illuminating analysis of the nature of freedom and its

relation to the nature of man, and of our society living under the common practical pressures of the time.

—— *Problems of Men* (New York, Philosophical Library, Inc., 1946), 424 pp.

Eaton, Theodore H. *An Approach to a Philosophy of Education* (New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1938), 273 pp.

Educational Policies Commission. *The Purposes of Education in a Democracy* (Washington, Educational Policies Commission, 1938), 157 pp. Brings its discussion of educational purposes close to the task of attaining them.

Edwards, Newton, ed. *Education in a Democracy* (Chicago, The University of Chicago Press, 1941), 160 pp.

Eggertsen, Claude, and Good, Warren, compilers. *Current Viewpoints in Education* (Ann Arbor, Bureau of Educational Reference and Research, University of Michigan, 1942), 212 pp.

Fine, Benjamin. *Democratic Education* (New York, Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1945), 251 pp.

Finney, Ross L. *A Sociological Philosophy of Education* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1928), 563 pp.

Fitzpatrick, Edward A. *Readings in the Philosophy of Education* (Washington, The Catholic University of America, 1936), 117 pp.

Grace, Alonzo G., et al. *Changing Conceptions in Educational Administration, Forty-fifth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1946), 182 pp.

Guinan, Sister M. Angelicia. *Freedom and Authority in Education* (Washington, The Catholic University of America, 1936), 117 pp.

Henderson, Ernest Norton. *A Textbook in the Principles of Education* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1910), 593 pp. Discussion directed mainly from evolutionary viewpoint, tinged at times with interest in idealism as a force in social progress.

Hocking, William E. *Types of Philosophy* (New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1929), 462 pp. Useful as a general foundation in philosophy, without specific bearing upon education. Approaches the problem from the idealist standpoint.

—— *Science and the Idea of God,* McNair Lectures (Chapel Hill, University of North Carolina Press, 1944), 124 pp.

Holmes, Henry. *The Road to Courage: Sources of Morale in Men and Nations* (New York, Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1943), 249 pp.

Horne, Herman H. *The Democratic Philosophy of Education* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1932), 547 pp. Interesting especially for its analysis and criticism of Dewey's *Democracy and Education.* Approach is that of an idealist.

Hullfish, H. Gordon. *Philosophy and Education in Interaction* (Columbus, Ohio State University, 1944), 15 pp.

Hutchins, Robert M. *The Higher Learning in America* (New Haven, Yale University Press, 1936), 119 pp.

Judd, Charles H. *Education and Social Progress* (New York, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1934), 285 pp. A popular presentation of the aims of education and of the major problems related to the task of attaining them. The title clearly suggests the background against which facts of life are viewed and aims and values set up for education.

Justman, Joseph. *Theories of Secondary Education in the United States* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940), 481 pp. An analysis and classification of the writings of present-day contributors to this problem. Develops four classes or general viewpoints: Humanism, Social Evolutionism, Social Realism, and Experimentalism.

Kandel, I. L. *The End of an Era, Eighteenth Educational Yearbook* of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941), 393 pp.

Kilpatrick, William H. *Selfhood and Civilization: A Study of the Self-other Process* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1941), 243 pp.

—— *Source Book in the Philosophy of Education,* rev. ed. (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1934), 535 pp. A rich and carefully selected collection from a wide variety of sources. The author's own philosophical viewpoint is apparent in the choice and arrangement, but this implies no neglect of opposing views.

Kilpatrick, William H., et al. *The Educational Frontier* (New York, The Century Co., 1933), 325 pp. Represents the effort of seven writers, varying somewhat in viewpoint, to bring a philosophy of education to issue with a number of the aspects and problems of education.

—— "Tendencies in Education Philosophy" in *Twenty-five Years of American Education,* I. L. Kandel, ed. (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1926), pp. 57-90. Good brief statement of trends in thought on this problem.

Knode, Jay C., et al. *Foundations of an American Philosophy of Education* (New York, D. Van Nostrand Co., Inc., 1942), 553 pp.

MacConnell, Charles M., et al. *New Schools for a New Culture* (New York, Harper & Bros., 1943), 229 pp.

Martin, Everett D. *The Meaning of a Liberal Education* (New York, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1926), 319 pp.

May, Mark A. *Education in a World of Fear* (Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1941), 74 pp.

Meiklejohn, Alexander. *Education Between Two Worlds* (London, Harper & Bros., 1942), 303 pp.

Melvin, A. Gordon. *The New Culture—An Organic Philosophy of Education* (New York, Reynal & Hitchcock, 1937), 296 pp.

Morrison, Henry C. *Basic Principles of Education* (New York, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1934), 452 pp.

National Education Association—Committee on Social-Economic Goals of America. *Implications of Social-Economic Goals for Education* (Washington, the Association, 1937), 126 pp.

Nock, Albert J. *The Theory of Education in the United States* (New York, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1932), 160 pp. This is a series of lectures delivered at the University of Virginia. The ideas of equality, democracy, and that assurance of honest government lies in a literate citizenry are examined for their bearing upon the nature and place of education in our political system.

Oertel, Ernest E. *Toward a New Philosophy in Educational Administration* (Los Angeles, Murray and Gee, 1936), 182 pp. Attempts by study of educational and social thought to derive some principles by which to guide the organization and management of schools.

Perry, R. B. *Present Philosophical Tendencies* (New York, Longmans, Green & Co., 1912), 383 pp. A general treatise, useful to present the viewpoint of the philosophical realists.

Redden, J. D., and Ryan, F. A. *A Catholic Philosophy of Education* (Milwaukee, The Bruce Publishing Co., 1942), 605 pp.

Rusk, Robert R. *The Philosophical Bases of Education* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1928), 205 pp. Discusses need for a philosophy of education, schools of philosophy, naturalism, pragmatism, and idealism in education. Useful introductory book.

Smith, Harry P. *A New Cardinal Objective of American Education* (Syracuse, Syracuse University, 1945), 28 pp.

Snedden, David. *Cultural Educations and Common Sense* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1931), 325 pp. A study of the sociological foundations essential to the process of refinement and of rendering the personal cultures of men more functional.

—— *Towards Better Education* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931), 427 pp. Examines a number of the current problems of coordinating purposes and methods in light of social theory. Criticizes "progressive" writers for pretending to deal with the theory of purposes and aims when in reality they are dealing with theory of methods only.

Sorokin, Pitirim, and Zimmerman, C. C. *Principles of Rural-Urban Sociology* (New York, Henry Holt & Co., 1929), 652 pp.

Thayer, V. T. *American Education Under Fire* (New York, Harper & Bros., 1944), 193 pp.

Wahlquist, J. T. *The Philosophy of American Education* (New York, The Ronald Press Co., 1942), 407 pp.

West, Ranyard. *Conscience and Society* (London, Methuen and Co., 1942), 260 pp.

Wilds, Elmer H. *The Foundation of Modern Education,* rev. ed. (New York, Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1942), 690 pp.

11. Educational Sociology

Under "philosophical background" there have been listed above writings which are concerned with basic philosophical considerations and their implications for our theory of society, with our economic and political theories, and with our theory of public education. Under the present heading the purpose is to present writings that will provide an introduction to the factual materials with reference to which the purposes, plans, and practices of the schools in no small measure must be shaped. As the philosophical writings utilize the practical facts of life, so, in the present list, it will be seen that utilizing social, political, and economic facts as a basis for educational planning is not a mere problem of adding facts to facts. One must extract meaning from facts, as well as build them up. To do this one must evaluate, interpret, and reason. In the present list, therefore, many books will be found in which an effort is made to develop, or perhaps to illustrate or prove, a given general social theory. Further, in this list there are many books that do not mention education. These are included because they provide useful raw materials from which the administrator may derive meanings essential to educational planning.

The attitude implied in these lists, and their arrangement, is not that the schools are expected either to maintain the present social order as it is or to rebuild it in some new terms or to some new ends. It is assumed, however, that education should equip people to understand and participate constructively in their own civilization. To do this, children must learn about the actual work of the world. If this is to be accomplished, schools should be organized and directed in a manner to make this possible. One cannot devise machinery for a job, or know how to operate it, if one does not fully understand it. It should not be the business of a school in a democracy to hand to children a ready-made philosophy of life, or theory of society, of government, of business, nor should it thrust these down his defenseless throat. Instead, it should equip him to build his own philoso-

phy. For this he must have an open mind, trained to careful, critical study of both fact and theory. To administer education intelligently one must know what kind of outcomes the instruction is supposed to produce. For this the literature of sociology is basic, since how can education be wise if it does not help a child to understand and participate in his own society?

Sociology is a very young science. Even so, it has many facts and many studies of facts that lead to principles. Many who deal with problems of poverty, of crime, of sickness, of capital-labor disputes, of charities, and of human distress in its many forms, find themselves greatly emotionalized by what they learn. Surely it is desirable that our children be moved emotionally and that they develop attitudes favorable to social improvement. In accomplishing these desirable purposes, however, care must be exercised not to forget that sure and complete knowledge of facts is the only channel through which one can safely permit free rein to such emotions. Other lines of sociology are more easily learned and used in a scientific way. Nearly every phase of the subject offers facts and principles that are basic and indispensable guides to policy making, planning, managing, or teaching in a public school in a democracy.

The following sample questions will reveal how sociology is related to school administration and may suggest lines of study for the administrator who wishes to approach his task with broad understanding.

1. We say of the school that it is a society and that one purpose of education is to have children become members of this society. Specifically, what does this mean when applied in school and class management? What does it mean when applied to the problems of public relations; to the problems of faculty personnel service; to pupil personnel work; and to curriculum making? That is, what are the social relations and problems to which attention needs to be paid in these situations and what is the nature of the social training sought after, and of the social controls to be exercised?

2. Sociology studies population—its growth and decline, its social composition, its marital status, its age and sex distribution, its movements. How can the facts from such studies be

brought to bear in such matters as curriculum making, developing building plans, and vocational guidance?

3. How can studies of occupations, of capital and labor, of the economic distribution or welfare levels of the people, and of poverty and crime be brought to bear upon social and instructional programs, or upon guidance, or upon public relations problems, or upon student government?

4. How can a school utilize the social relationships involved in the life and work of the school to prepare young people to meet the opportunities and requirements of social intercourse in adult society? What principles or basic theories, if any, does sociology provide for this?

5. Sociology is concerned with social reform and cultural evolution. In what ways can knowledge of the studies of these matters be brought to bear upon the curriculum, upon student activities, upon school organization and government, upon guidance, upon student discipline, upon school-community relationships?

6. With what major social controversial problems should the school undertake to deal with students? How and at what ages should each type be presented?

7. What has sociology to contribute to the problems of personality development and character education?

8. What has sociology to contribute to training in leadership, in cooperation, in citizenship?

9. What has sociology to contribute to education as a means of producing any desired social change?

12. Bibliography on Educational Sociology

The lists here presented should introduce the student of administration to one major set of the raw materials with reference to which he is to shape his school system.

Adams, James T. *Frontiers of American Culture: A Study of Adult Education in a Democracy* (New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1944), 364 pp.

Bell, Howard M. *Youth Tell Their Story* (Washington, The American Council on Education, 1938), 273 pp.

Bolton, Frederick E., and Corbally, John E. *Educational Sociology* (New York, American Book Co., 1941), 632 pp.

Bower, William C. *Church and State in Education* (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1944), 103 pp.

Chapin, F. Stuart, and Queen, Stuart A. *Research Memorandum on Social Work in the Depression* (New York, Social Science Research Council, 1937), 134 pp. This is one of thirteen important studies of the influence of the depression of the thirties. Crime, education, family, internal migration, minority peoples, recreation, religion, rural life, consumption, health, reading, and relief policies are dealt with in other volumes of the series.

Clapp, Elsie R. *Community Schools in Action* (New York, The Viking Press, 1939), 429 pp.

Cook, L. A. *Community Backgrounds of Education* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938), 397 pp.

Counts, George S. *Education and the Promise of America* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1945), 157 pp.

Davidson, P. E., and Anderson, H. D. *Occupational Mobility in an American Community* (Stanford University, Stanford University Press, 1937), 203 pp.

Davis, Allison, and Dollard, John. *Children of Bondage* (Washington, American Council on Education, 1940), 299 pp.

Davis, Jerome. *Capitalism and Its Culture* (New York, Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1935), 556 pp.

Dickenson, Robert L., and Beam, Lura. *A Thousand Marriages* (Baltimore, Williams & Wilkins, 1931), 482 pp.

Finney, Ross L., and Zeleny, L. D. *An Introduction to Educational Sociology* (Boston, D. C. Heath & Co., 1934), 341 pp.

Frazier, E. Franklin. *Negro Youth at the Crossways* (Washington, American Council on Education, 1940), 301 pp.

Hutchins, Robert M. *Education for Freedom* (Baton Rouge, University of Louisiana Press, 1943), 105 pp.

Jackson, Sidney L. *America's Struggle for Free Schools* (Washington, American Council on Public Affairs, 1943), 276 pp.

Jacobsen, Einar W., et al. *Education for Family Life, Nineteenth Yearbook,* American Association of School Administrators (Washington, the Association, 1941).

Kandel, I. L., ed. *Post-War Educational Reconstruction in the United Nations, Twenty-first Yearbook* of the International Institute of Teachers College (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1944), 335 pp.

Kulp, Daniel A. *Educational Sociology* (New York, Longmans, Green & Co., 1932), 272 pp.

Kvaraceus, William C. *Juvenile Delinquency and the School* (Yonkers, N. Y., World Book Co., 1945), 337 pp.

Leven, Maurice, Moulton, H. G., and Warburton, Clark. *America's Capacity to Consume* (Washington, the Brookings Institution, 1934), 272 pp.

Lorimer, Frank, Winston, Ellen E. B., and Kiser, Louise K. *Foundations of American Population Policy* (New York, Harper & Bros., 1940), 178 pp.

Lynd, Robert S., and Lynd, Helen. *Middletown: A Study in Contemporary Culture* (New York, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1929), 550 pp.

—— *Middletown in Transition: A Study in Cultural Conflicts* (New York, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1937), 604 pp.

Machover, Solomon. *Cultural and Racial Variations in Patterns of Intellect* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943), 91 pp.

Members of the Faculty of the University of California. *Education and Society* (Berkeley, University of California Press, 1944), 196 pp.

Miller, J. Hillis, and Brooks, Dorothy. *The Role of Higher Education in War and After* (New York, Harper & Bros., 1944), 222 pp.

Moreno, J. L. *Who Shall Survive?* Nervous and Mental Disease Monograph Series No. 58 (Washington, Nervous and Mental Disease Publishing Co., 1934), 437 pp.

Mowrer, Ernest R. *The Family: Its Organization and Disorganization* (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1932), 364 pp.

National Education Association—Educational Policies Commission. *The Effects of Population Changes on American Educational Policy* (Washington, National Educational Assn., 1938), 58 pp.

National Resources Committee. *Technological Trends and National Policy Including the Social Implications of New Inventions* (Washington, Government Printing Office, 1937), 388 pp. See other publications of this Commission.

National Society of College Teachers of Education. *Yearbook XXV —The Use of Background in the Interpretation of Educational Issues* (Chicago, the Society, 1937), 256 pp. Contains several papers touching this field.

National Society for the Study of Educational Sociology. *Objectives of Education—Second Yearbook* of the Society (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929), 185 pp.

Nourse, Edwin, et al. *America's Capacity to Produce* (Washington, The Brookings Institution, 1934), 608 pp.

Payne, E. G., ed. *Readings in Educational Sociology* (New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1932), 369 pp.

Peters, Charles C. *Foundations of Educational Sociology* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1930), 447 pp.

Pittenger, Benjamin F. *Indoctrination for American Democracy* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1941), 110 pp.

Rope, Frederick T. *Opinion, Conflict and School Support* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941), 164 pp.
Roucek, J. S., et al. *Sociological Foundations of Education* (New York, Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1942), 447 pp.
Russell, John D., and Mackenzie, Donald M. *Emergent Responsibilities in Higher Education,* Vol. XVII of *Proceedings* of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, 1945 (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1946), 142 pp.
Sand, Rene. *Health and Human Progress* (London, K. Paul, French, Trubner & Co., Ltd., 1935), 278 pp.
Sargent, Porter S. *Between Two Wars; The Failure of Education, 1920-1940* (Boston, P. Sargent, 1945), 608 pp.
Seligman, Edwin R. A., ed. *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1930-1934), 8 vols.
Snedden, David. *Educations for Political Citizenship* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932), 196 pp.
Sorokin, Pitirim. *Social Mobility* (New York, Harper & Bros., 1927), 559 pp.
Steffens, Lincoln. *Autobiography* (New York, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1931), 884 pp.
Stoddard, George D. *The Meaning of Intelligence* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1943), 504 pp.
Thorndike, Edward L. *Human Nature and the Social Order* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1940), 1019 pp.
Vickery, William E., and Cole, Stewart G. *Intercultural Education in American Schools* (New York, Harper & Bros., 1943), 214 pp.
Waller, Willard. *Sociology of Teaching* (New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1932), 467 pp.
Warner, W. Lloyd, et al., *Who Shall Be Educated?* (New York, Harper & Bros., 1944), 190 pp.

13. Educational Psychology and Biology

Psychology is so obviously a direct part of education that one need scarcely refer to it as of background value, even to administration. Biology, in a broad sense, has a continuous and direct bearing on almost all administrative problems except those having to do with materials and business services.

Both these fields are closely related to other fields, and the dividing line between the literature and problems of psychology and the literature and problems of these other fields is not clear.

Thus, they both contact public health, industrial management, personnel management, medicine, law, penology, charities and corrections, religion, social control, art, music, and many other fields.

Obviously many of these connections are vague nebulous, and unexplored. For psychology the home base is as yet not clearly established; consequently, the searches for the metes and bounds of its field of study are, in part, searches in the dark. That psychology has felt its way in so many directions, however, is significant and promising and no one who expects to direct the growth and development of children and youth should neglect to follow these explorations. Certainly one needs but little acquaintance with the literature to see that through the findings of each of these sciences very important new ideas, almost new chapters, have been written into the literature of education in very recent years. This applies to administration as definitely as it applies to teaching, to class management, and to curriculum making. Obviously, if we discover new rules to guide us in the problem of teaching, then our plans of organization, management, and housing, and our types of equipment, also, will require revision.

How may one gain an understanding of these fields such as will enable an administrator to utilize their findings in his work? Certainly more than a smattering of acquaintance will be required. Psychology has been developed along different lines and there have grown up a number of different schools of thought, each with its own special approach, its own problems, methods of work, and interpretation of findings, and each with numerous variations or offshoots.[3] Occasionally these schools come in conflict with one another and choices must be made as to which interpretation is more useful for the immediate problem in hand, but for the most part they are supplementary and to be sophisticated psychologically is to know the trends and problems of all of them.

Certain historical figures such as Wundt, Külpe, and Titchener are no longer of immediate importance and such syste-

[3] J. Harold Straub, "Conflicting Patterns of Psychology," *Peabody Journal of Education* (Nov., 1940), Vol. 18, pp. 169-172.

matic approaches as those of structuralism and McDougall's purposivism have been of little value to practical living and working. But the functionalist tradition of William James, J. R. Angell, John Dewey, and Charles H. Judd has led directly to some of the most vital of contemporary applied psychology. The study of individual differences and the learning process by Cattell, Thorndike, and Woodworth, of mental tests by Terman, of animal behavior by Yerkes have all contributed to educational psychology. The three great groups of contemporary psychological theorists, the Gestalt, behavioristic, and psychoanalytic, have their importance rooted in the past as well as in the present. The Gestalt school started with Wertheimer, continued with such men as Koffka, Kohler, and Wheeler, and now finds its most vigorous representation in the topological psychology of Kurt Lewin. Behaviorism was the child of John B. Watson and in his trail came Lashley and, in the present, the learning theory of Clark Hull. The psychoanalytical school, begun by Freud and supported by such able thinkers as Karl Abraham and Franz Alexander, has had many off-shoots. Jung, Adler, and Rank have been among the greater of dissenters to Freudianism, and today the most vigorous heterodoxy is being formulated by Dr. Karen Horney.

Besides gaining acquaintance with the schools of psychology, it will be helpful for the student to know the leading figures and the major problems in the fields of child psychology, comparative, abnormal, social, clinical, and industrial psychology, and, most especially, of mental measurement and evaluation in educational psychology. With knowledge of these several fields, in most of which representatives from all the schools of psychology except, perhaps, the older structuralists, are at work, one should be familiar with the journals through which their publications appear and the societies through which they carry on their scientific and professional conferences.

As general background, too, one should understand how and by whom the genetic, the experimental, the descriptive and explanatory, the case, and the testing approaches have been used.

All the above preparation should have been well cared for in course work in psychology. But all these problems of schools, fields, and methods of approach grow more meaningful with use, for only by long study will one be able to recognize the many variations from main types. With such a background the student is in a position to go through the literature in search of the particular knowledge he needs. What is this knowledge?

The student of administration is not concerned with psycological facts, as such, but with their implications for education. Education is a broad term. The school is concerned with children, teachers, administrators, and other staff members, with parents, board members, and custodians. The school is itself a society, with important relationships among its members. Administration is concerned with these relationships, hoping, through proper arrangement and direction of them, to provide the best possible conditions for education. Education, then, is concerned with all learning—physical, intellectual, emotional, aesthetic, and social.[4] The school, therefore, is concerned with all the stimuli that provoke reactions from the children. Healthy, happy and competent teachers and supervisors, properly chosen books, properly selected working materials and equipment, suitable housing, and right organization and management can make of the school a society in which all desirable types of learning will take place. By ignoring the laws by which such learning takes place, the school may end in learnings that are useless or even vicious and frustrating.

It is the responsibility of administration to lead, guide, and direct the operations of the schools. It must watch every feature and aspect of the institution and stand ready to stop or redirect energies that are going wrong or to change conditions that are providing wrong relationships or wrong stimuli. In reading the literature of psychology, what should the school administrator look for and how should he bring his knowledge to bear?

One can scarcely hope, through a few questions, to suggest an adequate plan for drawing upon the large literature of psy-

[4] Lester D. Crow and Alice Crow, *Our Teen-Age Boys and Girls* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1945).

chology for the best it has to offer one who is to direct the learning, growth, and development of the children and the relationships and processes of life of the school. At most, the following queries may suggest a viewpoint and a way of approaching such a task.

Regardless of its specific aims, the school is concerned with what nature does and what the school may be able to do about directing the development of children. Psychology has much to say on this question. Within the limits of what education may possibly do there is the question of what to do and of how the choice is to be made. Psychology has much to offer on these matters. Common sense has revealed that education must do something besides fill children's minds with facts about numbers, language, science, etc.; psychology has been trying to reveal the nature of personality and how it may be developed, and of how all kinds of intellectual, aesthetic, and physical learnings take place. Humanitarianism has clamored for better treatment of criminals and delinquents; psychology has been at work on the nature of the experiences and learnings that end in delinquency and malformed personalities. As school administrators unraveled the facts of retardation, psychology examined the nature of retardation and the processes by which it may be produced.

It is these and like contributions the school administrator will seek from psychology. In seeking them he will do well to remember that, historically, education has designed its methods, curriculum, social program, and management more in terms of psychology that was ready for the discard than of psychology that was fresh from the scientific workshop of up-to-date psychologists. Of administrators this has been doubly true.

It is a certainty that the literature of psychology and biology has answers or part answers to the following questions which the school administrator may well keep in mind as he tries to organize his knowledge of psychology:

1. In what ways may the evidence on the nature-nurture controversy affect the treatment of children in school? Does psychology offer a method by which one may inventory and interpret what nature has provided in a child? If so, then what record forms

would one need and how might this inventory be brought to bear in counseling as to courses, social program, and career objectives for the child? In what ways does nature express itself in a child and what can education hope to do with nature's contribution where it seems inadequate to a student's needs? May education expect to change, or merely supplement what nature has provided?

2. What is the nature of personality and what does psychology offer toward the development of a program of social life for a school? Can personalities be changed by personal or group advice, by book study and recitation, by actual social experience? How may the regime of life in the school contribute to or provide satisfactory stimuli for use in personality growth? What is the problem of punishment when viewed as a learning experience?

3. Can people be taught to think, to reason, to remember, to appreciate, to be moral, to be critical in matters involving the emotions? How might the psychology involved in answering these questions affect class size and organization and management?

4. What does psychology offer on the question of the transfer of training or knowledge and what do its conclusions imply for curriculum-making?

5. Can native intelligence be increased by education? In what ways does mental testing provide advice on supervision and guidance, grading, classification, group organization for special activities, and the care of very bright or very dull children?

6. What does psychology tell us to recognize in the way of individual differences? What do its findings indicate for class management, for guidance, for school organization?

7. Does the psychology of learning, of habit formation, and of personality aid the school in caring for children with highly specialized ability, children with personality difficulties, children with speech defects, children emotionally unstable, children with bad health habits? Do psychologists approve or disapprove of segregating the bright or the dull or the mentally or physically defective for instructional purposes?

8. What have the facts of psychology and of growth and development to offer on seating, lighting, ventilation, and decoration

of school buildings; on the length of recitation or other activities, on the programming of studies, on rest periods, on open-air schools?

These are but sample questions that one might have in mind as he reads the literature of psychology and biology. If some of the questions seem to focus upon teaching rather than administration one must remember that teachers have to be employed, assigned, promoted, or dismissed by administrators.

The list of books presented below is far from complete, though it is representative of all the lines of psychological development that would be directly useful to the school administrator. From these volumes, and through their reading lists and footnotes, it should be easy to find one's way to other material of value. The classification of titles used is not perfectly logical as to schools or basic theories used, to fields of study, to method of treatment, or to their value for the different aspects of administration. School, field, and method of approach are all represented in the headings used, and it is hoped that the headings will not only identify the books psychologically, but also, in most cases, at least, indicate the points at which they contribute to the field of education. It is assumed that the reader will want to know each book's place in the literature of psychology and what particular educational area or problem it focuses upon. Many books could appear under two or more of the classifications.

14. Bibliography on Educational Psychology

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Lanier, Lyle H., ed. *Psychological Bulletin* (Washington, D. C., The American Psychological Assn., 1904-date). For many years each issue of the Bulletin has contained from one to three reviews

of the literature on special topics. These are at times critical, at times merely annotated bibliographies. The bibliographies are ordinarily quite complete. Such topics as learning, personality, and child psychology are usually reviewed. Published bimonthly.

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Chapter 4

PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS, SERIAL PUBLICATIONS, AND PUBLIC DOCUMENTS OF THE FIELD

1. Training for Membership in the Profession

In Chapter 1 attention was called to the student's need for an understanding of the professional organizations and the professional activities of the people who are engaged in school administrative service. When one enters upon graduate study in a School of Education, he is generally taking a step preliminary to a career and membership in an organized profession within which are many specializations. One of these specializations is school administration. Even within the administrative service there are many special groups, as will be seen by the list of organizations presented below.

Professional and scientific organizations are or should be instruments of professional and social progress for administrators. Not to participate in their activities is to serve education in a local and restricted sense only. When one accepts an administrative position or when he enters upon the study of education he thereby assumes partial responsibility for an important leadership that needs these professional societies to carry on the proper activities of a leader. In anticipation of this, he should find a place in his program for a study of these organizations and their activities, the membership, the eligibility rules, the publications, the esteem in which these societies are held, and their history.

One of the most important single ideas one can get as a student is that his period of training does not end with the end of formal schooling. When he leaves his formal classroom studies he enters the profession, where study must begin again

and be continuous. Professional societies afford opportunity for him to learn and also to cooperate and to lead. Their public meetings, their committee projects, their publications, and their activities in various types of public relations service for education will provide invaluable opportunity for continued professional growth and for a service much wider than one's special position can provide.

Besides the publications of professional organizations, there are many other current publications by individuals or by institutions. Though some of these are institution bulletins of the house-organ type, many are scientific journals of repute whose columns are open to anyone who can write suitable material for them. The young administrator will need to know where to look for help on his new problems. The continuous flow of new material—notices, news, opinion, facts, exposition, careful research—follows well-established channels, and with these the beginner will need a close acquaintance.

In this chapter there will be presented the names of the principal organizations he will need to know and the titles of the current publications best suited to the needs of school executives. With the names and titles some information will be offered by which the student may identify them.

In presenting these materials attempt has been made to meet the needs of all kinds of administrative positions in education. The extent and variety shown in these lists is suggestive of the many possible careers open to a student of school administration. While no one person would wish membership in all these organizations or wish to write for or read all the current publications listed, he can feel certain that some acquaintance with all that are here presented will be found essential to sound preparation for leadership in the profession. It is to be remembered, too, that the interest here is professional and technical and so, obviously, the lists do not include all the societies one might wish to know or belong to and certainly not all the current publications an active executive would wish to read. The lists include only those professional and scientific societies which various school executives might wish to join, and socie-

ties whose influence, activities, or publications are likely to be of value to him in his training or later in his practice.

2. Types of Administrative Positions Available

To understand the materials presented in this chapter, one needs only to glance down the following list of the more common executive positions. A student, when he starts to plan and orient his professional training program, may gain some useful knowledge of his chosen field by a consideration of these positions. Back of each position is special administrative work. It may be special in the kind of education involved, special in the plan of control and of support, special in the territory covered, in the type and extent of the personnel to be directed, in the housing and physical equipment to be used, or special in endless other ways. While the work of a city superintendent is not wholly unlike that of a college president, a high school principal, or a state superintendent, yet many of the problems of these offices are vastly different. All must manage men, money, and materials, but to quite different ends and in quite different terms. Even the following partial list of administrative positions in American education shows what a wide range of problems there is:

1. United States Government.
   (a) Commissioner of education
   (b) Assistant commissioner of education
   (c) Chief of a division
   (d) Assistant commissioner for vocational education
   (e) Director of a special field
   (f) Special officer for Alaska, Puerto Rico, Hawaii, Guam, Samoa, Canal Zone, Virgin Islands, and for Indian and other special federal schools of the United States

2. State and county school systems.
   (a) State superintendent (various titles used)
   (b) Assistant or deputy superintendent
   (c) Chief or director of a division

(d) Assistant to the executive
(e) County superintendent
(f) Specialists in various fields as law, curriculum, certification, textbooks, etc.

3. Institutions of higher learning.
   (a) President, chancellor, provost
   (b) Vice-president
   (c) Dean of a school or college
   (d) Comptroller or business manager or treasurer
   (e) Registrar
   (f) Director
   (g) Head of a department
   (h) Chairman of an administrative committee

4. City school systems.
   (a) Superintendent
   (b) Assistant or deputy superintendent
   (c) Director of a special division
   (d) Principal of a school
   (e) Vice-principal
   (f) Dean
   (g) Chairman or head of a department
   (h) Faculty committee chairman
   (i) Registrar
   (j) Business manager

5. Professional societies, accrediting agencies, educational foundations and boards.
   (a) President
   (b) Executive secretary
   (c) Director
   (d) Head of a committee or a commission

The fact that thousands of positions are now operating under these various titles gives at least a partial picture of the number of opportunities there are for school administrative service. And when account is taken of the variety of activities represented by these positions, one cannot but be impressed

with the breadth and richness of the field. Something we call executive ability—partly knowledge and skill and partly personality—is required in every one of these positions.

The special purpose here is to introduce the professional societies, their activities, and the current publications bearing especially upon this field. The list of organizations presented below (page 80) is but a sample from a very large number, probably over 500 if state and regional organizations are included. Similarly, the list of serials is chosen from a total of over 400 published in the United States, and the lists of documents are samples from vast collections.[1]

3. Professional Societies Important to Administrators

For a complete list of American associations—educational, civic, and learned—the reader should consult such publications as the *Educational Directory*, and *Handbook of Scientific and Technical Institutions of the United States and Canada* (see Chapter 2, Sec. 3, VI). The list here presented is by no means complete but does include those most important to school administrators. Their selection has presented several problems because, by the nature of their duties, school administrators must contact many people and many organizations and many divisions of the government outside the schools. Membership in many outside organizations will be desirable in order that schools may draw upon individuals and organizations for assistance, or in order that the schools may have suitable channels through which to disseminate information about their doings and their needs. Thus the public relations responsibilities of the head of a college, a city school system, or a school will need membership in service, social, and business organizations of the community. In this sense, too, he will need close working relations with the Boy and Girl Scouts, with the Red Cross and Junior Red Cross, and with the Parent-Teachers Association. In a similar sense, also, the maintenance of suitable work-

[1] For a complete list of serial publications see: American Press Association of America, *Classified List of Educational Periodicals*, National Education Association, American Association of School Administrators, Washington (published annually).

ing relationships will require that the school superintendent know the responsible officials and the policies and activities of the city and state health departments, of the city council, of the police and juvenile courts, of the local fire department, and of the state legislature and the state department of education.

In a similar way, knowledge of other professions and their organizations and activities will be of value. The American Medical Association, the American Historical Association, the American Library Association, the American Philosophical Society, the American Political Science Association, the American Social Hygiene Association, the American Public Health Association, the American Sociological Association, the American Psychological Association, to name a few, represent for different professional groups what the National Education Association or the American Association of School Administrators represents to educators. There is much to be learned from acquaintance with these and like organizations. The relation of their objectives to generally accepted public policy, their plans of organization, their types of activities, especially their publications and their activities in shaping public opinion, their codes of ethics, and their attitudes toward public education are significant social forces that often can be turned to account in meeting issues with the people of a community or of one's state or nation.[2]

To refer to all these organizations here is merely to note that there is no sharp line that sets off the societies of importance to school administrators, just as there is no sharp line that separates one's general education from his technical or special education. To be a leader in education is to be a leader in society. Society has many interests besides education and so, has many leaders. If society's leaders fail to cooperate they are apt to weaken their leadership at all points.[3]

There are some organizations, however, that are in reality the direct agencies of school administration. Some of these

[2] See: Benson Y. Landis, *Professional Codes—A Sociological Analysis to Determine Applications to the Educational Profession* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927).

[3] See: Ralph S. Bates, *Scientific Societies in the United States* (New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1945).

may contact schools indirectly, in ways that are of importance. For such a list, probably no two people would choose the same organizations. The list here presented would seem to be a minimum list with which any student of school administration should cultivate close acquaintance.

4. List of Societies

American Academy of Political and Social Science. Founded 1889. Its purpose has been to provide a forum for the discussion of political, economic, and social problems. Holds meetings for discussions and publishes *Annals of the Academy of Political and Social Sciences bi-monthly.* Has been instrumental in publishing several important researches. Has a membership of some 9,500. Philadelphia, Pa.

American Association for Adult Education. Founded 1926. Aims "to further the idea of education as a continuing process throughout life." Serves as clearing house for information and sponsors experimental work in the field. Disseminates information and publishes special studies. Recently it has stressed re-education, opportunity schools, and adjustment service for unemployed. Membership consists of individuals and institutions interested in the field with $3.00 and $5.00 fees respectively. Publishes the *Journal of Adult Education* (below, Sec. 6) and sponsored editing of *Handbook of Adult Education in the United States.* New York.

American Association for the Advancement of Science. Founded 1848. Has sixteen sections, each devoted to a branch of science. Section Q is education. Many scientific organizations are associated with the AAAS, some three-fourths of which hold official connections and have representation in the council of the Association and help to direct its activities. Object is to provide means of intercourse among those cultivating science in different parts of America, to cooperate with societies and institutions with like interests, and to promote scientific work. Holds meetings twice annually and each division holds a summer meeting. Smithsonian Institution Library is depository for all publications received by the Association. Has an endowment fund with annual income of some $10,000. Makes small grants to research; grants a $1,000 prize for noteworthy contribution. Publishes *Science* (weekly). Cambridge, Mass.

American Association of Collegiate Registrars. Founded 1910. Purpose "to provide, by means of an annual conference and otherwise, for the spread of information on problems of common interest, and to promote the professional welfare of its members."

Membership is open to all duly authorized collegiate registrars. Annual dues, $3.00. Meetings held annually and a report of proceedings is published. Also publishes *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars* (below, Sec. 6). Menasha, Wis.

American Association of Junior Colleges. Founded 1920. Purpose is to serve interest of junior colleges by acting as coordinating agency, and by compiling and disseminating information concerning purposes and status of junior colleges. Holds meetings for discussion of problems of the junior college and publishes the *Junior College Journal* (below, Sec. 6). Active membership is held by institutions (68% of 610 junior colleges in 1941), sustaining membership by individuals. Proceedings of meetings appear in its *Journal.* Washington.

American Association of School Administrators. Founded 1866. A department of the National Education Association. Devoted to the interests of education in the broadest sense and to the development of sound management of schools. Disseminates knowledge, participates actively through its meetings in public discussion of major issues affecting education, exerts leadership in behalf of education through its studies, committees, commissions, and joint activities with other agencies. Publishes the *Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators,* also *Official Report* of the proceedings of its meetings. Assists in maintaining the Educational Research Service of the National Education Association and in publishing the *Research Bulletin* (below, Sec. 6) of the Division of Research. Membership of some 4,000. Washington.

American Association of Teachers Colleges. Founded 1858. Purpose: "To make more effective the administration of teacher education institutions; to improve the quality of scholarship of students; to refine methods of instruction; to discover adequate modes of social control, stimulate scholarship, research, educational contributions from members of faculties; all to the ultimate purpose of promoting the welfare of children. To coordinate efforts and programs of teachers colleges in America. To secure through aroused public sentiment and sane legislation standards insuring adequate preparation of teachers. To become familiar with educational policies and practices in teacher training institutions in other countries, that there may be a mutual gain through the exchange of ideas." Membership, now about 200, is by institutions only. Publishes *Yearbook of the American Association of Teachers Colleges.* For editor of yearbook and secretary, see recent *Yearbook.*

American Association of University Professors. Founded 1914 Purpose is to facilitate cooperation among professors in colleges and universities and professional schools in promotion of teaching and research, and to promote the interests, standards, and ideals of the group it represents. Open to professors and graduate students of eligible institutions of higher learning. Holds meetings annually, maintains working committees on numerous phases of university work, and publishes *Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors.* Membership of some 16,000. Washington.

American Association of University Women. Founded 1882. Its purpose is to contribute to the maintenance of high educational standards both local and national, to promote community educational activities, vocational guidance projects, and similar activities. Holds open forum study group meetings on social and educational problems and grants several fellowships. Has a membership of some 40,000, with 600 branch organizations that hold monthly meetings. Publishes *Journal of the American Association of University Women.* Washington.

American Council of Learned Societies. Founded 1919. A federation of some twenty learned societies, devoted to humanistic and social sciences, the object of which is to develop a unified organization representative of the best in American scholarship for work in the International Union of Academies. Promotes research in the humanistic sciences and encourages cooperation among the learned societies represented and between these and analogous academies or other groups in Europe. Does not conduct, but aids in obtaining funds for, research. Publishes *Bulletin of the American Council of Learned Societies.* Washington.

American Council on Education. Founded 1918. Aim is to promote interest of education in all its phases through cooperative effort of associations, organizations, and institutions by promoting studies, cooperative experiments, and conferences. By its origin the Council has special obligations to render patriotic service to the nation in war times and by the same fact is devoted to the task of coordination of educational services throughout the country. It directs studies through committees and commissions, aids in securing and managing funds for financing researches, and publishes important studies resulting from its researches. It publishes *The Educational Record* (below, Sec. 6) and *The Bulletin of the American Council on Education.* Washington.

American Education Fellowship. See *Progressive Education Assn.*

American Educational Research Association. Founded 1930. A department of the National Education Association. Membership chosen from among the technically trained and active research workers in the field of education. Holds meetings annually and

publishes proceedings in its *Official Report.* Also publishes *Review of Educational Research* (below, Sec. 6). Washington.

American Federation of Teachers. Founded 1916. Affiliate of the American Federation of Labor. Seeks "to obtain for teachers all the rights to which they are entitled and promote the welfare of childhood of the nation by providing progressively better educational opportunity for all." "To unite the teachers of the United States; to promote the cause of education; to defend the public schools . . .," etc. Holds annual convention, publishes *The American Teacher* and *Proceedings of the National Convention.* Chicago.

American Library Association. Founded 1879. Purpose: "To foster the development of libraries, promote the use of books, give advice and assistance, maintain an employment bureau, hold conferences, publish books, and raise professional standards." Membership, now about 13,000, is open to anyone interested in libraries. Holds two meetings yearly. Publishes *Bulletin of the American Library Association.* Chicago.

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Founded 1943, by merger of *Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction* with *Society for Curriculum Study.* Present title adopted in 1946. Operates as a *Department* of the *National Education Association.* Object: To study and to stimulate interest in all phases of school work touching elementary and secondary instruction. Publishes a *Yearbook* and a journal—*Educational Leadership*—formed by combination of two journals—*Educational Method* and *Curriculum Journal.* Its major work otherwise is carried on through committees and through its meetings. Emphasizes study and research on practical problems.

Association of American Colleges. Founded 1914. Purpose "for the promotion of higher education in all its forms in the colleges which shall become members of this association, and the prosecution of such plans as may make more efficient the institutions included in its membership." Four-year liberal arts colleges are eligible for membership. Membership includes 500 colleges. Membership fee is $50. Meetings are held annually. Works through committees. Publishes *Bulletin of the Association of American Colleges.* New York.

Association of American Universities. Founded 1900. Composed of institutions on the North American Continent giving graduate instruction. Object is "to consider matters of common interest relating to graduate instruction and research." Operates through committees, each committee established to study and report upon a special problem. Holds a meeting annually and publishes *Bulletin of the Association of American Universities.* New Haven, Conn.

Association of Land-Grant Colleges. Founded 1887. Purpose "to consider and discuss all studies pertaining to the successful prog-

ress and administration of all institutions included in the association and to secure to that end mutual cooperation of all Land-Grant Colleges eligible for membership." Meets annually. Publishes *Proceedings of the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities.* United States Department of Agriculture, Washington.

Brookings Institution. Incorporated 1928. Is an amalgamation of the Institute for Governmental Research, the Institute of Economics, and Robert Brookings Graduate School of Economics and Government, organized respectively in 1916, 1922, and 1924. Object is to conduct research in social science, provide apprenticeship opportunities for young scholars in the field, and to serve as a center through which the research resources of Washington will be open to visiting scholars. Publishes a research series in Administration, Service Monographs of the United States Government, and an Institute of Economics series, also a miscellaneous series. Washington.

Department of Elementary School Principals. Founded 1921. A department of the National Education Association. Object: "To study the problems of the elementary school with a broad and sympathetic outlook, to enlist the aid of educational forces everywhere, and to give the elementary child the advantage of a united effort, and to meet the responsibilities of childhood education with a united mind and purpose." Membership, now about 6,000, is open to elementary school executives and supervisors. Holds two meetings a year, including an annual convention in February. Publishes a bulletin—*The National Elementary Principal,* the last number of which is a *Yearbook.* Washington.

Kappa Delta Pi. Founded 1911. An honor society, open to students in education. Publishes a journal (below, Sec. 6) and maintains a lecture series.

National Advisory Council on Radio Education. Founded 1930, as a result of interest of the American Association for Adult Education in use of radio in education. Purpose, "to further the art of radio broadcasting in education." Membership is drawn from persons in education, government, industry, and the general public. Issues bulletins on special topics and publishes proceedings of the Council's annual assembly, also a bibliography on educational broadcasting. New York.

National Association of Public School Business Officials. Founded 1910 as National Association of School Accounting Officers. Its aim (1913 Constitution) was stated to be "the standardization of fiscal, physical, and educational data of school systems for presentation in the form of public reports, and the promotion of efficiency in school accounting, school statistics, and school adminis-

tration." Meets annually for discussions and presentation of papers and committee reports. Publishes proceedings of its meetings and a monthly journal, *School Business Affairs.*

National Congress of Parents and Teachers. Founded 1897. Objectives: "To promote the welfare of children and youth in home, school, church, and community; to raise the standards of home life; to secure adequate laws for the care and protection of children and youth; to bring into closer relation the home and the school that parents and teachers may cooperate intelligently in the training of the child and to develop between educators and the general public such united efforts as will secure for every child the highest advantages in physical, mental, social, and spiritual education." Membership of 2,300,000 parents and teachers. Publishes a *Yearbook* and a magazine—*National Parent-Teacher,* eleven numbers yearly. Chicago, Ill.

National Association of Secondary School Principals. Formerly Department of Secondary School Principals. Founded 1886. A Department of the National Education Association. Purpose is "to advance secondary education by providing a clearing house of discussion bearing upon the problems of administration and supervision by encouraging research, upholding acceptable standards, fostering professional ideals and formulating a working philosophy of education." Open to administrators, supervisors, and teachers in the field. Membership is now about 7,000. Holds meetings annually. Publishes bulletins, eight numbers yearly, and *Student Life,* the official magazine of the National Honor Society and of Student Council Organizations. Washington.

National Council of Education. Founded 1880. Purpose is "to consider and discuss educational questions of general interest and public importance. To reach and disseminate correct thinking on educational questions. To state different views and theories and genesis of opinion. To make an annual report to the National Education Association of questions considered. To survey the educational topics which seem to call for action on the part of the Association." It functions as a type of executive council for the National Education Association. Council consists of sixty members chosen by the Council, sixty by the board of directors of the Association, and three chosen by each of the departments of the Association. Meets February and June. Publishes an annual report of its findings. Washington.

National Education Association. Founded 1857. Object is to promote the interests of the profession of teaching and to promote the cause of public education in the United States. It serves as the parent association for 27 department organizations, each of which is devoted to a special division of educational service.

Organization includes board of trustees, executive committees, representative assembly of delegates, divisional directors, standing and special committees, and an extensive office force of administrative and technical as well as clerical workers. Membership 1947, close to 400,000 educators. Many of its committee reports have been landmarks of educational progress. Holds annual meetings and publishes *Addresses and Proceedings.* Also publishes *Journal of the National Education Association.* Washington.

National Society for the Study of Education. Founded 1895 as the Herbart Society. Aim is "to promote the investigation and discussion of educational problems." Anyone may join by payment of membership fee of $1.00 and dues of $2.50 per year. Meets annually at time and place of the meeting of the American Association of School Administrators. Publishes a *Yearbook.* Clifton, Mass.

