SCHOOL ORGANIZATION ADMINISTRATION AS A
CORRELATIVE OF THE PHILOSOPHY OF
PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION

APPROVED:

S. A. O'dam
Major Professor

James H. Dougherty
Minor Professor

S. A. O'dam
Director of the Department of Education

Jack Johnson
Dean of the Graduate Division
SCHOOL ORGANIZATION ADMINISTRATION AS A
CORRELATIVE OF THE PHILOSOPHY OF
PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION

THESIS

Presented to the Graduate Council of the North
Texas State Teachers College in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

By

J. B. Sharp, B. S.
140844
Jacksboro, Texas

June, 1946
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. SUMMARY OF THE PHILOSOPHIES OF EDUCATION</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philosophies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. SCHOOL ORGANIZATION FOR EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum Making and Libraries</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number to be utilized in curriculum activity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher participation in programs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number, size, and frequency of meetings of committees</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make-up of courses of study</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State education department regulations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University entrance requirements</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library facilities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision for adequate books and reference materials</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agencies of publicity for curriculum programs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stimulating teacher attitude and interest for curriculum work</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The work of subject committees and coordination of their efforts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bases for determining subject content</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value of curriculum programs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Scope of Out-of-school Activities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic Equipment and Supplies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kinds of equipment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methods of obtaining equipment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purchased equipment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School-made and adapted equipment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problems in selecting equipment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problems growing out of materials and equipment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasons for inadequate equipment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Playground Activities and Other Recreation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administering the School Health Program</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. <strong>TYPICAL BUSINESS ACTIVITIES ANALYZED</strong> . . . . . . . 39</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Budgetary Procedure</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Reporting</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accounting Procedure</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purchase of Supplies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Storage and Distribution of Supplies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purchase of the Fuel Supply</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payroll Procedure</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insuring School Property</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance of the School Plant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. <strong>ADMINISTRATIVE RELATIONSHIPS</strong> . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 52</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some Characteristic Weaknesses of the Organization for Administration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recent Tendencies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>BIBLIOGRAPHY</strong> . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 64</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER I

SUMMARY OF THE PHILOSOPHIES OF EDUCATION

Introduction

In order to understand and appreciate the modern philosophies of education, it is well to review briefly the older concepts and trace their development throughout the history of education. Long before the development of modern psychology, Comenius recognized the fact that education is a process of growth through experiences relating to the world of everyday activities, but he was unable to develop clearly any systematic plan for utilizing the experiences of daily life as a means of intellectual and social growth. Pestalozzi appreciated the need for experience with things in promoting mental growth, but his emphasis upon sense-training gave rise to practices that were partial and formal. Froebel placed greater emphasis upon activities, but he so systematized the activities which he organized that they became highly artificial, and they were interpreted in such a maze of mysticism and symbolism that they contributed little to the use of experiences making up the activities required in life. With the coming of the several
forms of modern behavioristic psychology, a new pedagogy arose from which educational practice harmonizing the various aspects of mental growth and life activities could be derived. William James emphasized the formation of "acquired habits of conduct and tendencies to behavior" as the essential factors in education, and John Dewey defined education as the reconstruction of experience giving it a more socialized value.

John Brubacher says that there are two ways in which the summation of viewpoints toward philosophy might be undertaken.

On the one hand, they might be subsumed under categories which are already the familiar stock in trade of school people, and even the lay public. On this basis, there are two more or less clearly defined schools of educational philosophy. One is composed of the followers of Dewey and is known largely under the title of "progressive education." The other, not so easily named, consists of the defenders of more conservative practices.¹

According to Dewey, the intimate connection between philosophy and education appears where a system becomes influential and its connection with a conflict of interests calls for some program of social adjustment. In fact, education offers a vantage ground from which to penetrate to the human, as distinct from the technical significance of philosophic discussions. The educational point of view enables one to envisage the philosophic problems where they

arise and thrive, where they are at home, and where acceptance or rejection makes a difference in practice. Dewey states further that if we are willing to conceive education as the process of forming fundamental dispositions, intellectual and emotional, toward nature and fellow men, philosophy may be defined as "the general theory of education."

Philosophy has been stated to be a form of thinking, which, like all thinking, finds its origin in what is uncertain in the subject matter of experience, which aims to locate the nature of the perplexity and to frame hypotheses for its clearing up to be tested in action.

Since education is the process through which the needed transformation may be accomplished and not remain a mere hypothesis as to what is desirable, we reach a justification of the statement that philosophy is the theory of education as a deliberately conducted practice.\(^2\)

In reading of the defenders of more conservative practices who constitute the second mentioned school of educational philosophy, it will be noticed that among other titles they have been variously styled as "traditionalists" or "essentialists." The lack of a commonly recognized name, however, is unimportant and certainly confesses no weakness of conviction. The other way to classify educational philosophies is according to such categories as "pragmatism, naturalism, and realism, especially scholastic realism or supernaturalism."\(^3\) Other categories have also had parts to


\(^3\)Brubacher, op. cit., p. 325.
play, but their educational implications have never been so systematically worked out as have those of the four mentioned. But, as for that matter, no school has worked out a complete philosophy of education.