North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Founded 1899. Purpose: To improve relations between colleges and secondary schools by study of their common problems and by promoting adoption of appropriate standards. It is an association of accredited schools, meets annually, publishes a journal (below, Sec. 6). Ann Arbor, Mich. Corresponding organizations in other areas include: *Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools; New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools; North West Association of Secondary and Higher Schools;* and *Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.*

Phi Delta Kappa. Founded 1906. A professional organization and an honor society devoted to research, service, and leadership in the field of education. Publishes *The Phi Delta Kappan* and *Educational Abstracts.* Homewood, Ill.

Progressive Education Association, now *American Education Fellowship.* Founded 1918. Aim is "to further the type of education which shall allow pupils the freedom to develop naturally; to make possible the utilization of the interest of the child as the motive for all work; place the teacher in the role of a guide, not a taskmaster; attend to all areas of pupil development, physical, mental, moral, and social; promote cooperation between the home and the school; place the program of the progressive school in the position of leadership." Serves as clearinghouse for information about progressive schools, works through national committees, organizes regional and annual meetings. Publishes *Progressive Education.* Washington.

Religious Education Association. Founded 1903. Objectives: "To promote moral and religious education and cooperate with all groups with similar interests." It fosters research in the field. Membership of 2,500 individuals and institutions. Publishes *Re-*

ligious Education Quarterly and *Research Monographs of the Religious Education Association.* Chicago, Ill.

Social Science Research Council. Founded 1923. Aim is "to promote the development and coordination of, and to encourage adequate technical training in research in the social sciences." It attempts to improve methods and facilities for social science research and by study of present conditions ascertain where research is most needed. It formulates major research projects, assists in getting funds for their execution. Membership includes three representatives from each of the following: American Anthropological Society, American Economic Association, American Political Science Association, American Psychological Association, American Sociological Association, American Statistical Association, and members at large. Publishes an annual report and occasional bulletins. (Recently published a series of 13 monographs concerned with needed research on the depression.) Meets twice yearly. New York.

5. Professional and Scientific Journals, Yearbooks, and Proceedings of Importance to Administrators

For the student of school administration the range of current periodical literature is wide, both in its types of subject matter and in its form of publication.[4] Weekly magazines, annual volumes, news, notices, and comments, scholarly treatises and researches, are all available in this continuous flow of new material. In the lists following, an attempt has been made to present relatively complete collections for the field of school administration, though it is obvious that there is not a sharp dividing line between the literature on school administration and that on any of a dozen other fields.

The contacts of school administrators with problems requiring reference to legal, historical, political, business, economic, sociological, psychological, and medical literature are matters of daily occurrence. Furthermore their contacts with literature devoted to teaching, supervision, counseling, curriculum work, and educational research are even more intimate. Where to stop in moving outward toward the former or inward toward

[4] Lyle W. Ashley, ed., *America's Educational Press, Fiftieth Anniversary Yearbook* of the Educational Press Association of America (Washington, the Association, 1946), 192 pp.

the latter is a matter of personal judgment. And, if one includes annuals such as yearbooks, proceedings, or committee reports, why exclude other volumes which are little if any more independent in content than a volume of proceedings?

The purpose here is to present titles of the serials that contribute with reasonable directness, regularity, and frequency to any division of the field of school administration. Enough of the regularly published annuals in the field are included to secure adequate coverage of the continuous outflow from the activities of the profession. One must know these major streams of knowledge and expression if he is ever to use them and to help shape their direction. Obvious exception is made here for the field of documents, which represents a well-established classification of its own, deserving separate treatment.

Some of the titles are of publications which many administrators will use but little. Their work with others, however, makes it necessary for them to have some knowledge of the existence of these publications, and of their offerings.

6. Bibliography of Professional and Scientific Serial Publications

Adult Education Bulletin. Founded 1936. (Supersedes "Adult Education Quarterly"). Leland P. Bradford, editor. Official organ of the Department of Adult Education of the National Education Association, Washington.

The American School Board Journal. Founded 1891. William George Bruce, editor. Published monthly by the Bruce Publishing Company, Milwaukee, Wis. Two volumes annually. Advertising pages, as well as content, provide material of value to administrators in all divisions of public school service. Many researches reported of special value in fields of business and finance.

California Journal of Secondary Education. Founded 1925 as *Quarterly Journal of Secondary Education.* Phebe Ward, editor. Since October, 1934 has been published monthly except June, July, and August by the California Society of Secondary Education, San Francisco, Cal.

The Clearing House. Founded 1925. Formerly *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House.* Title changed in 1936. Published monthly, September to May, by the Inor Publishing Company, Inc., New York. Forest E. Long, editor.

Education Abstracts. Founded 1936. Formerly *Educational Abstracts.* Published by Paul M. Cook as editor, with a board of cooperating editors, Fulton, Mo. First number was January-February, 1936. Published monthly except August. Each volume presents name and subject index of content. Valuable for hasty review of books and of literature covered by American and some foreign journals in the field. Discontinued in 1944.

Educational Administration and Supervision Including Teacher Training. Founded January, 1915. H. E. Buchholz, managing editor. Published monthly, September to May, by Warwick and York, Baltimore, Md. Presents many long articles, often with good bibliographies; also some research, opinion, and comments on problems within its field. Good book reviews and book announcements.

The Educational Forum. Founded November, 1936. E. I. F. Williams, editor. Published quarterly, George Banta Co., Menasha, Wis. Contents cover wide range; is somewhat general in treatment but is pertinent and stimulating. Exceptional for illustrations and poetry. Numerous brief book reviews and notices.

Educational Law and Administration. Founded 1932. Julius B. Tietz, editor. Published semi-annually, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Educational Research Bulletin. Founded 1922. Published by Ohio State University. W. W. Charters, editor. Serves as an organ of the College of Education, Columbus, Ohio. Began publication January, 1922; twenty-one numbers in Vol. I; more recent volumes contain fewer but larger numbers. Presents reports of researches of members of the school of education staff, also news and comments.

The Educational Record. Founded January, 1920. Clarence Stephen Marsh, editor. Published quarterly by the American Council on Education, Washington. Has served as a medium for presenting discussion of scientific, legislative, and administrative problems with which membership of the Council is concerned.

Educational Research Service. Founded 1927. Published by American Association of School Administrators and the Research Division of the National Education Association, Washington. A series of circulars as part of a total service received by subscribers.

The Educational Screen. Founded 1922. Published monthly except July and August, by The Educational Screen, Inc., Pontiac, Ill. Paul C. Reed, chairman, Chicago.

The Elementary School Journal. Founded 1900. Published monthly, September to June, by the Department of Education of the University of Chicago, Chicago.

Film Forum Review. Founded 1946 by Institute of Adult Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, in cooperation with *Na-*

tional Committee on Film Forums. Interest is Adult Education.

The Harvard Educational Review. Founded 1931. Formerly *Harvard Teachers Record.* Present title since 1937. Published quarterly (January, March, May, and October) by the Graduate School of Education of Harvard University. O. Hobart Mowner, editor.

Journal of Adult Education. Founded 1929. Morse A. Cartwright and Mary L. Ely, editors. Published four times a year by The American Association for Adult Education, Philadelphia. Presents general articles within its field, book reviews, and news.

Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars. Founded 1925. William C. Smyser, editor. Published quarterly by the Association, Menasha, Wis.

Journal of Educational Research. Founded 1920. A. S. Barr, editor. Published monthly, except June, July, and August by the Public School Publishing Co., Madison, Wis.

The Journal of Educational Sociology. Founded 1927. A magazine of theory and practice. Published monthly, September to May inclusive, by the Journal of Educational Sociology, Inc., New York.

The Journal of Higher Education. Founded 1930. R. H. Eckelberry, editor. Published monthly, except July and August by the Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women. Founded 1937. Ruth Strang, editor. Published quarterly by the Association, Washington.

The Journal of the National Education Association. Founded 1916. Joy Elmer Morgan, editor. Published monthly, except June, July, and August by the Association, Washington. Valuable for review of activities of the Association and for its news and announcements. Articles deal with wide variety of school problems. Good illustrations.

The Journal of Negro Education. Founded 1932. Charles H. Thompson, editor-in-chief. Published quarterly by the Bureau of Educational Research, College of Education, Howard University, Washington.

The Junior College Journal. Founded 1930. Leonard V. Koos, editor. Published monthly, September to May inclusive, by the American Association of Junior Colleges, Washington.

National Education Association Research Bulletin, Volume I, No. 1, January, 1923. Published five times each year by the Research Division of the National Education Association, Washington.

National Elementary School Principal. Founded 1921. W. A. Clifford, editor. Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, Inc., Washington.

The Nation's Schools. Founded 1928. Arthur B. Moehlman, editor. Published monthly by the Nation's Schools Publishing Co., Inc., Chicago. Wide range of topics treated. Short articles with practical emphasis. Well illustrated. Number of special features including news and book announcements.

The North Central Association Quarterly. Founded 1925. Published in *Proceedings* 1896-1925. Calvin O. Davis, managing editor. Published quarterly by the association, Ann Arbor, Mich.

Occupations. Founded 1922. The Vocational Guidance Magazine. Published by National Vocational Guidance Association, Inc. Issued monthly, October to May, inclusive.

Peabody Journal of Education. Founded 1923. Published bimonthly by the faculty of George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.

The Phi Delta Kappan. Founded 1919. Ralph L. Hunt, editor. Published monthly, September to May inclusive, by Phi Delta Kappa, Fulton, Mo.

Review of Educational Research. Founded 1931. Published five times yearly by the American Educational Research Association, Washington. Presents reviews of researches. Each issue is devoted to a subject and the subject is covered at intervals of three years.

The School Executive. Founded 1935, after long history under other titles. Walter D. Cocking, chm. board of editors. Published monthly by the American School Publishing Corp., Orange, Conn. Relatively short articles, news, and book reviews. Emphasis upon practical problems, presents some research. Advertising pages of special value to administrators.

School Life. (During World War II this journal used *Victory for Education* as a title.) Founded 1918. Olga A. Jones, editor. Published by United States Office of Education, Washington.

The School Review. Founded 1893. Published monthly, September to June, by the Department of Education of the University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill. Devoted to the field of secondary education.

School and Society. Founded 1915. I. L. Kandel, editor. Published weekly for the Society for the Advancement of Education, Inc. The Science Press, Lancaster, Pa. Excellent for news, research reports, and scholarly papers on live issues.

Social Education. Founded 1937. Official publication of the *National Council for the Social Studies.* Published monthly except June, July, and August, by the Council in collaboration with *The American Historical Association.* Erling M. Hunt, editor, Columbia University, New York.

Teachers College Record. Founded 1900. Max R. Brunstetter, editor. Published 8 times yearly by Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. Partly an institutional publication, but invaluable for scholarly papers on all phases of education.

Davis, Sheldon E., *Educational Periodicals During the Nineteenth Century.* Bulletin 1919, No. 28. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1919. Useful for anyone interested in the history of educational journalism in America.

7. Public Documents of Importance to Administrators

The field of public documents affords a rich mine for the administrator who desires to see his problems in the light of the larger social, economic, and educational forces and trends of the time. Reports are being issued from almost every public office—national, state, county, and municipal—in the country. Thousands of these are in print and more are pouring from the press daily, accumulating in libraries at a rate that is bewildering even to expert librarians whose business it is to classify and arrange them so that at a moment's notice a given title may be located. In size these documents vary from one page to three or four thousand pages. In content they present bare statistics, speeches, letters and other communications, bills and statutes, proceedings, administrative and court decisions, reports, historical accounts, catalogues, price lists, researches, orders, and rules, in endless variety. Their purposes are to record decisions and facts for safe keeping and to make them available for reference, to disseminate knowledge, to establish order, to give directions, and to answer endless questions. They are addressed to the public; in many cases it is a broad, but often it is a very narrow public.

No one field of scholarship, no one group of businessmen, no one professional or industrial group will ever need all of these documents. A medical research man, a public health worker, a mine operator, a manufacturer of dyes, a banker, a statistician, a biologist, a professor of rural sociology, or of astronomy, a party leader, a statesman, or a student of education, each will go to special parts of these collections for needed materials. These and a thousand other specialists will find that something has been developed and recorded in his field. The

concern of each is to know where his own materials are to be found. For this he will need to be familiar with the general organizations of documents and with any available catalogues of the collections he is most concerned with.

The student of school administration would be concerned with school statistics, with population data, with statistics of wealth, debt, and taxation, with school revenues and other public expenditures, with laws, court decisions, and regulations affecting schools, and occasionally with other data on special conditions and trends. For these he will need to go to federal, state, and local document collections. While there is but one federal collection there are forty-eight state and several hundred city, county, and district collections with which one will need some acquaintance.

To be able to find and use the data needed by a school administrator, one need not master the intricacies of the entire system by which the collections are held together. A few things he will need to know well, however, if he is to draw upon the greater technical knowledge of document librarians with whom he may consult. He will need to know that as our government has grown, two things have happened to the public documents. Some series have been dropped and others added, and many of the series have been altered or published in new forms, or under auspices of a different branch of the government. A cross section of our federal documents for 1850, or even 1900, would be vastly simpler than a like cross section for the current year. This is true, also, of state documents and even of local documents. A school executive or research worker will need to know that while many documents are published in series and appear at regular intervals, many others are separate, independent reports or records that have no connection with any series. Further, as a research worker, one must learn that such documents often have errors in them and so must be subjected to careful research scrutiny.

In what follows, an attempt is made to provide the reader with a few simple keys by use of which it should be possible to find the types of materials commonly needed from public documents by an executive or research worker in this field.

8. Guides to Federal Documents

For federal documents it must be said that there is no one key by means of which to find everything one may want. There are, however, a number of useful books, lists, and catalogues by use of which one may find his way into the documents. Most of these offer some analysis of the series and an identification tag for each document. The following list will provide considerably more than general orientation. By their use one can find his way to all the available indexes and check-lists, and so to any document for which the title, date, and source of issue are known; or in them he may search in systematic fashion for documents bearing upon a selected problem or field.

9. Reference Books, Catalogues, and Lists of Federal Documents

(See also Chapter 2, Sec. 3.)

Boyd, Ann Morris. *U. S. Government Publications as Sources of Information* (New York, the H. W. Wilson Co., 1930), 329 pp.

Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Circular of Information Concerning Census Publications, 1790-1916* (Washington, Government Printing Office, 1917), 124 pp.

——, Division of Publications. *List of Publications of the Department of Commerce,* published annually (Washington, Government Printing Office).

Superintendent of Documents. *Catalog of the Public Documents of the U. S. and of all Departments of the Government of the U. S.* (Washington, Government Printing Office). Published biennially until the 73rd Congress. Previous to the 74th Congress it included congressional documents only. It is now published annually.

—— *Checklist of U. S. Public Documents, 1789-1909.* Vol. I. (No later volume has yet appeared). Congressional: to close of 60th Congress; Departmental: to end of calendar year 1909. (Washington, Government Printing Office, 1911), 1707 pp.

—— *Monthly Catalog of U. S. Public Documents,* with prices (Washington, Government Printing Office). Valuable for finding most recent materials. There is also now being published a semimonthly list.

United States Office of Education. "List of Publications of the Office of Education, 1867-1910." *Bulletin 1910, No. 3*; same title, 1910-

1936, *Bulletin 1937, No. 22.* The latter also contains a list of the publications of the former Federal Board for Vocational Education.

Wilcox, Jerome K. *U. S. Reference Publications: A Guide to the Current Reference Publications of the Federal Government* (Boston, Faxon, 1931-32). 96 pp. and supplement, 136 pp.

10. Guides to State and Local Documents

From state to state, and from city to city, there is wide variety in numbers and in plan of publication of documents; the types of materials issued, however, are not so unlike. School laws, court actions, educational reports, financial data, health data, revenue laws, special institution reports, and many other materials are provided quite generally by states. For cities there is variation with size and for counties there is variation especially in the extent and thoroughness with which reports are made. For this field, however, there are some helpful guides, among which the following will be found useful. Also, the above list of general guides to federal documents will be helpful.

11. Reference Books and Guide Books

Bowker, Richard R. *State Publications: A Provisional List of the Official Publications of the Several States of the U. S. From Their Organization* (New York, Publisher's Weekly, 1899-1909), 4 vols.

Clarke, Edith E. *Guide to the Use of U. S. Government Publications* (Boston, Faxon, 1918), 308 pp.

Library of Congress, Division of Documents. *Monthly Checklist of State Publications, 1910-date* (Washington, Government Printing Office).

12. Selected List of Documents

No attempt is made to present a complete list of public documents, though certain collections are of such importance as to warrant an attempt to give a representative sampling. Among federal documents, every school administrator should be familiar with publications of the Office of Education, with a substantial number of those from the Census Bureau, and with

a few others such as are here listed. A working knowledge of the above-listed guides and a familiarity with the following collections should enable one to find his way.

I. United States Office of Education

(For special guides to this collection see Sec. 9 under list of federal documents and guides, above.)

Annual Report of the Commissioner. 1867 to 1917, after which change was made to *Biennial Survey of Education.* For some irregularities and changes in the plan of publication and for details of the series with full statement of content of each report see titles in Sec. 9, above. Generally appeared as two volumes, one devoted to statistics of education in the United States and foreign countries, the other to discussion of developments in all fields. Represents a chronicle of all important happenings in education, public, private, and parochial in the United States since the founding of the Office of Education.

Annual Statements of the Commissioner. Annually from 1887 to 1920, followed by Annual Report of the Commisisoner to 1932, after which these brief statements of the activities of the office have appeared only in the reports of the Secretary of the Interior.

Official Circulars and Circulars of Information. These continued to appear from soon after the founding of the office to 1903. Close to 300 circulars appeared. They included reprints from the Commissioner's Report; important public addresses; reports on foreign schools; current issues affecting public school policy; discussions of current problems such as school architecture, teacher training, and the relation of education to labor and to industry; proceedings from educational meetings; descriptions of school systems; and many histories of state school systems.

Bulletin, 1906-date. This series of bulletins has provided a continuous flow of material from the technical staff of the commissioner's office and from specialists employed. In all, over 1,100 issues had appeared at the end of 1940. The series has included the official directory (see Chapter 2, Sec. 3, VI), many bibliographies and lists of current publications; summaries of legislation and court decisions in states; statistics of schools and school systems; general discussion of current problems in education; researches on a wide range of problems; discussions and reports on foreign school systems and activities; and many surveys of city, county, and state school systems and special institutions.

Miscellaneous publications, in considerable numbers. From their content and treatment many of these could as well have been classed as circulars or bulletins though many were of passing

value only. A considerable number of new series of circulars has been published in recent years. These include:

(a) A mimeographed series called *Circular.* These are brief, cover a wide range of current problems, but are useful for the time.

(b) *Higher Education Circular.* This appeared 1916-1928, 34 numbers, and covered a variety of problems then current. They are brief.

(c) *Industrial Education Circular.* Of this 29 numbers appeared 1919-1929.

(d) *Kindergarten Circular.* Of this 18 numbers appeared 1917-1925.

(e) Several lesser series on special topics. Several short series of *Leaflets;* a series of health studies, 1923-1929; 36 *Reading Courses,* 1923-1932; and a series of *Pamphlets,* 1930-date, have been published. Besides these series of documents, the Office publishes the magazine *School Life.*

Federal Board for Vocational Education. Founded 1917 and transferred to the Interior Department in 1933, as the Vocational Division of the Office of Education. Its publications, 1917-1933, included:

(a) *Annual Report* 1917-1932. 1933 and later reports were mimeographed.

(b) *Bulletin 1917-date.* To 1933 the series contained 166 titles. Publication has continued.

Since 1933 other series, *Leaflets, Miscellaneous,* and *Monographs,* have been added.

II. Census Bureau

Selected Publications from the 15th Census Reports.

Abstract of the Fifteenth Census—1930. 968 pp. Contains for continental United States most essential statistics from the census reports on population, agriculture, manufacture, mines and quarries, etc.

Statistical Abstract of the United States—1946. 1,039 pp. Relates to social and economic condition of the population and to the industrial, commercial, and governmental activities of the nation.

Population (Sixteenth-1940—Census)

Vol. I. Number of Inhabitants

Vol. II. *Characteristics of the Population* (in 7 Parts, presented by states)

Vol. III. *The Labor Force;* showing occupation, industry, employment and income by states (in 5 Parts, presented by states)

Vol. IV. *Population—Characteristics by Age* (in 3 Parts)

Truesdell, Leon E., and Riddleberger, Olive M., supervisors, *Topical Index of Population Census Reports 1900-1930* (Washington, Bureau of the Census, 1934), 76 pp.

Classified Index of Occupations—1940. 199 pp.

Agriculture. 3 vols. (Vols. II and III, each in several parts). See especially, the volume entitled *General Report.*

Manufactures. 3 vols.

Of interest also are:

Unemployment (Fifteenth Census)

Vol. I. Unemployment—Returns by Classes
Vol. II. Unemployment—General Report

Distribution. 2 vols.

Financial Statistics of States—Data for 1945 available but not in final form at this time. Published annually for many years but lapsed 1932-36 inclusive. Covers data similar to that in Financial Statistics of Cities.

Financial Statistics of Cities—1945 data now available but not in final form at this time. Includes cities of over 100,000 population. Previous reports have included other groups of cities. Covers revenues, expenditures, indebtedness, assessed value of taxable properties, tax levies, and value of specified assets at close of year.

Vital Statistics of the United States—1940—Parts I and II. See especially, the volume, *Vital Statistics Rates in the United States, 1900-1940.*

PART II

THE LITERATURE AND PROBLEMS OF PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

Chapter 5

OUR THEORY OF PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

1. Theories of Public Schools and of Their Administration Not Entirely Separable

Our theory of public education and our theory of public school administration are, to the superficial eye, separate matters. One is concerned with the nature of education as a public service in our government, the other with the process of organizing and managing that service. Closer examination of the two philosophies reveals, however, that they are but two aspects, phases, or expressions of a theory that explains the institution as a whole. The theory by which public education is operated has to be fully consistent with the theory upon which it has been instituted, since the law that creates the school gives it form and purpose, and the law that gives it purpose and form fixes the machinery of operation and the ends to which operations are carried on. This leaves carrying on (administration) so predetermined that any action out of alignment with the major theory would almost certainly cause friction and tend to defeat public education.

A theory of public education would be concerned with the question of why we should have public schools, schools run by the government, and with the question of the objectives toward which they would strive. Such a study would have to examine the nature of the state and of the state's relation to the individual. The kind of state would inevitably dictate the kind of education that state would want. If the state is an expression of the will of the people, that is one thing; if it is something superimposed upon the people, that is different. If the state and people are one, then the interests of the people would be

conserved by all the state's governmental and educational policies. If the state came first, as something external and super to the people, then educational policies might or might not safeguard the interests of individuals. What, then, does the nature of our state imply for our school policy? This becomes the first major question.[1]

Here we examine the theories of democracy and of our representative government to see precisely how our state is subject to, rather than master over, the people, and to see how our two concepts are reflected in the behavior and processes of the state. Democracy may safeguard rights and insure the freedom of the people, or it may go further and guarantee equal opportunity to all. With us, democracy tries to do both. In doing both we must ask whether our representative government is equal to the task, and in any case how far we are to go with these purposes. Answers to these questions set certain limits and point the way for a theory of state schools (public or the people's schools).

When the plan of public education is drawn up it not only sets up purposes but outlines a program of instruction and a plan for putting the program into effect. This brings us to the problem: Suppose the people—the state—want democracy and, for this, a suitable program of education. Then who is to go to school, for how long, and under what circumstances? Democracy requires governmental and instructional machinery to make it effective. Is it possible that the state may want something which, because of the nature of the individual (psychologically or biologically) or of society, cannot be produced by instruction? Can government, the people, set up and carry on a school program that defies the laws of learning or of health or personality development? Or does our scheme of public education always respect what science has to offer on the question of educational objectives and programs and on how to organize and direct them? Shall the truth, or the government, decide action in case they do not agree?

[1] Jesse B. Sears, "Our Theory of Public School Support," *School and Society* (Jan. 18, 1936), Vol. 43, pp. 73-84.

It is in this relation of education to the process by which education is produced that one comes upon factors of management that help to shape the nature of the education itself, just as the nature of the education tends to dictate how it is to be managed. Public education, after all, has to be the kind of education science reveals to us as possible, and the kind which the practical circumstances of life make it possible to produce. Thus, our theory of public education is concerned not only with a theory of state—society—school relationships; it is also concerned with the theory of education itself, and with our theory of the organization and management of it.

2. How Our Theories Have Been Developed

In the United States we have been accustomed to the idea of a free school, operating under state law but having the characteristics, and to a large extent the powers, of a local neighborhood enterprise. We have thought of the federal government as having virtually nothing to say and as doing little to carry out the plan we have. It is usually a surprise to the beginner to discover that in the matter of building a system of free schools—deciding who is to shape its purposes, plan its program, organize it, control its operations, finance it—there are many unsettled problems, at points even substantial unrest, as to how to carry on. This unrest he finds is due to many causes, one of the largest being the school's lack of funds to carry on locally and no available plan for shifting costs in ways to relieve the local strain. Yet, fearing that control may follow support, the local community and the state fear to draw too much upon the federal treasury.

All through our history we have clung to the idea of free schools and have developed them throughout the country quite without respect to the educational pioneering of our churches, of private enterprise, and of philanthropy. In this development we have held to the idea of the school as primarily a local enterprise. In matters of control, however, one item after another has been shifted from control by the district to the county or (even more) to the state.

The truth is that from the outset we have never had a completely formulated theory of a free school system to guide us. Our plan has grown, Topsy-like, year by year under many pressures. While certain principles have been developed, such as those of free schools, compulsory attendance, and no recognition of social classes, we have urgent problems still unsolved, which would seem to indicate that we are very far from having a well-formed theory, to say nothing of a complete working plan of control.

The problem, partly noted above, as to whether the state can ever be in conflict with science or the knowledge of education, needs study. Must the school follow science, and if so, must the state that created the school leave the school as the master of its own fate? This would mean that the school is not a tool or an instrument of the state but in reality a part of the state, with power to carry out its function. Here is a political as well as school administrative problem. In what sense can we permit independence to the school to follow the lead of science and operate independently within its realm? We must have some theory of how this realm is related to, and separate from, other parts of the state.

Developing a theory of free public schools is by no means a simple problem. Being public, the schools are themselves a feature of the state, a part of our government. Being free, their plan of support becomes a feature of our system of public finance. Our state is attempting to achieve democracy. To this end it uses a representative system of government; it provides for the widest freedom to individuals and to groups in matters of religion, speech, the press, and assembly; it protects the reasonable privacy of family and personal life, and encourages all types of cultural activities. It attempts to put the people before the state. Thus, being related to both the state and to the life of the people, it would be necessary for our theory of public education to be consistent with our theory of the state and with our theory of democracy, upon which our state is based. What we teach our young will later motivate our citizens. What shall that be? How we manage our schools—children, books, curriculums, teachers, playgrounds, housing,

community contacts—will be influential in shaping children for life in our state and democracy. What kind of management shall we use?

By such reasoning it is apparent that our theory of control for our free school system must harmonize with our social and political philosophies. It must be a theory that is consistent for control of the activities of children in the classroom and on the playground at one extreme, and for the gross administrative structure with its federal and state laws and regulations at the other.

3. An Approach to a Theory of School Administration

If we accept the above concept of the nature and place of public education in our government, then upon what sort of theory may we develop a scheme for administering that school system? A theory of administration must necessarily take account of the purposes it is to serve, the nature of the work essential to be done to attain these purposes, the authority and the understandings that are required to perform the work, the external circumstances and conditions that may set limitations to the work or to the processes by which the work may be performed, and the nature of the processes by which the work is performed.

It may clarify the claims of each of these factors to a place in our theory if, taking them in the same order, we note the following: what the public wants is what it tries to get. That gives us aim or purpose. To attain our purpose we have to do work. The purpose determines what the work must be. Education, being the purpose of the state, will require the authority of the state to do the necessary work. But one can attain a purpose only by doing the right work and he must know how to do the work, so knowledge is needed along with authority. Any work, like conducting schools, is carried on by use of materials and people and must meet with social approval, so will have to be carried on with proper regard for these external materials, circumstances, attitudes, and conditions. To do the work of providing schools one has to understand the nature of

the processes essential to the performance of that work. Thus, the guiding principles of administration are found to be rooted as much back in the nature of the state and the state's will to have schools, and in the science of education, as it is in the nature of management itself.

One may build up the system of administration from either of two opposing standpoints: (a) as a power and process separate from, independent of, and superior to, the service administered, or (b) as a power and process determined by the nature of the service administered. In the former the system is devised in terms of principles derived in large part from a study of administration itself; in the latter, from principles derived in large part from a study of the service, and in lesser part from a study of management at work in the service. In the former (a) the system in a manner is self-sufficient and is imposed upon the service; in the latter it is drawn from, and in a manner subject to, the service. There can be, of course, many odd mixtures of these two concepts of the nature of an administrative system. Since the two are directly opposite it is obvious that any mixture of them must inevitably produce conflict within the system.

In entering upon the study of school administration one is apt to find his approach somewhat dominated by his past observations and experiences, possibly including some prejudices, or some partly developed ideology. This is almost inevitable because of the nature of this field of study. Where a study of facts points to several possible conclusions or where the facts are interpreted with reference to different goals there will likely be differences of opinion as to choice of action. To learn to deal with facts and to reason logically in face of our emotions, prejudices, and habits is one reason we go to college. Unless one learns this he will have little hope of becoming an educational statesman or anything more than a mechanic in administration.

Having in mind the above analysis of the nature of our system of schools it remains for us to examine administration at closer range. To appreciate that administration is complicated one needs only to consider the ends it seeks to achieve as a part

of the government service; the personnel and the properties it has to plan for, organize, manage, and care for; the nature of the administrative process itself; and all of these in terms of how they may be made to contribute to the success of learning for widely varied populations of children.

The authority of law is an essential element in public school administration. What is the nature of this legal power when placed in the hands of an employee to use; and who should command its application to the various tasks of maintaining schools? Is there danger that it may be used badly as well as wisely? How can the use of legal authority be held to proper account?[2] But law is not all. To settle most questions we have also to use facts and reasoning. This gives us two forms of authority with which to operate the administrative machine, law and knowledge. Where and when to use the one or the other is not always quite clear, and if it were, the right choice or the right way to combine the two in a given case might not be the easiest or the quickest way for the one in legal control to achieve the ends he desires. Then there is the factor of tradition and public attitude. These cannot be set aside ruthlessly in a democracy. The power of law, of knowledge, of tradition and public opinion are not turned on and off easily, for they must flow to their tasks through a complicated system of channels and under control of many people, each person an individual, regardless of whether he may be also an officer and a part of a system of management.

The complexity of administration is due not alone to the nature of the authority or to the kinds of power it employs, but also to the complexity of the administrative task, the work to be done. It is no simple task to build and operate a system of schools that is faithful to the purposes of the state, that is consistent with the science of education, that fits the cultural needs of the community in question, that in its own organization and life expresses our social ideals and purposes, and that fits the specific needs of those for whom it is provided. It takes

[2] Jesse B. Sears, "Administrative Discretion vs. (or with) Rules and Regulations," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (May, 1943), Vol. XXIX, pp. 257-283.

money, and this means taxation and maybe public debt. It takes property of many sorts—buildings, play fields, apparatus, supplies, all in great variety. It takes personnel, trained in the varied tasks of instruction, care, safety, and management. It takes extensive systems of records and forms, of regulations and routines. All these are not ends but means, and to employ or purchase, to care for and use them properly, is a complicated business.

In addition to the problems of authority, and the variety of work to be done, there is still a third phase to the complexity of administration: the complexity of the administrative process itself. The casual observer is apt to think of administration as giving orders to others, and of the administrator as one who has law back of him to apply at will. He is apt to distinguish the administrator from other members of a school staff by thinking of him as giving, and of all others as receiving and executing, orders. This is far from correct. Giving orders is important, yet this is but one phase of the total process, the phase which we call directing.

Orders have to be formulated before they are given and this may require long study. Study may be, not by the administrator alone, but also by many other employees more expert in the matter at issue. Thus, administration often must go to those who are to take the orders, for help in formulating the orders they later are to execute. This aspect of administration is called planning.

A third aspect of the administration is that of organizing. One cannot direct the execution of a big task without some arrangements whereby the helpers are assigned to the various tasks. We call this division of labor. The object is to get orderly procedure and effective performance. We organize the staff, the work to be done, the children, the buildings, the curriculum, the record and accounting systems, the programs of classroom work, and many other details.

A fourth aspect of the administrative process may be called coordination. Where many are working at a single task it is necessary that each shall play his part in a manner that keeps the work moving as a whole. Movements must be fitted to-

gether in time, they must harmonize as to amounts done, as to quality, and often as to place. Administration has the task of maintaining this harmony—not only in the movements of staff members, but between planning and execution, in timing the provision of materials to the needs of the program, and in thousands of ways, if the learning of the children is to go forward harmoniously.

Finally, there is a fifth aspect of the administrative process, called control. There is control by authority, often effected through rules which define policies, set up norms and standards, define functions, and establish procedures. There is control through facts developed by investigation and often applied in fixing standards, and control through social usage—professional ethics, social proprieties, customs, manners, and speech. Without the continuous effectiveness of these controls there would be no real management.

Direction, planning, organization, coordination, and control are types of administrative activity. Each is suited to the performance of certain kinds of tasks. Each is carried out by procedures and techniques peculiar to its own nature and these will vary from task to task. If one is a good administrator he will not use authority to do what can better be done by knowledge; he will not try to do by directing what he should have done by planning or by having a control policy; he will not be busy with coordinating activities that should have been effectively held together by organization.

Although one may discover many guiding principles by a study of each of these separate phases of the administrative process as such, he would find such principles false and misleading if they were not in harmony with our theory of the state and of the public school as an instrument of the state for social control and social progress. For instance, in our form of state the concept of democracy forbids the use of authority in an autocratic way. Our organization, our controls, our directing, our planning, and our coordinating must be democratic processes. With us the state wants education for all and so forbids the exclusion of those who do not fit in with the program we have. If the state compels attendance the school must

have something worth learning to offer to all who come. The state wants citizens who understand and can practice free speech in a land where freedom of self respects the freedom of others. This has a great bearing upon how we organize and manage the children, the employees, and the properties of a school system.

The attempt here is not to offer the reader a ready-made theory of administration but only to suggest an approach by which he may find his own way in building one for himself. A theory learned from a book is but a borrowed recipe; one constructed by the learner remains a guiding power in his work. Except where there is a law to guide him, anyone who works without a theory works without an understanding—which may as often mean that one is guided by personal likes, whims, or outworn tradition, as that he is very ingenious and skillful. Neither back-slapping nor bossing is a proper substitute for sound application of fact and principle.

4. Some Problems of Theory

From the beginning problems of theory have concerned our statesmen and our leading educators, and considerable literature has been devoted to a consideration of them. While most discussions have dealt with the practical aspects of control, a few at least have considered what might be called our theory of public school control, with such questions as the following:

1. What ends should we attempt to serve through an organized system of free public schools? That is, how does our program of instruction contribute to the building of a strong and happy and prosperous nation, people, society?

2. Should these ends be set up once for all, or be thought of as moving in harmony with changes and developments in other phases of our culture? What are these other phases, and upon what theory may such reinterpretations and revisions be worked out as they may be needed?

3. If the government accomplishes its educational goals, will the processes necessary for this ever be inconsistent with the dictates of

science; e.g., are truth and democracy consistent with each other, as our government interprets democracy?

4. Must the system of support dominate the system of controls, or can the two systems be developed somewhat independently?

5. To what extent should controls over education be through separate school agencies or officers and to what extent should its controls be entrusted to officers and agencies responsible primarily for government services other than education?

6. In what sense is compulsory school attendance an implication of our theory of public schools? Similarly, how does state teacher education reflect the theory?

7. Could compulsory consolidation of small districts become a true expression of our theory? Compare the possible results of compulsory with voluntary consolidation upon educational progress.

8. How may a system of controls and responsibilities be designed, to the end that the instructional process will at all points be facilitated and not stifled by it? That is, how can we design a system of controls over the whole that is consistent with the system of child instruction, care, and management in the classroom?

9. What controls should we establish through law and what through man by administration? By what theory is this division to be made?

10. If knowledge is essential in school administration, and if science is consistent with our educational purposes, then should not our theory provide for a free and responsible flow of knowledge as it does for a flow of delegated authority in the system of controls?[3]

11. Two contrasting concepts of the nature and development of the administrative system are set forth above. In what concrete ways may one expect each of these to facilitate and in what ways may their misuse defeat the proper use of the principle of democracy?

12. Does the above analysis of the administrative process into five separate types of activity alter the proposition that the principles of administration are to be found mainly by a study of the

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[3] For a discussion of this problem see the author's "Analysis of School Administrative Controls," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (Sept., 1934), Vol. 22, pp. 401-430.

service to be administered and only in part from a study of the administrative power, mechanism, and process?

5. Any Sound Theory Must Take Account of Social Change and of Scientific Developments in the Field

Before directing a search for answers to such questions as the above, the reader should be warned against the dangers of trying to develop a perfect philosophy of free schools for America, and especially against the dangers of trying to express such a philosophy in a concrete plan of controls designed to last forever.

It is of the essence of our social philosophy to recognize social change. In our social evolution, change has been and will be a dominant factor. If, through schools, we provide for the development and exercise of intelligence and for free inquiry, we are sure to make discoveries that will produce social change. Our task, then, is not to learn a philosophy that is ready made, nor is it to crystallize one from isolated facts and principles, at least not in the sense of settling interpretations for all time. Rather, it is the task of working continuously through life, generation after generation. The task is to interpret the moving stream of fact, experience, and principle, through which the nature and meaning of life for the individual and for society are revealed, and to find and apply the implications of these for our scheme of education.

Thus, one essential element of our philosophy must be that it is always building but never completed. It must be our destiny, the destiny of a democratic people, to search forever but never find quite all. Our objective is continuous work at the building of a philosophy, to which task we bring a growing understanding of life and of learning.

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Chapter 6

THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT AND EDUCATION

1. The Historical Background of Federal Action in Education

In early colonial America, education was not so much a public or governmental as it was a family, community, and church concern. In 1642, however, the Massachusetts colony made education a concern of the General Court—the state. In 1647 this colony passed a law that made both education and the school a concern of the state. A slightly different development took place in the southern and central colonies, yet this New England idea of education as a public service finally prevailed. At the same time, conditions of life, as well as European traditions, kept the school itself a local enterprise. Pioneer life prevailed through colonial times and far beyond and the idea of local control and support for schools was used because practically everything favored that concept and almost nothing stood in its way.[1]

When the federal government was established, education was not a problem which demanded its attention. Even when education was mentioned as a problem there was no thought of disturbing the old settled position of the school as a community institution. Because the federal constitution said nothing of schools or even of education, the control of schools remained with the states, which generally accepted the district or community as mainly responsible for the school's development and operation. Later, by the tenth amendment of the Constitution, this implication was established as law and the federal govern-

[1] E. A. Morphet, "Relationships of Education to Government," The National Society for the Study of Education, *Forty-fourth Yearbook*, Part II, (1945), pp. 153-186.

ment withdrew from even a vague possible responsibility for education.

Educational problems were discussed early in Congress and efforts were made to engage the federal government in educational activities such as a national university. In time, education appeared as an indirect interest. In 1785 the federal public land policy made use of the idea of granting land to communities (later to states) for the support of schools. This was not a national education policy, but only a part of a national policy to get settlers onto the vast public lands as a means of holding them and of developing a nation. This was the beginning of a long line of grants, which later included money grants. At first these grants set no limitations designed to shape educational policies. Almost at once, however, there followed grants for certain types of institutions (normal schools, agricultural and mechanical colleges), and later for certain types of instructional programs (Smith-Hughes). Recently through PWA, CCC, and NYA we have seen other variations in what one might think of as definite national activities in education.

From the outset, the federal government had to operate schools in the District of Columbia and within half a century from its founding it had established a military and a naval school and a department (later a bureau and now an office) of education. Each of these lines of activity has seemed to bring the federal government closer and closer to the task of education. This trend has been accentuated by federal educational activities in our outlying possessions and by our direct responsibility for Indian education.

In the meantime, education has become popular, compulsory attendance has been established by states, and labor laws protecting children have been enacted. Together these forces have increased the school population, and so, the cost of education to the communities. The growing complexity of the instructional program has added greatly to these rising costs. To this high cost the first reaction was to spread the tax base to enlist wider areas of support. Consolidation of small districts, county support, and finally state support, all have been tried. Even in these movements, which have gone haltingly enough, no final

solution to high cost is in evidence. By the end of the last century it was apparent that federal aid was the only complete solution possible and a movement to that end has been developing force. See Chapter 9 for a consideration of the financing of public education.

2. The Policy of Expediency

In this experience no clear or continuous national policy can be seen. The people have had many tasks under way together. Building a nation was not simple, building individual states was not simple, and local government has had to deal with many hard problems. Designing a plan of education to fit a rapidly growing population and a radically changing life was not simple. Developing a national economy to fit our needs was not simple. Developing a sound social regimen was not simple.

By circumstances we have not been well situated or conditioned for philosophizing about the jumbled, changing life of our times. Problems have come so fast that we have become accustomed to dealing with each issue as it arises and in terms of circumstances and pressures rather than theories.[2] Even now we seem to face more rather than less disturbance of the factors that should underlie a basic policy for building our scheme of education. Expediency rather than a carefully developed theory of how to manage public education seems still to be our guide.

Should we have a definite policy, or is it wiser to suit our action to the situation as it arises? In the way of forming a policy there are difficulties. Tradition favoring local control of schools is a powerful force opposing any federal control of our schools. Lack of experience or tested knowledge of how the federal government could play an effective part may well cause us to make haste slowly. The proneness of all governments to ignore adaptations of action to needs of individual cases, in favor of standardized and formalized rules of action, might well cause us to hesitate. The factor of social change, so diffi-

[2] J. Harold Goldthorp, "Some Unsolved Problems in Federal Grants-in-Aid," *The American School Board Journal* (Dec., 1941), Vol. 103, pp. 13-15, 59.

cult to adjust to in a community, county, or state, would present an even greater difficulty in federal management. And, finally, our ideals of liberty seem safer to the people when the control of it is close to them than when control is far away. This feeling may reveal our prejudice or ignorance, but it seems to exist as a practical force. Thus, fearing federal control and liking local control, we prefer no more federal action in education than is necessary and so have little interest in developing an effective federal policy.

Because the question has not been pressing until recently, or because we lack adequate knowledge and experience, we have not been able to think this problem through.[3] Possibly expediency is the wisest policy; yet, unless we are sure of that we would be wise to assume that a positive policy is desirable. The fact that a people cannot plan for eternity should not deter them from planning for a decade.

In spite of having no federal policy we should remember that accumulative experience tends to establish policy. Our experience shows that whereas at first the federal subsidies and grants were made without control, the recent ones have attached substantial control. Whether or not this is a policy by declaration it clearly is policy by practice and no one can deny that the trend is pronounced.[4]

3. Analysis of Federal Activities in Education

Omitting reference to work done in many departments of the government that had important indirect educational bearing, such, notably, as that of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, the federal govenrment has contributed to education in a number of ways. It has contributed to the support of schools; it has operated schools, as above noted; it has granted aid to students; it has carried on research and surveys; it has compiled extensive information and pub-

[3] Symposium on Centralizing Tendencies in American Education (in Association of American Universities, *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the Forty-second Annual Conference, 1940,* pp. 65-97).

[4] A. B. Moehlman, "Popular Control of Education Is Vital to Democracy," *The Nation's Schools* (Aug., 1942), Vol. 30, p. 13.

lished and distributed it to the profession; it has appointed two notable committees to study and report upon what should be the place of the federal government in education. A third, The President's Commission on Higher Education, established July, 1946, is now at work and will report soon. Through many of these activities the federal government has exercised a certain amount of control by attaching conditions to its grants of land and money.

No one questions the importance of these contributions, but many point to the insidious intrusion of danger from the use of that method of control. They ask: Are we to let the federal government strangle local control by buying (through conditional gifts) its way to the privilege of specifying kinds and amounts of schooling to be offered to our people? Noting the fact that federal agencies such as CCC and NYA operated through specially designed lay organizations and not through existing educational machinery, some seemed to believe that the federal government was making a serious bid for control of schools by setting up a somewhat parallel system.[5] It seems more the way it is being done than what is being done that concerns the critics.

4. The Problem as It Now Stands

In view of the present situation then, it seems reasonable to assume that this question of federal educational control is going to grow rapidly in importance and that school administrators of the near future cannot afford to remain ignorant of its many angles. It is not enough to study trends, to note the tendency to indirect types of federal control, to criticize certain federal officers for what appears to be an attempt to "put over" a federal system of schools, or to blame Congress for not establishing a department of education, or for not making huge outright grants to the states for school support. It is going to take more than negative criticism to find a sound solution and school

[5] See: Bibliography, below. Also, American Educational Research Association, *Research on the Foundations of American Education,* Official Report, 1939, pp. 27-35 (two papers debating the question of federal control).

administrators have an obligation for leadership in what is done.[6]

The situation seems to be that we cannot provide equality of educational opportunity over the country without some financial assistance to the weaker states.[7] So far no one has suggested a way to provide that assistance except by federal aid.[8] Plans for such aid have been proposed to Congress, but so far such aid has been withheld. It has been argued that such aid could be provided in a way that would not involve federal control. But to bring this about, political methods and motives have to be reckoned with in our government. Congressmen are interested in efficiency, but they also are interested in all the consequences of their votes and speeches. To vote money to the states with no say as to the details of its use in school support is apt to sound like a rather casual spending of public funds. A vote for something that entails no control which can be turned to account for the party, or for the voter either, seems rather idealistic to a politician. He might well ask, Are we to assume that the states are both honest and wise? Why question these qualities in Congress and assume their existence in a legislature? This is merely one angle to the task of getting congressional action.

Another angle to the situation is seen in the demand for a cabinet post for education. Many believe that education is now too minor a concern of the federal government and that there is urgent need for giving it a larger place in federal affairs. Some feel that this might tend to put education more and more into politics and that it would lead to federalization of schools and destruction of the element of localism. Others, however, believe that such a step would merely enlarge the opportunity for legitimate and highly desirable leadership in the federal Office of Education.

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[6] John K. Norton, "Changing Federal Relations to Education," *New York State Education* (Dec., 1944), Vol. 32, pp. 179-181.

[7] W. C. Bagley, "Federal Aid for Education from a Southern Point of View," *School and Society* (Jan. 27, 1945), Vol. 61, pp. 52-53.

[8] George F. Zook, "Federal Government's Responsibility for Education," *Harvard Educational Review* (May, 1944), Vol. 14, pp. 173-181.

These problems have long been dealt with in our educational literature. Practical tasks which might have engaged the interest of the federal government have been discussed, and some have been implemented by national legislation. Educational activities that have been entered upon by the federal government have been discussed, along with general principles or theories relative to federal participation. As indicated by the bibliographies following, the history of these activities has been written, and a vast literature covering government activities has been developed.

For the student who desires to contribute effectively to educational administration these backgrounds of the present must be understood. Obviously, no one plan of educational control can last us forever. Yet, there may be certain principles that are basic for a longer period of time, even in the face of rapid social change. The leaders of the profession should be familiar with present federal purposes, machinery, and activities in education. These are widely varied and quite extensive. One cannot know the present status without knowing how the existing purposes, framework, and activities have come about. One needs also to know the trends, if there are any, and their relations to whatever forces or conditions there are that seem to account for them. Only on the basis of such knowledge can one hope to contribute to future solutions of problems that may arise.

Answers to, or at least some light upon, such questions as the following can be found in the readings appended below.

1. What is the history of federal land grants to education? What types of educational activities have such lands helped to support? What limitations were put upon the uses of those lands? To what extent have they covered the cost of the services they were designed to aid? What is the present status of the endowments they established for the different states? What future federal land grants, if any, may education hope to receive?

2. What is the history of federal money grants for the support of schools? What controls has the federal government exercised

over such grants? To what extent have such grants resulted in the development of new types of educational service?

3. What is the history of federal contributions to education during the depression of the 30's? In such developments as the CCC and NYA is there a trend toward developing national plans of education? How may such developments affect present state and local programs?

4. Is the inequality in the abilities of states to support schools clearly established by facts? What is the nature of the problem as presented in different states, such as Arkansas, Alabama, North Carolina, Iowa, New York, Utah, and California?

5. What stands in the way of legislation for federal support for schools? How would the congressmen from each of the above-mentioned states be likely to vote? Does the principle of local self-government or the principle of state's rights influence such legislation?

6. Upon what lines of reasoning can one base a claim for federal aid? Can such aid be had without carrying with it some loss of state control? Would some federal control be more objectionable than beneficial to education if sentiment and prejudice could be left out?

7. What change in federal relations to education is implied in the recent reorganization of the executive departments of the governments with its change in control over the Office of Education? What are the merits of the demand for, and objections to, having a Department of Education?

5. Bibliography on the Place of the Federal Government in Education

The literature on this problem is widely scattered. Many publications devoted mainly to other phases of administration contain valuable facts bearing upon federal participation in education and especially in school support. The reader should turn to Chapter 9, on "Financing Public Education," to Chapter 5, on "Our Theory of Public School Administration"; and to the section of Chapter 3 dealing with the Historical Background of Education. Such journals as *School and Society;* the *Journal*

of the National Education Association, and the older *Educational Review;* the *Proceedings* of the National Education Association; and the *Reports* and *Yearbooks* of the American Association of School Administrators will all provide representative discussions of pertinent questions in this field, year by year.

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Chapter 7

STATE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

1. The Rise of State Control of Education

It has been noted above that when the American colonies were first settled, education was treated much as it had been treated in the mother countries. Primarily it was a family concern, or at most a church or a community one.[1] In time, however, neglect of schooling brought the question before the colonial government. Laws, such as those of 1642 and 1647 of Massachusetts, reveal how the concept of state control of education was born. This idea spread early throughout the colonies. There is no evidence that the people treated the matter as anything more than one more practical problem to be solved.

To assume power to command the family or community to care for the education of its children is very different from the task of laying out a plan of education and arranging for its operation and its financing. Once the state touched the problem there was the question of where its responsibilities should end. For a government to declare that *there shall be schools* means for it to declare also where the schools shall exist, who is to be responsible for them, what and whom they are for, and how they shall be financed. Questions of who may teach, what subjects shall be taught, who may or must attend, and what textbooks may be used, quickly follow, and, in turn, lead to questions of still more intimate contact with details.

When the nation was born, the colonies now become states were already busily engaged in operating many services. Among these, for some of the states, were schools. As a state expands its controls, it touches more and more details and soon reaches the point where enforcement of its will calls for officers spe-

[1] William Clayton Bower, *Church and State in Education* (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1944).

cially chosen to administer the controls that exist in constitution or in statutes. Thus, state commissioners or superintendents and state boards of education were inevitable. These officials were to refine the contacts of the state with the local community; to lead rapidly to new problems, these to new laws, and these to still more state administration.

The federal government accepted what the states were doing as the best plan for schools and neither asked for nor received power to alter what was being done. Later, by the Tenth Amendment to the Constitution, this position was confirmed and the concept of state control over schools was made definite in law. At the same time, the federal government clearly looked upon education as essential and took occasion—first, incident to the development of its national land policy, and later quite directly—to contribute to the development of educational facilities. While the line of cleavage between state and federal government has been reasonably clear, yet the actions of the federal government have created many problems for state school administration.[2]

2. Social Change and the Growth of State School Systems

When state control over schools began, life was vastly different from what it is today. We had no large cities and no industrial life in the present sense. We had no shifting of population except from settled to frontier parts. Wealth, relatively evenly distributed, was mainly land, domestic animals, crops, mines, a few ships, and trade facilities. Communication and news dissemination were slow and limited. Education had much tradition but no science back of it; teachers were little trained and had very little leadership. Support for schools was local and meager.

Through the years all this has vastly changed. State legislation has expanded to meet many kinds of problems, from kindergarten to university. Laws have centered about purposes

[2] Educational Policies Commission, *Federal-State Relations in Education* (Washington, American Council on Education, 1945).

to be served, about organization—county, township, and district; about teachers—their education, certification, health, pay, tenure, and retirement; about the instructional program—textbooks, libraries, courses, curriculums, and graduation; about the children—their care, attendance, instruction, and organization; about the buildings; and about school support. Every year has seen new laws added to substantial and intricate school codes. Every year some of the laws are tested in the courts. Every year states alter and extend the state administrative service through which school statutes are made effective.

There has been no time in our history when the states seemed to have all their school problems solved.[3] Social conditions change, and thus require continuous educational change. Building and rebuilding is the problem. One looks in vain for a state that seems caught up with its task. There seems every reason to assume that there can be no such thing as catching up, unless society should become static. Study of state school legislation will show that efforts have been made to meet society's needs for schools. We have altered the old and put in new types of schools. The old dame school, the old Latin grammar school, and to a large extent the old academy are gone. The elementary system has taken on the kindergarten, is experimenting with nursery education, and has undergone other major reorganization. The junior high school, the junior college, many types of technical schools and endless varieties of special schools have been developed. In higher education almost every feature has been greatly changed or added to.

All this has meant change in purpose, in program, in organization, in instruction, in housing, in administration, and in school population. In the changes one can see how the changes of social life have been responded to and how the growing science of education has had its influence. These changes must and will go on as long as our nation and our states survive.

The task of state school administration is to steer this development. To keep schools apace with need we shall have to study the needs, as reflected in the problems of society and of

[3] Carter V. Good, "Educational Reconstruction in the United States," *The Educational Record* (Jan., 1942), Vol. XXIII, pp. 140-165.

individuals. That in these tasks the pressure of practical circumstances and of outworn traditions will be clamorous there is no doubt. The problem for the days ahead is to make science —the science of society, of biology, of psychology, and of education—and philosophy—the philosophy of society, of our state, and of education—continuously more effective in shaping the trend of our states in handling their tasks.

3. Present State Problems

State school systems exist in our country in as many different forms as we have states.[4] They arose under different circumstances and, due to different social and economic developments, have remained different. Yet there is no state that does not exercise powers over education. In every state there is a system of free schools open to children roughly from age five or six years to eighteen or twenty-one. Adult education is accepted as part of the scheme in all the states. The program is roughly the same from state to state. The declared objectives of education indicated in constitution and statute imply a wide acceptance of certain values as the basis of the public school program. One could go on listing similarities from state to state. Beside these a list of differences, some minor, others more important, could be listed. Local versus state-wide support points to an important difference between Iowa and Delaware, for instance.

With these similarities and differences in mind can we say that we have anything like a theory of the function of the state in education? Study of present practice would show much agreement among states on what the state should do, but much less agreement as to how to do it. Are our states any more or any less alike in their attitudes toward an assumption of responsibility for other functions than they are in respect to the function of education? No state would dissent from the statement of the Massachusetts law of 1642 which declared: "The universal education of youth is essential to the well-being of the State." When the statement of a theory goes beyond the realm

[4] Alonzo G. Grace, "Principles of State School Administration," *American School Board Journal* (Dec., 1940), Vol. 101, pp. 19-20.

of general purpose it is confronted with practical circumstances, and as noted above, this has meant for us rapidly changing circumstances. This, however, points to the difficulties in the way of developing a theory, not to any lack of need for one. If the reader will scan the list of publications below he will find that, while thought has been given to this problem, we do not have a competent well-developed statement of a theory of public education in our states. He will see, too, that they lack a corresponding statement of theory of how the states may administer a free school system.

Among the most disturbing problems is that of districting the state for education.[5] At the beginning, support of schools was wholly a local matter and the school district was a community, the organization of which was about perfect for the schools of that time. The industrial revolution with its factories, its automobiles, telephones, mail order houses, and all the changes these have wrought in the distribution of our populations and for the processes of life, have thrown this districting into great disorder. Over a large part of the country the old district is still retained, though in thousands of cases the community has changed. Similarly, local support has failed, revealing the need for a wider tax base. Hundreds of small schools are operating at a cost that could be greatly reduced if the school could be larger. We have tried to solve this problem by consolidation of districts, by introducing county districts with control over local school districts, and by the use of county and statewide school support. Meantime, educational science has urged acceptance of larger schools in order to make possible a richer program at a bearable cost. The states are in the throes of this problem. Some have almost solved it, so far as districting and a new plan of support can solve it; others have made little beginning. What is a district? How should we finance our schools?

This question of finance is so urgent and so much before the people that it will not need to be elucidated here more than to

[5] H. F. Alves, "Implications of the Survey of Local Units in Ten States," National Council on Schoolhouse Construction, *Proceedings,* 1938, pp. 67-76.

point out that the problem has several angles. The differences among states as to their abilities to support schools are very great. In some states there is little practical possibility of paying for schools of what we regard as of standard quality. This brings up the question of federal aid and points to a growing problem—what is to become the dividing line in support as between state and nation, and what consequence may this have for control over local schools? Besides these poorer states, however, we have other states that are clinging to local support and that are making poor headway at redistricting along lines that will help toward equalizing costs and improving the service. Must these states allow public education to perish before their people can be aroused to the loss that is being suffered in some of our basic American ideals?

Teacher education has long been accepted as a state function. The present problem in this matter is not one of state control, but rather, one of determining the nature and extent of the program to be supported and how most effectively to build the service into the state school system.

The state operates through law—constitution, statutes, regulations—and to some extent through direct management. The task of building the system of law is great. Most state school codes show a lack of unity. They are accumulations of specific acts on all kinds of problems, each added but not properly interwoven with what had gone before. The result is that many states have legislated in such detail as to interfere with local initiative, and often so that laws remain operative long after they cease to represent a sound handling of the matters in question. This is an ever-present problem in all states. The problem is how to develop laws that represent sound educational and political science viewpoints rather than pressures from social, political, and business groups.

As to direct service to the schools through administrative and supervisory channels, the states differ greatly. Research, supervision, curriculum, textbook and library services are being provided on a useful basis in some states and educators generally recognize this as genuine progress. We undoubtedly have much to learn about the details of bringing such services to

bear upon the schools.[6] So long as these contributions come to the schools through channels of leadership they would seem to promise much. How to prevent abuses in the form of state pressure on local school people is bound to be a problem in places.

The control over the curriculum and over textbooks has gone very far in some states, so far that already some states have begun to alter and repeal requirements as to subjects to be taught or as to the class time to be devoted to them. This appears to be a case of the state having overstepped its proper limits of control. Or, is it a case of state codes responding to scientific developments? It is in dealing thus with the actual educational activities of the classroom that the state is in danger of extending its controls too far. Associated with this, too, has been the question of state printing of textbooks, and the question of free textbooks. Both are still unsolved problems.

Before the Civil War, the states began to establish compulsory school attendance laws. The right and the desirability of having the state do this was generally accepted, and rapid progress was made in adopting the principle and practice until now all states have such laws. The question is moot whether the need for such controls is the same now as it was when the laws were first enacted. But where might a legislature go for a thorough elucidation of all that is involved in this kind of compulsion?

To these sample problems one could add numbers of others, and about each of such larger questions a thousand lesser and more practical problems arise. Clearly, the line of cleavage between state and national service must be reexamined, and certainly the relation of the state to the district must be continuously studied for new factors that enter as time passes.

4. Questions to Guide the Reader

For one who desires an understanding of the field of state school administration there is a wealth of literature. Cubber-

[6] Connecticut State Department of Education, published for school boards, "A Self-Rating Check List for School Board Members," *The American School Board Journal* (April, 1944), Vol. 108, pp. 23-24.

ley's *State School Administration,* though published twenty years ago, still stands as the most rational general treatise concerning the field. The literature of the field, however, is extensive and without some orientation the student may be confused even by such a list of titles as are presented below. It will prove helpful at the outset to get a general characterization of the literature by scanning the titles below, and then to start reading with a list of problems in mind. Naturally, such a list will grow as one reads, but the initial queries will have the effect of classifying ideas and facts gained and provide a basis for evaluating the pages as they pass under scrutiny.

For this purpose the following questions are offered as points of departure. Some of them suggest the importance of having an historical approach to the study of this field. The use of such an approach, however, should not blind one to the nature of forces, present or predictable for the future, that are likely to shape the trend of thought and practice in this field. By these questions one may see where this field lies, sense its boundaries and something of the nature of its major problems. A glance through the bibliography below will show what treatment these problems have received by scholars in this field.

1. One of the most pressing school problems of today is that of shifting from local to state support. What effect should this have on school control?

2. State school departments have developed the function of research and in many cases have carried out important studies of problems. In a sense these activities extend types of research carried on by the United States Office of Education. What should these state services become?

3. Activities of school departments in the field of health, safety, hygiene, and sanitation have met with many difficult problems. Should military training be offered and should it be compulsory; if so, at what ages and in what schools? How may state, county, and municipal health services contribute aid to schools without raising questions of authority and questions of sound educational management?

4. The trend in state school administration has been toward more and more centralization of control over the schools. Is this sound? Where is the proper line of cleavage between state and local control? Also, in matters of leadership and supervision, the state has grown more and more active. How far should this go, and how can such services best interlock with local activities of the same type?[7]

5. No one questions state control of certification, but state control of teacher tenure and of salaries is not so convincingly settled, as yet. What are the difficulties here? State control of curriculums and textbooks is breaking down and state printing of textbooks is often under fire. What are the difficulties here?

6. The old plan of district organization is inefficient. What theory of districting should we be working toward? Should we establish some standard of population size, or geographical area, or taxable wealth, as a basis for forming a district? Should we compel redistricting, or leave it to local decision?

7. Should all state control be by statute or should there be administrative control, and if so, on what matters and under what restrictions?

8. Should life certificates ever be granted? If so, should there be specified requirements as to their loss of effectiveness, thereby providing a means of penalizing those who do not keep abreast of their profession?

9. There has been a growing trend toward state control over school-house construction. Is this sound, and if so what are its goals?

10. When our compulsory attendance laws were enacted boys could expect to enter upon careers at the age of eighteen years or even sooner. This situation has changed. Should the attendance laws be rewritten?[8]

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[7] R. J. Maaske, "Educational Effects of North Carolina's State Plan for School Management," *The American School Board Journal* (June, 1940), Vol. 100, pp. 19-20.

[8] See: Maris M. Proffitt and David Segel, *School Census, Compulsory Education, Child Labor,* Bull. No. 1, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education (Washington, Government Printing Office, 1945), 200 pp.

5. Bibliography on State School Administration

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In addition to these sources, the reader should consult Chapter 5 of this volume for matters pertaining to certain phases of the topic; Chapter 9 especially, for state school finance; Chapter 3, for historical treatises; and Chapter 6, for matters pertaining to the relation of the state to federal authority in education will be found valuable.

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(a) State school code (cumulative: issued irregularly in many cases)
(b) Report of the state superintendent (annual or biennial)
(c) State Board regulations (published in various ways)
(d) State school curriculum (published irregularly and in various forms)

The Federal Office of Education issues a biennial survey of education for the nation as a whole, containing extensive statistical as well as descriptive and explanatory comments on state activities in education. It also issues several serials, occasional numbers of which bear upon state school administration. See Chapter 4 for details.

Chapter 8

COUNTY AND RURAL SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

1. Position of County in School Administration Varied and Unsettled

The field of county school administration differs widely from state to state, though in all states it is closely connected with the problems of rural education. In nearly all of our states the county is a basic unit for the administration of the government.[1] In this capacity it is less important in the New England states, where much of the local government is administered by towns; even there the county is used in connection with the courts. It was natural that the county government should aid the state in handling school lands and making records. Aside from the New England states, Delaware, and Nevada, the county's part in school government ranges from almost complete responsibility as a school district, as in Maryland, through a supervisory service, as in Michigan, to little more than clerical and statistical duties, as in such states as Missouri. In their origin and development of present functions, the states have differed widely and so present practices have brought with them various traditions.

It can be said that the county's place in government generally is becoming expensive and less convincing as a unit for government service; this applies also in the realm of school government. Tradition is a powerful force when it comes to altering the structure of the government, and in states where the county is firmly fixed in politics and in law the service of county government machinery can be worse than useless and

[1] E. L. Morphet, "Relationship of Education to Government," in *National Society for the Study of Education Forty-fourth Yearbook,* Part II, 1945, pp. 153-186.

still the people will cling to it.[2] In many states the actual contribution of the system of county school administration to the schools has been of little value, yet tradition and vested political interests have prevented change. Nevertheless, the position of the county in the scheme of school management is being questioned and even though trends are as yet not clear, at least the hold of tradition appears to be loosening.

The problems confronting the people in this matter are many and varied. The county is very small in some states and very large in others.[3] Even within one state this variation in size is often pronounced. Density of population varies as much as or more than size and often varies inversely with size. Some sections are mountainous, others are level, and there are wide ranges in climate. The systems by which schools are financed vary from state to state. Where population and wealth are concentrated, there are apt to be strong votes against pooling interests with less fortunate sections.

If one approaches this county problem of school organization and management from the standpoint of what would be educationally sound, and asks for a plan of organization that would provide good school service he would likely find it difficult to devise any one pattern that would fit all states. At least the approach to a solution should be, first, from the standpoint of the individual school, and second, from that of providing competent supervisory service to the schools. In other words, there is no point in using the county as a unit of school organization merely because we happen to have it. The question is how best to lay out the territory and arrange the controls so that the schools may be made effective.

Approached in this way it is readily seen that the only basis for expecting the county to fit into a good educational plan lies in the fact that it has a place in the traditions, experience, and social life of the people, and occasionally may correspond to the actual community. So often, however, this latter is not true,

[2] See the *Twelfth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, *Critical Problems in School Administration* (Washington, Department of Superintendence, 1934).

[3] Less than 400 square miles in Indiana and more than 3,000 in Utah, as averages for those states.

and the county's traditions and experience are political only. Frequently, too, the size of the county and its geography would make good and economical supervision difficult. Counties were not formed to fit schools, and the services for which they were designed are so unlike that of the schools that there is no reason to expect that they would make the best possible units for school management, unless we accept the idea that organization and management are something external and unrelated to the service managed. But modern school administration does not accept this idea.

2. We Lack a Theory as to the Position of the County in Our School System

If one were to look for a clear statement of the theory upon which the organization of the schools and school systems of our states rests he would have some difficulty in finding a full statement of it in the literature.[4] Arbitrary proposals for organization can be found: Some would make the county the district, some would prefer the small traditional district, with the county providing a mere clerical and statistical service with no real control over schools, and some would make the community the unit of control regardless of whether it happened to be of county size or not. Those who have held to the latter view have attempted to show that the theory of district organization has to harmonize, first, with our democratic theory and our political applications of it; second, with our social theory of the school as a neighborhood enterprise; and third, with our theory of the school's social and educational program and its daily regimen of life. When this line of reasoning has been developed and supported by adequate study of the facts, it would seem to promise a solution of this problem.[5] In any realistic approach to the problem the traditions and habits and tastes of the people must be dealt with as facts. So, also, must the many vested interests, the facts of geography, the matter of practical

[4] T. C. Holy, "Reorganization of School Districts," *The American School Board Journal* (April, 1945), Vol. 110, pp. 39-41.

[5] Edmund de S. Brunner, "How to Study a Community," *Teachers College Record* (March, 1941), Vol. 42, pp. 483-492.

convenience, the established system of finance, the density of population, and hundreds of other details. Whatever our general theory, there remains the practical task of applying it.[6]

One difficulty that lies beyond any immediate solution is found in the facts of social change. What may appear today as a definite community may not be a community thirty years from now. We are so prone to think of the boundaries of district, township, county, state, or other government units as permanent features that change in them is difficult to bring about. Yet, if our theory of education and of the school is sound, it is obvious that these lines must not become fixed and unchangeable.

The rural school problem is at the heart of these difficulties.[7] For many years people have been conscious of the inadequacy of the typical rural district. Educational progress has been slowest in these small schools, where the authority of a lay board has so completely dominated the activities of the school. With automobiles, good roads, and telephones this one-time community center no longer functions in this capacity. The result has been greater isolation of the school from other interests of the people who support it. This trend has been rapid, even with the growth of parent-teachers' organizations and with the great improvement in the education of the teachers.[8]

3. Important Aspects of the Problem

The solutions attempted have been the consolidation of small schools to form larger ones and the introduction of county-wide supervision. The former approach has brought us the embarrassing problem of huge costs for pupil transportation and no small worry about the safety of the children. The latter has stimulated interest in the adoption of the county unit of ad-

[6] Philip A. Cowen and Warren W. Cox, "Issues Involved in Enlarging School Administrative Units," *The American School Board Journal* (Aug., 1940), Vol. 101, pp. 19-21.

[7] Committee on Rural Community High Schools and Seven Cooperating Wisconsin Communities, "Adventures in Rural Education—A Three Year Report," *Journal of Experimental Education* (June, 1944), Vol. XII, pp. 245-348.

[8] Bess Goodykoontz, "Challenges to the Present Structure of American Education," in *National Society for the Study of Education Forty-fourth Yearbook,* Part II, 1945, pp. 1-21.

ministration. The net results of a half century of change, however, represent no great accomplishment by way of a solution of the problem. The facts seem to be these:

1. The rural school district, a real community center in pioneer days, is no longer a social unit and hence is not fitted to be the educational unit. The actual community is now much larger, and probably in most cases cuts across several school district lines. This has destroyed an essential means of contact between the school and the parents and between school life and community life. The parent-teacher association has not been able to repair this break; county supervision has helped the schools but has not met this issue; county unit control in some cases has helped greatly, yet it does not resolve the difficulty. Consolidation, certainly a direct attack on one part of the problem, has made but slow headway.

2. The second fact of importance seems to be that in the district system too many decisions are made by lay board members that should be made by expert educators. Likely the county unit plan could improve this if the superintendency were not a political office. In many states this political connection alone is a strong argument against the county unit plan. Even with politically chosen county superintendents and with little power in that office, however, many have exercised leadership over lay boards that shows clearly what it could mean to have administration of rural schools in the hands of a trained school man, instead of a lay board.

3. The third stern fact is the practice of local school support.[9] This is breaking down rapidly since the depression of the thirties, but still holds firmly against any plan of organization that would look toward the pooling of costs. If costs could be pooled the problem of redistricting the county for schools would be much less difficult.

Most of the ills of rural education seem to grow out of these three facts: The district is not a real neighborhood; the school is too much under lay management; and its support is inade-

[9] Elmer L. Breckner, "Washington Reorganizes its School Districts for Better Education," *The American School Board Journal* (Dec., 1941), Vol. 103, pp. 17-19.

quate because it is too local. If these difficulties were removed then such other ills as poor buildings and equipment, poor books and supplies to work with, poor curriculum, (too often) poor teachers, poor contact with community life, poor administrative policies, poor supervision, poor (or no) pupil guidance and research, and like ills would tend rapidly to disappear.

Getting big districts and so big schools is clearly not all of the answer. That may look like efficiency to an engineer but not necessarily to an educator. A big district or school can be as poor in the above three respects as a little one. Money, talent, and lively contact with the home folks are things needed first. If the individual rural schools of a state could be set out in terms of community lines it might often be possible to let the county serve as the district. The main difficulty would be that too often the county would be too large or so cut up by rivers, lakes, and mountains that it would not make a suitable unit for providing such central coordinating services as supervision, pupil personnel work, research, curriculum work, adult education programs, and public relations service. Where the county is not too large and where its lines do not cut through too many communities it might properly serve as the district. At least our reasoning today points this way.

In most states size alone makes any intimate contact between state office and local school impractical. To influence the school the state establishes laws and may provide for a state board to exercise enforcement of the laws through any necessary regulations it may care to enact. Even with this machinery the contact must remain impersonal. In many cases states have gone yet further and provided a group of supervising and research experts to carry on studies and to exercise whatever leadership and supervision they can, but with no administrative authority. In many cases this latter contribution, carried on through conferences, published reports and journals, institutes, reading circles, correspondence, and group meetings has been excellent. How to work out this connection of state office with district is partly a question of what if any unit may lie between the state and the local school. If we could start *de novo* would this intermediate unit be a county? Would it have administrative

powers over the district? If so, where should these powers end and district control begin? Would it be merely an extension of state supervisory and research service or would it have power to formulate and carry on its own program and then to draw upon the state department for aid?

For the establishment of these lines of cleavage between state and intermediate unit (county?) and between the intermediate unit and the district one would, ideally, need to know first, what service is needed by the district; second, what contact the state needs in order to handle its broader policy-forming function; and third, what the various costs would be.[10] Practically, we begin where we are, with established purposes, machinery, and traditions and try to make these work better and better. What we need is a broad theory of a system of control and improvement to guide our efforts.

In building a plan one would obviously want to leave the final power where it is—in the state. He would want the state to set up the school system in law, as it has done and is doing. He would want some means whereby the state could make sure that its program was being carried out. This might require such state activities as those just noted, and possibly some intermediate unit to operate more directly with the schools. In any case the proper interest and responsibility of the state must be kept in mind. The state should not set up a plan of education and then forget it. Instead, the state's attitude should be positive and continuously constructive. A modern state keeps building and rebuilding.

While safeguarding the state's interests, however, the children and the local community must not be overlooked. The state's laws should provide for good school service, a service that is intimate and effective in terms of learning experience for the children and intellectual happiness and comfort for the community. School laws or school administrative machines are not ends, but means. They cannot ignore the laws of learning, the laws of personality development, the laws of mental and physical health and development, the laws of community life,

[10] H. M. Lafferty, "Sidelights on the County Superintendent in Texas", *Peabody Journal of Education* (May, 1941), Vol. 18, pp. 357-364.

and the greater goals of state and nation. Instead, they must build in terms of these.

With these broad social and political ends and these intimate personal matters to safeguard, one still has to consider what talent he has to build with. Fifty years ago our teachers were poorly educated and our administrators were mostly teachers who rose from the ranks to positions of greater leadership. Certainly they were not trained as administrators, except through experience. With the type of local staff now available, the need for a super service over districts is greatly changed. This is merely to illustrate that organization, being composed of men, will inevitably have to take account of the kind of men it has to work with. If the district has excellent teachers and principals it will need less outside help or, at least, less of the kind it can perform well for itself.

It is easy to see that there are two types of services or two ways in which the state and district need to be united into a system. Both of these services are closely connected with learning. Teaching, supervision, pupil personnel work, curriculum work, selection of school supplies and equipment, community participation in the life of the school, and research, are closely attached to instruction. There are also matters pertaining to the management of finance, textbooks (where the state provides them), official reports to the state office, checking up on the performance to see that laws are properly carried out, school board elections, bonding the district, and the like. These latter are more external and might be cared for in many different ways and still not interfere with any of the matters touching efficiency of classroom work or local management. This does not suggest a total separation of the two types of service, however. It only calls attention to the fact that in a large state the burden of attending to these latter matters with districts individually from the state office would be clumsy, regardless of how efficient the local school boards and administrators might be. The task is made easier by using the county or other intermediate office as a means of effecting a more intimate contact with the district.

The question here is not, shall these administrative tasks alone, or the supervisory tasks alone, guide us in working out an intermediate helper unit? The system must be unified. We need efficiency in handling school business, but this is most likely to come only if the business is handled in terms of the needs of the instructional service. The best plan will be one that gets the best service by the most efficient managerial procedures, not the one that works out the best-looking managerial system and imposes it upon the service, and not the one that develops a fine service without considering the difficulties or cost of operating it.[11]

When one approaches the problems of county school administration and rural school administration from these angles and remembers that social change is a factor as well, he is apt to doubt the chance of the county ever becoming the most desirable plan for an intermediate unit to unite state and district into a well coordinated system. Furthermore, as one considers the variety of present plans from state to state, he is apt to feel that in view of differences in the history of developments in different states, of differences in facilities available, of differences in the professional equipment of teachers and administrators, and of differences in services available to districts from state offices, the present situation is hopeful. Out of such a range of experience we may reasonably expect to find suggestions for a sounder practice.

One other point should be mentioned. As we look at the developments of the past fifty years we are bound to admit that great progress has been made in state school administration and equally great progress in local school administration. With the intermediate unit, the county or its equivalent, there has been substantial development in some states, in others little or none. The problem this unit presents should be placed on the agenda of the profession for early attention. Our experience in reorganizing large districts, as in Nevada and Utah, and of increasing county activity in supervision, as in California, and

[11] T. M. Spencer, "Why is County School Reorganization at a Standstill?" *Texas Outlook* (Feb., 1940), Vol. 24, pp. 49 ff. See also: W. V. Harrison, "Why Attempts to Reorganize the Public School System of Texas Have Failed," *Texas Outlook* (Nov., 1940), Vol. 24, pp. 36-38.

with rural district consolidation and its accompanying problem of transportation, as in many states, we should have suggestions for a new attack on this problem. Besides, local support is being relieved by state support, school house construction is being supervised from state offices in many cases so that many new direct relationships are developing between state and local district. It is time, therefore, that we should attack this problem anew.[12]

If one would look carefully through the literature indicated below he could find very able answers to the questions raised in this chapter. But for some reason we seem unable to put this knowledge into practice. The main questions are clear. What are the answers? Have we made any progress toward right solutions? What next step do you see?

1. What are the major duties of a county superintendent of schools in Maryland, Missouri, and California and how is the superintendent chosen in each case? See the School codes for these states. What basic differences in school government do these three states reveal?

2. What is a community as used in this discussion, and why does that have a bearing upon the success of the schools?

3. A city school district has from a few to several hundred separate schools and a program from nursery schools through junior college or higher. It often has a number of special schools, as, for the partly blind, the retarded, the crippled, the delinquent, or as, schools with technical or professional programs. Is there any reason why this idea could not be applied in rural education?

4. What are the professional services commonly available in city school systems but commonly lacking in rural districts?

5. Why is the choice of a school superintendent by popular election objectionable? Why is it difficult to change from that system to one whereby the superintendent is chosen by a board of education?

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[12] C. H. Gross, "Public Education as Seen by a Country School Director," Philadelphia, Pennsylvania University, School of Education, *Twenty-sixth Schoolmen's Week Proceedings,* 1939, pp. 17-25. Recent California legislation affecting the problem of redistricting the state is of interest. The survey provision of this act is now in process of execution.

6. What arguments favor a large, as opposed to a small, school district? Is the principle of local self-government an issue in such an argument?

7. What kinds of social change have we had in recent decades that properly should affect the organization of schools? Have the schools been changed as a result?

8. What do we mean by the statement that rural schools have suffered because of overemphasis upon local support?

9. When is an area too large to serve effectively as a school district? Could a state be set up as one district and operate effectively? What is the plan in Delaware?

10. In your own state do the state school officers have any direct administrative control over the work in a local school? What kinds of service do the schools get from the staff at the state school office?

4. Bibliography on County and Rural School Administration

The literature of this field is fairly extensive though the amount of sound research has been limited. The bibliography here presented is an attempt to bring together titles representative of the best available thought and of the research accomplished to date. The reader should consult the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research, The Review of Educational Research,* and titles listed in Chapters 7, 9, and 14; also many of the volumes listed in Chapters 2 and 4. State documents in this field are available in large numbers; many state school survey reports; *The Biennial Survey of Education* from the federal Office of Education; and many brief collections of information on various phases of the problem are available among the bulletins, circulars, and pamphlets from the Office of Education. Selected bibliographies are available in many of the volumes listed below.

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Chapter 9

FINANCING PUBLIC EDUCATION

1. The Field and Its Major Problems

For convenience of study, this book has chosen to separate finance from the general administration of schools. It will treat local or district finance as a part of the subject of business management, except when the discussion is concerned with the revenue system, with the state's controls over the plans available to the district, with state-wide costs, or with school indebtedness.

The field of public school finance is an aspect of public education activities as a whole. Wherever there is a school there must be support for it and that support must be provided for and managed to educational ends. The above chapters on federal and state school administration present a substantial body of literature. Many of these references discuss finance incidentally, and some quite directly. For purposes of study, however, school finance can be examined and written about independently, and this has been done for many years. The bibliographies cited below show to what length writers have gone in developing for this field a literature of its own.

In setting forth the problems and literature of school finance it is desirable to keep in mind, first of all, that finance is but an aspect of a unified enterprise and not a separate feature or unit of the school system. School finance consists of raising, managing, expending, and accounting for funds to carry on educational service. Discussion of the subject must begin with the nature and purposes of education and with education as a public service. It must be kept in mind that people will finance public services only to the extent they regard them as of real value. The revenues for schools must come from pri-

vate sources, from taxpayers, and it is customary for people to pay willingly only for those services that contribute rather directly to those who pay. For this reason it is more difficult to gain support for schools that are at a great distance from the taxpayer and his special interests. This explains why it has been difficult to shift the burden of support from the local community to a state-wide base.

As finance is related to educational purposes, it is also related to the control and direction of the schools. Since taxpayers have the power through their votes to withhold needed funds, the truth of the axiom, whoever controls the purse strings controls the state, becomes obvious in public school finance. It is not control over the amount of funds alone that counts, but also control over their use. Once funds are available they must be managed and since they are to be managed to educational ends the management of funds and of the school services must be closely interlocked. This necessity is the foundation of an important principle in school administration: The system of controls shall be unitary and not dual or multiple in character.

Although the importance of recognizing school finance as an aspect of the larger field of administration is obvious, it is possible and practicable, when determining the merits of a financial plan, to study this aspect separately without ignoring these relationships. Plans for raising school revenues can be studied in the light of economic facts and theories of taxation. Plans for applying funds to the purposes for which they were raised can be studied as plans of apportionment and plans of budget control.

The problems of public school finance in the United States center about certain major considerations, as follows:

1. How much money is required to pay for public education?
2. What government units are going to provide the funds?
3. How may the funds best be raised?
4. How may school moneys best be safeguarded against influences inimical to public schools; that is, how may we guarantee enough income?

5. If responsibility rests with all the people for all the schools, how may funds be distributed to the schools?
6. Should the state moneys be granted for specially named services or be available for all school needs, including buildings and grounds?
7. Should debt financing be used for schools, and if so, under what limitations?
8. In light of what facts and principles, and by what techniques may systems of school finance be evaluated?

Each of these problems suggests a wide range of lesser problems and of practical difficulties that arise in financing the schools of our country. A brief analysis of each of these will serve to reveal the issues and the administrative problems involved and how these problems are related to the broader social, economic, and political problems of the country on the one side and to the problems of learning, teaching, and child care on the other. In public school finance there are many technical matters to consider, but these always appear in a social, economic, and political setting which invariably conditions our treatment of them.[1] Further, they appear in a shifting setting as a consequence of which new problems arise, and old ones change or disappear. Thus the problems of school finance are not fixed but are moving and their solutions call for continuous recognition of the changing conditions of life.[2] This may be more apparent as these eight major aspects of the fields are examined in order.

2. How Much Should We Spend for Public Schools?

The question of what the people should spend for schools is one of public policy. Very early in our history it was decided

[1] Educational Policies Commission, *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy* (Washington, the Commission, 1937).

[2] One could easily list a hundred titles of published papers and addresses and yearbooks that have dealt with postdepression and postwar problems in school finance. See several chapters of the *Twenty-third Yearbook* of the American Association of School Administrators, 1945; or E. L. Lindeman, et al., "Financing the Educational Program During and Following the War Emergency Period," *Education for Victory* (Jan. 3, 1945), Vol. 3, pp. 15-17.

that for our type of culture and our type of government free schools were of great importance. When it comes to providing schools, or the support for them, this question at once becomes specific—how important? Before we had machinery and great cities and efficient means of communication the education required to carry on life as an individual and as a responsible citizen was simple to provide. Nowadays, to rear a family, to succeed in a career, to be an effective citizen, and to enjoy cultural opportunities calls for an extensive and much more complex type of schooling. The scientific study of education in the past half century has enabled us to plan for the types of instruction needed. As schools have improved and as social changes have accumulated, our desires for the fruits of education have increased. The more education we get the more we seem to want. Yet, the better we satisfy our educational wants the more we must spend.

Back of this question, of course, is the previous question of what education can and actually does contribute to our lives, individually and collectively, directly and indirectly. What does education do for the state or for the nation that they should buy more and more of it? Our science of education is struggling with these problems of evaluation but so far it can provide no exact basis for saying just what we get for our money—what rise in our level of culture, what improvement in the quality of citizenship, what increase in the power of the state, what addition to the earning power of our people, what improvement in the social effectiveness of individuals. So far as value received is concerned, this question of deciding what size of school budget to provide must be answered by very rough guessing and crude judgments.[3]

So long as values remain intangible, there will be wide differences of opinion as to the worth of schools and some judgments will be formed on the basis of other than educational interests. Even the most ardent supporter of schools must take account of possible values other than education. Education comes, thus, to compete for funds with our want for good

[3] T. L. Norton, *Public Education and Economic Trends* (Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1939).

roads, old age pensions and social security, social betterment, national defense, and endless other public services. Then there is the constant opposing want for relief from taxation.

When we consider the facts of social change—the shifting business cycle, change in birth and death rates, growing unemployment and unrest, changing relationship between government and private wealth, and the endless shifting among the lesser features of life which these things suggest—it is easy to see how important it is that thought be given to this question of basic public policy affecting the sums to be spent for schools. Our recent struggle with unemployment shows how the school service is tied into other aspects of life. We argued: Let us retire the older workers and prevent our youths from entering upon careers until they are twenty-one or twenty-two years of age; if our youths are to be idle they had better be in school. Two specific shifts in educational policy—lengthening the school program, and postponement of occupational training until the junior college period—grew out of this reasoning. The bearing of such conclusions, drawn from simple consideration of practical social pressures upon the attitudes of people toward more or less spending for schools, thus becomes apparent. Nor is the building of educational policy as simple as this seems. There may be trends in social change but there are many sudden reverses to upset our calculations. For instance, with rising threats of war, unemployment disappears and we have more need for both old and young to help carry on the work of the country.

This question of general policy is a question for the statesman and for the scientist, but ultimately votes decide it. The student of school finance should see this aspect of the field as a philosophical question of choosing among purchasable values. He should see it also as an economic question, a question of drawing upon the country's resources, its wealth or income.[4] He should see it as a political question, a question of building a nation in terms of a desired culture. Obviously, too, he must see it as a scientific problem, a problem of shaping

[4] Payson Smith, "Education and the American Economy," *Harvard Educational Review* (Oct, 1944), Vol. 14, pp. 283-291.

policy in terms of facts and principles, and of testing the results of our spending, not choosing blindly between two or more vaguely understood values. To do this well requires a broad knowledge of all these fields and intimate knowledge of education.

In practice this question appears in many forms and in many connections. Should the public provide free education for lawyers, dentists, druggists, and engineers, all of whom usually can step from school immediately to a highly remunerative career? What the good of the people and of the nation requires from each of these is a service adequate in amount and competent in quality. If we have too few dentists the people will suffer in health, but if we have too many dentists what would happen? Would prices of the service come down and so spread the service to more of our people, or would prices stay up and dentists, in competing for patients, tend to overrepair the teeth and so do harm rather than good? It is obvious that a country cannot ignore such questions. The safety of the nation, to say nothing of its cultural aspirations, requires attention to these matters. It might be safe to entrust them entirely to private enterprise but this would be a grave risk.

Another illustration of how practical this question becomes is seen in the demand for free textbooks as a part of our public education program. That is, what do we mean by free schools? In state universities we often find free tuition but a considerable number of fees, each charged for a special service closely related to instruction.

Then there is the question of the schools competing with private enterprise in such matters as school cafeterias, school book shops, and school health service. Should the school dentist do any repairing of teeth, or merely advise parents of their children's needs for repairs?

New services are proposed from time to time as additions to the regular instructional program. Shall the government take these over at once? Adult education has stepped suddenly into great prominence. Occupational training is now making vast new claims for more funds. Visual and auditory aids call

for expansion of teaching equipment and personnel. Guidance has but recently been fully woven into the regular plan and at an addition in costs. It is in ways such as these that this question of what funds shall the public provide for schools confronts us in practical management.

3. Where Should the Burden of Costs Rest?

Historically, there has been a great change of attitude among the people on the question of who should be responsible for school support. Certainly, our people brought with them from Europe no precedents for the systems we now have. Support was narrowly local at the outset, so local, in fact, that it required a long struggle to establish the principle that all taxpayers of a community must help pay for schools whether they have children in them or not. Local district support remained the principal plan in use practically to the end of the last century. Even now the movement to a wider base of support goes forward haltingly.

What should our policy be? On what grounds should we decide this issue? Obviously, this is a question of public policy before it becomes a practical problem of taxation, apportionment, and financial accounting and management.[5]

Our reasoning must start realistically with our needs individually and as a people. We have chosen democracy as the cultural and governmental concept under which we choose to live. By this we try to shape our personal lives and our social, economic, and governmental enterprises. This means self-government and self-reliance in our private lives. Obviously, participation in government and reliance upon one's own abilities requires education. Accepting education for all as a necessity, however, leaves us still to decide how this may be guaranteed. Here we face certain other facts. Parents are not equally conscious of the importance of education; if they were they still would not be equally ready to help in providing it.

[5] R. W. Holmstedt, *State Control of Public School Finance,* Bloomington, Ind., Indiana University School of Education Bull. (March, 1940), Vol. 16, pp. 1-68.

Again, parents are not equally able financially to bear the costs.[6] This is equally true of communities, of districts, of counties, and even of states. Traditions are against wide pooling, and many are unwilling to suffer the economic consequences of it.[7] The task, therefore, if our mode of life leads us to accept such a status of education, is not merely to devise a system of revenues and management suited to such ends, but, first, to get ourselves to accept the consequences of our own choice of modes of life and of personal and cultural values to work for through our government.

Knowing what to do and how to do it is simple in comparison with the task of combatting ignorance, outworn traditions, and the pressure of vested economic interests and establishing a readiness to provide equal educational opportunity and equal burden of cost among the people.

As noted above, a shift in the plan of support is apt to carry with it a shift also in the plan of control. This at once becomes a serious problem. There are elements in our theory of education that make necessary an intimate contact between the school and the community it serves. Our theory and our long traditions are deeply rooted in these relationships and when these connections are threatened by a shift in authority, we become deeply disturbed. How to retain the benefits of strong localism in control along with those of wide centralization in support is the heart of this whole matter. Most of our leading educators claim that support and control can be separated in practice, that we can provide systems of state and national equalization and retain the essence of localism in the character and control of the school.[8] On the other hand statesmen and politicians, while admitting that such plans can be formed, insist

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[6] Jesse B. Sears and Ellwood P. Cubberley, *Cost of Education in California* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1924); also L. Ashby, *The Efforts of the States to Support Education as Related to Adequacy and Ability* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936).

[7] George D. Strayer, "The Local Financing of Education," *Bull. of the School of Education, Indiana University,* Bloomington, Ind. (May, 1941), Vol. XVII, pp. 17-23.

[8] See bibliography below, reference divisions III and IV; also, O. E. Damian, "Local School Support in a Midwest State", *The American School Board Journal* (Feb., 1945), Vol. 110, p. 31.

that they cannot be enacted into law because legislators will not vote for them. Here, then, is another angle to this problem.

Such a shift is more complicated even than it would appear from this. Yet, in spite of these many difficulties some progress has been made. Viewed historically, we can see a clear tendency toward state and national support for schools. Equally apparent, too, is the tendency for the local district to give the state more and more participation in shaping and controlling its school service. Traditions are yielding slowly and we believe that the school service is improving with these changes. This leads to the question: Just what controls should we retain as local; what controls may better be exercised on a state-wide basis; and what controls, if any, might we safely allow to pass to the federal government?

Thus the question of deciding who shall pay for our schools leads us into our theory and philosophy of education; into our theory of school administration; into our political theories and practices; and into a study of our traditions, our cultural aims, our lack of understanding of the many practical considerations in the way of achieving our purposes. The question of support at once becomes entangled with our educational and social and political purposes, and with the plans of management, especially with the question of control. So financial support becomes a political, a social, an educational, as well as an economic question. From an economic standpoint we may prefer federal support alone; yet there may be reasons why we would better have support that is in part local, in part state, and in part national. Costs for services not universally provided (nursery schools, kindergartens, adult education) might more properly look to local sources, while those universally provided (elementary schools and high schools) might with fairness look to state or national sources. All these ideas suggest many important angles to this problem.

4. How May We Raise Our School Money?

Where to raise the school money—solving the question of a right distribution of burden—does not tell us how to raise the

money.[9] The method may likely have to be related to the source from which the school money is drawn. For instance, local support might use a general properties tax, but such a tax would be most impractical as a method for raising a federal contribution, and only a little less inappropriate for use in raising state support. The method may perhaps need to be related also to the kind of education or to the spread of the service over the territory. Public elementary schools and university or professional education schools in the same states might conceivably be supported by different revenue plans. Or, the fact that usually there is but one state university, or at most only a few public institutions of higher learning in a state, while for elementary and secondary schools the service is scattered to hundreds or thousands of separate communities, might make a difference in the methods chosen for support of the two types.

This reasoning provokes the question: Upon what basis should the method of raising school moneys rest?[10] Is the method to be related to the kind of education to be provided, or to the nature or size of the political unit providing it, or to the distribution of the units of service, as above, or is it to be worked out in terms of a more complicated theory? The proposition that the economic resources of the country should be drawn upon wherever they are, regardless of who owns or controls them, for support of schools wherever schools are needed, has been proposed as a basic principle that grows out of our scocial and political theory of democracy and out of our educational philosophy. This tells us who should pay and that the amount will be related to one's capacity to pay, and provides the basis for distributing the burden. Can we find an equally clear principle by which we draw these sums from the people who have various amounts of wealth or income? Here we contact the problem of taxation.

[9] Research Division, National Education Association, *State Tax Legislation Affecting School Revenues—1939-1943,* Research Bull., Vol. *22,* (1944), pp. 83-126.

[10] For one of the first studies of this problem see: Ellwood P. Cubberley, *School Funds and Their Apportionment* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1905). To see how state systems have developed see: T. C. Holy, "Trends in the Financing of Public Education in Ohio," *Educational Research Bull.* (April, 1945), Vol. XXIV, pp. 93-100, Columbus, The College of Education, Ohio State University.

Having decided how many kinds and what amounts of education we will buy (Section 2, above), and what political units shall provide the sums (Section 3), we may now ask: By what rule or formula may we raise the money? At this point we face a problem that is strongly economic and for the answer we may well turn to tax and business experts.

Since Adam Smith's classical work on taxation the study of what constitutes a good tax system has gone forward. Smith's cannons of taxation are still respected, but have been added to and reinterpreted for a substantially changed application. Formerly we thought of a tax as something we pay to the government for the protection the government gives to our persons and properties. Now we think of ourselves and our government, not as two bargainers, but as one and the same, and of our tax as our contribution to a need that is common to all. The transition from the old contract theory of the state, with its old laissez-faire social doctrine and its benefit theory of taxation, to the theory of the government as the people, with its ability theory of taxation, has not been easy to make. In the minds of many there is still resistance to this development, which is one element in our taxation problem. The problem is by no means all one or the other. It is thus, however, that our theory of taxation is tied up with our theory of government and of the state and of the school.[11]

How to levy a tax so the burden will be equitable for all; how to levy it so that revenues will be produced as planned and arrive in the treasury at the time set for them; how to devise a system that will keep doing this and not produce plentifully at one time and inadequately at another; how to devise a plan that will produce adequate revenues and not cripple or discourage any or all the sources from which they are drawn; how to devise a plan that will be economical to administer; how to devise a plan that will automatically adjust returns to the rise and fall in demand for revenue; how to develop a plan that is simple in light of the nature of the sources drawn upon; and

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[11] Such books as H. L. Lutz, *Public Finance,* 3rd ed. (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1936), or any general work on the theory of taxation will be indispensable reading for the beginning student.

how to fix the plan in law so that it will not be inflexible and impossible of change when its effectiveness has declined—all these tests of a good revenue system are as much problems today as ever before. By these criteria we may know a good tax plan. But with swift and continuous social change each of these presents astonishing new problems at frequent intervals.

When one considers school finance he is concerned with planning for revenue for one of society's needs only. But the same purse must provide revenues for all the other functions the government may be asked to provide. What goes for other services cannot go to schools and *vice versa*. Whether or not plans for school funds are separately devised and separately administered, they must be thought of as but part of a total public service cost, and so, as part of a total revenue system.[12]

To show how difficult it is to build and maintain a revenue plan that will stand the above tests one has but to consider a few obvious facts. Wealth and incomes are less evenly distributed than they used to be. They can be leveled by taxation, and under strain it is a temptation for a state to use its revenue system for this purpose as well as for supporting public services. In any case this condition creates difficulties for the planner of tax laws. The forms of wealth and so, the sources of income, are increasing in numbers and complexity. Here the difficulties of double taxation are apt to appear and with them the danger of over- or under-taxing newly developing sources of income, or hidden as compared with easily seen sources. The problem of earned as compared with unearned incomes, the problem of tax-law evasions, and the problem of shifting the tax, so easy to accomplish in one case and so difficult in others, all appear as parts of the problem of raising school money.

Innumerable plans have been devised for drawing money into the public treasury. The general properties tax, the special property tax, the severance tax, the sales tax, and the income

[12] See W. L. Pearman, *Support of State Educational Programs by Dedication of Specific Revenues and by General Revenue Appropriations* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933, Contributions to Education, No. 591), 141 pp.

tax are a few of the main types. Each of these rests upon a theory of taxation. For each of them and for various combination plans, merits and defects have been claimed.

5. How May Income for Schools Be Safeguarded?

Closely related to the basic problems of tax methods are the problems of protecting the interests of the schools by safeguarding their income; e.g., the problem of administering the school moneys. Quite generally the American school district possesses power to lay taxes for schools and to collect and to spend the money received. The profession has been aggressive in support of such district rights, though many individuals and groups have opposed them. The strength of this opposition has lead schoolmen to consider ways of guarding against such influences. One way has been to have the school revenue law written into the state constitution,[13] where the difficulties of alteration or repeal are greatly increased. This becomes a double-edged sword, since this plan tends to prevent any change, where there should be flexibility. It remains to be seen whether a plan adequately flexible for many years of accumulated social and economic change can be made a part of the constitution without bringing trouble later because it provides too little or too much revenue, or because it increases popular criticism of public schools.

As an approach to a solution the writer suggests as a tentative hypothesis that the revenue law providing for any public service should be safeguarded in proportion to the importance of the service (including need for its continuance) and in proportion to the danger of the service being disrupted by attacks from opposition of vested interests not consistent with the general will or well-being of the people. The schools use a large portion of public revenues. Tax opposition can make fast headway by reducing school funds by even a small per cent. That is, school taxes or school appropriations are specially vulnerable to tax opposition. But schools, we claim, are very important in the best sense to our government and social well-being and progress. The funds for schools would be safer in constitu-

[13] See the California state constitution for such a provision.

tional than in statutory form if the plan could be made sufficiently elastic.

Another angle to this matter of safety of school funds is seen in the question: Should we raise the school money through a tax known as a school tax, or should we raise it as a part of the total city or state revenue and not connect the name "school" with it until it has been appropriated for use of the schools? The amount of money guaranteed for schools can be as clearly defined in an ordinance or statute, as a specific demand upon funds of the treasury, as it can be in a special, earmarked tax. Some believe that criticism of schools is held off somewhat better by such an appropriation plan than it is by the earmarked tax plan. But, one may question, how far do we wish to go with this kind of protection? Here is a problem.

The wording of the law for either of the plans has many matters to safeguard. There is, for instance, the school population trend, which for years went constantly upward in nearly all districts and states but of late has become uncertain and in many cases has reversed. There are the changing demands for education, both as to kind and amount, well illustrated in the recent development in adult education and in the upward shifting of the place of occupational training. Furthermore, there are the scientific developments in education, some of which affect costs and management. Such, for instance, are the curriculum and school library developments, or the introduction of guidance and research as school functions. More recently, the social changes that brought vast unemployment caused us to propose an upward extension of the school program, since, if our young people can find no jobs, then educational opportunity is the most likely offset to the dilemma in which society finds itself.

To design a revenue plan sufficiently flexible to meet such changes is not easy. The recent federal activities in education —the NYA, the CCC, the WPA, the nursery schools—were real needs which our school revenue systems had nowhere foreseen. We met these as emergencies and to this practice there can be no serious objection. However, such emergency treatment is not a substitute for long-time planning that fore-

sees changes ahead. How to anticipate needs in the character and the extent of education is an inseparable part of the task of writing a tax law to meet the needs.

6. By What Plans May Pooled Funds Be Distributed?

If the principle of state and national support for schools is accepted, then for such funds to apply with any effect on the equalization of educational opportunity for the children of the country there must be found a plan of apportionment by which the funds may be sent to cover costs where the costs appear. Equalization, however, may not be the only wise purpose of such wide pooling of costs. For the state and the nation to support schools may be useful in other ways as well. Quite possibly, the performance of such a service as education may produce an effect on the state and nation that will give character to these departments of government that they could not otherwise gain. The school is very close to the home, and so to the family life of the people. The maintenance of schools operates for the welfare of the individuals—the very heart of what state and nation are presumed to exist for.

While it is urged here that schools (educational service) are a part of the state and are not a mere tool for the state to use, one can think of support being devoted to other things than equalizing opportunity. Funds could be distributed in terms of local community effort or as a means of stimulating effort and initiative and originality in promoting new lines of educational development. If by effort one is to refer to financial effort only then this would in a sense be using such funds as prizes or as bribes to keep the local district working. At once the problem of how to prevent the more wealthy districts from winning all the prize money would appear. If this happened then such funds would appear to introduce more and more inequality among districts. If effort were measured in terms of the actual sacrifice, the strain put upon local wealth or earning power, this difficulty would be removed. It often happens, however, that those that work for such prizes are districts that would work without them.

This raises the question as to whether these prizes could become negative, so they would automatically be earned as penalties by those who made no real effort. This begins to introduce the idea of compulsory progress. How far a democracy can go with this type of management is a question. It is also a question whether a revenue law for schools should become also a part of the police power of the government. If we need to enforce standards in education why not enforce them directly and not through indirect methods? Thus it can be seen that this problem of distributing funds can easily become involved with other matters when it mixes support with enforcing standards or stimulating progress or penalizing neglect.

The distribution of state or national funds could be made without reference to equalization or to stimulus to progress. The early federal funds and lands were distributed with no thought of these purposes. The first lands were given to townships and later gifts of land were to states. The amount of the gift was proportional to the size of the township or state and not at all with reference to educational needs. The fact that the gift to townships resulted in serious inequalities led to the change which placed such lands in the hands of the states. At once, with some exceptions, the states began to apportion income from the lands on the basis of educational needs, or at least on the basis of something they believed to be a fair index of need. Exceptions were where income from federal land and money grants was distributed in terms of taxes paid by the local community. The amount of taxes paid by a district has little if any relation to the educational needs of the district. Where an index of need was used it was usually a very crude one, such as number of taxable inhabitants, size of population, or size of population of school ages. The taxes paid or the number of taxpayers, obviously favored wealthy districts. It required years to establish a general recognition of the principle that state support should be distributed first of all in terms of relative need for schools, and second, perhaps, in terms of effort at progress.

When this principle became recognized, partly because schools began to cost more as more children used them, and partly because differences in needs grew as we shifted to an industrial from an agrarian life, there was still the question of how to refine our index of educational need. Toward the end of the last century forces moved very rapidly in ways that affected the schools. Wealth became less and less evenly distributed and because of the increasing number of forms of wealth the old tax system became less and less effective as a means of equalizing the tax load. At the same time the public sentiment, backed by compulsory school laws, sent more and more children to school, thus accentuating the strain on poor districts. Long accustomed as we were to education as primarily a local enterprise and to local support for local institutions, it required years to develop the idea that education might be a state function and have extensive state, if not also national, support.

Two moves were made to relieve the strain. One was the consolidation of districts to widen the local tax base; the other was an improvement of the index of need to be used in distributing state aid. Both of these movements made headway, but together they did little more than to establish the argument for more state and national support.

Distribution of pooled funds is, therefore, an aspect of a complicated problem in which the puzzle is, partly, where to find enough money; partly, how to relieve actual educational distress; partly, how to keep control where it belongs and still get support from where it should come; and partly, how to measure educational needs and ability to pay. We have moved our systems of apportionment more and more to a basis of need, but the end is not yet in sight.

7. Limitations on State Aid

There is another problem concerning the use of state or federal money. Should the state help the district with building costs, or with any of the indirect costs of schools? Should it help with tuition costs alone, or with tuition, books, and teach-

ing supplies and equipment? In many cases laws have specified and narrowly limited the services for which state funds might be used. In some cases state funds can be provided for buildings, but generally these funds are separately defined.

It appears that states have been more ready to assist with costs for services, that is, direct instructional service, than they have with payment for properties to be used in the service. Presumably, the ownership of school properties, even if paid for by the state, would rest with the district. This fact appears to explain the reluctance of states to contribute funds for any and all uses of the schools. In the maintenance of school service, however, the difference between giving for instruction on the one hand and for buildings or grounds on the other is of no educational consequence, since neither is of any possible use without the other. They are but two aspects of a single need, the need for education. Since inadequate or obsolete housing unquestionably reduces the worth of school service it is clear that sound management must in time remove this prejudice against state aid for housing. Indeed, the changed attitude is already in evidence in a number of states.[14]

If state or federal funds are to be used as building costs to aid districts, it is clear that some thought will need to be given to conditions governing use of such funds. This almost certainly means that the state or federal government will assume some control over schoolhouse construction. This will merely accentuate a trend already well developed in a large number of states. One could scarcely argue against setting up conditions under which districts might obtain such aid. The question, then, is not whether in such cases control must follow support, but rather just what control should the district be willing to give up. This should depend upon the effect such transfer of authority might have upon the service. Offhand, one could hardly imagine an ill effect from some state supervision of buildings. The states would likely refuse aid for buildings that were being erected or designed for purely advertising purposes.

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[14] G. M. Weller, *State Equalization of Capital Outlays for Public School Buildings* (Los Angeles, The University of Southern California Press, 1940).

They likely would not aid in constructing a building that would be badly located, unsafe in any way, obsolete for modern school service, or unreasonably costly. Such restrictions might be very useful. But the state might go even further. Suppose districts "X" and "Y" were clearly competing with each other, when in fact they should reorganize as one district. What is the answer here? Shall the state demand union or join them in continuing a foolish and selfish competition prejudicial to sound educational management? Do the districts have a right in a democracy to ask the state (that is, all the other districts) to continue to support their wasteful projects? On the other hand, is it good to deny the exercise of these local rights that are now very old? When does regulation become regimentation?

Transportation costs would provide a different case. By virtue of its size one district requires transportation and another does not. Assuming that both are soundly organized, as they may well be, should the one be given aid to fit this special need and the other be given nothing to offset such special aid? If the state is to use the principle of special aid for special needs, then it must solve the problem of how to define such needs and how to apportion funds to fit them.

This case might be different. Two districts might be willing to consolidate, and thus to improve the school organization, if the state would help to carry the new cost of transportation that would come with consolidation. Should states try, by such methods, to bring about desirable reorganization of school districts? It is absurd to assume that a state has no proper concern with such problems.

8. Debt Financing for Schools

In public finance the use of credit is a common method of raising needed revenues. Wars are usually financed largely on this basis, roads are built, and special expansions of defense equipment, even in peace time, are often financed on credit. State houses, hospitals, armories, prisons, city halls, harbor developments, local street developments, sewer and water systems, parks, and school buildings often are handled in this way.

Studies of school indebtedness show that, roughly, about half the value of present public school buildings exists in the form of public debt.[15] In all states debt financing of major capital outlays for schools is legally possible and widely practiced. In a few instances the financing of new buildings is legally possible only by bonding the district.

Although this is primarily a local problem to be treated under the head of business management (Chapter 13) there are some aspects of the problem that call for treatment under the title of finance. First of all, school bonding is for the purpose of raising school revenue and is a useful way in many cases. Second, it is a method capable of abuse and must be available only under restrictions. It is these broader economic and social aspects of the problem of public school debt that call for attention here. Should we use debt as a means of raising school revenue and, if so, under what general guiding policies?

To borrow is merely to consume in advance of earning. Getting money by bonding the earning power of the future is not creating wealth but merely drawing upon future earnings. Is it wise to do this for schools or not? This is not a question to be answered for all people, places, times, and circumstances alike. It is simply a problem to solve anew in each instance. The net social income of the people fluctuates greatly from year to year. Our needs for public spending also fluctuate, but income and needs may not fluctuate in harmony. Low income should mean low tax burden, but often it cannot easily work that way. When the income curve is low and the need curve is a high we may wisely borrow in anticipation of a foreseeable time when the income will be high and the need low. In such fashion borrowing can be used to level the strain on the income and to get for public use the service it needs when it needs it.

A state or a district can borrow only if it has credit. Credit depends, first upon the strength of the probability that the

[15] Jesse B. Sears and Ellwood P. Cubberley, *The Cost of Education in California* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1924). With federal aid and with growing restrictions on public indebtedness the trend is for relatively less debt.

actual ability to repay the loan exists, or will exist when payment is due; and second, upon the reputation of the borrowing state or community for meeting its obligations. Credit of any borrower, public or private, is indicated by the interest rates charged and the repayment conditions demanded by the lender.

Whether a district can borrow—whether it has any credit to use—and whether it should borrow are quite separate problems. The first is a question of the financial standing of the would-be borrower. The second is a question of the urgency of need for funds and the difficulty of raising them by direct tax.

The general economic effect of wide use of credit in a country is well known. The determination of whether local conditions are right for borrowing presents many problems: How urgent is the need? Could it be allowed to accumulate further, and if so what problems would it likely present later? How serious would it be to try to satisfy part of the need now by tax and part later? What effect may a future debt load have upon future tax burdens? Are interest rates stable or changing? If they are changing is it wise to delay or to borrow now? To answer such questions some measure of need for the proposed funds and some measure of urgency of the need are required. How badly do the schools need the buildings? What would happen to the school service if they did not get them?

Besides measuring need and its urgency some measure or estimate of the consequences of borrowing is required. Are general economic conditions and trends favorable or unfavorable? What is the present credit status, and what effect would the proposed bond issue have upon it?

These questions are largely economic or business questions. Even so, there may be other than school needs to consider. Such competition for use of public credit has a social side to it. Shall we satisfy school needs and ignore needs for sewers or for a city hall or public playground or a city hospital, in case we cannot have all of them? And, if later servicing of the proposed debt lifts the tax rate, will the pressure cause general

feeling against continuing the developmental types of municipal work in the future?

The wisest administration of public school finance will not overlook these many implications of debt financing. The constitutional and statutory controls over bonding are evidence, however, that local communities cannot be fully trusted to solve all these problems wisely. In all states there are laws by which public debt is controlled. These controls cover one or more of such matters as the extent to which debt may be assumed, sale price of bonds issued, rate of interest to be paid, method of liquidating bonds, etc.[16] These laws are largely intended to guarantee honest handling of public debts. They do not cover all types of possible error of judgment.

9. Evaluation of Systems of School Finance

Finally, how may one know when the schools of a state are being properly financed?[17] In public finance there are no profits by which to judge success of the enterprise. School money buys service. Incident to the service it buys materials, but the measure of the worth of the materials is found in the contribution they make to the service. The service itself is the value received. School service is of value if it is good, and is of little value if it is poor.

If it were possible to measure the end product of the school service it might be easier to evaluate a plan of support. So far, we have not been able to measure all parts of the end product, nor can any part of it be measured perfectly. One can ascertain what number combinations a child knows or, less exactly, how well he can write or read. But the value of education is found only partly in isolated skills or knowledge. It is also found in personality and character, in physical and mental

[16] Horace Secrist, *An Economic Analysis of the Constitutional Restrictions Upon Public Indebtedness in the United States* (Madison, The University of Wisconsin, 1914); also: Lane Lancaster, *State Supervision of Municipal Indebtedness* (Philadelphia, Westbrook Publishing Co., 1923). For more specifically educational studies see bibliographies at close of this chapter.

[17] E. L. Morphet, "Evaluation of School Finance Programs," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (April, 1942), Vol. 28, pp. 299-302.

health and well-being, and in outlook, capacity, and will to participate in social responsibilities. Then there is the question of what one can or may do with skills, knowledges, and personality traits. In addition to the education of individuals there is a social product of school spending. What does it do for the state, or for the cultural level of the people? It is in such queries that one senses the difficulty of evaluating a finance plan in terms of its end-product.[18]

It may be argued that measuring end-products in education is a task for scientists, for those who are running the schools and whose business it is to bring the schools to the highest possible perfection. Let us—the people—provide funds and leave it to experts to use them efficiently. Let school people decide upon the educational needs to be met, upon the instructional program required to cover these needs, and leave it to the people, through their school boards, to raise the funds.

There are several aspects of a plan of support. First of all, it must produce enough money. Beyond this, however, there are many other considerations. If funds are to be raised by taxes, all the criteria of a good tax must be met, as indicated in Section 4, above. Not only must the tax produce the right amount, but the plan must also be equitable and dependable from year to year; elastic, so it will adjust returns to changing needs; simple in form and economical to administer; not too difficult to change; and it must not depress activities or values in any wealth-producing activity or material.

This test is primarily economic, as it should be, since it is from these sources that many social implications or consequences derive. This test, however, has only to do with getting money to the treasury. There is yet the distributing part of the plan of support. We may raise funds in terms of *ability to pay* but when we spend them for service all the equity implied in a good tax plan can easily be negated. To carry through the principle of equity the funds must be distributed

[18] Nolan C. Kearney, "The Importance of Objectives in Postwar Federal Education Programs," *The American School Board Journal* (April, 1945), Vol. 110, pp. 19 ff.

in a way to effect equality of educational opportunity for all children. This raises many difficult problems.

When are opportunities equal? Are they equal merely because the cost of providing schooling is equal? One community may need very different education from another, and one school program may cost more than the other. Opportunities are really not equal unless *needs* are equally met in the two cases. Here again we face the necessity for measuring need. Suppose one school of one thousand children provides for a community thirty miles square in one case, while another school of one thousand children provides for a community two miles square. Assuming their needs to be otherwise identical, the former school would require transportation over and above the cost of other services. Surely, opportunities would not be equal until this extra cost was covered. The question of how far to carry this reasoning is an open one, as is illustrated above in the discussion of the right of the state to compel consolidation where efficiency and economy clearly indicate its desirability.

These purely economic problems quickly become educational, political, and social problems when they are analyzed. We can see easily that, historically speaking, our movement toward better financing of schools has paralleled our movement toward a more highly socialized educational philosophy, and more truly democratic political and social philosophies. The end of our development is not in sight and the practical problems are becoming more and more acute. Any people builds and revises its philosophy slowly, and this is especially true of a people that is free to build its own philosophy.

10. Bibliography on School Finance

In the above sketch of the problems of public school finance it is apparent how closely school finance interlocks with school administration and how close our financial problems are to our social and political problems and to the problems of educational theory. It is clear, too, that what one might term the logic of school finance is useful only in a rough way in classifying the

literature of the field. One problem stands out clearly: the problem of equalization of costs and opportunities. Discussions of this problem cut across innumerable other problems, however, and so this caption affords no useful basis for a classification of titles. Two other topics or areas of discussion also stand out, federal support and state support. Each is in reality a part of the consideration of equalization, but their treatment involves more than a narrow consideration of equalization. The literature has attempted to develop these concepts, to show that they must be accepted, and what they could mean in practice.

Although discussions of federal, state, and local support are seldom separate, most short articles and researches deal primarily with one and incidentally with one or both of the others. It seemed more useful to use a plan of classification that was not more refined than the actual writings, and the use of which would not require repeating most of the titles in several classifications. Accordingly the simpler grouping under federal, state, and local finance is used. Important bibliographies and source materials are separately mentioned. The special point of emphasis of any publication is usually quite obvious from the title.

Under local finance a somewhat arbitrary division is made between finance and business management, as noted above. The interested reader on local finance will find valuable titles in the later list (Chapter 13), especially in the field of school debt.

Under federal finance are included writings that are concerned not only with federal support, but also with studies of costs or other matters when made on a nation-wide basis. The same is true of the titles on state finance. With few exceptions footnote references are not repeated in the lists following.

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II. Source Materials

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Chapter 10

LOCAL SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION—THE DISTRICT

1. The Field of Local School Administration

Local school administration is here considered as the direct management of the schools of a single school district. The school district is a unit of government in all states of the country. District powers are derived from the state and are limited to the establishment and direction of schools for the people within its limits. Being a creation of the state the district school machinery is in the nature of an instrument of the state for carrying out its educational program. A study of the laws by which school districts are defined, however, leads to the impression that a school district is better defined as an agent, and still better, as a part of the state rather than as an instrument of the state. This calls attention to the fact that a district has quite wide freedom to exercise what may be called discretionary powers in the conduct of its service.

Districts vary in size, both geographically and in population. Some districts have but one school, with one teacher, while others have ten, twenty, or sixty schools, with a dozen or even several thousand teachers. Originally, districts took form largely in terms of communities. As community boundaries have shifted under the influence of social, economic, and physical change the district has sometimes remained as it was and sometimes changed correspondingly. In general, town and city districts have tended to keep growing and expanding geographically with the growth of the city population and municipal boundries while, despite the breakdown of the old rural community, the tendency has been for the rural school district to remain as it was. The rural school consolidation movement has tried to reconstruct rural school district lines to conform more

nearly to actual community boundaries and in thousands of cases has accomplished much. In general, however, this problem has not been solved.[1] The problem is one aspect of the great social problem of rural life. It is partly a matter of educational efficiency, with economic implications of importance for plans of school support.

The problems of rural, that is, small district, administration were dealt with in Chapter 8. This chapter, therefore, is concerned primarily with the administration of town and city school systems. The problems of a real county school system are little different from those of a city system except in the character of its instructional program and the physical aspects. The principles of management suited to one would apply in the other, though the concrete applications would differ widely, for obvious reasons.

The administration of a school district begins where the superior authority of the state leaves off and moves in accord with laws enacted by the state. The state provides for the establishment of a board of control. It prescribes by statute, often by constitution, and possibly by state board of education regulations, for a program of education with a defined plan of support. It decides who may attend school, who may teach, roughly how the schools may be organized and conducted, and many other details.[2] These provisions differ considerably from state to state, and within most states differ from one class of district or one type of school to another.

As a characteristic of American school systems attention is called to these differences. Back of them are differences in origin, in traditions, in social development, and in financial circumstances affecting school support. One cannot understand the American school district as an institution or as an element in our culture without knowing its historical background. The school in America started as a local community institution. The district came later as a formal recognition of the local nature of school service. The school is local still and the more

[1] W. B. Ragan, "Some Social Aspects of School District Reorganization," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (Sept., 1938), Vol. 24, pp. 450-458.

[2] See any state school code.

science finds out about the nature of education and the school's place in a democracy the more it reveals the necessity for a school's very close ties with home and community life. School government must not be organized or conducted in ways that nullify these ties, or rob the school of their benefits. That the school should be active in a community is expected; the need for the community to be active in the school is often overlooked.

The industrialization of America, with its swarm of social changes, has altered community lines almost everywhere and the school district has not always kept step with these changes. The result is that in many cases district organization is tending to frustrate the effective working relationship between school and community.[3] In the towns and cities where the district has usually grown at least roughly with the municipality the situation is somewhat different. A city is a community of communities. Originally, we had many cases of separate school districts within a city, each school a part of the life of a ward of the city. This plan has been generally abandoned in favor of a single unified organization of the schools of a city. In such cases the problem of administration is complicated by the fact that the central control of schools needs to be harmonized with the nature and purposes of the city—the super community —and the individual school within the city needs to be fitted into the life of a special social group or community within the city. In accomplishing this there have been many cases of misfit, due partly to rapid growth of cities, partly to changes in zoning systems within cities, and partly to general lack of foresight in management both of cities and of schools.

In this we find one of the difficult problems of city school administration, if indeed it is not the basis of a great many lesser ones. To locate school properties to fit future shifts in the population of a city is difficult. If a business or industrial zone pushes halfway across the territory of a given school and so results in the replacement of residences with stores,

[3] D. C. MacKintosh, "Meaning of the 1940 Census for Educational Reconstruction," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (Dec., 1943). Vol. 29, pp. 539-544.

shops, and factories something is likely to happen to the attendance boundaries of that school and of several adjacent schools. Mere neighborhood lines are not apt to stop the shift. When school populations change there are likely to be needs for change of programs within the schools.[4] So it is that the problem of maintaining a working relation between school and community in cities is a constant concern for the school administrator.

To develop the central office services of a city school system without introducing forms of standardization and routines that tend to break down the more local and personal character of the individual school and classroom is another aspect of this problem of building and rebuilding school districts. Making policies and shaping plans and staff organization for a city with many widely different school units is by no means simple. What is sound policy or procedure for one part of the system can easily be a hindrance when applied in another part unless policies and procedures are built up from the schools rather than in terms of some authority that lies above and outside the schools.

The point to be noted here is that local school administration is not only different, because the school needs of different localities are different, but also because almost every community is in a constant process of change. One has only to add to this the fact that education itself is changing as scientific study points the way to new concepts and methods and new ways of interpreting educational needs.

Local school administration may in part be carried on by means of regulations, standards, and fixed routines. But much of it must be very direct and personal, dealing with children, with curriculums, with teachers, with school houses and equipment, with finance and business, and with a very directly interested public. It must respect all general laws affecting rights of person and property, and specifically, all school laws and all

[4] W. S. Deffenbaugh, "Some Developments in School Administration During the Past Fifty Years," *The American School Board Journal* (March, 1940), Vol. 100, pp. 39-41.

local ordinances and charters.[5] It exists primarily to direct and facilitate the work of instruction, and the most important measure of its worth is to be found in the extent to which these ends are served.[6]

To outline the field of local school administration as a field of study it may be said: it refers to the processes of organization and management of the school or school system of a local school district; it refers to the task of executing the school laws and regulations of the state within the limits of the district; it includes the activities of policy-making, organization, planning, directing, supervising, and evaluating for the schools; it is carried on through a carefully selected and organized personnel; it defines school objectives, directs the building of curriculums, organizes children for instruction, houses the schools, and provides them with equipment and supplies. The study of how to handle the people (teachers, children, parents) and materials (plant and equipment) involved, in terms of properly selected objectives, and with respect for superior authority, can be broken down in various ways. The task is broad and complex. The school system, large or small, is a unit composed of many lesser units. The school system is composed of schools and schools of classes. Each of these suggests a point of approach for study. For purposes of treatment here, however, a more helpful and more practical analysis would seem to call for a breakdown in terms of the major tasks or divisions of the work to be done.

In line with this idea, the remainder of the present chapter will be devoted to problems of policy-making, major organization, central office controls, and public relations. Succeeding chapters will deal with other phases or divisions of the field, as follows:

Personnel management
Supervision and research

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[5] E. A. Fitzpatrick, "School System and the City," *The American School Board Journal* (March, 1940), Vol. 100, pp. 46-50.

[6] Jesse B. Sears, "School Board Controls—The Necessary Tools and Procedures," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (Nov., 1942), Vol. 28, pp. 561-580.

School business management
School buildings and equipment
The administration of a school

2. Policy-Making for the School System

By policy here is meant the principles and purposes by which the schools of the district are carried on. Policies are needed if management is to be consistent throughout the system and from day to day and month to month. To be good, policies must be consistent and unified; they must provide for decisions and actions favorable to the attainment of school objectives; they must be adequate to cover all cases, conditions, and circumstances that may reasonably arise in management; and they must be implemented with regulations, plans, standards, procedures, and with competent and responsible personnel.[7] The line that separates a policy from the plan and means for applying it is important as a matter of clear thinking and as a matter of fixing responsibility. But a policy without a plan for its use, or a plan of action without a basic policy back of it, would almost certainly fail to produce good administration.

Policy-making for a school district is commonly regarded as the function of the school board.[8] The district is created by state law and in the law a board of control, called by various special titles in different states, is invariably provided for and given responsibility for carrying out the school law for the district. Policy-making begins where state law (and sometimes municipal law) leaves off. School systems vary in the extent and manner of expressing their policies in writing, or leaving them to accumulate more as traditions in practice. They vary, also, in the extent to which they develop and use basic policies in their management. Poor administrators often prefer not to

[7] Ernest O. Melby, "A Check List for the Preparation of Rules, Regulations and Written Instructions," *The American School Board Journal* (April, 1927), Vol. 74, pp. 41-42, 152.

[8] For a brief summary of the beginnings of the school board function in America see L. E. Leipold, "The Colonial Beginnings of the Board of Education," *The American School Board Journal* (May, 1945), Vol. 110, pp. 26 ff.

be held by policies, for then they are forced to be consistent in action. They prefer "rule by man" to "rule by law."

There are several aspects of the problem of policy-making, including: (1) the discovery and definition of the need for a policy, (2) the formulation of a statement of the policy, (3) the enactment of the policy, and (4) the implementation of the policy.[9] Need for a policy might be discovered in many ways. One might set out to build a unified scheme of government for a school system and by intimate knowledge of education, of schools, and of administrative theory, build up a carefully unified set of policies. Much could be accomplished in this way. The chances are, however, that actual use of such policies would reveal some lack of fit with realities. School systems differ in many ways, despite their general likenesses.

A second way by which the need for a policy might be found would be to study the annoyances that come from having to deal individually and at length with many cases that seem finally to fall roughly into definable classes. When case after case arises, all of similar nature, it becomes apparent that a basis is needed for disposing of them by classes. Sometimes the blundering of the personal type of administration, rule by man, results in settling similar cases differently. From this a breakdown in morale often results, and finally a challenge brings the inconsistency to light and the need for a fair and reasonable and consistent policy is made clear. The need for a policy may be discovered by the board of control, whose business it is to make policies; it may be discovered by administrators, who execute policies; or it may be sensed by those who are governed by the policies: the teachers, janitors, and clerks.

As to the second phase of the task, the formulation of a policy, one needs an intimate knowledge of the practical situations or cases the policy is to cover, as well as an understanding of the possible meaning and implications of the principle it is to embody. A policy or a frame of government of any sort has no merit in itself that will alone guarantee successful manage-

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[9] Jesse B. Sears, "School Board Procedures with Special Reference to Hearings," *The American School Board Journal* (Nov., Dec., 1943, Feb., April, 1944), Vol. 107, pp. 44-45, 32-34, 27-28, 28-29.

ment. It has merit because it embodies elements that fit a large and important group of common elements in the practical situations that arise. Policy grows out of a study of practice and is not in itself some original superpower or wisdom to be imposed upon practice. Where superwisdom comes in is in seeing and classifying the elements of harmony and of discord that make up many cases, and in being able to define a principle or mode of action that will do most to bring order and system and harmony of decision and action among the cases. Where superpower comes in is in the fact that, when applied, the policy selects the actions and decisions that are allowed to prevail and rejects those that would cause conflict or lead to wrong ends.

It is obvious from this that policies should be made only by those who know the cases to be ruled by the policies.[10] This sounds simpler than it is, for cases are complex and many-sided. Take the case of teacher tenure. Tenure seemed desirable as one means of contributing to the building up of a highly important group of professional workers. This aspect of the problem was thought to be the major consideration by many competent leaders, who considered economic security for teachers as a means to a desired end. Very soon, however, it became apparent that security was being made an end in itself. In fact, it became so prominent an end that it appeared to be turning its newer promoters away from the original purpose to the development of teachers into an active pressure group, which sought security and more income, and was not too much concerned about the development of a class of educational leaders for the country.

This illustrates how easy it is to build a policy in terms of the views of a wrong group of advisers or in terms of too few of the facts that are involved. It suggests the desirability in policy-making of considering, not only the purpose or desired end, but also the possible interests of all who might be concerned with its application. To put a proposed school policy through such a test as one part of the process of formulating it,

[10] Worth McClure, "Administrative Dilemmas," *The American School Board Journal* (Nov., 1941), Vol. 103, pp. 17-18.

suggests that the problem be exposed widely to all groups of employees. The reason is, first, the school system is unified and any major principle or plan of action is likely to affect, not a few, but many or all the employees, and possibly the children and parents as well; second, the talent especially needed on any given problem should be drawn upon wherever it may be in the system. Superintendents used to make curriculums but they have quit this because for this task there is better talent in the classrooms and supervisors' offices.

This seems to suggest a possible principle in school administration: In the management of a school or school system provision should be made for knowledge to flow from wherever it is in the system to wherever it is needed when it is needed.[11] The answers to many classroom problems are most quickly found in the superintendent's office or some other central office, and, *vice versa,* the correct answer to many central office problems is to be found in the classroom. Policy-making and planning are not the least difficult aspects of administration and as a rule they are not the best performed. There is too much imitating of what is done in other systems, too much personal decreeing in terms of authority of office, too little study of pertinent facts and conditions and interests, and too little attempt to draw upon the knowledge of subordinates.

It is not the purpose here to offer a solution to this problem but only to present it as a present weakness in our practice. Here we are analyzing the problem of policy-making. The problem is that of bringing the talent of the school system to bear upon all the aspects of the questions at issue. What is needed seems to be a practical implementation of the above principle that available knowledge shall be found and used when needed. How to marshal the knowledge, and the development of the will to have it marshalled, are also problems.

These problems exist because by tradition administering a school system has been thought of, first of all, as a task of applying the authority that has been created in laws or granted by boards of education. The staff aspect of the job—the re-

[11] Jesse B. Sears, "Analysis of School Administrative Controls," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (Sept., 1934), Vol. 20, pp. 401-430.

search, the finding out what to do and how to do it, the development of a policy or a plan—was not treated as a major aspect of the administrative task. More and more this is being reversed. The major aspect is coming to be that of applying knowledge and understanding. The use of authority follows almost automatically, once knowledge has pointed the way. This is especially true in the field of policy-making.

Another reason for the slow development of the staff aspect of administration to meet this weakness in policy-making stems from the fact that administration has been too much by man and too little by law.[12] Administrators too frequently confuse the rights of their office with those of their persons. School laws and school boards grant powers to officers, not to persons. Too many administrators fail to make this distinction. They take criticism as personal criticism and feel that they must safeguard their personal rights by using the powers of their office to compel people to respect them as persons of power. This may be a matter of personality, or a matter of lack of skill in dealing with subordinates, but behind these is this basic misinterpretation of the nature of the authority given to the executive as an officer.[13] Whether a policy shall be in writing and stand as a rule or order or whether it may be left as a general viewpoint verbally agreed upon is a major consideration to be dealt with later.

The third phase of policy-making, that of its official enactment, presents no serious problems so far as major policies are concerned. This is a matter of establishing authority. This power rests with the board and legally it cannot be delegated to others. If there is a problem at this point it is in the failure to enact policies that are sound and consistent with each other, or in the failure to put the policies in a permanent form and in a place that makes them quickly available for reference.

[12] Jesse B. Sears, "Administrative Discretion vs. (or, with) Rules and Regulations," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (May, 1943), Vol. 29, pp. 257-283.

[13] D. S. Morgan, "Difficulties Inherent in the Development of Democratic Procedures in City School Administration," Chicago, Chicago University, Department of Education, *Proceedings of the Eighth Annual Conference for Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools*, pp. 29-40, 1939.

The final step—implementation of policy—has reference to placement of responsibility for its observance and for its enforcement. The former should be clear from the wording of the policy. The latter often may require further action. A board may establish the policy that compensation of employees shall be fixed in terms of salary and wage schedules. This policy cannot be effective until such schedules are developed and made official.

This rather extended analysis of the function of policy-making is presented here because, although reference has been mainly to major policies for the system as a whole for which the board is responsible, this function is a major part of the task of directing activities all the way from central office to classroom. Furthermore, policies are so related to plans and procedures that they are incomplete without them. In other words, the function of policy-making is a basic one, is so extensive and so permeates the whole system of controls that on these grounds alone it warrants exceptional notice. Even more important however is the fact that this is the aspect of school administration in which weaknesses most often have their roots.

3. Organization of a Local School System

Organization refers to the governmental framework of the school system to the placement and flow of authority and responsibility from office to office among staff members. It applies also to the arrangement of the children for instruction, to the program of instruction, and to the housing. In any of these areas organization presents numerous problems. Perhaps the most important one is that of establishing harmony of organization between each one of these areas and all the others. If staff organization is not properly attuned to program organization, to plant organization, or to the organization of the children, there is sure to be friction when these several divisions of the machine go into operation.

In building up the organization of a school system one seldom starts *de novo*. The problem is one of reorganization or

of making alterations or adjustments in an existing system. Need for such changes arises from the growth, decline, or shift in location of school population, from the addition or abandonment of school buildings, from changes in objectives and curriculums, from addition of new services or change in emphasis of one or more of the existing services, from changes in the staff, or from the necessity for retrenchment or other budget difficulties.

One can approach problems of organization or of reorganization or adjustment from the standpoint of a basic theory of organization; he can start with a preconceived pattern or plan; or he can treat it as a practical problem to be solved empirically in light of existing facts and circumstances. It is questionable whether many local systems or individual schools have been set up with a conscious and careful regard for a theory of organization. It would be equally wrong, no doubt, to say that theory has played no part at all. That there has been much copying of patterns there can be no doubt. For years the junior high school pattern of organization was adopted widely as a school pattern of organization for staff and plant and children but with little if any alteration of program. In such cases even the pattern was violated. No one can doubt that practical circumstances have often dominated minor changes in organization and, when closely examined, it is apparent enough that the idea of economy has too often dominated such changes.

Which of the three approaches is soundest? If education is a science, if its data are possible of scientific treatment, then it seems obvious that there must be something in the nature of basic principles of organization.[14] The reasoning would go as follows: The object of organization is to facilitate learning; the process of learning is one part of the process of life and so it must have been provided for biologically; children never have lived outside of an environment (physical and social), so their native, inherited, biological nature must have been evolved in ways suited to the task of reacting to (utilizing, ignoring, or

[14] Henry H. Hill and William Maucker, "Types of Public School Administrative Organization in Cities Over 200,000," *The American School Board Journal* (July, 1941), Vol. 103, pp. 17-19.

dodging) environment; environment can be controlled to a large extent and that is what teaching is: the task of selecting and offering things for children to react to; each course or planned activity or experience is merely an organization of stimuli to which children respond and from which response they effect changes in their understandings, skills, appreciations, and physical and personality characteristics; staff members are chosen and assigned to participate in shaping and presenting the stimuli—activities, courses, curriculums; buildings are designed to house children at work reacting to these courses and activities. Thus it is that the laws of learning have to be respected by all organization, and the learnings which are important to have are determined in part by the child's personal needs and in part by the demands of the environment in which he must live. This means that a sound theory of organization must take its rise from psychological, biological, and sociological foundations.

This sort of theory would likely be inconsistent with a theory that started with the idea that organization stands apart from the service it renders and that there are laws of organization that arise solely from within the nature of the process of control itself. Whereas this latter view would hold that an organization is built with reference to control as such, and may disregard the thing to be controlled, the theory discussed above would hold the opposite. Either of these theories would have to deal with the principles of economy as an important secondary consideration.

The objection to a theory that draws its principles from the nature of the organization as such lies in the assumption either that the nature or wishes or needs of the children do not matter, or that the principles of organization derived from the organization as such by their nature will have the capacity to recognize the nature and needs of the children. The falsity of the former assumption is obvious from daily observation of children at work or play. The latter assumption *might* be true, but if so, then what a remarkable coincidence! That the two approaches might lead to theories with some common elements would not be strange, but that they should harmonize

in full would be amazing. The theory of organization that starts with the theory of education and moves in terms of the laws of learning, the laws of personality development, the laws by which our society and culture are built up and held together, and which reveals the place of the individual in the group life, is the theory that seems most rational and most practical. In a true sense, it can be called the functional theory of organization.

Copying patterns of organization popular elsewhere assumes that any organization will do, that a pattern that works in one place will work well in another, that organization has virtue in itself. This is not as good a practice as that of meeting each problem on its merits and in terms of conditions present.

The weaknesses most common in this field are several. First, there are prejudices against the idea of having a theory. The bases of this prejudice are, first, ignorance of theory, and second, preference for personal control as opposed to control by any kind of theory or principle or other definite point of reference by which quality of organization can be judged. Lazy people, ignorant people, conceited people, autocratic people, irresponsible people, and social and professional climbers, as a rule, prefer not to accept anything like a rule, regulation, fixed principle, or policy as a basis of action. They prefer strictly personal decisions and to make personal assignments. The plan worshippers may be and often are the type that struggle to keep up with the Joneses in administration or those who have had success with a given plan and now wish to promote the thing to which they attribute their former success. On the other hand, there are those who hold to one certain plan and out of their experience and knowledge can give good reasons for their faith in the plan. They argue that the plan will fit most any system but often overlook the necessity for relating organization of one feature of the system to all the other features. They also overlook the bearing of the plan upon such fixed material matters as plant, equipment, budget capacity, or such matters as trends in educational objectives or in school population.

The problems for administrators are:

1. The development and understanding of a theory of organization that fits in with the nature and purposes of education.
2. The development of a plan of organization that holds true to the theory but that recognizes the local situation—the children, the community, the existing facilities, the financial resources available, and trends in all matters that affect the schools.

Knowing how to build an organization means knowing the theory upon which to work, knowing what facts to use as a starting point in applying the theory, and knowing where to get and how to treat and interpret the facts. It also means knowing how to construct an organization that will express both the facts and the theory.

The laws provide for a school board. Some provide that members shall be elected by popular vote, others that they shall be appointed. Philadelphia has a board of 15 members, St. Louis has one of 12, Baltimore one of nine, St. Paul one of six, and Memphis one of five. These are large systems. What are the relative merits of these several sizes? Large numbers of systems operate with but one chief executive but St. Louis has five, Chicago has three, and Houston has two. Some boards carry on their work as a single board, others handle large parts of their business through committees. Cincinnati's board has twelve standing committees. The trend is away from large boards, away from standing committees, away from dual or multiple executive control toward the election of board members at large as opposed to appointment and as opposed to election by wards.[15]

What is said here of large cities is not far from being characteristic of smaller districts as well. These problems are not yet solved and one reason is that tradition, politics, and per-

[15] Theodore L. Reller, "Wanted: School Directors Who Direct," *The American School Board Journal* (April, 1941), Vol. 102, pp. 19-21; also, J. Leroy Thompson, "The Changing Concept of the Board of Education," *ibid* (Feb., 1941), Vol. 102, pp. 19-20, 93.

sonal interests, rather than sound theory, have too often dominated the development.

If one is to judge these various plans by the results they produce in classrooms it might be difficult to make choices among them. In such matters, however, one may do equally well to judge merit by observing how the plan works in a given case or cases by applying sound reasoning to the facts observed.

Taking another feature of a typical organization: Should assistant superintendents be assigned to administrative divisions of the system, or should the assignment cover all administrative divisions but be limited to a defined geographical section of the district? So far as mere control is concerned it probably does not matter. As a basis for coordinating elementary with secondary school work the former plan has more advantages, while the latter could claim the advantage of more specialization in use of talent. The basis upon which the choice should be made is likely to be size of district to be covered. In other words, if an administrator has to spend too much time getting to his work he cannot get his work done. We have not only to develop talent for jobs but we have to get the talent to the job. This illustrates how the strictly educational considerations in the abstract or even in a concrete case sometimes have to yield to claims of physical, financial, or other extraneous matters which ideally we might wish to ignore.

In a small system it not infrequently becomes necessary to assign one person to two or three distinct and separate functions. A superintendent or an assistant superintendent in charge of both administration and supervision, or a research and guidance combination, or guidance and teaching, are common illustrations. These combination positions often present problems, due to the fact that the holder of such a position fails to keep the jobs separate, either from each other or from himself personally. He thinks of himself personally as doing a task when he should think of himself as administrator or as supervisor doing it. An administrator may observe a teacher at work with a view to determining whether to promote him. This is definitely an administrative function. A supervisor would observe a teacher at work with a view to assisting him

with advice. When observed a teacher needs to know whether he is being inspected for promotion or observed by a cooperating expert who wishes to help him improve his work. One usually cannot successfully apply administrative techniques in handling supervisory service, though supervisory techniques are often excellent in administration.

Supervision is in bad repute in many places because it is being carried on as administration. For some reason man likes to have and to use power over his fellows and the easiest power to use is not that of superior intelligence and leadership but that of delegated authority. For that reason many school principals, whose functions are a combination of administration and leadership, try to use administrative methods even when they are working at supervision. They criticize negatively and softly hint that without improvement the teacher will likely not get promotion. Such a performance is certainly not even distantly related to supervision, and in the field of administration it probably belongs in the realm of bossing. When a man approaches me I want to know his purpose. If I am not able to discern it I stall. If the man who approaches does not have a clear-cut purpose, then, likely, we both stall or stand confused.

This reveals that one important element in organization is that of clear and definite separation of the functions to be definitely assigned. This is the dominating problem almost everywhere. It is true that in many systems some necessary functions are omitted or so inadequately provided for that the machine breaks down from the omission. As already noted, the function of research is the best illustration of such omissions. Without it guidance is only half provided for. Public relations is a further illustration. Confusion in assignment and in purpose back of assignment, however, stands out as one of our greatest weaknesses.

The best way to overcome such confusion and such omissions is to set up an organization on paper. First, what is the educational program to be carried out and what plant, budget, staff, and other facilities are available? With these facts in hand and the educational program before one in detail, it should be possible to devise the machinery for carrying out the

task. This machine can be set up in the form of an organization chart and in the form of a book of rules and regulations and a book of administrative instructions.[16] Without these instruments it is almost certain that omissions and confusion will exist. This lack of a paper expression of organization is a point of great weakness at present in many school systems. They have no organization chart, no board rules, and no manual of administrative instructions.

Even where these administrative instructions are provided it often happens that they do not rid the system of confusion because they are too often built to fit what exists and do not represent a careful and systematic study of needs nor an expression of sound theory. The faults of books of rules have often been analyzed and all point to incompleteness, inconsistencies, confusion of functions, lack of clarity, and inclusion of irrelevant matters as typical defects.

Even when rules have been carefully written some difficulty may still arise from the fact that certain terms convey one meaning to one person and a different meaning to another. Typical of this is the term "supervision." By the proper meaning of this term a supervisor has no authority over teachers except the authority of superior knowledge and skill; that is, the authority of leadership. This function is so often confused with administration that, by and large, teachers resent supervision. In writing rules care must be exercised to avoid this type of difficulty.

The final test of organization is how it works. A perfect organization can be so badly operated as to produce poor results and a poor organization can be made effective by skillful and zealous operators. A bad organization, such as a multiple-headed system of administration, has been known to work well, though admittedly it violates the functional concept of organization and usually produces incoordination and friction. On the other hand, well-organized school systems often break down because of personal weaknesses of their managers.

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[16] Jesse B. Sears, "Rules and Regulations—Their Nature and Place in a System of School Administration," *The American School Board Journal* (March, April, May, 1943), Vol. 106, pp. 21-22, 24-25, 35-36.

Within a given school homogeneous grouping of children is a success, elsewhere it may fail. The point of view and skill of principals and teachers, not the plan, makes the difference. Making student discipline a part of the guidance function will work —it is sound theoretically—if the guidance workers are skillful and have adequate knowledge of children. A rigid grading system produces undeniably fine results in one place while an elastic system or even no system will do equally well elsewhere. Also, both systems have failed often enough. The difference is in the staff, not in the organization, and this is not to suggest that rigidity or chaos in grading is as good as an elastic plan that really fits the children.

4. Central Office Administration

A local school system is controlled by a board of education and is directed from a central office. In a unified plan this central office is under direction of the superintendent of schools. The central office force may range from the superintendent and his secretary in a very small system, to a large force, including assistant superintendents, general and special supervisors, directors of special services, such as adult education, health, pupil personnel, research, public relations, and the like. Naturally, the size of this force is dictated, first, by the size of the school population and number of schools; second, by the character of the services to be provided; and third, by the plan of organization decided upon.

One may prefer to centralize control and also the various staff services of a system, and so have a relatively large central office staff. Or, he may prefer to make each school a relatively complete unit in itself, in which case he will have more people assigned to schools and fewer to central office services. Almost every school system, small or large, will require the services of instruction, supervision, administration, guidance, library management, health care, research, and public relations. Also they will require clerical, custodial, and business services. The extent to which these services may be provided for each school separately or distributed from the central office is an organiza-

tion problem. One may succeed as well as the other, but probably not unless circumstances are alike in the two cases.

If there were no central office force the board of education would inevitably become such a force. The board would deal with schools separately, and whatever it did by way of standardizing and coordinating work between schools would in reality be central office administration. To have the business services of each school—purchasing, accounting, construction, repairs, cleaning, and reporting—done separately would be wasteful and tend to make the principal a mere clerk and divert his attention away from instruction. Whether supervision is handled as an individual school service or through the central office is a different question. If teachers are well trained and personally capable they will require less assistance. If the principal is expert at supervision he will be able to handle more of such work. Few principals are expert in either the methodology or subject matter of music, domestic science, industrial arts, or health care, and many are not capable of handling guidance. Beyond these matters, there are such problems as speech and other physical and mental defects that require the care of specially trained people. See Chapter 11 on this subject.

It is obvious that there are wide differences among local systems as to the extent of central as opposed to separate school handling of work. It seems clear that one cannot settle the question in one district by what has been done in another. It is an individual matter from district to district. If the teachers are not well equipped or capable or if they have exceptionally difficult problems, they need assistance. Since one cannot suddenly exchange a poor for a good staff the next best plan is to try to improve the staff. This might be done by putting in a better principal, which is not always possible. If both principals and teachers are weak the solution would likely be found by extending central office control and supervision to that school. In such a move, however, action cannot be based upon the needs of one school alone in the system. The problem is not only one of finding the need for a given service, but also one of applying methods of economy in supplying the need. The faults most common in practice are the failure to make

the study of needs and of economy, the proneness to copy a neighboring pattern, or to settle it in terms of local pressure unrelated to school needs.

This type of analysis would apply as well for the handling of parts of research, public relations, attendance, and like matters. If the school staff is able to care for all needed special services in addition to its main duties, such services need not be provided from a central office. If having such special services would require enlarging the school's own staff, then the question arises of whether to provide for special services on a school-by-school basis or from the central office. To settle the question all educational aspects should be examined first, after which come the questions of economy. In both, the element of efficiency must be weighed.

To sum up: There are some controls and some directions that can best come from a central office; there are others that clearly must rest within the school as a unit; and there are still others that can best be centralized under some circumstances and attached to individual schools in others. Lay boards are not competent to handle educational matters and when decentralization begins to result in administration by the board it has gone too far. The board's function ends with making policies and passing upon the plans and procedures advised by its superintendent. As already noted, many school systems suffer from a lack of clarity and fixity of this line of cleavage between board and administrative functions.

As school systems grow large the contact of superintendent with individual schools grows more difficult regardless of the competency of school principals and teachers, and this relationship if neglected can reach a point where serious waste begins.[17] This waste may come from delayed decisions or actions, from lack of understanding of problems, or from principals taking over authority that belongs in the central office, and so moving in ways not consistent with procedures in other schools. Just when a superintendent needs assistants to work between him and the schools is a question of the amount and kinds of work to

[17] W. C. Reavis, "Administrative Status of the School Principal in Large Cities," *Educational Record* (1938), Vol. 19, pp. 433-448.

be done. When superintendent and principal cannot cover the ground, then help is needed. This help in small systems may be provided by giving the superintendent a competent clerk or two, and possibly, also, by adding a clerk to the principals' office. In time, however, help will be needed to carry the more responsible and more technical matters, at which time the addition of an assistant superintendent is necessary.

It is at this point that weaknesses often develop in central office management. Too frequently the duties of the new office are not clearly defined and the assistant superintendent is not certain as to his duties. Either he refers too many matters to his chief, and loses prestige because he seems never to give a prompt decision; or, he refers too few matters and disturbs his chief and his subordinates by seeming to exercise too much authority. This type of problem is very common when a new office, large or small, is established. Lack of clarity in the placement and flow of authority is the weakness. Personality difficulties often show up along with the more basic trouble of indefinite assignment.

Although size of system and competency of local staff have much to do with the division of labor between central office and local or individual school control it still remains true that some things have to be harmonized as between schools, have to come together in one place, in order for the board to avoid taking a hand in direct management. Regardless of whether individual schools are given separate budgets there must be a single financial control if people are to be expected to vote funds for support. If research results are to be of most value, they should be available throughout the system. This can be done only if the coordinating function is centralized. If some special problem, such as speech defects, appears in a few pupils in each of several schools, it would be better to have a specially trained teacher go from school to school or, perhaps, have a central-office specialist train the regular teachers and guide them in the correction work in their respective schools or classrooms.

A weakness that often causes trouble is that of having no fixed route over which business is to travel. Rules and regulations provide for major policies, plans, and procedures; the

administrative manual should provide for the detailed routines. Even with these specifications, situations will arise where the responsibility for a given item of business is not clear. When instruments of control do not exist, or when they have been loosely drawn, this difficulty may become serious. When principals fear to present a problem to one officer lest they offend another they will likely choose to make a worse blunder by not referring it at all.

5. Public Relations

Problems of public relations have always existed in public school management. Until recent years, however, any formal recognition of this function was lacking. With the growth of school systems there have come new complications in this area and pressures unfavorable as well as favorable have increased. At the same time, scientific study of administration has gradually led to analyses that have resulted in this function being set out as one to be formally recognized. Obviously, since the schools belong to the people and since the people establish and maintain them there can be no doubt as to the right of the people to know all they care to know about what the schools are doing. These rights are clearly fixed in laws governing finance, records, reports, and the like. Besides this, the science of education requires that the schools of a democracy shall be kept very close to the people; in fact, that the people shall participate actively in making the schools. This becomes an aspect of public relations for which school administrators are responsible. Besides these social, legal, and scientific justifications for the recognition of this function there is also the very practical necessity of keeping on good working terms with the people.

It is one thing to recognize the need for a systematic handling of such problems and a different thing to plan for their management. Waiting until difficulties arise means trying to get along without any policy except that of maintaining a trouble shooter to patch up the difficulties. That is not administration; it is only dodging administration.

The social, legal, and scientific or strictly educational obligations just noted point quite clearly to this field as one that holds both obligations and opportunities for the administrator. In such important matters policies are needed, plans of action must be devised, and personnel assignments must be made whether the district is large or small. A present weakness is seen in some places in the lack of these, in others in the inadequacy of the provisions made.

The problem in its gross form is that of maintaining a comfortable working relationship between the schools and the public, a relationship that enables the people to understand the school purposes and programs and to register their own feelings and purposes where they will have a part in making the schools. The people, here, must mean all the people, not just the taxpayers, or just the parents, or just the business leaders, or this or that influential society or club. The public relations policy must not be one of catering to key people.

If one analyzes this larger audience he will find taxpayers, parents of school children, citizens, the local police and courts, the public health and fire departments, and other divisions of the local government force. He will find parent-teacher and other organizations concerned with the cultural development of the community, and news gatherers, and people who desire to deal with the schools in a business way. For different reasons all these groups will want information about the schools. Many of them will wish to work cooperatively with the schools, and some of them will desire to share in the development of the schools. Here and there, also, are a few people who for one reason or another are interested in taking some advantage of the schools in order to gain social prestige, or a business opportunity, or to put over some pet idea, or to depopularize the schools in order to keep taxes down or to gain some personal or political advantage. All of these groups are a part of the schools' public and it is a proper obligation of the schools to meet them all in a friendly and open manner.

One could have good intentions but not a good policy or plan of public relations without such an analysis of the public.

Having made such a study the next step is to determine for each audience just what interests there are to be satisfied. Each interest needs to be scrutinized carefully in the light of the purposes and obligations of public education. The schools' policy should be positive and not negative. What the schools offer in the way of information or joint participation to any audience should be based primarily upon the needs of the schools, and only secondarily upon the wishes of the group in question. The schools belong to *all* the people, not to part of them, and the board and school staff are expected to formulate and maintain a program of education, not to have the program pushed about this way and that by interested groups. With the interests to be served in mind, and making sure that serving such interests will further the purposes of the schools, thought should then be given to the means or agency through which the group in question may best be reached.

For public relations purposes the school staff is a vital point of contact. To be effective, the public relations program must be well understood by all members of the staff. A teacher's contacts with parents, with parent-teacher associations, with social groups, with church and club groups, furnish avenues through which information may flow to the public. If the schools have purposes and plans and needs, here are opportunities to get these before the public. This is not to suggest the development of a system of propaganda, but only to suggest the natural points of contact between the schools and the public. Through these contacts staff members should be as ready to learn as they are to teach. In a public relations program the intake for information and ideas should be equal to the outgo. It is as much an obligation of the schools to learn from as it is to teach the public.

With this conception of public relations the program may be viewed as a part of the adult education program of the community, or it may be thought of as a part of the normal *modus operandi* of the schools. Getting either view established is not simple. Teachers often assume no responsibility for a part in such a program. Too many executives spend time on keeping up their own personal contacts and too little on legitimate pub-

lic relations activities. Too many clubs and too many individuals want to run the schools without taking the trouble to understand them. A relationship in which both public and school personnel are active and aggressive, but also open-minded and cooperative is not likely to develop unless someone, some leader, has a clear concept of the function and works to develop it. On this administration has been notoriously weak, and often indifferent.

Without a proper view of the public relations function there is little use to consider specifics. How to use the local press, how to handle a bond election, how to use school publications, how to use the parent-teacher association or other community organizations, how to use school activities such as holiday programs or know-your-schools week, how to use school exhibits, how to use motion picture and window displays and advertising—each as a publicity device is far from adequate. A device or trick of a trade may be useful as a tool but one must know how, when, and where to apply it. One may know all the possible devices to use in this service and still not have a sound public relations service, because he is trying to prescribe without having diagnosed the case.

Even though one may have studied his community thoroughly and worked out a good program, in which appropriate use is to be made of all legitimate agencies and means, a breakdown is still possible at the performance end. Management is an art as well as a science and good plans can fail for lack of skill in handling. This is a second point of weakness in present public relations practice. The weakness appears in many specific forms. Timidity, placating, and lack of courage in face of criticism, and answering trifling criticisms publicly in the press or from the platform are fairly good evidences of lack of policy and plan. Overreporting of school business and underreporting of educational matters are evidence of wrong emphasis in administration. Trying to get everything on a personal basis so reporters will see only what is pointed out to them by the superintendent or by the principal is a political, as opposed to professional, type of administration. Seeking personal publicity by having one's name constantly before the public is another

means of undermining a sound public relations program. Failing to give proper credit to members of the school staff for meritorious exhibits, entertainments, or other special achievements, often has been a means of weakening staff morale and so, of breaking down the program at its base.

A program that gives the public the news it wants without making sure that it also gets what it ought to have is not a good program. This is partly a question of what one puts into his plan for a program and partly a question of skillful management. If the public shows a lack of interest in the children and the essential educational activities of the schools, then that is something to try to develop. Building new public interests requires social insight and skill in leadership. To shift a part of the public enthusiasm from the home team to the accomplishments of the children in studies, in health, in personal and social growth, is not easy. The director of public relations should try, through adult education, to see to it that the public does not treat the schools as if they were established for purposes of entertainment and advertising. The problem here is one of teaching—teaching adults to have new ideas and interests and to support the true objectives and programs of the schools, not merely its side issues.

Perhaps the problems of public relations could be stated briefly as follows:

1. There must be a policy.
   (a) The policy should have clearly conceived purposes back of it.
   (b) The policy should be based upon a thorough study of the community's characteristics and educational needs as well as upon a sound social and educational philosophy.
2. There must be a plan or program of action.
   (a) The program must be based upon a thorough diagnosis of need and have clearly understood purposes.
   (b) Responsibility for the program should be definitely placed.

(c) The program should provide for sound working contact between *all* the patrons of the schools on the one hand and *all* of the school employees on the other.
(d) The program should be positive and aggressive; not aloof, or domineering, or placating, but friendly, and always dignified and impersonal, representing a cause and not persons, or officers.
(e) The program should cover all aspects of school activities evenly according to need.
(f) From the program the school people should try both to learn and to teach.
(g) Low staff morale makes a sound public relations program impossible.

3. The means and instrumentalities for making the program effective should be selected with care, having in mind the capacity of each for harm as well as good for the schools. Avenues of possible contact between schools and public include:

(a) The press, the platform, the radio, the moving picture.
(b) Reports, formal and informal, regular and occasional.
(c) Student publications and school house-organs.
(d) The adult education program.
(e) Social and professional organizations and coordinating councils.
(f) School exhibits, games, entertainments, and social activities.
(g) Direct personal contact between school and home.

6. The Literature on Local School Administration

The literature for this field is voluminous and varied. There are extensive materials in the form of superintendents' reports, local house organs, courses of study, books of rules and regulations, books of instructions to groups of employees, and a variety of special reports, bulletins, programs and announcements. There are general treatises providing comprehensive surveys of the field and special treatises covering divisions or

phases of the field; and there are many researches dealing with special problems and published as monographs or articles. In some ways the most notable collection of materials for this field is to be found in the published reports of school surveys. According to Smith's bibliographies there are some hundreds of these that are worth careful study. Summaries of statistics published in state and federal reports on schools, histories of individual schools or school systems, and educational encyclopedias, offer much material. Finally, and of outstanding importance, are the lists of professional magazines and yearbooks presented especially in Chapter 4, above.

The literature on local or district school administration is not sharply separated from that covering county, state, and federal problems, nor is it entirely distinct from that dealing with the administration of individual schools. Obviously, there could be no sharp cleavages at these points since school districts are organs of the state and often only parts of counties, and schools are but minor units within districts. Some of the difficult problems in school administration are to be found at the points of contact between district and state and between district (central office) and individual school. Discussions of supervision, guidance, and other functions must be dealt with by works on school and district administration alike and what is said in one applies in a large way in the other.

The bibliographies here presented are arranged under headings that serve to classify the titles in ways believed practically useful to the reader. The classification is partly in terms of administrative functions or offices and partly in terms of the nature of the publications themselves. Some of the titles under *General Treatises* could have been placed in other groups. Occasionally, titles in one limited group will be found to have value in other limited groups as well. For problems having to do with buildings, school business, staff personnel, research, and supervision the reader is directed to chapters dealing with those subjects, and for the subject of guidance to the final chapter.

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Chapter 11

PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT—THE SCHOOL STAFF

1. The Field of Personnel Management

The field of personnel work in education—the development, organization, maintenance and management of its staff—is very wide and the strictly administrative aspects of the field are not easily separable from other aspects or phases of it.[1] By practice, tradition, and law alike its problems are in part in the field of state and in part local school administration. In early colonial times the problem was purely a local one in all respects. Gradually the state took hold of the problem of training teachers and now most states exercise wide control over the selection of trainees and the certification for service, and many states provide extensive supervision and protection to those who enter the service. Thus, historically, control over this field has shifted more and more from the local district to the state. The end of this trend is not in sight and a cross section of practice today shows that there is much perplexity as to what this division of responsibility should be. Probably there is no single right solution, either for all states alike or for all times.

To staff education in the United States requires about a million workers. Choice of this million may be left to chance or made in terms of a policy. What should such a policy include? Again, this million workers must be trained. Shall this training be determined by chance or should it be definitely defined? If it is defined who should define it and who should conduct it? In a given school or school system who shall be employed, and for what term of service, and for what salary, and with what type and amount of service required, and with what provisions

[1] Recent researches in this field are reviewed in *Review of Educational Research,* Vol. 15, No. 2, April, 1945. See, also, earlier special numbers of this journal.

for promotion and for retirement? Shall all these controls be fixed and directed by the state, or are some of them of local concern only?

No one would think of permitting the district or the state at will to requisition the services of people for teaching. If they are not requisitioned, and if only certain types are desired, then all others who apply must be excluded and those desired must be attracted. People may be attracted by salary, by work conditions, by opportunity for professional growth, by security of position, by retirement provisions, and in general, by the social status of the calling. To get the most desirable teachers the schools will have to offer more in these several respects than competing callings. Can policies on all these matters be written into statutes and made effective on a state-wide basis, or are some of these matters unavoidably local in nature? Communities vary greatly in attractiveness.[2] More people will apply for positions in a well-managed than in an ill-managed school system, in a lively, aspiring community than in a dull or gossipy one, in a place where living conditions and social opportunities are good than in one where these are poor. If state-wide policies are to be developed they will have to take account of these variations in local communities.

Another angle to this state-local relationship is to be seen when these matters are viewed from the standpoint of our social philosophy. The American way is to try to produce cultural development spontaneously from within, and not by imposing it from the outside. If the state commands and the district merely obeys, the district will cease to think, to imagine, to have a constructive and purposeful attitude, and will tend to become negative and servile.[3] This would destroy the sense of freedom which is the essence of our social theory.

Equally important is the possible bad effect a wrong division of authority and responsibility, as between state and district, might have upon scientifically directed education. Modern edu-

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[2] David L. Green, "Balancing the Competition for Teachers," *Abstracts of Dissertations—Stanford University* (Nov., 1940), pp. 209-213.

[3] Note the wide resentment to teachers' oath of allegiance legislation. See: *Teachers' Oaths—Statutory Requirements and Oath Forms,* National Education Association, Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom, 1925.

cational theory calls for an intimate relationship between the school and its community. If the local community and the school have too many of their problems settled for them by the state then chance for genuine positive cooperation may be greatly reduced.[4]

While this line of cleavage between state and district marks one of the major problems in the personnel field there are many other lesser ones of importance. That someone should be studying personnel problems from the standpoint of the school's part in nation building, from the standpoint of our social and political theories and purposes, from the standpoint of local and state or national responsibility, from the standpoint of a sound theory of administration, and from the standpoint of education in a scientific sense, should be obvious. Broad statesmanship and scientific understanding are needed if the solution of the specific problems of managing personnel of any school enterprise large or small is to be accomplished. No doubt there are good, better, and best ways of developing, directing, and maintaining school personnel, whether concern is with a single school or college, a system of schools, or the combined educational activities within a state or the nation. Some of these problems warrant brief analysis here if the reader is to make the best use of the literature of this field.

These problems may be classified roughly as having directly to do with personnel management and as having an important indirect bearing upon the success of the personnel. The selection of workers, their certification, their assignment to positions, their pay, tenure, promotion, dismissal, pensions, and retirement, their conditions of service—sick leave, sabbatical and other leaves—are aspects of personnel management. Besides these there are problems that have an indirect bearing of importance. Teacher education, the economic status of teachers, the health and the standard of living of teachers, their professional activities, the mobility of the group, the supply and demand of teachers, the marital status, and matters pertaining to

[4] Wm. D. Stratford, *Some Restrictions and Limitations to the Free Interstate Movement of Teachers* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942).

the nature, purposes, progress, and social position of the group concerned, will have much to do with the problem in the large.

Each school and school system faces directly the problems of finding, appointing, assigning, and otherwise managing its own teaching personnel. If this management is to be intelligent from the standpoint of the political and social purposes of the nation as a whole, from the standpoint of scientific educational management, then some thought must be given to this second group of problems. A school district cannot hope to have a competent personnel unless our plan of teacher education is properly developed. If supply and demand are too far apart there will be a dearth of teachers or an unhealthy competition for place.[5] If the economic status of the group is too low the quality of the service will be pulled down. If the group is not properly paid its energies will be focused upon self-protection, instead of upon professional development.[6] In short, whatever affects the health and well-being of the group adversely creates problems that soon have to be faced by personnel management.

Whether or not these matters are classified as belonging to the field of personnel management they need to be examined in this connection. Where the professional education of a teacher leaves off is one point at which education in service should begin; if the supply of teachers is large the bases of selection can be raised. That is, what is happening to the professional group in the country at large should provide a background against which administrators view their problems locally.

Who should study these problems? Obviously, the profession should study its own problems and individual members of the profession should keep posted on trends. Scientific workers should study them, and those who are shaping policies for state and nation should study them.

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[5] John L. Bracken, "The Teaching Staff, in *1945 Yearbook, National Association of School Administrators,* pp. 96-99 (Washington, the Association, 1945).

[6] Mary E. Estill, "Morale in the Teachers College Faculty: Principles and Danger Points," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (Feb., 1945), Vol. 31, pp. 105-113.

2. Problems With Important Bearing Upon Personnel Administration

Teacher education is but once removed from the field of personnel management since the personnel of our schools is chosen largely from students of teachers' colleges, normal schools, and departments of education.[7] These institutions determine quite largely who will be available to serve the schools. In the preparation they give to their students these schools establish the objectives, the points of view, the understandings, and the skills of those who later appear as candidates for positions in our schools. School executives need to know what these institutions are trying to do. It would have good effect if these schools could have ideas of local executives as to the worth of the equipment their teachers bring as a result of their professional training. How teacher-education institutions can evaluate their work without such a check is difficult to see. The teachers' college sets up its own objectives and program.[8] For the local schools the superintendent and his staff do the same for the children. If, in both cases, these are scientifically and philosophically sound, they will be basically in harmony at the start. With educational science growing rapidly and with the schools facing rapidly changing problems, however, the young teacher not infrequently finds much to learn and at times the school administrator is faced with difficult in-service-education problems.

Success in teaching is dependent in part upon personality and health and in part upon knowledge and skill. Institutions devoted to teacher education have begun to recognize this fact and to select those who may enter for training. From a state or national standpoint this is an important move. Why waste education on people who have little chance of success? Why

[7] W. Earl Armstrong, et al., *The College and Teacher Education* (Washington, The American Council on Education, 1944).

[8] Clifford Woody, "Some Next Steps in Teacher Education," *Journal of Educational Research* (May, 1944), Vol. 37, pp. 670-683. See, also, Maurice E. Troyer, "The Next Five Years in Teacher Education: Some Suggestions from the Experience of the Commission on Teacher Education," *The American Association of Teachers Colleges, Twenty-third Yearbook,* 1944, pp. 16-28.

mislead and frustrate such people when they might have been working along more suitable lines and toward attainable ends?

Certification of teachers has undergone great change in recent decades.[9] Once a local matter, it has now passed largely to state control. The standards still vary greatly. Once the certification was based upon examinations; now, quite largely, it is upon education. Certification standards are raised as bars against oversupply of teachers from outside the state and as bars against too many trainees for the profession. This problem is not one for which one single solution may be found. Someone must keep studying the conditions and keep certificate requirements adjusted to changing circumstances. At this writing, the supply is far below our needs.

The ratio of supply to demand of teachers has varied from time to time and place to place. Knowledge of trends in this ratio is directly important to those who are directing the policies of institutions for teacher education and to those responsible for the administration of state school systems. The standards of certification should be raised and lowered as the supply of eligibles rises above or falls below the normal demand. As a state policy it would be as unwise to stimulate an oversupply as it would be to ignore a serious decline in numbers of trained people for our schools. Too long ignored, a great surplus of teachers will tend to create competition for jobs and so to lower salaries. Properly handled it should lead to a rise in standards of certification instead.

The ratio of supply to demand is affected by many different forces. A general increase in unemployment in competing fields will cause many to go to college and prepare for teaching.[10]

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[9] Robert C. Woellner, "The Authority to Issue Teachers' Certificates in the United States," *The Elementary School Journal,* Vol. 38, pp. 751-758 (June, 1938). See, also, D. M. Blyler, "Certification of Elementary School Teachers in the United States," *Elementary School Journal* (June, 1945), Vol. 45, pp. 578-589.

[10] W. W. Carpenter and A. G. Capps, "Another Proposal to Relieve Teacher Shortage," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (May, 1945), Vol. 30, pp. 313-315. See also: R. Mansfield, "Measuring the Future Demand for Teachers," *Journal of Educational Research* (May, 1944), Vol. 37, pp. 691-697; and R. H. Eliassen and E. W. Anderson, "Teacher Supply and Demand: Investigations Reported in 1944," *Education Research Bulletin* (May, 1945). Vol. 24, pp. 119-226.

The more attractive teachers' salaries become the more people will try to enter teaching. When tenure laws and other laws improving the security, the economic status, or the professional opportunities of teachers are enacted the schools automatically attract more candidates for positions.

Mobility of teachers affects supply and demand. Teachers find better opportunities for getting their education in some states than in others; salaries and cost of living vary from state to state. In some states tenure is guaranteed and there are minimum salary laws and retirement allowances, all of which tend to attract teachers from other states. The attractiveness of the West over the South and Midwest and even the East is clearly evident in the demand for transfer of credits for certificates in California. Rural areas are everywhere losing teachers who prefer urban advantages. It is clear enough how up-to-date facts on these movements would aid in the solution of personnel problems.

Local personnel problems are certain to appear when teachers are not content with their lot. School executives should have a sound basis upon which to judge the salaries and work conditions they have to offer. Teachers' salaries should not be adjusted to supply and demand alone. Buying teaching service at the lowest possible price is poor public economy. The need is not for teachers alone, but for happy, healthy, interested teachers. Unless teachers believe they are being well-treated they cannot be happy. To get at such problems studies of the teaching population are needed. Cost of living (as teachers actually live), economic status, standard of living, income, cost of continuing education, health and longevity, extent of travel and entertainment, leisure activities, professional activities, community activities, all are angles from which the existing and the oncoming population of teachers should be studied if personnel policies are to be soundly based. Similarly, there is need for a continuous review of the legal status of teachers, a matter which varies substantially from state to state.[11] Studies,

[11] Research Division, National Education Association, *Statutory Analysis of Retirement Provisions for Teachers and Other School Employees* (Washington, the Association, Jan., 1944).

on a broad basis, of teachers' organizations, of the ethics of the profession, of the theory and practice of tenure laws, of pensions for teachers, and retirement age plans, are needed as a background for dealing with local administrative matters affecting the personnel.[12]

All these matters are problems for scientific workers in education. They are, likewise, problems for the profession. They are problems for the statesman, who is responsible for helping to build education as a part of the system of government and as an expression of our social and political philosophy. They must be a direct concern of the national Office of Education, which is responsible for leadership in the field. They must be a concern of state school officers in a direct way.

3. Problems of Local Personnel Administration

The local school systems face the above problems, each in its own special way. Whether or not the administrator understands them or has answers to the questions they raise, they point to forces that are a part of the complex of facts, conditions, and circumstances which he faces in developing and administering his own local school personnel. The literature provides an ample picture of these backgrounds and makes clear how local personnel administration interlocks with activities of the state. It shows clearly, too, how scientific workers are busy with these problems and how the professional organizations of educators are constantly studying them.[13] A review of the titles of publications from the Office of Education and from state departments of education will reveal how America weaves such knowledge into the practical activities of statesmen, and a review of our school laws will reveal how these activities finally issue as law and policy.

To study local personnel administration without thought of these broader problems would be short-sighted and would lead

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[12] John G. Fowlkes, "Providing for the Economic Independence of Retired Teachers," *The American School Board Journal* (July, 1941), Vol. 103, pp. 17-18, 68.

[13] See recent yearbooks, annual reports, bulletins, and journals issued by the various divisions of the National Education Association and by state teachers associations.

to many difficulties. The solution of a local problem should be in light of total national and total state needs and circumstances as well as specifically in line with the local situation.

The problems of local personnel administration can be classified under the following heads:

1. Selection and assignment.
2. Determination of the work to be done.
3. Scheduling of compensation.
4. Protection and improvement of teachers in service.
5. Participation of teachers in policy-making.
6. Evaluation of the services of teachers.

The superintendent's problem is to build up a good staff and to maintain it. To do this he will need three things: a clear picture of what numbers and types of teachers and principals will be needed, a clear understanding of the limitations under which he will have to enter the market for what he needs, and a close knowledge of the market supply available.

There should be available to the superintendent, in the board's rules and regulations, a clear statement of the policies governing the development and administration of the personnel. Is there a book of rules, and what are its provisions affecting personnel?[14] With these guiding policies he will then have to face the question as an educator: What talent and how much will be required for the quality of service desired? The policies are but once removed from the instruments and conditions which determine what he can offer as an attraction to desired candidates for positions. The salary schedule, the teaching load, and the provisions for leaves, for tenure, and for retirement, and the general attraction of the community, and school system, all together constitute what he has to buy with.

The first problem in the practical management of personnel is to get all these matters in clear and tangible form. Then comes a similar picture of the market conditions to be faced. Are teachers plentiful or scarce? Are competing districts able

[14] William W. Carpenter, et al., *Suggestions for a Code of Rules and Regulations for Missouri Boards of Education,* Bull. 42, No. 19; Ed. Ser. No. 87 (Columbia, University of Missouri, 1941).

to offer more or less than the one in question? Where are the desired kinds of teachers to be found? Must they be induced to leave other positions or can they be found at graduate schools, or is there an unemployed supply? Some understanding of these matters should enable the superintendent to determine whether he may be able to select from the best or must take what other schools do not choose.

The selection and assignment of teachers present different problems in communities of different size and type. Placement of authority and responsibility for it is the first and most important matter. The larger the system the larger the problem and the greater the need for machinery to care for it. Power of law rests with the board. Sound educational management says clearly that this power should be delegated to the superintendent—the one who knows the program and, therefore, the need for the service to be employed. In one-teacher schools the board often selects directly, or, at most, advises with a county superindentent. The situation is little different in many villages and towns and in some cities. Often, where proper delegation of authority has been made for selecting teachers, the board still retains responsibility for selecting uncertificated employees, a practice which falsely assumes that school instruction and school business are separate and need not be managed as a single problem.

Where the power to select rests with the superintendent, there still are many problems. Should he choose from those who happen to apply, or go in search of talent? If he searches, should he search in terms of persons only or in terms of specifications for jobs he desires to fill? Should he consult the principal for whose school he is seeking talent? Should he use examinations, tests, and conferences as means? Should he exclude home talent and married women?[15] Should he select two or more members of the same family? Should he be concerned with health and physical ability, or with social ability, or age, or sex, or amount of experience or training, or recency of training and experience, or personal appearance? Clearly, there

[15] W. R. Wimbish and H. M. Lafferty, "More Evidence on the Home Talent Teacher," *The School Review* (Nov., 1938), Vol. 46, pp. 685-693.

should be guiding policies on the one hand and specifications of jobs on the other if selection is to be made by an educator rather than a layman.

To deny a principal a right to participate in selecting, assigning, transferring, promoting, and dismissing the teachers for his school is to deny that the principalship is a responsible office or that the school is a real unit of the service. How much of his power will the superintendent delegate for this? This must vary with the size of the school and the talent of the principal. In any case the superintendent (in large systems the assistant superintendent or the personnel director) has a responsibility which he should not delegate, that of knowing what is going on and that of seeing to it that few misfits are chosen. By the nature of his job the principal should have a say, but not the final one. The difficulties most common in this area are due to the superintendent's wrong or vacillating use of the talents of his subordinates.

A second group of administrative personnel difficulties arises in connection with the work or service load or the size and character of the job assigned. The school may establish a general policy as to size of class or time to be spent at school;[16] it may provide a formula, such as so many pupils or so many pupil clock-hours, or a formula which takes account of the relative difficulty of subjects, of the time required for preparation, and for handling the students. It may even provide a way for weighting special duties outside the classroom. The truth is that standardization of load is difficult. Teachers cannot carry equal loads, because they vary in ability. A school loses by overworking its employees. Besides varying in ability, teachers vary as to their interest, effort, and enthusiasm for work. When is an assignment a proper load? Probably when the children are getting the best service the teacher can give and at the same time maintain his mental and physical health, and his enthusiasm for his work. When such a common-sense view is applied it is clear that standardization of load could easily go too far. Probably it should strive roughly to attain the

[16] Clarence A. Newell, *Class Size and Adaptability* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943).

above goal. It should afford a basis for evaluating service and roughly for computing costs, and should be used not as a means of driving teachers but rather as a means of protecting them. In the final say the standard will have to allow for the particular characteristics of the person employed. Two teachers or principals or supervisors are not of equal value to a district because they carry loads of equal size and so, stand as equals in the budget. The quality of service is equally important but is so related to the teacher's personal feelings and attitudes that it cannot be standardized in terms that ignore the teacher's personal feelings and physical strength.

In preparing policies—rules and regulations—and service load formulae and in setting up new positions, most school executives make allowance for these factors of individual difference. So far we have no complete analysis of this problem.[17] All recognize that there is inexcusable inequality of work done by the different members of many school staffs. How to penalize shirkers and how to prevent the willing and enthusiastic members from overworking is a problem, but not one for any strictly mechanical solution. The wisest administrators try to solve the problem with the help of their teachers, not for them.

Compensation for service is the center of a third group of personnel problems.[18] The salary schedule is an instrument used in personnel management and about it centers many problems. First, should there be a salary schedule? To this an affirmative reply seems obvious, yet many school systems have none, or at most a very poor excuse for one. What principles should one embody in such an instrument? Here the answer seems obvious—treat all alike regardless of sex or position in the system, but vary in terms of training, experience, tenure in the

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[17] See: the author's *Modesto Junior College Survey*, Modesto, California, Board of Education, 1932, pp. 62 ff; also, Dennis H. Cooke, *Problems of the Teaching Personnel* (New York, Longmans, Green & Co., 1933).

[18] Paul M. Tinsley, "Some Principles for the Construction and Administration of Teachers' Salary Schedules," *American School Board Journal* (March, April, 1944), Vol. 108, pp. 35 ff.

system, and some add, in terms of efficiency score.[19] The question of the amount of increment, the frequency of increases, and the total number of increments are aspects of a schedule that have to be settled in terms of local financial ability, as well as with a view to maintaining a proper reward for service and a stimulus to professional growth. The single salary concept is ignored in thousands of school systems; the idea of buying service at the lowest the market will allow is often used in place of the idea that good salaries are required as a matter of sound social policy and are the most essential means of keeping staff morale high and of maintaining a fair degree of professional interest and development in the staff. One's income determines his standard of living and good teaching requires a high standard of living with reasonable freedom from economic worry. By many salary schedules teachers attain the maximum at an early age and from then on have no financial stimulus to grow or to try to render exceptional service.

The principle of special reward for exceptional service is essentially sound, but difficult to administer. Such rewards can be given only on tangible evidence of merit. Such evidence of merit can be had only if one can define and measure merit. Neither of these tasks is simple, even in the abstract, and they are far less simple in practice. Teachers do not like to be inspected and seldom are they convinced that the measures used cover all aspects of their work. Regardless of what is true in such cases, the bad effects from such attitudes are too important to ignore. In other words, a primary test of such a measure is the extent to which it is acceptable to those whose work is evaluated by its use.[20]

This brings out the point that personnel administration in schools must at many points become self-administration. That is, teachers must assist in making salary schedules and if they want the salary to be of use in rewarding merit and in helping

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[19] See the author's *City School Administrative Controls* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938), Ch. VI; also: John C. Almack, "Making the Salary Schedule," *American School Board Journal* (April, May, 1936), Vol. 96, pp. 19-20, 23-25.

[20] W. C. Reavis and D. H. Cooper, *Evaluation of Teacher Merit in City School Systems* (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1945).

to penalize those who are no credit, or even may be a burden, to the profession they must assist in evaluating service. Just where this self-administration principle should leave off in the teaching profession is not very clear. It is questionable how far the professions of law and medicine are parallel. Should teachers evaluate the work of principals and supervisors and superintendents? Some say yes, but this would merely mean that executive power had shifted to the teachers and former executives had been reduced to clerks. In similar fashion some would have superintendents and principals chosen by teachers. Because such proposals are absurd on their face is no sign that teachers should not participate in developing many of the personnel policies and plans and, to some extent also, in applying them in practice.

A fourth important division of personnel management has to do with the protection and development of the staff in service. The work load, both extent and suitability, the conditions under which work has to be carried on, the pay for service, administrative restrictions that tend to regulate the personal lives of teachers, possibilities for leaves for sickness or for professional purposes, all these have a bearing upon this problem. To do good work teachers must enjoy the confidence and moral support of the parents, of the board, and of their administrative officers. They must be treated as if they were intelligent and responsible and not as if they were hirelings.[21] They should be given definite assignments, they should know the policies and plans, and to whom and how they are responsible. Further, someone should be interested to see that things are going well from day to day. The question of health is not the least important aspect of this problem of the welfare and growth of teachers.

Growth in service is a major problem.[22] It is the purpose of most beginning teachers to grow in proficiency and with few exceptions the beginner makes serious effort, not only to develop skill, but also to increase his knowledge of his field. Bad per-

[21] Dennis H. Cooke, "Blue Law Blues," *Nation's Schools* (Oct., Nov., 1935), Vol. 16, pp. 31-33, 39-41.

[22] Joseph Lins. "Origin of Teacher Improvement Services in the United States," *Journal of Educational Research* (May, 1945), Vol. 38, pp. 697-707.

sonnel administration can very soon destroy this enthusiasm and sometimes replaces it with an attitude of cynicism and indifference and a decline in effort to do good work. Teachers must become realistic but there is no excuse for their having to go through a period of rebellion. Good management will capitalize on that youthful idealism and not destroy it. If supervision is carried out as a system of inspection and administration it is sure to do harm. If it is conducted on a sound plane it will be sought after and will end in growth for teachers and supervisors alike. Research is indispensable in a school system and can contribute to the in-service program of education in many ways. Similarly, a good public relations program is essential. Social approval is a strong stimulus to greater effort. Sound staff morale may be both cause and effect in such a program. Administrative leadership is probably more important than any one thing in a program. How to get all these services and how to harmonize them and bring them to bear is the problem.

A fifth group of problems, already touched upon, centers in the questions of teacher participation in policy-making and management.[23] Such participation is not a question of the legal rights of teachers. Teachers and all other school employees have only the legal authority that is delegated to them. However, they have rights other than legal or administrative which are important. Education is to be directed in terms of scientific knowledge as well as in terms of delegated authority. The basis of the teacher's rights, if there is any need to talk in terms of rights, is inherent in the nature of the service he performs. Too many administrators, in withholding authority from teachers, make no distinction between legal and scientific authority. Also, teachers often clamor for the former when they should ask only for the latter.

Perhaps there is no aspect of personnel management that is less wisely handled than this matter of drawing teachers into the field of policy-making, planning, and management. Teachers are expertly equipped and the schools should make the

[23] William A. Yeager, "Participation in Administration by the Faculty," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (March, 1945), Vol. 31, pp. 141-148.

widest possible use of all the teacher brings to his task. Schools facing problems should bring to their solution the best talent in the system, wherever the talent may be; the question of authority ought not to stand in the way. How can teachers be interested in or effectively teach a program they have not helped to develop? How can they contribute to the social life of the school or to the daily routines of management if they have had no part in their planning?

A sixth set of difficulties centers about the evaluation of teaching service. This needs little further explanation here.[24] It goes without saying that teaching service is evaluated constantly, regardless of anyone's ideas or likes. The children evaluate it and express their conclusions in their daily attitudes and conduct.[25] The parents evaluate it and have ways of rewarding and penalizing teachers. Principals and supervisors evaluate it and their judgments are reflected in their manner and assignments. They, too, have ways of rewarding and penalizing. In similar ways the teachers evaluate their superior officers. So, there is no way of ignoring this question. But what is its proper place? What should be evaluated, who should do the evaluating, and how should it be done?

If the object of evaluating is merely to aid directly in improving instruction, it should be done by teachers and supervisors, using some method devised by all of them together. In such a case evaluation is a part of the staff service. If its object is to check efficiency, and if the check is to be used as a basis for promotion or reassignment, salary increases or dismissal, then it becomes an aspect of administration. In the former case it is used to direct a learning process and is controlled by the learners themselves. In the latter case it is used to reward or penalize, and is controlled by someone else. Administrators could evaluate teaching and use the results merely as a means of improving their own work of organization, of assignment of teachers, choice of teaching equipment, or of room furnishings.

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[24] A. S. Barr, et al., *The Management of Teaching Ability* (Madison, Wis., Dembar Publications, Inc., 1945).

[25] Whoever doubts this should read Frank Hart's stimulating book, *Teachers and Teaching—By Ten Thousand High School Seniors,* New York, The Macmillan Co., 1934.

The literature reveals some lack of understanding of the possibilities of evaluation of teaching service.[26] Some urge its use for both administrative and supervisory purposes but insist upon focusing definitely upon one or the other of those purposes, claiming that abuse or misuse comes only when there is confusion or double use of the results. Most writers object to having supervisors who are also administrators use it for the two purposes at the same time. Success or failure in the use of the results of the evaluation of teaching is so much a question of personal relationships in the staff that one can scarcely hope to prescribe for or against its use unless he has full knowledge of staff morale where it is to be used.

There are many lesser problems that appear in practice, most of which would classify under the above six headings. In selecting principals, to what extent should a board and superintendent follow the policy of promoting from within the staff and to what extent should they definitely avoid this as a tendency to inbreeding? In assigning teachers, to what extent should one hold to the idea that a teacher's subject field should be narrow and his training specialized and to what extent can specific subject training be ignored and dependence placed in the intelligence, personality, and ambition of the teacher? In compensation, how can one hold to a schedule and still retain certain much needed talent in the face of competition with other schools? What is to be done in case a teacher on tenure, blind to impending danger from breakdown in health, refuses to heed advice to take a vacation?

Each school system has its own traditions, its own pet prejudices, its own interstaff strifes, and each public has its own ways of dealing with school people. These local forces color all problems and set certain limits to management that have to be dealt with. One administrator yields to all such matters to have peace and finds himself drawn into and subject to petty forces that should have no say. Another will try to ride roughshod over such matters, only to find his staff uniting against him and calling him an autocrat. The problem is to

[26] C. W. Posey, "A New Answer to an Old Problem—Shall We Rate Teachers?" *American School Board Journal* (May, 1944), Vol. 108, pp. 34-35.

develop policies that use the best, thwart the worst, move toward a sound practice and never sacrifice all to save a minor point. It is merely the method of democracy with as much scientific light applied as the situation can stand. In personnel administration a situation often seems to demand compromise and more compromise, but is, instead, merely one that needs scientific, open and above-board treatment.

4. Bibliography on School Staff Personnel

The literature in this field is very extensive. The subjects of salaries, pensions, retirement, in-service education, and the legal status of the teacher have been before the profession for many years. Proceedings and yearbooks of professional and scientific societies, publications from administrative offices, and professional journals are replete with discussion and assembled facts pertaining to this field through a long period.

No attempt is made here to duplicate the extensive published bibliographies, such as are listed below, or to offer more than a representative sample of available material on the various aspects of the field. Through what is offered a sound introduction to the problems can be gained.

The classification of titles will be of assistance in finding materials on the major problems of the field. Under "General and Miscellaneous" are listed the more comprehensive treatises and papers dealing with many problems.

I. General and Miscellaneous

Adams, Fay. *Educating American Children* (New York, The Ronald Press Co., 1946), 490 pp.

Almack, John C., and Lang, A. R. *Problems of the Teaching Profession* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1925), 340 pp.

Anderson, Earl W. *The Teacher's Contract and Other Legal Phases of Teacher Status* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927, Contributions to Education, No. 246), 180 pp.

—— *Teaching Opportunities in 1935,* Educational Research Bull. of Ohio State University (March 18, 1936), Vol. 15, pp. 72-75.

Barzun, Jacques. *Teacher in America* (Boston, Little, Brown & Co., 1945), 319 pp.

Beale, H. K. *Are American Teachers Free?* (New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936), 855 pp.

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Chapter 12

SUPERVISION AND RESEARCH

1. The Administration of Staff Services

The treatment of supervision and research as a part of the field of administration could be questioned on the ground that they represent services that are definitely not directly administrative in character. It is true that they are not administrative, and that they cannot be carried on with good effect by administrative methods. They represent the authority of knowledge, of fact, and reasoning, not of law or administrative power. Supervision is more in the nature of instruction or of a joint effort at learning how best to do things. As a teacher or leader (through supervision or research) one has no use for delegated authority. One directs but never orders a learner. Research is what the term implies—a search for knowledge. Research is a phase of all kinds of school work, administration as well as instruction and supervision. One must know before he acts, and as a usual thing one has to look about and search for an understanding of his tasks, whatever they are.

It is easy to justify the inclusion of a discussion of research, on the ground that it is an essential phase of administration.[1] Technically, the term supervision has to do with the field of instruction only and is carried on by methods that are characteristic of teaching and learning and research. The reason for including it here is not to try to give it the characteristics of administration. This is done partly to give emphasis to the opposite view, that supervision is a field of its own, which has its own objectives, program, personnel, and methods, and has no use for the authority to direct or control the activities

[1] H. L. Stearns, "Administering a General Program of Supervision," *Elementary School Journal* (Nov., 1942), Vol. 43, pp. 160-165.

of teachers. A second reason for including supervision is that it stands between administration and instruction as a sensitive link to help instructors to interpret and apply the major administrative policies in the classrooms. It takes more than policies, plans and staff to make teaching effective; there must be someone to help the many members of the staff coordinate their efforts and carry out the policies, in their technical bearing upon the lives of the children at work and play in the schools.

Of course, administration has to be used in setting up all school services. Someone must decide whether to provide supervision and research. If they are to be used, specifications are needed to define their purposes, the fields they are to occupy, and the jobs which are to be filled. A personnel will have to be chosen and assigned and given general directions; budgets will have to be made to cover the services; supplies, equipment, office space and furniture will have to be provided. The personnel will have to be organized for the work and, as new units of school machinery, will have to be fitted into the total administrative mechanism. These are administrative responsibilities.

2. The Field of Supervision

Institutions for the education of teachers have long recognized the difference between teaching the science of education and teaching how to apply that science in a classroom situation. Teaching is an art as well as a science, and however much one may know of the science he still must master the art of bringing it to bear in instruction. Most beginning teachers have had at least some practice in the classroom, but not enough to have gained skill in all the wide variety of responsibilities they will face as teachers. This means that when teachers first enter the field they still have much to learn.[2] If left to their own resources many will succeed very well but others will fail. On the other hand, experienced teachers can usually take up new positions with more confidence, first, because they have de-

[2] P. M. Symonds, "Supervision as Counseling," *Teachers College Record* (Oct., 1941), Vol. 43, pp. 49-56.

veloped skills and understand how to apply them, and second, because they have learned how to study their teaching problems.

Besides this problem of learning how to teach, which is quite a serious one in case of beginners, there is another major aspect of the field in which supervision must work, namely, that of coordinating the activities of teachers throughout a school and a school system. This, also, is learned only in part by a study of school organization, curriculum-making, and school management. Knowledge of the problems of coordination from the standpoint of theory is important; but it has to be supported by study on the job, by acquaintance with the particular system, school, and classroom. A beginner has very much to learn in this connection.

There are many problems that arise in each of these two major areas of the field of supervision. If a school system ignores these problems teachers will work along in their own best ways, more or less ignorant of what is going on elsewhere in the system. The inevitable results are that young teachers will suffer discouragement and develop wrong attitudes and wrong ways of doing things. There will be gaps and overlappings between and among courses, waste in teaching materials, and endless hesitation and loss of time. These things end in low morale in the staff and in the student body, with consequent poor results in learning. Without going into the history of these worries, the answer has been supervision.

To see the present problems of supervision one needs to understand something of its history.[3] Originally, supervision meant inspection and report of findings. The function was carried out by lay officials. Later, supervision became the responsibility of a superintendent of schools and was developed to include inspection with a view to directing some improvement. This shifted emphasis more toward strictly educational rather than business aspects of the service. For many years supervision was looked upon as a system for improving teachers in service. In recent decades emphasis has shifted to make it a

[3] Henry Suzzallo, *Rise of Local School Supervision in Massachusetts* (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teacher's College, Columbia University, 1906, Contributions to Education, No. 3).

broad service in which supervisor, teacher, guidance worker, and research worker join in an effort to improve instruction in all its aspects, not only by stimulating growth of understanding on the part of all these workers, but also by improvement of the instructional program, the social program, the daily routine of life in the school, and all materials and relationships that affect the learning, happiness, and well-being of the children.[4]

When the superintendency was created it was largely in imitation of what was going on in industry and business. The term supervise, as then used, was a common term and was virtually synonomous with the term superintend. It meant to inspect, to see what was needed, and then to order or direct improvements. Today, the term supervise is still used in this sense in business and industry, but in education it has taken on a technical meaning by dropping the use of authority as an element in it, enlarging the elements of study, inquiry, and learning, and making of supervision a joint or cooperative service in which supervisor, teacher, and all others connected directly with instruction work join their efforts to improve the total service to the students. Thus supervision is being separated from administration and made a highly technical staff service. It is no longer something handed down from above by authority of superiors as orders but something developed by cooperative effort. Supervisors work through the principles of leadership and partnership but not through delegated rights to control.[5]

Perhaps the major administrative problem in this field is to be seen in the failure of supervisors to recognize and accept these changes. It seems to be human nature to cling to and rely upon authority in preference to leadership as a means of dealing with people. This is not in the least strange, but it is a fact that cannot be ignored. If supervision is ever to become a distinctive, high class, technical service of scientific and personal leadership, steps will have to be taken to write specifica-

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[4] D. Belser, "Changing Concepts of School Supervision," *Educational Method* (March, 1943), Vol. 22, pp. 259-265.

[5] F. B. Peters, "Squaring Practice with Theory," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (Nov., 1944), Vol. 30, pp. 502-507.

tions for the job which fix this concept in the system of legal and administrative controls.

3. Analysis of the Function of Supervision

Accepting the general definition of supervision as having to do, first, with the improvement of the instructional service and, secondly, with coordinating the parts of the program and the efforts of all who work at instruction; accepting also, the definition of the term supervision as above set forth, and the problem of dealing with the lag in practice which the evolution of this function has left us, one may reasonably ask: What is the real nature of this function? If the field of supervision is distinct from that of administration there must be a definable need for a service that administration cannot render.[6] Administration develops policies, organizes, and directs the execution of policies. Administration assigns a teacher to a class or to certain subjects, but it does not help him teach; it orders revision of the curriculum, but does not do the revising; it purchases teaching supplies, but does not say what supplies a given teacher shall use in his work; it appoints counselors, but does not tell them how to advise with students; it approves the social activities program, but does not develop it.

Many years ago no such separation existed between administrative and other kinds of school work. There were reasons for this. Educational science was very primitive a century or even a half century ago, hence, teaching and management and curriculum-making were much less technical in nature and such types of specialization were not clearly recognized in the division of labor in a school system. Even fifty years ago superintendents were still making the course of study, and supervision was to a large degree inspection and criticism. Often it was definitely not supervision but an attempt to improve the service by criticism and orders. It is true that as schools now operate the two functions, administration and supervision, are, in many cases, performed by one person. The school principalship is an office of this sort, the directorship is another, and the depart-

[6] H. Antell, "Teachers Appraise Supervision," *Journal of Educational Research* (April, 1945), Vol. 38, pp. 606-611.

ment headship, as it still operates in many places, a third. In such cases there is danger of confusion between the two functions. In fact, the most common weakness of these offices is their failure to distinguish between the two services when they are at work, with the result that they often apply administrative techniques where they should use supervisory techniques.

In the fields of instruction and pupil care and management supervision begins where administration leaves off.[7] The superintendent assigns a newly employed teacher to a school and with the principal's help the teacher is assigned to a specific class and room. By these administrators he is given copies of the school rules and regulations, of the curriculum, and of the work program of the school. He is instructed as to the organization of the school, its program, its routines for getting supplies, its plan of dealing with custodians and the place of guidance in the program, and similar matters. That is, administration shows the teacher his job, the facilities available for his use, how his work connects with other jobs, and introduces him to his colleagues. At this point he is left to take up his work. If administration has done its work well the teacher will feel that he knows what is expected of him, that he is being entrusted with a responsibility, and that in handling this he is free to use his own initiative and intelligence. He will feel himself supported by clearly defined policies rather than hemmed in by restricting walls of authority. Also, he will feel free to turn back to these executives for clarification of points on which he feels doubt.

The moment this teacher takes up his duties he moves from the task of locating his job to that of executing it. Here, as schools now operate, he is introduced to the function of supervision.[8] Up to this point he has been learning about his job; now he must perform. Regardless of the friendliness and courtesy with which he has met so far, he has felt that he was dealing with the authority of law and administration. At this

[7] Henry J. Otto, "The Supervision of Instruction," *Review of Educational Research* (Oct., 1943), Vol. 13, pp. 372-380.

[8] Robert A. Davis, "The Teaching Problems of 1,075 Public School Teachers," *Journal of Experimental Education* (Sept., 1940), Vol. 9, pp. 41-60.

point he is introduced to the authority of knowledge and skill, a type of authority that compels only by the force of fact and reason, and not at all by law. This is a different relationship entirely. While presumed to be superior in knowledge and skill, the supervisor is a co-worker with the teacher. In this relationship it is as appropriate (to the nature of supervision) for the supervisor to go to the teacher with suggestions as for the teacher to go to the supervisor. In this neither one has any authority that the other does not have. Because of his superior knowledge the supervisor has the obligation to be positive and constructive in meeting a teacher's need for help, even though the teacher may not have sensed the need. The teacher has a like obligation to offer suggestions of his own if he has them and to go to the supervisor with questions when he senses a need for it in his work. Obviously, this relationship, to be effective, must be built up. It is quite close and personal and the technique of cooperation is in no small way dependent upon personalities. Until this relationship is developed supervision cannot get down to its task with the best effect.

Administration cannot command teacher and supervisor to establish such a relationship, it merely assumes that, this being the nature of these two jobs, the relationship will be built up. It is administration's business to watch and to stimulate but not to try to enforce such a development. Where administration senses failure it should study the difficulty and confer with those concerned. Too often administration lets such matters go, scolds about them, and threatens, or listens to gossip and does nothing more than say it is too bad. The result may spread ill will throughout the staff to a point where the loss becomes so obvious that public opinion forces the board to take a hand in administering the schools.

If a desirable relationship is to develop it must be accomplished incidentally. Assuming that both parties understand their jobs and that both are professional in their attitudes and work, they will begin, not by discussing their respective selves, or their rights, or their views of supervision, but by working. The supervisor will know in advance the points at which beginning teachers usually need help. Research literature listed be-

low shows very clearly that beginning teachers have trouble with individualizing instruction, with control over their students, with teaching method, with analyzing teaching difficulties, with evaluating learning results, with interpreting the curriculum, with conducting the recitation, and often, with the conflict they feel with the attitudes of older teachers.

Supervision has to be careful lest the young teacher rely too much upon his supervisor and fail to develop self-reliance, initiative, and originality in his work. Equal care is needed if some teachers do not go along with too little aid from supervision. The best start is apt to be made where teachers and supervisors sit down at the start and together work out plans for the year. Such meetings offer a rich school experience for the young and for the newly elected teachers. There, in the atmosphere of planning, of give-and-take on matters pertaining to the school, they develop an understanding of the enterprise as a whole and learn to feel themselves a part of it. In these meetings work will be laid out for months ahead to take care of known or anticipated needs. They may decide to work on some part of the curriculum and to improve teaching in these areas. To do this they discover they will need to change their counseling system, they will need additions to the library, a change in the daily routine of managing pupils, and new ways for dealing with special types of pupils. Here is the beginning of the coordinating function of supervision, the beginning of team work. In such an approach there is nothing formal, they simply go to work together and in work they develop understanding of each other and learn to work together.

Formerly, supervision began with visits to classrooms where friendly inspection was made of the teacher's activities. This, supplemented by teachers' meetings, was the main field of activity for the supervisor. Gradually part of this emphasis shifted to preparing materials for teachers, and supervision came to include syllabus-making and preparation of written directions for teachers. However justifiable this practice may have been at its best, it fell into disrepute and has given place to a type of supervision in which the supervisor spends much less time in classrooms and more in conferences, group study,

directing tryouts on new curriculum materials, helping to plan work, helping to diagnose and interpret teaching difficulties for individuals and groups, helping to interlock teaching with testing, counseling, the social activities program, and with home life. These conferences cover a wide field: how to deal with certain speech defects that are causing personality disturbances, how to evaluate the results of efforts on a program of social training, how to deal with perplexing cases of discipline, how to deal with home difficulties that are defeating the teacher's work; or, not infrequently, a teacher needs help of a more personal sort having to do with his own preparation, health, personality, or future chances in the profession. Thus, supervision may work at difficulties that center in the children or in the conditions under which they live, in the curriculum or things that go with the curriculum, in the library and teaching equipment, in the physical surroundings that condition the work, in community relationships with the school, in the teacher's lack of knowledge and skill, or in the teacher in a personal sense.

This growth to a more inclusive type of service has met with difficulties not yet fully mastered in many places. Back of this concept of supervision is a basic theory of the educative process and of the school. The older supervision tried to improve the teacher and, especially, the materials of the curriculum. The textbook subject matter was the basic, unalterable foundation of learning. All pupils alike must master it. The present view makes subject matter more elastic. That is, we have specified objectives or goals toward which we work in teaching, but we do not lead all children over the same path of knowledge to the ends sought. Today the important center is the child as an individual and not alone as a member in the social and physical world in which he is to live. The goal is to develop the child physically, mentally, aesthetically, socially, and occupationally so that as a particular individual he will attain all that is possible for him to attain in the way of capacity to live effectively in his social and physical world. This shift of emphasis from subject matter to the child in a social and

physical world does not do away with subject matter but it makes subject matter a means, not an end.

This change in educational theory is very old as theory but more recent as practice and our attempt to express the theory in practice has resulted in many stupid blunders. Many who have claimed to accept and apply the theory have done ridiculous things in teaching. "Signing up" as a Progressive does not make one a scientific educator. Progress is not made by throwing subjects overboard, or by using new words to refer to old things. Changing one's theory of education is almost equal to changing one's philosophy of life. It is an extremely difficult task, and for the most people probably cannot be fully accomplished unless a serious attempt is made relatively early in their professional careers. Old nomenclature and old values cling tenaciously and new ones feel strange and awkward, so awkward at times that one feels that he is being utterly untrue to his own real self.

It is the business of supervision to help the teachers to make this transition if it has not already been achieved. It happens, however, that supervisors have as much, or often more, trouble with themselves on this matter than they have with teachers. Generally, supervisors have reached their positions only after some years of teaching. They are no longer young and many of them had their basic college work long ago. Accordingly, they now have to undo many old notions and replace many old beliefs, attitudes, and habits with new ones. On the other hand, the young teacher has been trained in terms of this newer theory and cannot fail to notice the bungling of his supervisor for whom the ideas are a bit strange. This leaves the young teacher to train the supervisor. In case of the older teachers the supervisor finds a variety of reactions. Some are ready to "surrender," to "sign up" with the new ideas merely to have peace and retain respectability. Others are interested and try hard to master the new idea and some succeed remarkably well. One must not be surprised that in such a situation there will be a good deal of tragedy and some comedy—tragedy, where everything old is thrown over as bad, and children dissipate their time in make-believe entertainment that really bores them;

comedy when one hears self-styled Progressives mouthing such terms as integration and child-centered in ways that disclose utter lack of understanding of modern theories of learning and teaching.

Making such a transition in school practice is not a task for a year or two. If it is accomplished in a half century we shall have done well. The task is not simple. This theory of education is very involved, and has grown out of years of scientific and philosophical study. It is an expression of psychological theory, which foundation itself is still in process of development, as witness the overlapping and conflicting theories offered by different schools of psychologists. It is an expression of our sociological theories, which also, are still chaotic and undeveloped. It is an expression of our political philosophy, which is constantly finding new forms of expression. Finally, no theory of education can long ignore biological law. All these basic sciences are still in process of building. At points they are very incomplete. This means that at best our educational theory has to remain tentative. To direct school practice in terms of a tentative theory that has to harmonize with at least three sciences (psychology, biology, sociology) and two philosophies (social and political) is not simple.

The presence of this problem of making a transition to a new theory of education is at bottom the reason why we must have supervision in our schools. Some who are so quick to fly from the old are slow to put anything worth while in place of what they discard. Some seem to think it can be accomplished by introducing a new form of management—little soviets of teachers in place of superintendents and principals, for instance, or student government. In reality this is a problem for research. Although our present system of management is not perfect it is not the sole or even the main explanation of slow progress toward a solution of this problem. If teachers had to take over management they would be still less specialists in this area than they now have a chance to be. Administrators know this problem and are working to bring their best talent to bear upon it. In our best school systems administration has long since quit trying to achieve progress in super-

vision by administrative methods. Administration has withdrawn its activities from the immediate line of action and is devoting its energy to planning for special technical and skilled talent and the materials needed. Supervision is recognized as a staff type of service that is needed and administration is moving staff talent to meet it. The supervisor is the technical expert for this area.

4. Some Types of Supervision Problems

This brief analysis of the function of supervision may serve as a background for a list of problems such as are faced daily by supervisors, counselors, research workers, curriculum workers, teachers, and principals. If we assume that supervision has to do with the improvement of instruction, that it works cooperatively with the officers just listed, that it works through principles of leadership, that it carefully respects the authority and position of all concerned in the problems dealt with, it is obvious the supervisor will have to become closely acquainted with a large number of people, and with a number of school functions that are cared for by separate people whose jobs are not supposed to overlap. Such problems as the following are typical:

1. How can one create a unified staff, with each member working consciously and intelligently at a single task—the improvement of instruction? This is partly a function of administration, but after administration has done its work there is yet the task of bringing teaching, guidance, curriculum-making, research, and other services together so that, for the children, the activities of these various officers, together with the school's facilities and its routines, may seem to the children as but separate aspects of a unified scheme of living, working and playing. Supervision is a key force in accomplishing this unity.

2. There is a tendency for supervisors to be content with patching up troubles. Teachers surely should seek help as they need it, but supervision can be a larger service if the staff of workers choose to make it so. How to set the work going so that it will have a positive, well-thought-out program from term to term and

year to year is a problem. Such a program will not create itself—it must be built up. Obviously, it must be made to fit needs, and so, must be initiated by a careful survey of needs. For this the function of instruction must be seen in terms of the children and their proper care and progress, in terms of the talents and shortcomings of workers, in terms of the program of studies, in terms of such allied and supporting services as health, school cafeterias, guidance, public or community relations, and school athletics and entertainments. Viewed as a rounded plan, the question is, where, for this term, can we work with the best effect? How to build the supervisory program is the problem. In this task the supervisor should lead but not do it all. Probably a unified staff (No. 1 above) can be gotten only by accomplishing this task.

3. A well-rounded supervisory program may very well include the clarification of instructional objectives for some field of learning, a revision of the program in question, a tryout of the revised plan, and an evaluation of results.[9] An objective is first a question of what child development we desire. Is the aim to enlarge the child's understanding of his place as a member of society and as a citizen of his country, or to improve the personalities of the children, or to improve their activities affecting care of their health, or to improve their appreciation of music or art? Secondly, the question of how to attain the objective is concerned with a program of activity for the children. This may involve revision of certain courses, changing of teaching procedures, different use of library, laboratory and field study, different plan for guidance, some research, or other activities. The difficult task is to set up objectives in terms of changes it is desirable to make in the children, and then design a program that is fitted to accomplish the change. Too often the real objective disappears and the subject or the test program or the new plan of pupil work becomes an end in itself. It is a real task in supervision to prevent such a shift in purpose.

4. The question of how to assist the teacher in the task of self-improvement and professional growth is an ever-present concern of supervision. In the accomplishment of this it is necessary that

[9] Irving George, "Evaluation: the New Stress on Measurement," *Teachers College Record* (May, 1941), Vol. 42, pp. 667-674.

the teacher be actively concerned. No program can be imposed. A part of the supervisor's task is to develop and stimulate a desire for a real program of in-service education. In such a program need for evaluation is a point of difficulty. How to evaluate a teacher's work without producing a wrong effect is the question. Various schemes of observation as a basis for a judgment are available, but they involve much guessing. More objective schemes of measurement are also available. All of these devices are of value, providing they are used for supervision only. A teacher is quite human in feeling hesitancy about having an objective efficiency score in the hands of anyone else and even in having to face it alone. Still more, he dislikes it because he fears it as a possible administrative device. How to use such devices with good effect is not a simple problem for supervision.[10]

5. In many cases the social program of the school is thought of as something quite separate from the actual school work. It is too often viewed as a concession to the playful and irresponsible nature of youth. How to make it more than this is a problem. If the school is to be an institution in which children may find opportunity to live comfortably, and that may mean strenuously, in the sense that it is a place where they can become active members of a society, where they can carry on life in responsible ways, where they can develop personality and enjoy the normal use of their personalities in active participation in the activities of the institution, then the social program must be a part of a complete program of work, of play, and of coming and going. How to make the social life and the system of proprieties used in the school into related parts of the educational program is a problem.

These examples may serve to distinguish the real problems of supervision from the lesser details and techniques by which its work is carried on. How to handle teachers' meetings and group conferences, how to arrange for curriculum study, how to make class visits profitable, are simple in comparison with the work of using such activities in programs such as are here indicated.

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[10] For a list of important devices of these types see: A. S. Barr, et al., *Supervision* (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1938), Ch. X.

5. Bibliography on Supervision

The field of supervision is so related to administration that for this subject the titles, especially the general treatises, listed in Chapter 10 should be consulted in this connection. The following lists deal somewhat with the organization and administration of the service of supervision but on this phase of the problem the Chapter 10 references will be especially helpful.

The following lists are not complete for supervision in the fields of curriculum-making, testing programs, and counseling. These fields are thought of as separate special services. Supervision must contact them, as it contacts research, methodology, and administration; it does not dominate them. The following lists are for supervision as a special service and are not intended to cover these many special services except to show how supervision uses, supplements, or contributes to them.

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6. The Field of School Research

Research is clearly necessary to the solution of the problems sketched above. Any difficult problem has to be studied and it is obvious that the problems of education are growing constantly more difficult. Study is not necessarily research but it

is involved in all research, and for practical purposes there is little point in adhering to a strict separation of study that is research from study that is not research. Undoubtedly, school problems have been studied wherever and whenever there were schools. It is conceivable that some of the study of long ago was scholarly and prolonged and devoted to the solution of definite problems and might even now qualify as research. Until the present century, however, school practice was dominated more by tradition than by science. The things to be learned by children and the methods of teaching were pretty much accepted without question. The problems were mostly thought to be solved and the young teachers had merely to learn the solutions and practice did the rest.

When scientific study entered the field of education in a serious way a few decades ago all the objectives, procedures, and materials of the school began to reveal a complexity not previously recognized. As faculty psychology broke down, education faced the task of developing its objectives in entirely new terms, a major task not yet completed. As psychology and biology began to reveal the nature and extent of individual differences the old recipes for teaching had to be discarded. As our culture began to shift from hand to machine manufacturing and from agrarian to industrial emphasis our old subject matter had to be revised. As popularization of education and more expensive teaching pushed costs to a point that strained local support to the breaking point innumerable problems in school business and finance came to light. It was in this period of rapid social change, of scientific development, of school popularization that research came to be recognized as an essential aspect of school administration.

As early as 1912-13, the Rochester, New York schools established a division or bureau of research as a definite feature of their organization. The school survey movement, which began in public schools in 1910, had begun to demonstrate what research might do to help with the solution of school problems. This research bureau movement is one of the direct results of the survey movement and of the testing movement. All three

are expressions of the spread of the more comprehensive scientific movement in education.

Today research is clearly recognized as a necessary feature of a school system.[11] Graduate training programs in education look upon training in research as basic preparation for any and all positions in education. The graduate student is no longer taught how to teach or supervise or administer alone, but primarily, he is taught *how to find out how* to do these things. That is, we have given up the idea of doing things by recipes and have learned to face situations as problems to be solved.

At first, research methods were studied as something apart from the education to which they were to be applied. Research method was thought of as a tool.[12] More and more it is becoming an aspect of the job. This is as true in education as it is in industry and government. It is the way of observing and thinking about difficulties that arise in a problem. Nowadays, men are not taught the tricks of administration, but rather how to find out how to administer. The result of this trend is that teachers and principals, guidance workers and business managers are all doing research of a sort as their normal method of carrying on their work. The research staff is called in on difficult tasks but wherever these experts go in the schools they find people ready to take hold of the problems with them.

In this picture two administrative problems are apparent. The first is how to select and develop a school staff that is equipped and has this idea of the nature and place of research in the daily work of the schools. The second is how to rid the schools of the older recipe concept of teaching and management which trusts its techniques and methods, and often its objectives as well, without critical study.

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[11] J. Cayce Morrison, "Problems for Investigation in State School Systems, *The Nation's Schools* (April, 1934), Vol. 13, pp. 37-40; also, by the same author, "Research on the Rise," *The Nation's Schools* (Sept., 1943), Vol. 32, pp. 42-43.

[12] Herbert A. Thelen, "The Nature and Implementation of a School-wide Research Program," *The Elementary School Journal* (Sept., 1945), Vol. 46, pp. 36-42.

7. The Nature and Place of School Research

How to introduce research in a school system that has operated for many years without a formal research machinery is a problem similar to that of introducing any other new function.[13] Business annually pours millions of dollars into research. Government long since has built research into a strong position and now, with the new developments in physics, research is becoming a major feature of our national defense system. The Church has not entirely overlooked research. Business spends freely on research during business depressions because it pays. Results can be checked. In education and government this profit leverage is lacking for the most part, except where cost analysis is an aspect of the research or where increased efficiency can be anticipated as an outcome. In spite of this handicap, headway has been made and more and more school boards are finding research necessary as a means of getting answers to its most practical questions.

How to organize a bureau of research has been a problem.[14] In general, the service has been set up with direct responsibility to the superintendent, with the entire school system in all its relations as its field. There have been numerous exceptions to this but the development has been toward this plan. The head of the service has usually had the title of director and has had no administrative duties beyond managing the research work. In many cases the director has filled two offices, and so devoted only part of his time to research. In some cases administrative duties connected with effecting changes based upon the results of researches have been given to the director. Frequently, this move has tended to be carried too far and has weakened research, whatever it may have done to other services. At any rate, experience shows that some research people seek after

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[13] H. L. Smith, "Directory of Educational Research Agencies in the United States," Indiana University School of Education *Bull. 20*, pp. 1-20, July, 1944. See, also, Carter V. Good, "Twenty-five Years of the Literature of Research Methodology," *Journal of Educational Research* (Jan., 1945), Vol. 38, pp. 375-376.

[14] See: Harold B. Chapman, *Organized Research in Education*, Ohio State University Studies, Bureau of Educational Research Monographs, No. 7 (Columbus, Ohio State University Press, 1927).

administrative power, and some administrators tend to draw the research man into administration. There are many angles to this problem.

Research bureaus have operated over all parts of the school system. In most cases, however, they have studied and directed test programs of many sorts, trained teachers in the use of tests, devised special tests, and helped to interpret test findings for guidance and in clinical studies. Much research has had to do with the curriculum and instruction materials and textbooks. The problems of pupil classification and promotion, the organization of special segregated groups for special instruction, and the supervision of instruction have been studied from many angles. Public relations, finance, business management, building plans all have felt the influence of this bureau.

Naturally, the talent employed, the special interests of the superintendent, the character of the problems demanding attention, all have a bearing upon the research program. In some cases research has been directed in terms of a planned program, in others the research division appears to have been a catch-all for worries, a trouble-shooter for the superintendent, used to work on whatever drifts into the office. No better than this was the idea that research is an independent service that goes where it likes, when it likes, and reports its studies impersonally and, one might say, irresponsibly. This concept has never gotten far and obviously should not.

8. Planning a Research Program

If research is to be effective in running a school system it must be organized and directed as a service feature of the system and must be available to all parts of the system and all aspects of the work at all stages of its progress. To bring research to bear in this manner it should be carefully planned to fit the needs for such a contribution. As is true of the curriculum, the social program, guidance, or supervision, it must be participated in by those who are to use its results in their work. For a teacher or a counselor to participate, thought must be given to the basis of such participation. First, does the teacher,

for instance, sense a problem in his work wherein research may be a suitable approach? What is needed is that the teacher shall become a definite partner in the enterprise. Second, what talent has the teacher for a contribution and what time and facilities has he for assisting? Third, can the problem be solved in time to be useful and at a cost that would warrant the expenditure and possibly the omission of other researches that are needed? Assuming that research is to be available to all divisions of the service, from the care of buildings and the purchase and storing of supplies to curriculum-making, supervision, and teaching, it is obvious that a budget would have to be made as a basis for limiting the service, and accordingly that the service itself would have to be planned.

In the best bureaus the research program is built into a plan projected ahead for the year somewhat after the fashion of the school budget.[15] In such cases the research problems are selected on the basis of a study of needs throughout the system for answers to difficult problems. A second characteristic of the best bureaus is their tendency to stimulate individual or group study and experiment throughout the system and to draw into research projects those who later will be responsible for putting the results of research to work in practice. To put the bureau of research on this sort of basis is not simple. It is easy for a bureau to become a place where statistical drudgery is handled and where real scientific imagination has no place. A positive, aggressive, vigorous bureau has to be developed; it cannot be left to grow up like Topsy.

There are several phases of school work at which research may be needed: (1) What should we do in a given case, or, are the schools now fully meeting their obligations? Should we undertake a program of terminal education in our junior college, or is the proposed alteration of the existing program good? Should we undertake to bond and build now or delay until cash can be accumulated to cover the cost? Should we enter upon an adult-education program? (2) Having determined to do some particular things, say reorganize the curri-

[15] Jesse B. Sears, "Administration of Public School Research Policies," *Journal of Educational Research* (Nov., 1932), Vol. 26, pp. 186-198.

culum of the upper grades, how should we go about the task? Having decided to devote special effort to personality development in the high school how can teaching, guidance, supervision, social activities, and management unite their efforts to produce a concrete program of attack? (3) Having carried through a given undertaking the question remains: Was it worth while? Does the new course produce results, attain its objectives, as hoped? Did the personality development program produce improvement?[16]

For the first type of work imagination is needed. Often a school system becomes pleased with its program and ceases to question it, whereupon it soon becomes static and out of alignment with need. Someone must continuously ask: What are we leaving out that we should have? Is this practice as useful as we have come to think? If education is to keep pace with progress we must have plenty of active skepticism and plenty of fresh new ways of seeing ahead educationally. Every worker should have such an attitude toward his own work in the system, but a bright, energetic research man, seated at a table with a group of policy-makers, a curriculum committee, an administrative group, or at a teachers' meeting should be able to stimulate the development of new ways of seeing things and also ways for seeing new things.

It is not enough to question plans, procedures, and materials in education. It is not enough to measure tangible output as such. We need to go behind all this to the objectives. We can produce arithmetical knowledge or skill and tell by proper tests about how much of either we have produced. In less exact fashion we can tell how much knowledge of social science, of English, or of Latin has been acquired, and with still less accuracy, how much change we have produced in certain personality traits.

Too frequently we neglect to consider whether these things are worth learning or whether we are neglecting to learn other things that would in the end be of greater value. Education

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[16] Clifford Woody, "Some Observations of Methods of Research in the Appraisal of Teaching," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (Jan., 1943), Vol. 29, pp. 1-8.

operates by means of a philosophy as well as by means of a science. Philosophy is concerned with ultimate values, the kind of person, the kind of society, the kind of state, and the kind of school, we want. Often science can throw so much light upon a selected value that it almost tells us its worth. Generally, however, science can help but little in our decision as to how much store we set by the value. A good society, as judged by Americans, would not be a good society, as judged by the rulers of an autocracy. What a thing is, or what use one can make of a thing, scientifically speaking, may not correspond to its value. Very often the school confuses means with ends and goes on producing a given scholastic result without questioning its worth.

The characteristic method of science is essentially quantitative, that of philosophy is argument or reasoning. Science adds and subtracts; philosophy applies the rules of logic. Science deals with facts; philosophy with propositions, theses, premises. In the proposition: we should add a junior college to our school system, science is used to assemble facts of cost, of evidence of need for such a unit and what it would produce for our children. Eventually, science would come to the question of the ultimate relative worth of such education and would have to conclude for or against the proposal, whereupon an argument would begin as to the final value we should assign to this type of service. Curriculum research moves quickly out of the scientific realm into the philosophic realm because it must of necessity face the question of objectives quite early. Most problems affecting the realm of administration directly require philosophical research only after long scientific pursuit.

Regardless of whether one is dealing with an entirely new problem or a phase of an old one, he is apt to discover need for both scientific and philosophical types of inquiry. If one will pursue his problems by scientific method as far as he can in every case he will avoid the tendency of many to try to settle things by argument rather than by fact. When one has determined that science can take him no further toward a solution, he should apply the techniques of logic, with as rigid adherence to its rules as would be necessary in scientific study. One must

not be content to study one proposition alone, but should set up possible alternative ones as well as modifications or limitations of the one in question.

For years research has emphasized measurement; just now the broader term evaluation is being stressed. The value of a practice should always be found in terms of its product if that is possible. If one cannot get at the ultimate product—what did a knowledge of number combinations do to this child—one may have to assume that it produced a desirable change and turn to a study of how much of it the child has learned. At times one finds any precise measure of such a result equally difficult, as, how much more power to appreciate symphonic music has the child after a course in music appreciation? Here one cannot get at what happened to the child's personality, or even how much more he knows about how to appreciate this form of art. Accordingly, in such a case one must assume that an increase in such powers is desirable, that it can come from study, and that it comes in a desirable amount, and turn to a study of the course and its presentation, or with this to the merits of the objective back of the course. Research is always careful to know what it is evaluating and, upon completion of its task, to speak of the exact thing measured.

It seems unnecessary to suggest additional problems in this field, though attention may be called to matters already brought to light in the above analysis. To have research or not to have it; to set up an organization for research that will provide competent leadership that will utilize talent wherever it is, when it is interested, and where the research is needed; that will provide contact with practical issues and needs in all parts and phases of the work; that will carry on research that is definitely pertinent to decisions that have to be made; that will produce results that go immediately into service; that carries on the work in a way that puts important studies first and anticipates the time when research results will be needed; and that does not draw the research man too much into other activities, is clearly what is needed. The curriculum field, the effectiveness of teaching results, the pupil personnel field, and supervision are in urgent need of research in large and continuous amounts. Back of

these the realms of policy-making, staff administration, finance and business and housing, also offer rich ground for this service.

9. Bibliography on School Research

Bibliography for this field of educational research in schools and school systems is well cared for in the *Review of Educational Research,* by the *Journal of Educational Research,* and by the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research,* to say nothing of important contributions in a dozen other educational and psychological journals, listed in Chapter 4 above. These three references alone, however, will point the reader to most that is available on this immediate subject for students of school administration. Certain numbers of the first-mentioned journal are devoted to reviews of educational researches and to the tools of research and may be mentioned as especially important sources here, as follows:

Review of Educational Research:

"Methods and Techniques of Research," Vol. I, No. 1, Feb., 1934.
"Methods of Research in Education," Vol. IX, No. 5, Dec., 1939.
"Methods of Research and Appraisal in Education," Vol. XII, No. 5, Dec., 1942.
"Methods of Research and Appraisal in Education," Vol. XV, No. 5, Dec. 1945.

Chapter 2, devoted to the tools of research and library usage provides important titles for this field. The bibliographies in Chapter 4 should also be consulted. Repetition of titles has been avoided so far as practicable.

Attention should be called to the school survey literature. Nowhere, perhaps, will one find better practical applications of research to clearly defined problems than in survey reports. The evaluation of curriculums, the analysis of needs for reorganization, for additional housing facilities, for better systems of scholastic, personnel, and financial accounting, evaluation of outcomes of instruction and of instructional objectives, studies of supervision, guidance, research, public relations, and like investigations have been made in dozens of surveys and the findings and procedures are set forth in published reports.

The progress of research as a function of schools and school systems has been noted in federal, state, district, and institutional official reports.

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Chapter 13

SCHOOL BUSINESS MANAGEMENT

1. The Nature of the Field of School Business Management

School business management has to do with finance and properties—with their development, their care and use, and the records, accounts, and reports necessary from legal, managerial, and public relations viewpoints. This division of the field of school administration contacts with the field of private business, with the fields of government and law, and with the field of education. Almost every major item of school business has to be handled with careful regard for these three vital contacts.

The similarity of school business and private business is obvious. All business transactions are subject to the laws of property. When it is a party to a contract the school is in no different position from that of a business corporation or an individual. The schools have to face the usual market conditions for what they purchase (land excepted) as do private individuals. For services they must compete, and to some extent they must deal with labor unions as do private corporations.

School business is unlike private business in one important respect: it does not operate for profit. Its objectives are service, so its measures of success must be measures of the amount and quality of service produced, or measures of the efficiency of the methods and materials used in producing it.

The school is a part of the government. As a branch of government its business is to provide the people with a certain service. The school belongs to the people, but because the service is highly technical the people entrust to those who provide

this service to determine its nature and processes, and its needs of personnel, housing, supplies, and equipment. In this sense the school becomes an independent part of the state. Its connection with the people, both direct and through law, is ample to keep it functioning to ends and within limits that are understood by and acceptable to the people. So, expert knowledge, in this case, directs the schools within certain limitations. Within these limitations, therefore, technical knowledge of school service is the dominant control.[1]

The school's obligation to provide instruction is the excuse for its existence as a part of the people's state. The technical nature of the service is the reason for the school having large independence, freedom to find out what the schools need in the way of instruction. Once these needs are found, the prescription for them has to be prepared by these same experts. Here the people, or the school laws, municipal ordinances, or property laws, may enter to cause the experts to change the prescription.[2] Generally, however, it is the prescription of the experts, not some layman's prescription, that is followed.

Thus, school business, as well as instruction, is controlled by school experts; by educators, not by business experts alone. Educational experts alone could evaluate the results of the business activities of the schools.[3] What kinds of books, supplies, furniture, housing, playgrounds, what kinds of service to purchase, these are first of all questions of educational need—what kind, what amount. The specifications for materials and for jobs must be prepared in terms of the requirements of the service.

This control of business, first, in educational terms and second, in economic terms, may be thought of as the substance of a theory of control in school business management.[4] The vio-

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[1] The *Montgomery County Survey* (Chicago, The Public Administration Service, 1940) illustrates a study of government in which schools were included.

[2] E. L. Morphet, *National Society for the Study of Education, Forty-fourth Yearbook,* Part II, pp. 153-186, 1945.

[3] Charles W. Bursch, "School Plant as an Educational Instrument," *Review of Educational Research* (Feb., 1945), Vol. 15, pp. 13-17.

[4] L. E. Leipold, "Business Department Practices in Large City Systems," *American School Board Journal* (May, 1943), Vol. 106, pp. 30, 68.

lation of the principle involved here is at the root of a large proportion of the weaknesses in this field. Once education has had its say, for instance, in determining a contract for service or materials, in shaping the plan of business accounting, or in directing the operations of school custodians, then the methods, techniques, and practices of private or corporate business can be used. This sounds simple and reasonable but is not so simple to apply, because the educational purpose can be affected adversely, not only by purchasing the wrong service or materials, but also, by purchasing them or handling them in ways that harm the schools indirectly, as, by injuring their public relations, or by hurting the morale of the school staff or employees. This means that the entire business process must be under scrutiny of educators.

2. Analysis and Organization of the Field

The ways in which business is managed in terms of educational requirements can be seen more clearly as items of the school business are examined. For purposes of management, the business activities of a school system fall logically into the following classification:

1. Plant development—land, new construction, and major alterations or additions.
2. Plant maintenance—repairs and minor alteration and additions.
3. Plant operation—cleaning, minor repairs, gardening, custodial service.
4. Purchasing—of land, materials, furniture, supplies, equipment.
5. Accounting—budget work, payroll, audits, accounts, inventories, student finance, financial reports.
6. Stores—new materials, used materials; distribution of materials.

Both legal and research service are necessary in the conduct of the school business but these are staff functions and both are

required, also, in the instructional service.[5] It would not be economical to have either two research or two legal divisions for a school system. For organization purposes these services would be most logically established if research were placed directly under the superintendent and the legal service directly under the board. Since the handling of the business calls so often for legal advice it is not illogical to make this a service division of the business department.

Plant development involves the selection and purchase of school sites. The choice of a site is an educational problem in that the educational need should dictate the size of plot, the location with reference to distance of travel for children, to dangerous traffic lanes, to objectionable noises, or other distracting or disagreeable influences, to lay of the land, and drainage of the grounds, and to their accessibility, and also with reference to any trends in shift or change in size of population of the community. Choice of site is a business matter as to time of purchase, the price, and the deed and plan of transfer and payment. Not infrequently purchases of sites are handled without consulting those who know the educational requirements, thus creating a future disturbing problem.

A second step in plant development is that of building the school house. To build properly, several kinds of special talent are needed. Educators should be used to fix the educational requirements to be met. These requirements are a major unit of the total specifications. The size of the school population, the program to be offered, the organization of the school, the probable educational trends to be recognized—all have to be interpreted for their bearing upon number, size and types of rooms, arrangement of rooms and offices and corridors, and lighting, and adjustment to play spaces. Architects are required to embody the educational specifications in a plant that has grace and beauty as well as form and arrangements suited to the educational uses set down by educators.[6] An educator will

[5] See Chapter 12. Also, various volumes of The *Proceedings* of the National Council on School House Construction. *The American School Board Journal,* and *Nation's Schools* will be found replete with suggestions.

[6] E. E. Lewis, "Equipping the Classrooms as a Learning and Teaching Laboratory," *The American School Board Journal* (Dec., 1940), Vol. 101, pp. 29-30, 81.

ask that the assembly room be located so it could be used for public programs while all other parts of the building are locked; or that the library be next to certain kinds of classrooms, workrooms and offices; that the kindergarten and primary rooms form a distinct unit. It takes an architect to show how these things can be done, and, perhaps, to show that some of the things desired by the educator cannot be done without sacrifices in other directions. Engineers work with architects and solve the problems having to do with the strength of the building to stand and to resist weight, stress, wear, and tear. Finally, the builder makes all the planning concrete in wood and stone, in steel and cement.

A third step in plant development is that of furnishing and equipping the building and grounds for use.[7] Here, also, the educator must prepare specifications. For whatever is to be built in or specially designed the architect, engineer, and builder will participate, as they do in erecting the building. Otherwise educational specifications become the basis for requisitions for purchases from the market.

In carrying through these three phases of plant development many practical problems have to be met. A common weakness, as pointed out above, is that educational control is not in charge and educational specifications are ignored. Often a piece of land is bought to fit in with the plans of realtors engaged in the development of a new division, not because it meets a carefully drawn set of educational specifications. A recent study has shown that the final cost of a school plant is almost invariably well above the estimated cost. In normal times this is inexcusable. No one expects that changes in specifications may not be asked for at times as a large building develops, or that prices of materials may not occasionally change. But something is wrong when experts err constantly in one direction. The selection and handling of the school architect is a major problem. Care is not always exercised in making a choice, and still less in specifying fully the conditions under which he must serve. Where the schools employ a full-time architect as a member of the staff

[7] *The American School and University Yearbook* (New York, American School Publishing Corp., 1945).

the chances of getting right procedures may be improved. The pressure upon a school board by local business interests is great and to withstand it requires not only an understanding of the problems, but a determined and close scrutiny of every move, both in the plans and in their execution.

If the system is large enough, it is wise to set up a division of new construction in charge of an educator trained in survey techniques or of an architect who has specialized in school architecture. If the latter, then all planning of the division should be subject to approval by an educator who makes the building surveys and prepares the educational specifications.[8]

Plant maintenance, or the repair and upkeep of plant, equipment and grounds, may seem to touch education much less intimately as one thinks of plumbing, roofing, glazing, painting, electric work, gas and steam fitting, of automobile, lawn mower, and fence repairs, or of replacing shrubs and trees. But when one thinks of the colors of classroom walls, of the aesthetic effect of repairs on the children, or of the question of safety of the children, or of their convenience, the connection becomes more apparent. More apparent, too, is the connection when alterations are called for in order better to fit the rooms or equipment for the use of teachers and children. Then there is the question of timing maintenance work to fit the school activities. Where repairs are made at a shop or otherwise away from the school premises the chance of disturbing the work of the school is lessened.

Where the maintenance division has repair shops it is common to have many small articles such as tables or special pieces of furniture manufactured by the maintenance staff. Here the specifications would obviously begin with instructional needs.

The question of when and in what manner to repaint or redecorate the buildings is in part a question of preserving the capital investment. From this angle the problem is purely one of business. It is conceivable, however, that educational need may

[8] W. R. Flesher, "Developing a Community School-Building Program," *Educational Research Bull.* (March, 1945), Vol. 24, pp. 65-71. Also, J. C. Swanson and F. W. Hosler, "Plant Planning for a City School System," *The American School Board Journal* (Dec., 1944), Vol. 109, pp. 42-45.

require redecoration long before the physical condition of the building would make it necessary. In order that neglect and waste may not creep in from either of these directions a means must be found for bringing the two kinds of needs to bear in the management. This is a problem that causes some difficulty in practice. The trouble is that maintenance problems are also budget problems. If budget controls are not carefully set up and enforced there is pretty sure to be wrangling over maintenance service.

A third group of problems has to do with plant operation. The cleaning and care of the building, equipment, and grounds is so obviously related to the life and work in the school that such activities become almost a part of the instructional and the social program of the school. Clean windows, floors, desks, pictures, and bookcases, invite people to use them. If soiled and dusty, they tend to repel. The techniques and the materials used in cleaning are questions of chemistry, physics, labor, and business; but that the school house should be clean when in use is an educational and health problem. Even the method of cleaning is of educational concern at times, as when it blackens the floors with oil or leaves stains about, or leaves the air laden with dust. Clearly, too, the cleaning program must be fitted to the program of school work.

Incident to cleaning there are often minor or temporary repairs to be made and at times furniture needs to be moved and numerous chores requiring strong hands have to be attended to in order to keep things in working condition for teachers and pupils. These tasks are a part of the operating service.

By the nature of this work in its relation to life in the school it is clear that authority over these matters must respect educational need and move in terms of it. In many cases control of this service is placed in the central office, so janitors take orders from the business manager, or, in a large city, from the director of plant operations. In such cases, if a teacher wants a piano moved who has the right to request janitors to move it? Many difficult situations arise in this way. In many cases it is not very clear whether the head janitor or the school principal is in charge of the plant. It seems clear that a

principal cannot direct a school without directing many of the operating services. How to place authority here is the real problem. Clear policies, specific regulations, and clear assignments are the answer.

The service of purchasing falls quite naturally into a separate division of the business department, if that much specialization is warranted. The things purchased by a school system cover a wide range—books, lumber, string, plumbing fixtures, pens and pencils, land, paper clips, pianos, scissors, lawn mowers—an almost endless variety of things. Some of the things used by a school have no very direct educational significance. On the other hand, all school supplies, equipment and furniture do have such significance. Clearly, control in this field must be largely educational in so far as choice of things to be purchased and time available are concerned. Where they are purchased, the price, discounts, and method of payment, adjustments for articles broken or lost, and size of orders and storing, are purely business matters.

To have both educational and business efficiency in purchasing it is necessary to put the two kinds of authority and responsibility in the right place. Obviously, the two must work together and neither should go beyond its special province. This may be done best by establishing policies and regulations to govern the service. In the organization the job assignments should indicate what part of the service each shall perform; through other regulations or administrative instructions directions for details should be made clear. It is usually in the placement of authority and in the fixing of routines that weaknesses in practice are to be found. The purchasing director orders something "just as good" in place of what is requisitioned; or, he learns of a "new product" and buys it in place of the one requisitioned, believing the latter to be obsolete. Such practices are going quite beyond the proper authority of a school purchasing division, and teachers and principals should insist upon their rights. Teachers cannot be responsible for good education and have business people dictate what supplies they may use in their teaching.

This brings out a function of the purchasing service that is often badly handled. This division normally should keep close touch with new developments in all the standard supplies and materials used and bring new developments to the attention of the school staff. Instead of doing this, too many purchasing clerks keep the knowledge to themselves and pose as having superior understanding of what teachers need.

Storage and distribution of supplies and equipment may be performed as a part of the purchasing service in a small system, or be set up as a separate division in a large system. Storage is a changing problem for many reasons. The packaging of goods keeps changing with changes in methods of shipping goods, with the changes in demand for them, and with changes in the nature of the containers used. With truck delivery shipment is so much quicker over short distances that manufacturers, wholesalers, and jobbers have scheduled their work in new ways. Consumer demand and manufacturing inventories can be kept closer together, so there are less raw and manufactured materials for any one to store than formerly. This has not done away with storage but when shipments in usable lots can be scheduled to arrive on indicated dates at no change in cost the school can save greatly on storage space, handling, and insurance costs.

From the standpoint of management the schools cannot decide precisely but can schedule fairly well the dates on which they will need their various types of standard materials. The problem is to fit this schedule to the plan by which orders can be filled by factory, wholesaler, jobber, or retailer and check the arrangement for its effect on prices, storage space, and handling.

Some common weaknesses are: purchasing in small lots, when, by planning, larger lots would serve fully as well; purchasing in large lots, with added cost for storage, handling, and insurance, and with no saving in price; too little elasticity to care for exceptional or occasional or urgent needs. Such

awkwardness sums up to bad management due to wrong policy, wrong placement and use of authority in the organization.[9]

Another group of services, clearly separate for organization purposes, centers about the task of keeping adequate records and accounts of business transactions. Bookkeeping, accounting, and auditing are essential and if any one part of school business should be managed separately from other parts it is this. Through the system of accounts a complete record is kept of every piece of property and of every transaction that involves transfer or alteration of rights to money or other property. This record should be objective and impersonal and exact in every detail. The plan of accounts of transactions must be fitted to legal provisions governing school revenues and their uses; to the needs of the board and superintendent for information touching matters of income, expense, disbursements, debt, and interest; and to the need for such cost analyses as may be required. The properties accounts should include necessary information about each piece of property—its nature, location, cost, date purchased or received, and its use.

With the work of keeping financial and property records certain other duties are naturally associated. The handling of the payrolls; supervision of the accounting system used in the school stores and warehouses and cafeterias; control and supervision of accounts for student finance; supervision of inventory accounts; supervision of files for vouchers, contracts, deeds and other business papers; assistance in the preparation of budgets; and the preparation of financial reports.

As a rule schools maintain good systems of basic records covering revenues, funds, and expenses. Property accounts are very often far from adequate. Depreciation accounts are seldom kept. Inventorying is often not well done; the records of inventories are too often incomplete and not properly used, either in management of properties or in budgeting. Cost ac-

[9] In the realm of economy in purchasing, C. L. Suffield's researches bearing upon the purchase of electric power and light are worthy of study. See his "Justification of Lower Unit Costs for Public Utilities Services to Public Schools," *American School Board Journal* (July, 1942), Vol. 105, pp. 28-30. Also, "The United States Supreme Court and Future Utilities Regulations," *ibid.* (April, 1943), Vol. 106, pp. 24-27.

counting is limited in practice and far from thorough from a sound management standpoint. Financial reporting is excellent in some systems and much neglected in others. As a rule such reporting is better as records for the archives than it is for public relations material. It should serve both these ends.

In some school systems accounting is connected with store management and with purchasing. Where the business manager or superintendent can exercise adequate oversight over practices, this may not be objectionable. As a rule it is unwise to permit the accountant to have anything to do with purchasing or with adjusting accounts where orders are wrongly filled or where there is price adjustment to be made. An accountant should work with records, not with people.

This analysis of the business activities of a school system provides a functional distribution of labor, and the basis for an organization of this arm of the school service. Few school systems are large enough to build each of these into an organization unit. More often the work would warrant one single unit, or two or three units rather than six. The maintenance and operating departments can combine with ease, and purchasing and stores go together very well. In small systems new construction is handled by the board and superintendent with outside architects and accounting is handled by a bookkeeper responsible to the business manager more as a clerk. Even in a small school system the analysis here presented should provide the basis for thinking clearly about the school business and for assigning tasks and keeping records.

The major problems in building the business unit of the school organization are:

1. To analyze the work and classify the jobs that have to be done.
2. Determine the size of personnel necessary to handle the work and assign the members in terms of the chosen classification of functions.
3. Enact policies and plans to establish purposes, organization and major procedures, and to fix responsibilities of staff members so the place and flow of authority will be clear.

4. Develop work routines and such devices and techniques and forms as are needed to harmonize action, economize time, and safeguard the integrity of the business.

3. Major Items of School Business

School business management begins *de novo* for very few people and where it does it begins on a very small scale. Study of the subject in hand here properly begins with study of a going enterprise. As the school's fiscal year opens the business management has on hand a system of school plants with furnishings and equipment; it has an organization of its affairs with personnel policies, regulations, and routines; it has a budget; when the schools open it must be ready to operate the properties in harmony with the educational program.

The business manager, unlike the manager of a private enterprise, does not have to develop business; his business comes to him.[10] He must deal with the business public and this takes him to the open market when he needs materials or services. Here he must understand the techniques and standards of business dealing, not that he may produce profits, but that he may render good service. The criteria in terms of which the school business is originated and, to some extent, in terms of which transactions are made, are educational, and so, arise outside his realm of action. In reality the business manager performs a phase of a task which is educational at one point and of the nature of business or economics at another.[11] He may not settle the educational aspects of the problem, which are previous to other aspects, but must act in the business area with careful regard for the previous educational requirements.

Managing school business for the schools and in terms of school needs is not unlike managing a store in terms of the needs reflected in public demand for goods. The difference lies in the fact that through advertising the store manager tries to shape the public demand, while the school business manager

[10] G. H. Oestreich, "Planning the Over-All Business Program," *School Executive* (April, 1945), Vol. 64, pp. 63-65.

[11] C. W. Bursch, "Current Activities in Schoolhouse Planning," *California Schools* (May, 1945), Vol. 16, pp. 87-93.

must await the expression of demand from those running the school program.

During the year the office of business manager must handle a number of major pieces of business incident to keeping the properties in running order from day to day. The following are typical of these major items:

1. Preparation of the budget.
2. Insurance of school properties.
3. Carrying through a program of new construction.
4. Issuing bonds to finance new buildings.
5. Making the inventory.
6. Preparation of cost studies.
7. Preparation of year-end financial report.

Many lesser items of business are associated with each of these items, each of which has to be attended to but once each year. Accounting work is continuous from day to day. Purchasing, receiving, storing, and distributing of materials, moving furniture, cleaning, repairs, writing letters, filing, consulting, preparing data for board meetings, inspecting properties, preparing specifications, work on payrolls, supervising repairs and construction work, paying bills, meeting salesmen, checking requisitions against budget accounts, meeting with school executives or committees, and conferring with the superintendent are suggestive of types of frequently recurring items of business that flow through the office from day to day throughout the year.

While preparation of the budget is first of all an educational problem, yet in its process of development it requires business knowledge also, and as a completed instrument it has the appearance of, and in law it is, a business document. How to bring these two types of talent to bear in the development of the budget is the problem. It is within the power of a school board to make its own budget and some boards exercise this power. As a rule, in such cases, the total amount of the budget is determined, not by analysis of the needs of the schools for funds, but by what was used the year before and by the effect on the tax rate. Where new and nonrecurring items are antici-

pated the board guesses and adds a rough sum. In other words, there is no basic planning. In the distribution of amounts to the various divisions of the budget, precedent and guessing are the bases for action. Usually the administration of such a budget is equally crude and without regard for careful educational planning.

In some cases the business office makes the budget and submits it for board action. The office, being more familiar with school needs, can do a somewhat better job than can the board. Here again, however, the decisions have to rest mainly upon past experience, and the effect on taxes and public opinion, since the business office is not in a position to know the educational plans.

It cannot be assumed that there is no public relations aspect to budgeting.[12] It is reasonable to assume that board members could make an intelligent contribution by bringing their knowledge of public opinion to bear. This could be said also of the business office, since that office is much in contact with the public. It seems obvious, however, that this knowledge and viewpoint should be used, not as a basis for preparing, but as a basis for judging and passing upon budget proposals. In a true sense, a school budget is a financial expression of a plan of school service. If school planning is omitted, the budget is merely an arbitrary assignment of funds for purposes that are not defined. This may be a general appropriation for a department of the government to use, but it offers to the public no basis for understanding what service it will receive in return.

In better managed systems budget-making is a function of the superintendent. This means that the superintendent directs its preparation and its execution. Under this system it is possible to get a budget of the type just described. If the superintendent is an educator as well as a public relations expert, or a glad-hander, the budget will be of another sort: it will be a financial expression of a plan of school service for the period it covers.

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[12] C. S. Johnson, "Better Budgets and Public Relations," *The American School Board Journal* (July, 1944), Vol. 109, p. 20.

Practice falls very short of this ideal in many cases and the points at which most school systems fail are apparent as one considers how the educational planning can be done and how its results may be brought to bear in setting up the budget. A bare sketch of a sound procedure will serve to reveal the major problems involved in budget-making.

The budget must be ready for final adoption at the end of the year preceding, in order that action on the year's program may start with the opening of the new year. The steps in making a budget include:

1. An evaluation of the effectiveness of the previous budget.
2. Planning the instructional program for the forthcoming year.
3. Ascertaining what materials and services will be required to make the new plans effective.
4. Expressing these needs in terms of their cost.
5. Determining the anticipated revenues and the tax rates necessary to produce the revenues required for the program.
6. Comparing the economic burden involved with that borne in each of several years before.
7. Setting up the proposed budget and presenting it to the board for adoption.
8. Deliberation by the board, with public hearings on the proposal.
9. Adoption of the budget.

Step 1, evaluation of the previous budget, will test the budget as to its adequacy as a whole, the fit of its distribution to the several divisions of service, the availability of funds at the time they were needed, and the reaction of the public. In some of its aspects this work of evaluation will go on throughout the year. The reaction of the public will be observed and may be carefully studied through the year. Its adequacy *in toto* and in its parts will be watched from month to month and at the end can be judged by the number of items that had to be omitted because of lack of funds, by surpluses, by the amounts that had to be transferred from one department to another, and by the disturbing alterations required in management in order

to economize. The fit of the revenue to the expenditures in the matter of time would be seen in the need for temporary loans required and in the delays in the service due to late arrival of revenues.

Step 2, planning the educational program, will begin with the opening of the year and crystallize near its close. Educational planning is continuous. For budget purposes, however, there must be a decision as to the time at which changes and additions will be made, since many of these involve expense. Planning involves study. Presumably, all school employees study their work as they perform it. They really evaluate results continuously and at most any time may find possibilities for improvement. In a school these ideas tend to accumulate as teachers and principals or principals and janitors confer on problems. Principals take their ideas to the central office—to supervisor, research director, health director, assistant superintendent, director of curriculum work and libraries, business manager, or the superintendent, as the case may be—and in the central office these ideas may accumulate and in time take form for the system as summary judgments of the whole.

A well-managed school system not only permits but encourages suggestions at any time and from every employee in the system. Good ideas tend to emerge in such a system and this fact helps to produce a forward-looking, professional, aspiring staff. Thus, good staff development, good staff morale due to the encouragement given to everyone to produce good ideas, an improved program, and a sound finance program, all emerge together. To have vitality these business and instructional activities must go along together. In this way budget-making, professional growth of the staff, and health morale become by-products of the normal activities involved in carrying on the work from day to day.

Step 3, determining what materials and personnel will be required to put the planning into effect; and Steps 4 and 5, expressing these in terms of cost and tax burden, come later. They have to await the development of plans and are not needed until there is some evidence that the plans are to be carried out.

Step 6, checking against previous tax burdens, is related to Step 7, developing the proposed budget. These steps come only as the time approaches for Step 8, the board's study of the budget and its hearings on the proposals, and Step 9, final adoption of the budget.

It is easy to see that under this conception everyone in the school system participates in the making of a budget. The educational planning is done by teachers, principals, librarians, supervisors, and directors of guidance, research and health services, together with the superintendent and other coordinating officers. The preparation of cost studies, comparison of tax burdens, determination of estimates of cost for proposed services and materials, would be prepared in the business office. Other evaluation studies would be made by all whose plans are thwarted or forwarded by what happens as funds are needed from week to week. The division of labor is clear enough; but the need for a common idea of budgeting, for clear purposes and for careful cooperation and thorough coordination, is too frequently not realized and separation of budgeting from educational planning results.

The problem of insurance for schools is mainly a matter of business.[13] No one plan would fit all school systems equally well and the task of planning for a specified system is not simple. First of all, in many cases there exist bad traditions of management and often it is difficult to overcome these. Individual insurance brokers tend to get control of the school insurance business and not infrequently gain such a position, as adviser to the board, that they dictate the program, write a good share of it for themselves, and parcel the remainder out in ways to keep other brokers from complaining. The fallacy of this plan is very obvious, yet, to substitute really scientific management for this "friendly racket" method is not easy.

The insurance business is something that board members tend to manage rather directly. Through its distribution they may be able to keep their own business or professional or social fences mended. If the above plan is used there is a way to keep

[13] H. C. Roberts, "Stretching the School Board's Fire Insurance Dollar," *The American School Board Journal* (March, 1941), Vol. 102, pp. 27-29.

the business in line, if the board will adopt it: by employing a firm of insurance experts to do the planning as to types of insurance for the various types of properties, the amounts of insurance, the types and length of terms of contracts, and the calendaring of expiration dates for policies.

No matter what plan is followed the board should have certain policies that it holds to. For instance, a district should carry as much, but not more, of its own insurance as is consistent with the risk involved. It should either employ a dependable firm of experts to plan its insurance program or see to it that a member of its own staff is capable of and is given responsibility for this service. All building, alteration, or remodeling plans should be thoroughly examined by an insurance expert before the construction is contracted for and corrections should be made to lower risk where possible. Competent appraisal of properties should form the only basis upon which insurance is considered.

Common weaknesses of insurance plans besides the matter of their management are: overinsurance of properties, that is, paying for more insurance than could be collected; paying for risk that does not exist or that is so small that it should be carried by the district (why carry $100,000 of insurance on a building on which a loss of over $10,000 is next to impossible); and wrong types of policies.

The problems connected with building and with bond issues will be considered in the chapter following. Note may be made here that in connection with this work a large amount of business comes to the business manager. Some of this is primarily business, but much of it is educational before it is business. Control over these matters is mixed. The common weakness is that the educational contribution is too often omitted.

The school inventory, in a strict business sense, is often nonexistent in school business management. This need not be a serious matter in a very small system where personal attention is given to all properties by the superintendent; in a large system substantial waste can result from such practice. Usually, failure to handle this matter properly goes along with loose management of other matters. No properties records, no capi-

tal or depreciation accounts, no record of the location of furniture temporarily out of use, or of abandoned equipment and furniture, careless management of insurance, no system of files for contracts, maps, and blueprints, no adequate staff personnel records, no adequate financial reports, a very poor plan of budgeting, and no inventorying—all seem to go together. On the educational side one could easily cite typical forms of carelessness in management.

This brief analysis of the nature of these major items of business that come to the office for handling only once a year reveals some of the important problems and shows how their proper management is complicated by the fact that both educational and business intelligence have to be applied in their management. This means that care has to be exercised in placing authority. Economic law and political law are two forces that cannot be set aside. Education has to respect them. The school organization should place administrative authority in a way that will guarantee that educational objectives will not be set aside, that principles of economy will be respected but always in terms of any educational values that may be involved. Where a piece of business involves no educational values, directly or indirectly, control can be delegated to other than educational officers and rules of law and of economy can be the guide. Such cases are few and of minor importance.

4. Routine Types of Business

These larger nonrecurring items of business, important in themselves, are still more important when their relation to the routine types of business and to the work of instruction are considered. Budgeting means getting and arranging support for each of the many things to be done through the year. Almost no business comes to the office that does not in one way or another relate to the budget and involve action or decision in respect to it. The development of a new plant, in only a little less complete way, also involves contacts with the current of daily business. In case of a building the process is that of adding something—a new unit—to an already going concern. To

get it to fit into the mechanism of records and accounts, into the financial plans, into the educational plans, and to carry it along in orderly fashion to completion requires constant recognition of the problems it raises in many other fields.

In a sense, therefore, these major items are starting points or phases or merely high points in the regular routine of life in the business office. The budget is a complicated thing to make, but when completed it becomes an instrument of control over all school activities. It is a paper control, however; behind it there must be an agent in order for it to effect actual control or direction of school activities.

To get an idea of the regular routine of the business office and of the problems involved in keeping it running smoothly one needs to keep in mind that: (1) school administration business has two masters—education on one side, and the rules of economics and law on the other, and (2) the measure of business efficiency is not economic gain, but the extent to which and the manner in which it facilitates the processes of instruction. The viewpoint of the office must be that the accepted rules of business efficiency apply, but that the first obligation is protection of educational values.

With the organization of the business staff as suggested above, with new construction, maintenance, operations, purchasing, storing, and accounting as divisions in the department, it is easy to see where these six types of business would go for their handling. A leaking roof or a damaged boiler would be reported to the maintenance office; need for a financial report, to the accounting office; and a special cleaning job would go to the operating department. These pieces of business, however, are not as separate and independent of each other as this sounds. The principal might report the leaking roof to the office and it would be referred to the maintenance division. In effecting the repairs, however, there are several matters to consider. As a repair job it would have to be appraised for treatment. Should the repair be effected on a temporary or a permanent basis? This may be a question of budget provisions and, so, have to go to the accounting division. In any case an extensive paper machinery has to operate in connection with

the giving and taking of orders for the work: a requisition defining the job, an order for materials to be used, a report of work time consumed, a cost account, and, finally, a bookkeeping record. Thus, not only the maintenance but also the store, the purchasing, and the accounting divisions may each have a part in an ordinary repair job.

In other words, what we regard as routine business is something like a stream flowing into and through the office. It may enter at the main office but have its course through several of the offices before it is completed. This suggests that work comes and goes, sometimes as separate pieces, but more often as separate phases of larger units. In a sense the separate offices are stations along an assembly line on which the items of business are carried along. The job of management, then, is that of welding these separate divisions into a unity, to the end that items of business may move unhindered from station to station until they are finished.

The building of this harmonized routine is a matter of organizing the staff, assigning and equipping offices, fixing authority and responsibility, setting standards, establishing routes of travel for items of business, and designing forms for the records and reports required. That is, with the human machine, the officers, there must go a paper machinery of record and report forms.

Management has the task of seeing that items of business are put into this machine and that this machine handles its load. For instance, a physics laboratory needs an instrument and the department head requisitions it. The principal approves the requisition and sends it to the accounting department. Here it is checked against budget allowance and marked "funds available" and sent to the superintendent who O. K.'s it and sends it to the purchasing department. Here the requisition becomes a purchase order and the instrument is ordered. The instrument with invoice is received at the store where it is carefully checked against specifications (the requisitioner may be called to do this checking) and sent to the school where it is receipted for by the physics department. The invoice is then sent to the superintendent who recommends to the board that it be paid.

If approved for payment it goes to the accounting department and is paid and the final records are then made by the bookkeeper. Here teacher, principal, storekeeper, purchasing agent, accountant, bookkeeper, filing clerk, superintendent, and board all have parts in handling a single piece of business. This is typical of much of the regular business from day to day. To keep each section or unit of this machine geared to all the others that contact it, and to keep it operating smoothly, is the problem.

To keep the organization — human and paper — running smoothly there must be a means of caring for everything. People must have regular places of work, they must have desks or tables, there must be filing cases and a well-organized system of filing records of all kinds, there must be suitable shelf space for volumes of board minutes, financial records, budgets and like materials; there must be drawers for carefully labeled blueprints for all the buildings, there must be a vault to house archive materials and current records, contracts, and money, and there must be a strict routine that makes sure that things are accounted for when removed from their places and that they will be promptly returned. Much poor management results from carelessness in these matters.

5. Character of the Literature on School Business Management

The National Association of Public School Business Officials was founded in 1910. This date is significant in showing that school business was by then becoming a major problem in school administration. The literature of the field does not begin with this date, but the annual reports of this organization are significant as an index to the problems that have given rise to a separate literature for this field. It was in this year, also, that work began leading to the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association's *Report of the Committee on Uniform Records and Reports.*[14] This report marks an important step in the study of school

[14] U. S. Office of Education, Bull. 1912, No. 3.

business economy in this country.

If one looks for literature of earlier date on this subject he will find it, to be sure. Financial reports were issued, and school costs were seriously examined as early as 1905.[15] As early as 1899 the Department of Superintendence Committee on Uniform Financial Reports made a report of importance, and Charles W. Eliot's appeal, *More Money for the Public Schools*,[16] was a significant notice that costs must be higher. As cities grew and school business began to require more and more attention, cities began to appoint special officers to handle that service. All this was symptomatic of the coming of scientific study to this field.

Finance was the first point of attack for study in the field of school business. Closely associated with this was development of uniform systems of financial records. This work was well under way by the end of the first decade of the present century when the school survey movement began. The study of finance has continued and is one of the most pressing of educational problems today. It is not a mere question of economical management now, but the more serious one of where to turn for funds to support a program based upon the principle of equality of educational opportunity. Inequality of ability to provide school money as between states is pronounced. In this volume these broader problems of support are treated in Chapter 9.

Closely related to these broader issues are questions of budgeting and accounting and cost analysis for local school systems. These problems provoked research early in the century and for each a substantial literature has been developed. School budgeting was a prominent feature of the early discussions of the problem of government budgeting. The beginnings of accounting studies date back in the nineties of last century, in a sense even earlier than that. School reporting by superintendents, including reports of business and finance, received attention almost from the beginning of the

[15] George D. Strayer, "City School Expenditures," *Teachers College Record* (May, 1905), Vol. 6, pp. 65-103.

[16] Doubleday, Page & Co., 1903.

superintendency, and research began to analyze and evaluate the reports as early as 1914 and 1915.[17] These documents have undergone substantial change, although where reports are still published the business features are not less prominent.

Separate courses on school business management, on finance, and on school buildings were offered at a few universities early in the present century and an extensive textbook on business management was published in 1927. As will be seen from the bibliographies following, which omit buildings and finance, explorations are now going on in almost every niche of the field. The literature on budget-making, accounting, bonding and pay-as-you-go, planning of school buildings (see chapter on buildings), school building insurance, and the care and operation of buildings, as separate fields of study, shows remarkable development during the past twenty-five years.

6. Bibliography on School Business Management

The following bibliographies are but an introduction to the extensive literature in this field. Attention is directed to bibliographies in Chapter 9, on Finance, Chapter 8, on County and Rural Administration, and Chapters 6 and 7, on Federal and State Education. See also: *Review of Educational Research,* Vol. XIV, April, 1944; *The American School Board Journal;* and *The Nation's Schools.*

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Chapter 14

SCHOOL BUILDINGS

1. Plant Development a Part of Business Management

The problems connected with school buildings are numerous and varied and are so related to problems of finance (Chapter 9) and other matters of business management (Chapter 13) that, as a field of study, it is separable from these two fields only by arbitrary methods. For purposes of study, however, such a separation is desirable, partly because of the extent of the literature devoted to buildings. If finance and buildings are but special aspects of school business management, however, it is still true that each of these fields is the center of many very important and very special administrative problems.

The scope and importance of the field of school buildings is suggested by the following questions:

1. What should a school board have in the way of general policies governing plant expansion?
2. How may a board work out its building program so that it expresses the real educational needs of the district for plant expansion?
3. How should a school board proceed in the selection and purchase of its school grounds?
4. How should a set of building plans—blueprints and specifications—be developed and how may such plans be judged?
5. How should a board proceed in initiating building activities—how secure architectural and other services needed?
6. How can a board make sure that lighting, heating, ventilation, and sanitation have been cared for in its building plans?

7. How may requirements of municipal building regulations, state building codes, and special state school housing regulations best be handled by a board?
8. How should a board proceed in contracting for construction and how may it guarantee proper execution of plans?
9. How should the plan for financing new construction be worked out?
10. How should a board proceed in selecting the furniture and in arranging for built-in features of a building?

The importance of this last field becomes further evident as one considers the amount we now have invested in public school grounds and buildings. By rough prewar figures the original cost represents over 1½ per cent of the country's wealth.[1] Buildings depreciate annually at an average rate of perhaps 2 per cent, so that for school buildings we are actually consuming substantial sums annually. In connection with original cost we pay large sums in interest, sums that often have a depressing effect on the operating budget.[2] This is merely to remind us that on this subject we are dealing with a large economic problem that has much to do with how rich a curriculum the school may be able to offer. The pinch of public debt is bound to increase as things are now going (1947). With a huge war debt to carry, this will mean it will be harder and costlier to finance school buildings. Very soon the question will be: Can we have new buildings at all, except of the cheapest sort and under the most pressing needs? The strain of war, defense cost, and public debt, must end in time, however, and when economy ceases to be the only problem, all the above list of problems will confront us in practical ways.

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[1] National Education Association, Research Division, *Research Bull.*, Vol. VIII, No. 4; Sept., 1930.

[2] L. M. Thurston, "Financing Tomorrow's School Plant Will Require Sharing of Responsibilities," *Nation's Schools* (Sept., 1945), Vol. 36, pp. 42-43.

2. Guiding Policies for School Business

The subject of rules and regulations has been considered in Chapter 10. In such a book there should be set down certain policies affecting the matter of school plant development.[3] To see the desirability of such guiding principles one has only to look at the miscellaneous, ill-designed, ill-placed collections of school buildings in many of our cities. It is true that cities have grown rapidly; that they have undergone strange and rapid internal and external changes that have affected the distribution of school population; and that they have grown old at some points while showing rapid expansion at others. It is also true that scientific study and social change have greatly modified our conceptions of education and thereby forced change in the types of housing needed. Even so, there are some general principles that are sound, even under such circumstances. In view of the turnover in board membership and in the superintendency such principles can be used to stabilize and give continuity to the school purposes and undertakings of a community. One of the very weak points in present building administration is in our lack of sound policies.[4]

For this lack of policies the excuse is often given that such controls tend to crystallize and prevent growth as change takes place and new demands arise. This could be true if instead of principles a board should set up special plans and detailed procedures. But this is not what is meant by general policies. Against this flimsy objection one may wisely consider that without policies the schools may and likely will be operated on a personal and on a day-to-day basis. As pressures or personnel or personal likes shift, a shift is apt to appear in the building program. The result is a higgledy-piggledy plant, a sense of uncertainty in the staff, and general waste in management.

A few principles that would seem to give stability to building programs have been brought to light by study and might

[3] John H. Herrick, "Legal Aspects of the School Plant," *Review of Educational Research* (Feb., 1945), Vol. 15, pp. 83-93. Bibliography.

[4] J. K. Moulton, "School Policies: How Can We Obtain Public Cooperation in Helping to Shape Them?" *Nation's Schools* (July, 1945), Vol. 36, pp. 48-49.

serve here to guide those reading in this area. For instance, what could be said in favor of and against the following as guiding policies?

1. School plant development shall be regarded as a matter demanding continuous study and treatment, in line with changing educational needs.[5]

2. A program of plant development shall be maintained and kept abreast of need and shall be used to guide the purchase of sites, the abandonment of useless buildings, the rehabilitation of old but usable buildings, the alteration and extension of buildings, and the development of new buildings.

3. The building program shall hold to the principle that the particular service to be rendered—types of children to be housed, types of educational, social, physical, and community programs to be carried out—shall, within the limits of the financial ability of the district, dictate the type of buildings to be provided.

4. The system of buildings shall be designed to fit the plan of administrative organization of the educational program of the system. This shall regard close fit to educational need rather than a chosen pattern of organization (such as 6-3-3 or 6-4-2) as the guide.

5. The purpose shall be as far as practicable to keep abreast of need in plant development in order (a) to satisfy instructional needs, (b) to prevent the accumulation of a burdensome building program, (c) to avoid possible interference with unknown future educational demands, and (d) to avoid uneven demands for public funds that might disturb other public demands upon public spending.

6. The principle of pay-as-you-go shall be followed as far as is practicable. Where the method of bonding is used it will be the purpose to liquidate the debt in the shortest time consistent with sound management and by a method that starts liquidation at once and lays the cost evenly through the period covered by the process.

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[5] John W. Bell, "The Continuous Building Survey Experience of the Chicago High Schools," *The American School Board Journal* (Jan., 1941), Vol. 102, pp. 66, 68.

(Accumulation of funds ahead of need is desirable where the law permits. See California's School Law for a good plan.)

7. Grounds shall be provided for each school on the basis of the program of physical and social care and education to be provided, in terms of the size and character of the school population to be served, in terms of community uses to be met by the school playgrounds, and with regard for available parks, playgrounds, and other facilities provided by the public.

8. It shall be the policy to emphasize the safety, care, and instruction of children, the necessity for internal alterations to fit a changing program, and to avoid undue recognition of permanence of structure and overstressing of external ornamentation to the detriment of internal beauty and serviceability.

One could add other principles, but these will serve to throw into relief some of the problems now being faced by administrators. Where is there a community that would not like to have its board adhere to such principles? Where is the selfish pressure group that would have the courage to make shoddy demands in the face of public recognition of such principles? Although one recognizes in these statements the plainest sort of common sense, yet, in most school systems, it is possible to see innumerable violations of them.

3. Development of a Building Program

The development of a building program is the first major step in putting sound building policies into effect.[6] A building program is an outline of a definite plan of schoolhouse construction. It extends as far into the future as is warranted by facts, estimates, and guessing as to needs.[7] The plan tells what lands are to be purchased, what buildings are to be provided, when each unit is to be built, and how the projects are to be financed.

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[6] H. W. Schmidt, "School Plant Surveys," *The American School Board Journal* (Jan. 1941), Vol. 102, pp. 17-19.

[7] John G. Fowlkes, *Planning Schools for Tomorrow,* U. S. Office of Education, Leaflet No. 64 (Washington, Government Printing Office, 1942).

A building program substitutes careful planning for catch-as-catch-can methods of meeting demands for capital investment in plant expansion. It is customary to budget quite specifically for the operating expenses year by year, but it is far from usual for a school system to plan capital investment with corresponding care and detail. The result of the lack of such planning is seen in long delays and consequent handicaps for instruction, in buildings that were not really planned and that were already obsolete when they were finished, and in awkward accumulations of debt obligations that seriously depress the provisions for current spending.

A building program has three major divisions: the selection of sites, the planning of buildings, and a plan for the financing of costs. The selection of sites is partly an educational matter, partly a business matter, and partly a social and physical matter. Planning the buildings is first and mainly an educational question, but with some economic, social, and business aspects. Financing is basically a question of public finance and business. In all parts the values about which action centers are educational and broadly social. Even in strictly financial matters these values must not be jeopardized in order to gain a present but small economic advantage.

A school building plan should be synchronized with plans for use of capital in other features of the community's public services. Need for expansion of the street systems, the water or sewer mains, the park system, the need for hospitals, docks, libraries, or other municipal buildings, also involve substantial outlays. These various activities should be carried out with at least some attempt at keeping the total cost load equalized from year to year. There are obvious educational reasons for planning school sites and public parks and playgrounds so they may supplement and not duplicate such facilities. Similarly, if a city is heavily in debt for sewers or streets the market for its school bonds may be adversely affected. It is true that school districts and municipalities are governmentally separate, but they have a common source of revenue.

Some of the problems connected with each of these major divisions may be pointed out.

4. Choice and Development of School Sites

A building program is a plan for the future and is concerned with the entire district as it is now and as it seems likely to become.[8] The program's development of sites is not merely the task of buying some plots of ground, but of buying pieces that fulfill very special educational and social needs. Together, these sites make a system, units of which represent special provisions for special types of school needs. Sites for tiny children must be chosen with reference to criteria that would not be suitable for evaluating grounds for a high school or technical institute or junior college. To buy sites one must move in terms of a clear picture of the coming school system.

School grounds are difficult to choose because, presumably, they are to be used for many years, at least for the life of a physical plant—perhaps near a half century. Need for a site has to be thought of in terms of the length of time it will be usable. Will the school population be here that long, is a question. To satisfy this feature of the program one must find a means of guessing about the shifting of population into and out of the district and from place to place within the district. This means more than the number of school people. It means, also how many of a given educational type—how many of elementary school or of high school age.

To put this in more detail, the selection of school sites should be based upon the ages and numbers of children to be served, along with the program to be provided; it should have in mind the probable growth of the community; it should take account of distracting noises, odors, and sights; as far as possible it should avoid small schools; it should avoid the necessity of having children cross dangerous traffic lanes, or consider how supervision of such crossings can be provided; and it should give reasonable consideration to the social homogeneity of the community to be served. By what techniques and criteria may one proceed? In practice these criteria are often not easily applied

[8] S. P. Clemens and R. L. Johns, "Regional Planning for School Plant Operation and Maintenance," *The American School Board Journal* (Dec., 1940). Vol. 100, pp. 46-47.

as guides. Small schools are often unavoidable because of distances, traffic barriers, shifts of populations, or special racial and social groupings. One cannot perfectly anticipate the growth or decline of population in the various parts of a city. Distracting noises and odors and sights may come to a community with a shift in the zoning ordinances that could not have been foreseen when the school site was chosen. If a desired site is already occupied by expensive homes or other buildings the expense involved might make its choice prohibitive. To omit the use of educational criteria, to submit to economic or physical ones, is to run the risk of having to submit to the whims of local business pressures that totally disregard educational values.

The selection of a site means more than deciding upon the location. The size and character of the site is also important. The size is determined by the service required of it, not alone by the number of children in schools. Is it to be used by the community as a playground? What school activities is it to provide for? We should lay out a playground just as we do the floor plan of the building.[9] If we know what physical and social outdoor activities are desirable for children of specified ages, then why not buy land in terms of the space required for the social and physical activities program? This need not imply standardized, formalized strait-jacketing of what should be spontaneous and natural. It merely means that school grounds are chosen for known educational purposes instead of on the basis of what someone guesses to be desirable. Along with this the character of a site—its elevation, drainage, kind of soil, cost of surfacing, shape, safety—is equally important.[10]

When and how to purchase the sites, once they have been located, is a problem. Many school systems have purchased sites so far in advance of needs that when buildings were required the sites proved to be in the wrong places. This is wasteful

[9] For a suggested technique see the author's *Berkeley School Properties Survey,* pp. 188-91 (Berkeley, Calif., Board of Education, 1926).

[10] See any of the building score cards, check lists, or sets of building standards for extensive analysis of site and all other features of a school plant. See Walter S. Monroe, *Cyclopedia of Educational Research,* N. Y., The Macmillan Co., 1941, p. 1046, for list of published score cards.

because it has removed the ground from the tax roll for years, the upkeep and risk of accidents may have been substantial, and often changes in the community may have lowered its sale value. Obviously, the alternative is not delay of purchase until need becomes pressing. Second, should a board proceed directly and with an announced purpose? Experience indicates that this causes prices to rise immediately. Should the board use its right of eminent domain and purchase under condemnation procedure? This method is usually slow and sometimes hurts the school's public relations unless other methods have been tried. The Chicago board has followed this method. Should the board employ an agent to purchase the site and resell it to the board, or at least to do the negotiating? This method is sound if honestly and intelligently applied.

5. The Development of Building Plans

There are several problems connected with the development and execution of building plans that are difficult to separate from the plans themselves. In connection with the plans there is the question of getting suitable architectural help; the question of meeting requirements of laws and ordinances; the problem of caring for lighting, heating, ventilation, and sanitation problems; and the matter of building contracts and supervision of construction. All of these are major considerations that in a way belong together. For convenience of treatment, however, this section will be concerned with developing the plans only, leaving the other matters for later consideration.[11]

It has been noted that location of each site has to be chosen with reference to a clearly understood use to be made of it. This means that one has the number and ages and types of children in mind, and that he knows what kind of educational activities are to be provided. The building plan is the full and concrete educational interpretation and physical expression of this program of activities.

[11] Charles W. Bursch, "Adapting School Plants to New Programs," *California Journal of Secondary Education* (March, 1942), Vol. 17, pp. 58-60

Presumably, the site has been chosen because it fits into a system of sites, because a building there will be suitably adjusted to expected shifts in population and to the length of life and carrying loads of adjacent school buildings, and because the site is suited to the type of building desired. In other words, the basis for the actual building plans is the same as the basis for the choice of site. How should one proceed in working out the details of the plans to the point where the preparation of blue prints and specifications begins?

The floor plan and superstructure of a building must be examined and planned with reference to the following factors:[12]

1. The number to be housed.
2. The classes and groups to be organized for work and play.
3. The task of administration for the school.
4. The normal processes of living in the building.
5. The types of instructional, social, and physical activities to be employed in the program.
6. The community uses to be made of the plant.
7. The need for facilities for servicing the building.
8. Orientation for light and outdoor facilities to be used.
9. The superstructure should be designed with fullest recognition of the inside requirements, with regard for safety, and with regard for beauty.

How can one develop a building program that contains direction for buildings of this sort? It takes certain kinds of talent to provide the knowledge called for by these nine requirements. A school board does not possess such knowledge, nor, normally, does a business manager. A superintendent possesses part of it. But the talents of principals, teachers, supervisors, and other specialists like custodians, guidance and health officers, research workers, attendance officers, and clerks, are needed if the building is to be fitted to the educational needs of the community.

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[12] G. O. Swing and C. H. Disque, "Efficient School Administration Building," *The American School Board Journal* (Aug., 1939), Vol. 99, pp. 47-50. Also, see recent volumes of *The American School and University*, New York, American School Publishing Corp. (Published annually)

A building program would indicate the type of building, the size and the types and the number of rooms, and special features of importance. It would not cover the details but would furnish the starting point for the development of actual blueprints and specifications.[13] It would do this for each building needed and would outline corresponding plans for abandoning worn-out plants and for altering and remodeling where such treatment is needed.

From this it seems evident that the development of a building program is a task that must be performed in one of two possible ways: by outside experts who develop the recommendations for an educational program with recommendations for a building program to fit it; or by the local staff headed by a specially trained member of the research staff. This task involves use of most of the research techniques of a school survey. It calls for the most complete understanding of the theory and practice, not only of the administration of a school, but also of curriculum-making, supervision, guidance, school research, and teaching as well.

There are times when outside experts are greatly needed on this task. Even when the work is done locally it may be desirable to have occasional assistance on troublesome points. To separate the local staff from this work, however, is clearly not sound. True, the population studies, the cost studies, and the like, can best be made by a research man; but if the plan is really to reflect the program of instruction the school staff must have a part in it. The reason for this is not merely because the staff has the knowledge, but because when buildings are erected they ought to be intimately connected with the normal process of adjusting the instructional program.

Put in a slightly different way, the development of a building program ought to be one phase of the curriculum-development program or, from another angle, a part of the in-service education program for the staff. A very few decades ago teachers and principals had not had very much training in educational research, and the buildings were less intricately con-

[13] See any of the building surveys listed in the bibliographies below.

nected with the instructional activities. With the development of better training programs have come the survey movement and the test movement, both of which have provided tools that are available for all. Building score cards, standards, and check lists; techniques for determining what kind of education to provide for a given population, research methods, all voluminously illustrated for use in the survey and test literature, are now a part of the professional equipment of teachers. Teachers who have no chance to use their equipment are pretty sure to become discontented and less efficient.

The problem cited here, therefore, is not merely that of seeing that the building programs are developed, but also that of using this task as a means of stimulating healthy growth and sound morale in the staff, and that of applying in a broad sense the best current philosophy of education, one that demands that all parts of the service be harmonized—in this case that the building be fitted to the activities it is to house by those who conceive and direct the activities. This is seeing school administration in the best sense as work for men of great training and leadership.

6. The Financial Aspect of the Building Program

The third major division of the building program has to do with its costs. The cost of a building program is a control with reference to which all estimates of educational needs have to be checked. One of the obvious problems of administration is to prevent cost from being the most dominating influence of all. While there must be a financial limit it is a fact, usually, that the limit is where people desire to have it, rather than where economic force compels. Public spending usually stops long before economic limits are reached. What a district will fix as the limit to spend will depend more upon how the people value school buildings and school service than upon their ability to raise any given sums. The public relations aspect of this matter, therefore, is almost more important than the economic aspect. Planning should keep both factors in mind.

To approach the public intelligently and in a way that will appeal, one may remind the people of the value to be derived from the schools to be provided in the proposed new buildings and appeal to their pride and ambition for good schools; or secondly he may, by analyzing the costs, attempt to disabuse their minds of the impression that the financial sacrifice to be involved is very heavy. The one appeal is to emotions, the other to understanding. Both are important.

The building program is a plan, not a method of executing the plan. Yet to be effective the plan has to be accepted. Accordingly, it should be formulated with reference to what it takes to get it enacted, in so far as this can be done by methods that are open, factual, and honest. That is, the plan should first of all be sound in terms of facts. Beyond that the work of getting the plan adopted may require appeals to the emotions.

The question faced at this point is: Can the district afford the proposed plan; or how can this plan be managed so that the district can afford it? If a district would meet its building needs as they arise it would avoid great accumulations of need. As a matter of fact, districts seldom do this and the reason is obvious. Demand for buildings arises from population increases and from exhaustion of old buildings. The former source of need is dominant at the outset but, after a half century, replacement need comes on and continues indefinitely. In rapidly growing districts new construction will be important even after replacement needs begin to appear. In a static district the program will be one of replacement only.

If need for buildings and ability to pay for buildings could go along at equal pace, once a district got started, it might hope to build as needed and pay as it built. The truth is that these two forces—need for school buildings and ability to pay for them—seldom go along together undisturbed. The purses that provide for schools must provide for the personal wants of those who own them and for the combined want of the owners for government service of many sorts. The need for a city hall, a public library, a hospital, a park or playground, or a water system may or may not arise at a time when the public purse is under no other strain. Again, at the outset, when but

one school is required, the cost is so great in proportion to the tax roll that the district has to go into debt. Often the debt is not yet paid when another building is needed, and a new debt is added. This has been the history of many, many districts. As the debt has grown the difficulty of shifting to a pay-as-you-go plan has increased.[14]

From this it is clear that the development of a financial plan is not a matter of applying some formula or recipe but rather that of solving a problem. The general policies of the district should hold that the "continuous" as opposed to the "intermittent" plan for the satisfaction of housing needs shall be followed as far as sound financial management will allow. Sound financial management would consider the financial ability, together with the present and probably forthcoming burdens upon that ability, not only for future school buildings but for any other public need. A city that is in debt for a municipal harbor that will produce a growing income has an investment that should be regarded as an offset to the debt involved. If the debt is for a hospital the chance of income to offset the debt is not so good, and if it is for a jail it is less still. A city that is in debt for its water works or for its electric plant should be saving the taxpayers the profit that would otherwise accrue to a corporation. So the effect of debt on the financial ability of a district has to be studied for its ultimate as well as immediate significance. What is true of the tax burden for debt is true of other parts of the tax rate as well.

To estimate the financial ability of a district or of any political unit, account should be taken of:

1. The rate of growth or decline of the population.
2. The wealth and the net social income, with trends.
3. The sources of income and their dependability (has it one or many sources, if few, are they cyclical types, etc.).
4. Is the community dependent upon itself or upon other communities for its economic resources?

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[14] For a plan of shifting from a debt to a pay-as-you-go method of financing school buildings see *Sacramento School Survey,* Vol. I, p. 205 ff. (Sacramento, Board of Education, 1928).

5. Is the community well developed or far behind in its public service properties?
6. Is the community in debt and if so for what and to what extent?
7. Analysis of population as to occupations, as to earners and dependents of various types, and as to home owners and tenants.
8. Present tax rates as pressures on true wealth or on net income.
9. Attitude of the public toward current debts, tax burdens, and toward the schools.

As one goes over these items as indexes of ability to support a building program and considers the present status of local financing of school buildings it seems doubtful whether these matters have received proper consideration.

Having determined the financial ability of the district the next question is how best to apply that ability to the program in hand. There must be a schedule and a calendar of action. The ability may be tapped all at once or over a specified period. Which is sounder, is the question. This is partly determined by whether it is to be handled by direct tax or by debt. In either case, an obligation should be assumed only as funds are needed. Where a heavy debt already exists, account must be taken of the extent and the rate at which the old debt calls for funds to service and liquidate it. In any case, the aim would be to keep the cost burden as even from year to year as possible while at the same time making headway toward some plan, such as pay-as-you-go, for handling construction costs.

There are ways of delaying maintenance service so as to ease the pressure for the current operating expense and thereby bring more cash to the building fund, for a given time. This method should be used with care lest losses from depreciation may become greater than cost for interest would have been had funds been borrowed. There are dozens of city school building survey reports that show how all these problems can be handled in practice. The purpose here is merely to show that if the administration of this aspect of the work of a school system

is properly handled all these questions of business economy will have to be met and solved. When they have been figured out it should be possible to set out a plan that shows what buildings are needed year by year through a specified period, what the status of the building debt will be annually through to a time when a pay-as-you-go policy may be entered upon, how best the district may raise and have available the amounts needed each year, and what this will mean in tax rates.

7. Administering a Building Program

The execution of a building program involves a number of steps as indicated above: purchase of sites (discussed above); choice of an architect; setting up of building standards; ascertaining limitations set by laws, regulations, and ordinances; letting contracts; supervision of construction; and selection of furniture. These are the major tasks.

The building program will have a schedule of things to be done, with each item calendared for time. This calendar points the way and should prevent delays if followed. As soon as the building program is accepted and the money voted action can begin. Remembering that plans for each building are to be drawn by the joint work of an architect and an educator, it is important to choose an architect who not only knows something of school architecture but also who can work well with school people. If, when an architect is employed, it is understood that the plans must satisfy educational needs, as interpreted by the superintendent, there is less likely to be an attempt to ignore the suggestions from teachers and principals and build a monument instead of a school house.

The choice of an architect is not easy. Local architects can bring pressure on the board to use home talent. If the talent is there it should be used, but if it is not there the board should go elsewhere. The large city will have plenty of talent. The small city may or may not. This troublesome problem can be partly solved by setting up training and experience specifications for the architect.

Should a separate architect be chosen for each school; should there be a supervising architect over all construction to harmonize plans and keep architecture in line with standards throughout the system; should the board employ an association of architects and thus solve the problem of choosing among local architects; should the board maintain a staff of architects as a part of the school staff—a practical possibility in a large system, or on a part-time basis in a smaller system. These are problems that boards have to face.

When an architect is chosen he should be handed the suggestions contained in the building program and with them a carefully prepared set of suggestions made by the staff of the school in question. This would save the architect many hours of work and provide a basis upon which the architect and the superintendent (supported by the school staff) could move rapidly to considerations of basic matters.

The contract with the architect presents some problems. The educational services essential in the development of the school building plans are as important as are the architectural and engineering services and they should be regarded as part of the total task of plan-making. If the school staff is not competent to handle this phase of the work an educational expert should be employed, in which case the architect's fee should be adjusted to cover the cost of the educational service. Other than this, boards have found the contract forms devised by the American Institute of Architects to be satisfactory.

The plans for a building should apply all the standards decided upon. Type of building (as A, B, C, D, E), size of rooms, lighting, tinting and painting of ceilings and walls, height of blackboards, numbers of toilet units, seating, and dozens of other features of buildings have been studied and standards have been developed. The standards decided upon should be check-listed or arranged for easy reference and definitely indicated as requirements for all plans. The American Standards Association, The National Council on Schoolhouse Construction, The Illuminating Engineering Society, The American Institute of Architects, and the Bureau of Standards have much to offer in this field of standards.

Care in making sure that requirements of local ordinances, state laws, and regulations are met should be exercised for two reasons. First, the board's action is subject to these controls, and second, these controls usually represent worth-while standards. The selection of the standards to be applied must be consistent with and most likely should cover all such requirements. Presumably, the architect is most familiar with these laws and may well check over the educational proposals with the superintendent on all points affected by the laws.

The problem of contracting for buildings presents a number of opportunities to avoid later difficulties. The American Institute of Architects has prepared some very useful forms. Once the plans and specifications are complete—they can hardly be too complete—then advertising for bids, opening, tabulating, and finally, accepting a bid are successive steps to be followed, after which the contract can be entered into. Too great care cannot be given to the content of a contract. Oral understandings may have value in law but written agreements are less likely to be troublesome. The work and materials covered must be in the plans and specifications, not in some verbal understanding. It is notoriously true that school building costs quite generally exceed the contract price, because of changes asked for (overlooked in the planning) and because of things omitted from the plans.

The board should give thought to the chances of recovery for damages. Surety bonds for full and faithful fulfilling of the contract should be required.

Construction should be constantly supervised from two angles, that of architecture and engineering and that of education. For this the architect and the superintendent, or someone serving for the superintendent, should be responsible. Innumerable details of no consequence to the builder or engineer may easily have importance educationally. Many such items can be checked while work is in process and improve the serviceability of a room or a cabinet or an electric fixture at no added cost. The strength, safety, and thoroughness of work and the quality of materials are concerns of the architect.

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Chapter 15

THE ADMINISTRATION OF A SCHOOL

1. The Nature of a School

The most important problem involved in the administration of a separate school is that of developing and applying a clear conception of the school itself. There are small schools and large schools. There are schools that operate directly under a board of education and others that are but separate units in a larger district with many schools. There are schools for girls only or for boys only, and still others for both sexes. There are rural schools, village schools, and city schools. There are schools for infants, others for small children, others for youth, and still others for adults. There are technical schools and general schools, and schools for very special groups.[1]

In what sense are these various enterprises alike and different? In what sense is their administration alike and in what sense different? They differ in population, in objectives, in programs, and to a considerable extent in equipment and housing Such major differences would obviously be reflected in administrative purposes, policies, organization, and procedures. But looking beyond these, in more general terms perhaps, one can see certain other similarities. They all are educational institutions. In all of them education is planned for the students and carried forward in terms of the immediate and future needs of the students, both as individuals and as members of society. In all but very few schools education is as much concerned with

[1] It is a problem to know when and how to segregate children to form special groups for class or school. No one questions segregation by age, or for technical instruction, but to segregate on basis of physical health needs, or of intelligence, or of personality defects, or of race, or of social standing, even where it would be useful, can raise important questions to which administration must not be blind.

social as with intellectual development, and training to social ends is accomplished through a rich experience in the responsibilities of membership in the school. By living and working together children develop power to operate as members of organized society.

With such similarities and such differences the administration of a school must deal. If we accept the theory that administrative principles and processes derive from the nature of the service to be administered, together with the conditions under which the service has to be carried on, it would seem clear that with such variety in size, in ages, social background, and purposes of students, in instructional programs, and in relationship of the school to the larger community, each school must present many problems peculiar to its own special nature and circumstances. It is equally obvious, however, that in every school we expect social education to come from the experience of living and working as active and responsible members of the school.[2]

These many types of schools reveal how a school is not something standardized, something cut to a general pattern, ordered and dominated by a superpower but, rather, something that grows out of its own community. It is not something into which children are fitted, but something fitted to the children and to the society.[3] Schools are hand made, as it were. What the school is depends upon the children who attend it, upon the community that produces and helps to operate it, and upon the larger society represented in the state and nation. This appears obvious, and as an abstract statement seems to tell just what a school is. The problem, however, is not that of developing a theory of a school on which to build, but rather, that of showing what this theory means concretely, for a given case. What is it about children, the community, and the state that tells us how to shape and direct the school? What the administrator

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[2] Southern Rural Life Conference, *The School and the Changing Pattern of Country Life* (Nashville, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1943).

[3] Edward G. Olsen, et al. *School and Community: The Philosophy, Procedures and Problems of Community Study and Service Through Schools and Colleges* (New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1945).

needs, finally, is a recipe that tells him how to do the job. This cannot be a recipe for a school but, rather, a recipe for making the studies that will tell him how to make the school. This is where administration is short. By the old way, about the only recognition given to the community was that the program would be somewhat fitted to the ages of the children—only somewhat, as our retardation and rigid promotion schemes and correspondingly rigid curriculum show all too clearly. Further, the school taught studies, but gave little thought to using life or membership in the school as a feature of the instructional program.[4]

The social and the educational survey movements, the testing movement, the growth of Dewey's concepts of the school and society and of experience in education, and educational research in general, have shown how to study a community and how to bring such studies to bear upon the nature, purposes, program, organization, and management of the school. A school principal needs to learn what facts to assemble, how and where to get them, how to treat them, and how to interpret them. There are many biological and psychological facts about the children themselves, and social facts about the children, about their homes and families, about the work life and leisure time of their people, about their government in its many phases, about their economic life, that together furnish the basis for a program of instruction and for the foundation upon which the school as an institution should be organized and managed. Too little attention has been given to the assembling, analysis, interpretation, and use of these facts.

It must be emphasized that one cannot develop a school by this method and then go on operating it indefinitely on that pattern. Children grow and change from day to day. This growth changes the homes and the family life of the community also. Other changes come to the homes and to the community —new inventions alter the mode of life and sometimes effect

[4] George A. Works and S. O. Lesser, *Rural America Today: Its Schools and Community Life* (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1942).

changes even in the community boundaries. All these together must change the school if the nature of the school is to remain an expression of the nature and aspirations of the parents and children, of the community and of the larger society, that is, if the school is to remain a genuine means for self-realization for the children, and for the community and the nation.[5] This is merely saying that the technique of developing a school must be used also as the technique of carrying it on.

A school should be an enterprise in which students are the active and responsible members. For the child the experience of developing this sense of membership in a school that is a going concern is one of the most important objectives one can set. Through such experience the child helps to formulate purposes for his own little society, he helps to carry on the life of this society, he learns to look after his school's public relations, he learns to evaluate the activities of his little society and to feel responsible for its success. Incident to these responsibilities he contacts real government, real business—his future responsibilities. One cannot question the worth of what a child learns from books of language, of number, government, economics, or science, but only when his school is realizing its social objectives—the purpose to be for the student a little society, a community in which the children function as real members—is there a proper chance for social growth, for personality development, or for his many accumulated knowledges and skills to become a part of his real self. Education is no longer content for a child to think of his knowledges and skills as mental possessions. Rather, they must become parts of him so that whenever he acts or speaks he automatically brings his education, his school studies, his knowledges, and his skills to bear. A school is best when it has become a social unit with a mode of life of its own, wherein the child identifies himself as a responsible member. For such an enterprise there can be no one administrative pattern.

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[5] I. B. Berkson, *Education Faces the Future* (New York, Harper & Bros., 1943).

2. The School as a Unit in the System

A second problem is that of determining the place of the school in the larger school district. In the first place, how is the large district laid out into smaller school units, and in the second place, in what way is the individual school independent of or subordinate to the larger district?

The above concept of a school calls for something like social homogeneity of the people of the school unit, and for administration that lays stress upon creating an institution in which the child operates as a responsible member and in which the people of the community contribute quite directly in keeping the school interlocked with social and civic processes of life in the community. Can these concepts be applied when the school must operate as a unit in a larger system? Some examination of these two questions must precede consideration of the problems of management that are to be faced within the school itself.

Occasionally, one sees beautiful but deserted old homes in the edge of a factory district, or new business or apartment houses pushing directly through a residence section, or a large school building in a downtown section with scarcely a third of its rooms in use. Change like this is everywhere continuous. It moves slowly here and rapidly there, but everywhere, even in rural sections, it has to be reckoned with in some form. Such change seems to defy the possibility of maintaining schools in the sense set out above. At least, in any large American city one may expect to find that the idea of recognizing neighborhood lines—social homogeneity within a school area—has often had to be set aside. The question is, should this principle be ignored or is there a way to meet it?

If these changes could be anticipated they could be met. Can school boards guess where schools will be needed, can they guess how long a school will be needed in a given locality? Architects and engineers can design a building to last approximately any period desired. If a school board keeps ahead of actual building needs it can purchase school lots where it chooses. But, to purchase ahead of settlement calls for guessing as to how the

territory will be settled, and other guessing as to what the anticipated settlement may provoke as later invading forces change the community.

The factors that cause such growth or decline are well-understood. They include trends in population growth, the development in zoning legislation, the decisions of groups of realtors and chambers of commerce, the attitude of the city administration group, the development of shipping facilities, such as rails and harbors, the development of markets and kinds and nearness of raw materials, and so on. Business and industry make guesses daily as to their future chances, and invest accordingly. The schools should be equally capable of foreseeing where school buildings may be needed.

This means that the schools must have a building program that is replanned continuously, that projects into the future, and that takes account of all these factors of change. The survey reports (see bibliographies of Chapter 10) are rich in concrete illustrations of the techniques essential to the kind of prognosticating here suggested. In carrying on such planning, school administration is sometimes confronted with such questions as the following:

Should one plan his schools in ways that tend to segregate children by social groups? When the word social is properly used that is precisely what modern school administration advises. This does not mean recognition of social classes. It means that as nearly as possible a school must be for and of a real community. If the school is for a stockyards area, or an industrial section, or for a Jewish district, a Polish, a Chinese, or an Italian district, or for a residential suburb, that does not in any sense mean that the pupils of any one of these groups are so segregated because they are socially below or above those of any other group. It means that each group is set off in order that the school may function in ways to fit the needs of all, adults and children, who belong to the group it serves.

Another common difficulty faced by school authorities is that of withstanding the claims of pressure groups. A group of realtors or of small community boosters wants a school site purchased as a selling point for a new district they desire to

place on the market. The people of a neighborhood oppose the selection of a site that might place a noisy school playground too near to their homes. These pressures appear in many hidden connections, often under cover of pleas to protect the school.

The failure to develop school attendance areas and to locate buildings properly comes from neglect of building planning, from yielding to interests that should not count in locating schools, and from careless or incompetent planning. Although, by shifting the boundaries of attendance areas one often can partly remedy a bad situation, that sort of action should not be counted upon to serve that particular end. The right procedure calls for a solution in advance, by means of a carefully developed building program.

Our second question, the question of the relation of the school to the school system, is closely related to the issues involved in defining a school. Can a school apply the concepts just considered and still be subordinate to a central office? This is a point at which many administrative difficulties arise. Can the division of responsibilities and of authority between school and school system be so drawn as to leave to the school the possibilities required in the above definition of a school and at the same time allow for proper controls from the central office? To answer this, a careful analysis of this relationship would be required. On the side of the school there is no law to speak of and no administrative power except that granted to it by the board of education. Laws are written primarily for the government of districts, not for separate schools as such. Boards of education frequently set up definitions of the powers and duties of school principals, and some superintendents elaborate such board regulations in manuals for school employees. It is clear, however, that unless the legislature, the school board, and the superintendent have the above concept of a school in mind they would be in danger of setting up regulations that would compel the school to violate some of its most important principles. Do boards and superintendents think only in terms of their duties and authority under the law when they are establishing and regulating their schools? Or do they attempt,

under the law, to provide controls, coordinations, information, advice, and supervision, as direct supports for the school's effort to build itself in the above terms?

This line of cleavage between school and school system is nowhere defined in our literature with a clarity and precision that would satisfy all. Some criticize superintendents as a class of arbitrary authoritarians who do not understand the nature of a school, and many teachers are a bit skeptical as to whether all principals know what a school should be. The main thing revealed by such attitudes is that teachers and administrators are not understanding each other, or the job either. This is no small part of the problem here in question.

It is clear enough that in a school system there must be central control over finance and properties. This does not mean that the staff of a school has no say in the development of the budget or in planning the building for the school. Similarly, the salary schedule and other personnel regulations have to be the same for all teachers in all schools of the district. Any central office service, such as research, supervision, or guidance, must be equally available to all schools. Such cases as these are obvious. Yet, in carrying out such services or in applying any central office formulae, it is always possible to annoy the school staff unless care is exercised to recognize the necessity of keeping to the right definition of a school. The truth is that the line of cleavage between school and school system can never be perfectly clear cut. The functions of each must inevitably dovetail into those of the other. At the point of contact there must be a give and take carried on in a spirit of mutual sympathy and understanding and always with emphasis upon the goal. Replacing ignorance and prejudice with understanding and good will is the task. Can the administrator perform it?

3. The School and Central Office Services

The relations of a school to its district involve more than questions of authority. The central office in a city school system represents the law, and exists to administer the law. But the law pertains to a service; therefore, in administering the law,

the central office is carrying out a service. The law is purposely written in general terms because details of performance have to be decided in terms of the nature of the service. Although a central office could operate solely as a mechanism of control —giving orders, inspecting to see that laws and regulations are observed, keeping records, and preparing official reports—and leave the service to the individual school to perform, the actual development in our American system has been otherwise.

The words to direct, to coordinate, and to supervise suggest the range of services performed by the central office of a school district. Directing here means giving orders and instructions in terms of the law and following through to see that orders are carried out. Coordinating means harmonizing action as between parts of the system to the end that equity and economy in cost and in effort may result and that the service may be mutually supported part by part, and school by school. Supervision means a service that makes a positive contribution. It does not give orders, or merely pull things together, but takes hold of the school service itself and becomes a partner with the school in carrying out the program of instruction.

Under the function of directing, the central office would select and assign members of the staff, handle the development of the budget, maintain a routine for carrying on the business of the schools, organize and assign committees, care for contracts, maintain systems of records, decide endless questions of detail and authorize action where it had not delegated authority to others. Under the function of coordinating it would develop the school calendar, standardize school supplies, consolidate budget estimates, head policy-forming, curriculum, and other committees, authorize development of standards for courses, curriculums, and graduation, evolve salary schedules, authorize decisions as to textbooks, work out distribution of budget to schools, and in general seek to maintain staff morale and sound public relations. Under the supervisory function its contribution would be directly to instruction and to the facilities for, and conditions affecting, instruction. Here it would provide experts who would work, not by order but would cooperate with teachers and principals.

Directives of the administrative service, and most of the coordinating service, of the central office are commonly accepted by the school as orders. There may be question, argument, or grumbling, but teachers and principals, in general, assume that the central office has the prestige, if not the actual power, to enforce its requests and suggestions.

In the field of supervision the situation is very often much less happy. Here there may be something bordering on friction in one case while in another there is cordial and enthusiastic cooperation. Occasionally, these problems of friction between school and central office become serious.[6] There appear to be many angles to the difficulty. First of all, there is obvious lack of understanding of the problems on the part of many. Among teachers and administrators there are some selfish people, a few with little scruple, who will assert themselves unfairly under any system. There is no exact and sure means for precise placement of responsibility in carrying on certain of the services, and no precise measures of success are attainable. Some profess to believe that all these difficulties would disappear if superintendents were chosen by teachers. They probably would, for, fearing loss of his job, the superintendent would then be a mere mouthpiece for the teachers. In no time the teachers would become organized and controlled by a few individuals. Next would come cliques and conniving and broken morale. At the outset the board might also be reduced to figurehead status and become subservient. Such a solution seems to offer little promise, for although it appears perfect on paper, that can be said also of a benevolent despotism. Observation of actual classroom management, where teachers have real power over pupils, offers little guarantee that there are relatively fewer dominating types of people in classrooms than in central offices. It seems fairly certain that a real solution of this problem must be looked for outside as well as inside the realm of authority. It is a question of job specifications and assignment. But it is equally a problem of professional relationships and professional understanding. Imputing bad motives to any group in the pro-

[6] See the author's *The Administrative Organization of Sacramento's School System* (Sacramento, Cal., Board of Education, 1940).

fession is as often evidence of ignorance and frustration on the part of the accuser as of bad motives among the accused.

This realm of administration will never be cleared of its difficulties by having a teacher or a group of teachers doing the superintendent's work or telling him how to do it. It is not a question of who is to be boss, but one of how these necessary centralizing functions can be performed so that they will facilitate and support the service of the school. They have to be performed; whoever performs them is superintendent. Improvements have been effected by making clearer the various job assignments through a book of rules and regulations. If rules and regulations are written and used as a system of interpretations, definitions, and directions and not merely as a set of challenging restraints, they would do much to clear the relation of schools to school systems. Some executives and some boards do not want written rules. They prefer to decide questions as they arise. This means that they are ignorant of the nature and purpose of board rules, or that they want personal control rather than control by sound and impersonal principles. Even with board rules there is still need for personal cooperation by all concerned.

To sum up, the central office provides certain services for the schools. These services are directive, coordinating, and supervisory in nature. Such services classify as administration, supervision, research, guidance, and public relations. There is an administrative aspect to all services thus rendered, but the nature of the contact of central office supervision, guidance, and research with the individual school is a staff rather than administrative one. Administration is always exercising authority, however little apparent this may be; staff service is backed only by knowledge, skill, and leadership. Supervision, guidance, and research tend to lose their identity and to function less and less as they are backed by authority of office rather than by knowledge and understanding. The difficulties that arise between school and central office can usually be traced to confusion as to the nature of this contact for staff service. Many teachers look upon all central office communications as orders. Why is this true? Do central office staff workers try

to use authority in place of leadership? Are such teachers lazy and indifferent to anything but orders? Is staff morale low? Somehow this contact between school and central office is weak.

4. Shaping the School's Internal Organization and Policies

The schools are legally created by the state, formally established by the local board of education, and directed in terms of state law and regulations and in terms of local policies, by the superintendent. Once established, these external forces continue to operate as controls and as general guides and supports. They rely upon the school to interpret the law and the rules, and give them concrete expression in an organization, a set of detailed policies, a program, a set of procedures, and records, which, with the pupils, the teachers, and the plant, form the school Thus, the responsibilities of the school faculty begin where law, regulations, and administrative directions leave off.

These external controls are never withdrawn. Beyond their limits lies the province of administration for the individual school. One of the first things a school needs to remember is its responsibility to, and its freedom to have assistance from, this superschool or district framework of government. Some schools make the mistake of relying too much, others too little, upon this support. Similarly, some have chafed under, submitted too willingly to, or fought too much against, its restraints. There is great danger that a school staff, or that a school principal, may be so conscious of the central office that habits are formed of working in terms of central office directions rather than in terms of the needs of the children and the community. This is an erroneous conception of the function of the district, also, of the line of cleavage between district and school.

When a task involves many workers the first problem is to find a means of working together harmoniously and economically. When this best way is found it establishes the group as a staff and the school as an organization. The typical pattern of organization that has evolved through the years has given us a staff of teachers with a principal as executive head of the

school and with various subordinate executives with special assignments, such as deans, in charge of student conduct; heads of departments, in charge of the teachers of special subject fields; directors of guidance, in charge of pupil personnel work; vice principals, in charge of various special parts of the administrative service, and others.

As pointed out above, there is a tendency to accept and to rely upon an administrative mechanism as such rather than to take responsibility for developing the machinery in terms of the service needed.[7] There is a rough attempt to fit the machine to the function even in traditional types of schools. Not infrequently the fit is correct enough but the function itself is wrongly conceived. To illustrate this, we find high schools and junior colleges organized into subject departments with heads of departments functioning as administrators and supervisors within their respective subject fields. This means that subjects rather than student needs are made the starting point for organization. When a student wants advice he must go to this subject-interested executive. True, effort has been made to improve this by introducing separate guidance machinery and by developing curriculum committees. The student, if interested at all in subjects, is interested in knowing how they may contribute to the solution of his own personal problems, present and future. His first concern is and should be with a total picture of life for himself, a total school program.[8]

The point of this is that too often we do not develop our school's organization, we either inherit and continue it or borrow it as such from practice elsewhere. The junior high school organization has been copied widely as such, but in thousands of cases there was no change of the instructional service. The change was in externals only, in housing, in grouping of grades and teachers, and in assignment of principals. In many cases, even now, the school counseling is arranged so that the subject fields will be represented proportionately. Fear for loss of pres-

[7] Willard S. Elsbree, "School Practices that Help and Hurt Personality," *Teachers College Record* (Oct., 1941), Vol. 43, pp. 24-34.

[8] For a discussion of this in more concrete terms see the treatment of the problem in *Stockton School Survey* (Stockton, Cal., Board of Education, 1938). Consult the index.

tige of a subject thus dictates the handling of a service created largely to cure an ill produced by those same subject interests!

It can be a serious thing for any organization, any custom, convention, or social form, when the need for it passes away or when the basic theory upon which it rests is changed. The old theory of education as discipline is dead, with all that means for school subjects as such and for teaching methods. Yet, the administrative machinery designed to go with that old conception often still lingers. When we speak of the school program we still have in mind mainly the school subjects. The term extra-curricular meant the less important things that lay outside of the main concern. The term social activities is being used, half apologetically at times, to cover up the obvious error of separating formal study of subjects from equally important, if less formal, study and activities having to do with the social life, club activities, student self-government, student publications, and the like.

There is little doubt that the present weaknesses in individual school organization and policies result from the mistake of trying to borrow from practice elsewhere and of neglecting to accept and apply the principle that the nature and needs of the service shall be the bases for organization or job assignments and for the development of school policies. If a school is concerned about its students, then their needs and not their subjects should be the basis for organizing the instructional program and the staff. That would seem to call for: (a) grouping of students on the basis of common educational needs (including social), (b) developing separate programs in terms of the needs of those groups, and (c) organizing the staff in terms of the programs. This is not offered as a solution of this problem but only to assist in clarifying it as a problem. It is presented here as an illustration of how organization weaknesses often lie back in the basic theory of education followed.[9]

Besides being too little conscious of the basic principles of education and of administration, there is adherence to wrong

[9] Eugene B. Elliott and Earl E. Mosier, "Organization of Planning for Education," in Part II of *Forty-fourth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education,* 1945.

theory of how powers are delegated to school officers. Too many school principals and minor school executives move in terms of the authority delegated to them and too few in terms of the educational needs involved. Too many teachers accept the principal as the boss and too few look upon him as the responsible leader of the faculty. This division of labor is much in need of attention. Along with the boss-type of principal we have also the glad-hander type, who gets his way by slapping people on the back and calling them good fellows. In reality, the powers of an office are delegated not to persons but to officers. People accused of being autocratic are usually people who think the powers have been delegated to them personally. There is a vast difference here. If a teacher is anxious to find a scientific solution to a management problem and ends by having to take a personal rather than a scientific decision from his principal he is apt to quit study in favor of apple-polishing or of just waiting, and doing nothing without orders.

It is not necessary to conclude that principals should not have authority, but only that they should be so assigned that they would have to be responsible for a right use of that authority. It has been suggested that in good school administration the authority of knowledge ought to have the same recognition as that granted to delegated authority.[10] If administration is to set up its system of machinery and operate it in terms of the educational needs of students, it follows that knowledge (of needs) must guide action. This does not at all rule out the need for delegated authority. It merely requires that authority should get knowledge before it acts and then act in terms of what knowledge dictates, instead of in terms of the administrator's personal wishes or whims or selfish ambitions. Thus conducted, rule by administration can be as impersonal as is rule by law. Such rationally determined orders can never be offensive to teachers; rather, they inspire confidence in the integrity of the management and encourage search for and use of knowledge as a basis for their own managerial service to the students.

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[10] See the author's "Analysis of School Administrative Controls," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (Sept., 1934), Vol. 20, pp. 401-430.

If knowledge is to be the basis of executive decisions the next question is: Where does the knowledge come from? Does the executive have it at hand or must it be developed? One could scarcely claim to have it at hand, though an occasional executive tries to pretend he has. It seems reasonable that knowledge should be gone after wherever it is, and taken to where it is needed, and that whoever is in the best position to provide needed facts should be called upon to assist in providing them. If the school has a research worker he would be sent for the facts. Pursuit of the facts might take him to children, to parents, to the city police department, to the janitors, to a teacher, to the superintendent's office, or to the principal, or more likely, to several different places. Regardless of the sources, when the right facts have been properly selected and studied they will reveal a rational basis for action.

Without pursuing this analysis at undue length, it should be clear enough that policy-making, since it involves the use of knowledge and judgment, can be most effective only when it has access to the best available sources of knowledge and when it brings these sources to bear in formulating policies. Policy-making thus becomes a function of the entire school faculty. Such a conception now guides practice in most well-managed schools, and principals who have handled their work in this way seem to have lost no power or prestige as a result. Instead, they have improved the morale of the staff, and if the policies are not actually better than a principal alone could make, at least they are more enthusiastically carried out by the staff.

5. Planning for the Year's Work

If one has a clear conception of the nature of a school as a social enterprise in a community; if he has a clear understanding of the nature and purposes of the service of education; if he understands how his school is a unit within a larger scheme; if he understands how to draw upon the staff services of the central office; if he understands the principles by which a school should be organized and by which its policies should be developed, he should be able to keep himself *as a person* in the

background and himself *as an official* in the foreground. He will operate in terms of knowledge and judgment rather than personal likes, and use the talents of the entire school in reaching decisions.

Unless the school is built upon this foundational theory of a school and of administration, it can scarcely hope to move economically and effectively in the pursuit of its daily tasks.[11] From these foundation concepts the administrator will determine his attitudes toward his tasks and the spirit and method by which he performs them. Most failures in administration can be traced to ignorance of, to lack of skill in applying, or to outright challenge of, these basic concepts. With these basic concepts understood by all and accepted and applied in the organization and in the school's program it should be possible to meet and solve the problems of running the school with full regard for the children and without involving personal likes or dislikes and without assuming false values for subjects as such.

It is of the nature of administration to plan ahead. As the program of one year is being carried out that for the year following ought to be taking form. One may go about this task of planning ahead in a systematic way or merely wait for things to happen, for changes to be made as pressure of conditions compels attention to them. This latter practice is a common weakness. In education one cannot assume that a program is good merely because it does not literally fall apart or because students do not rebel against it. Accordingly, one function of administration must be to evaluate its program continuously by checking its operations, and as far as possible its products, against its objectives. This would mean that as work goes on through the year the staff studies it and judges its effectiveness. Where a weakness is found it is made an object of study until a remedy is found. If the remedy cannot be applied at once it is held for use in the term following, when it can be applied at the beginning of a program. By such continuous study of practice through the year good management will have accumulated a large number of weaknesses and some entirely

[11] American Association of School Administrators, *Schools in Small Communities, Seventeenth Yearbook* (Washington, the Association, 1939).

new projects to be dealt with toward the end of the year as plans are being formed for the ensuing year.

It would be difficult to list all the details, but it would be strange indeed if there are not some alterations or extensions to be made in the school program or its administration, in the housing arrangements, in equipment and supply lists, in staff assignments, in the plan for receiving, registering, classifying, counseling, and directing students, in the development and use of the library and other special rooms and facilities, or in carrying on the work of continuous study and evaluation. It would be almost a sure sign that the school was not keeping close touch with changes in the educational needs of its students.[12]

How to plan the year's work and to keep the plan alive and abreast of change so that no one—student, teacher, principal, or custodian—will be in doubt about what to do and why he is doing it at any time, is a major problem in administration. There are many approaches to this problem. The school program, students, community, plant and equipment, staff—any one of these alone suggests many problems. The great danger is that these major divisions will be attacked separately instead of as separate aspects of one major problem. Keeping the school unified and coordinated is the difficulty. One tends to forget the plant and equipment or the staff or the budget or, possibly, the social part of the program, while engaged in study of problems affecting the plan of school studies. Failing to treat an individual problem as a phase or feature or aspect of a whole is a typical point of weakness in school planning.

This basic planning and revising should round up at the close of the year and be given expression as needed in the budget for the ensuing year (see Chapter 13). In this final planning the school is involved with all other schools in working out a district-wide program. An individual school may or may not be able to carry out all the desired changes and additions. In any case a decision should be reached so that during

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12 Researches are constantly throwing new light upon school problems. For instance, see: G. D. Stevens, "An Evaluation of Some Methods of Organization of Classes for the Mentally Retarded," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (April, 1945), Vol. XXXI, pp. 193-204.

the summer vacation the principal can be working on details in anticipation of the autumn opening. Changes in staff or in staff assignments, ordering of building alterations, purchase of supplies or equipment, and planning for the work schedule, are types of problems to be handled in connection with this major planning service.

In anticipation of and in connection with the opening of a new school year there are many important problems of management. Although students may have been registered at the close of the previous year, there will be many individual cases to be handled for adjustment or changes at the opening of the new year, and unexpected new students are apt to appear. Classes will have to be rechecked for size, and for room assignment, conflicts in the program adjusted, home-room organization effected and student club meetings scheduled. The checking of supplies for teachers, a reconsideration of the use of departmental instruction, the planning for fire drills, and for teachers' meetings—all suggest matters about which confusion frequently occurs in the opening days of school. The answer to all this is careful planning.[13] Many schools spend a week unraveling the confusion created in the first days of school and in doing so lay a foundation for low student and staff morale for weeks ahead. Administration is paid to foresee and forestall such difficulties.

The administration of a school is complicated by the fact that there are so many tasks to be performed. Even though many of these can be planned for in advance there are many that appear without warning or in unexpected form. Where principals have tried to list the duties they have to perform the list is invariably very long and the tasks range from making simple decisions to solving complicated problems. There is always the question of whether a young principal will become enmeshed and finally succumb to the complication, or whether he will meet the tasks as they arise. Some principals fail because they lose perspective. They fail to separate major from minor tasks and to classify lesser tasks as they relate to more

[13] Thomas C. Prince, "Less Departmentalization in the Elementary Schools," *The American School Board Journal* (Sept., 1945), Vol. III, pp. 25-26.

important ones. Many fail because they do not delegate responsibility to others. Even though they may see each of the many tasks in its proper perspective they fail because they prefer to perform it themselves rather than assign it to another. This type of principal usually becomes overworked, a little impatient, and finally, either aggressive, domineering, or confused and self-pitying.

What is needed is planning—see the tasks clearly and classify their bearing upon major problems. Since staff organization is built up around the major problems—instruction, guidance, research, supervision, administration—it provides a basis for assigning each problem to someone for handling. When a problem has been assigned to a teacher, a counselor, a vice-principal, or a dean the principal should consider that person definitely in charge and should look to him for results. Making assignments and then retaining such oversight of performance as to dictate method of handling is not a proper concept of delegation of authority in administration.[14]

6. Analysis of Principal's Duties

A school principal's duties could very well be classified under the following heads:

1. Care of the children: their safety enroute to and from school, about the building, and on the playground; their health and development, mental and physical; their comfort and enjoyment; attendance supervision and records; student morale and government.
2. Instruction: counseling service; teaching efficiency; work schedule; scholastic records and reports; instructional supplies and equipment; suitable room assignment and physical surroundings; contact with parents.

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[14] For a good illustration of how the above concept of a school and of planning is applied to the development of the plant, see N. L. Engelhardt and N. L. Engelhardt, Jr., *Planning the Community School* (New York, American Book Co., 1940).

3. Supervision: curriculum work; individual and group conferences with teachers; contact with counseling service; selection of text and library books; the social activities' program. (In a secondary school this might be made a major division.)
4. Research: assisting with any central office researches covering the school; planning and carrying through researches within and for the school; putting the results of research to work within the school.
5. Staff personnel: advising with superintendent on selection of teachers for the school and on transfers to and from the school; recommending for assignments, promotions, or dismissals; aid in development or revision of salary schedules; in-service education program.
6. Plant: continuous inspection for safety and for advice as to maintenance, alteration and operation; aid in development of building plans.
7. Business service: aid in preparation of budget; requisitioning for supplies and equipment for the school; keeping business records; assisting with annual inventory; general oversight and care of all school properties.
8. Public relations: keeping close coordination between his school and the school system; providing exihibits, public programs, athletic events, conferences, addresses, and community meetings through which the local community may have suitable opportunity to know and appreciate and criticize their own school; cooperate with the central office public relations program.

In all these areas the principal is the leader as well as the legal commander-in-chief. For all these areas he must make sure that there is purpose, program, organization, policies, and procedures. In some cases he will direct developments in person; in others he will determine organization and fix program and policy in cooperation with the central office. In still others he will work with the staff as a whole or with committees or individuals, or may delegate responsibility in full. Whether

decisions are his own or are made by the staff, by a committee, or by an individual he, as principal, is still responsible for seeing that decisions are reached and action taken.[15]

To do this work well a principal has to learn how to delegate responsibility to others. To delegate wisely requires a clear definition of the task and of the powers delegated, a thorough knowledge of the talents required to do the work, and a familiarity with the capacity for work—the special knowledge, skill and personal qualities—of the members of the staff. Besides understanding how to delegate, a principal needs also the support of a well-organized and well-managed office. An office may be simple or complex in its equipment, staff, and management according to the size and nature of the school. The equipment and routines of a principal's office are, in a way, a unit in the system of controls, of human and paper machinery by which the schools are operated. Office management must keep tuned to school laws, to board rules, to the superintendent's administrative orders and routines on the one hand, and on the other to its own program, its own organization, and its own routines of life and work in the school.

The administrative suite of a school is a place where information is available on everything pertaining to the school. It is the home of records pertaining to the school's affairs. It is the center of authority for the school, where all go for final decision of questions of control. It is where much of the school's business is transacted. Pupils, teachers, supervisors, parents, visitors, and the outside public, go to the principal's office when they desire to contact the school for business or for information. Unless the office is equipped, organized, and staffed for service, delay and confusion are inevitable.

Common mistakes in office management by principals include the following: doing all their work and spending all their time in an inner office; cultivating red tape by developing routines and formalities in excess of needs for them; trying to see every caller instead of allowing them to transact business

[15] John A. Sexson, "The Identity and Function of Administration in Public Service," *The American School Board Journal* (Aug., 1945), Vol. III, pp. 19-20, 64.

with clerks; spending too much time visiting; having no regular schedule of work—office hours for visitors, conference time for teachers, time for study of school problems, time for professional reading, time for answering mail, time for committee meetings and the like, allowing classroom and other records, developed at great cost of time and energy to accumulate in the office and to remain there without study; neglecting to follow through on assignments to see that they have been completed satisfactorily; and often, neglecting to confide in his staff and to draw upon its talent in shaping and executing policies for the school.

It would be possible to set over against these weak points an equal number of equally representative strong ones in this field. The typical school principal is respected as a leader in his community, he is rapidly becoming scientific rather than authoritarian in his work, he does plan ahead, he does work cooperatively with his staff on school policies, and he is a genuine student of his problems. This does not mean that we have no unsolved problems nor that we do not have a continuous demand for reworking of fields that we had thought well-handled until recent changes unsettled them.

7. Some Typical Problems of Detail

1. Should ability grouping be undertaken?
2. Should student government be undertaken?
3. Should dull, bright, crippled, undernourished, ill, partially blind, hard of hearing, or children with speech or personality defects, be segregated or in any way singled out for instructional purpose?
4. How large should classes be?
5. Are semiannual or annual promotions better?
6. Can grading of schools be done away with? Is departmental organization a settled question?
7. Should failures in studies be done away with?
8. What are the characteristics of a good marking system?[16]

[16] See: Ralph H. Ojemann and Ruth A. McCandless, "Suggestions for a Fundamental Revision of Report Cards," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (Feb., 1946), Vol. 32, pp. 110-116.

9. Should home-room organization be used more for guidance purposes or mainly for administrative purposes?

10. In what ways can school activities effect a contact with local government and what administrative problems are involved?

11. What duties has a principal in connection with budget-making? Are the teachers responsible for a contribution in this service?

12. What should a principal know about the central school stores and warehouses and shops and distributing system and purchasing and accounting system?

13. How should supplies be made available to teachers in a school?

14. Should a school maintain a petty cash account?

15. In preparing the operating and maintenance sections of the budget, what responsibility should the principal have?

16. What, precisely, is the line of cleavage between central office and principalship in the administration of operating services for a school?

17. When a principal supervises he is an advisor, a leader, a helper, an instructor; when he is an administrator he represents the law or administrative authority and responsibility and his suggestions and instructions must have the effect of decisions or orders. How can a principal ever function effectively as a supervisor where by the nature of his office he possesses and must use executive authority? The problem is one that calls for keen discrimination as to the nature and purpose of each task and for methods of work and personal relations in performance that make clear to teachers what he is trying to do. Here management and supervision are art as well as science.

18. Because administration is in reality inseparable from instruction, supervision, school research, and guidance, it is clear that it can be effective only if the teachers, supervisors, counselors, and research workers of the school understand it as it bears upon their respective tasks. Administration is not a service that is to be clamped down over these staff services, rather, it is a companion service and bears a partnership relation to other services of the school. Administration makes decisions and gives orders, it

operates as authority. Properly interpreted, this authority is rational, never arbitrary. Plans must be drawn, decisions must be made, otherwise there could be no school. Responsibility for getting plans and getting action must be borne by someone. Whoever serves in this capacity administers. If teachers and counselors will work at their tasks in terms of what scientific education demands, in terms of children's needs, they will need the support of administrative plans and decisions.[17] If teachers fail to contribute their special understanding and insight to the preparation of administrative plans and decisions, instruction will inevitably become a subordinate partner with administration.

Perhaps this statement furnishes the setting for the most difficult problem a principal faces, the problem of welding the professional workers into a unified staff and maintaining working relationships that recognize administration as rule by science, as a service that is impersonal, as a function to which all contribute, all understand, and all use. Such teamwork is possible and has been realized in many schools. Where it has been realized there has been little worry over democracy or teacher participation in administration, nor has the principalship deteriorated into a subservient faculty clerkship, nor have the teachers lost respect for administrative leadership or for administrative authority.

8. The Literature on the Administration of a School

The school principalship has existed in some form almost from the beginning of secondary schools in America and the function had developed still earlier in Europe. For many years, until we began to build great cities, the principalship was a small office. As cities began to develop in the 1830's and as Horace Mann's influence began to be felt, elementary schools became larger and needed principals. From these early times this function has changed greatly. Schools have increased in number and greatly in size and the school program has under-

[17] It is the findings of careful study, not the power of the law, that indicates how to administer such a service as guidance. Good law, good board rules, and good administrative instructions provide for the working of scientific law in management. See: Clifford Woody, *Guidance Implications from Measurements of Achievements, Aptitudes and Interests,* University of Michigan Bull. No. 156, 1944.

gone enormous change, partly in response to social change, partly in response to the more cosmopolitan school population, and partly as a result of the scientific study of education.

This chapter has attempted to show some of the more important problems met with in the administration of elementary and secondary schools. Though the management of an institution of higher learning has many problems in common with management in the lower schools, no attempt has been made in this chapter to present more than casual references to this field. With the growing tendency to make the junior college a part of the system of secondary education it has seemed desirable to present with his chapter a representative list of titles covering college administration.

Because most readers in this field are specially interested in some one type of institution, the bibliographies, with but two exceptions, are presented under the captions of college administration, secondary school administration, and elementary school administration. The two exceptions are guidance and classroom management. Although most of the literature on guidance has reference to the secondary or college field, there are exceptions and there is reason to hope that greater attention is soon to be given to guidance in the elementary field. In any case, guidance is a topic to which many readers will desire to turn and for that reason this collection of titles is presented separately. Practically, the same reason explains the separate presentation of titles on classroom management.

It might be argued that the last group of titles does not belong in a book on administration. This seems entirely erroneous to the present author, who desires especially to bring the classroom and the principal's office closer together, rather than to emphasize their separation as is done quite too often.

Many of the publications listed in one of the groups could quite as correctly be listed in a different group. There are many such among the comprehensive treatises. The reader in search of aid on a special problem will do well, therefore, to scan other lists than the one he is especially interested in.

It must be emphasized that these bibliographies are far from complete. It is believed that they are representative of the best

literature available and that they cover every phase of the fields represented. From these titles the reader should go to the *Education Index,* to the *Cyclopedia of Educational Research,* and to the current journals and yearbooks and other titles listed in Chapter 2.

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