Different as are these two ways for pulling together the strands of philosophical position, they are not mutually exclusive or unrelated to each other. The point at which an overlapping can most easily be established is the identity of outlook shared by progressive education and pragmatism. Indeed, so close is this identity that progressive education would probably cease to be a distinctive educational movement without its support. The next clearest point at which these two sorts of classifications overlap is found in the support which traditionalism and essentialism draw from scholastic realism. Perhaps naturalism points fairly definitely in the direction of progressive education but idealism is more ambiguous. But, however these and remaining schools of philosophy are grouped, Brubacher concludes that there are two main themes around which to weave the discussion:

(1) progressivism, where pains must be taken to show the distinct characteristics of (a) pragmatic and (b) naturalistic educational philosophy; and (2) traditionalism or essentialism, wherein separate attention must be given to its defense by (a) idealism and (b) realism.\(^4\)

1. In regard to progressive education, notable at

\(^4\)Ibid.
once is the emphasis on pupil freedom. The child is not only encouraged thoroughly to exercise physical freedom but to do his own independent thinking. Development of initiative and self-reliance is encouraged, what interests the individual is made the basis for the motivation of instruction, and emotional as well as intellectual activities are borne in mind. Finally, it is not overlooked that such a scheme of education has definite social implications. Membership in society is recognized as the surest access to the social treasures necessary for the development of the pupil's personality. Of the various forms of social organization, democracy is favored as most consonant with the progressive principles just laid down. Not only does a democracy have the highest regard for individual freedom, but it also is more inclined toward a progressive reconstruction of the social order.

a. Examined from the angle of pragmatism, the wider implications of progressive education become quite clear. It is small wonder that progressive education should emphasize the problem-solving attitude of mind, or that it should try to develop initiative and self-reliance in its devotees. The challenge to the intellect is to employ the familiar as a means of exploring the novel and bringing it under control in order to meet future novel situations.

The pragmatist approaches both value and truth through the concrete experience of some individual. He rates the
social very highly. Participation in society is one of the most important ways in which education takes place, and since society is organized for sharing, the more free and unimpeded this sharing is, the more democratic the society is said to be, and certainly the greater is the educational opportunity. Herein one can see at a glance the great dependency of a democracy on education. All this is very pragmatic.

The progressive educator is warmly attached to the democratic process. The two have much in common because both encourage the individual to specialize in cultivating his unique talents. Happily, the more different individuals get to be, the more things they have to share and the more socially interdependent they necessarily become. Consequently, progressive education is opposed to any barriers which inhibit the easy interchange of diverse cultural viewpoints, such as the segregation of the sexes in school or in society, or separate high schools for vocational and college preparation. Besides, in the classroom the progressive teacher democratically shares with the children as many decisions as to objectives, curriculum, and discipline as possible. What he expects between pupil and teacher, he also recommends between teacher and administrative or supervisory staff. Of course, all this means a larger measure of freedom in the progressive school.

This social orientation is, finally, the characteristic
feature of the progressive's religious and moral education. Indeed religious education is not essentially different from moral or even secular education. It, too, consists in a zealous participation in the enterprises of the community. If it has a distinguishing feature, it is an endeavor to direct the child's attention to a certain inclusiveness of point of view.

This wholeness of viewpoint, of course, is also the aim of educational philosophy itself. The pragmatist recommends it as a way to enlighten learning activities in the school, the home, and the community. Educational philosophy, then, like value and knowledge theory, is instrumental, pragmatic.

b. There are many who prefer to classify the philosophy of progressive education under the title of naturalism which denies that educational philosophy in its inclusive sweep need take into account concepts of the supernatural. For its followers, education is primarily concerned with the world of nature as it is here and now. They find themselves incapable of perceiving any ultimate underlying purpose to which education should give allegiance. Not even progress is such, because it is neither inevitable nor are they sure of its direction.

They draw the conclusion that what is, is all right. Whatever the child is striving to do must be because of some basic urge that is trying to assert itself. A catalogue of
child needs based upon an inventory of the instincts which are seeking expression would become the objectives which education should try to liberate and satisfy.

By confining educational aims within the bounds of the here and now, one but fits his educational philosophy to the dimensions of nature. He omits the eternal, the timeless, from his space-time frame of reference because he feels at home in nature. If religion enters his philosophy of education, it is only as a deified nature. "God is immanent in nature, and nature is his temple of worship."5

Moral education likewise is put on a naturalistic basis. Character education has no need of an appeal to an authority external to nature. Conscience becomes an echo of social custom rather than divine command.

2. Ever against the philosophy of progressive education supported by pragmatism and naturalism stands that of essentialism or traditionalism. The essentialist believes that there are some points of the educational compass which are relatively fixed. Convinced of what are the essentials of education, he firmly and resolutely insists that the child experience them. If he does not believe that the whole curriculum should be prescribed, he at least believes that a considerable part of it should be. In the traditional curriculum he finds certain classics in literature, mathematics, religion, history, science, and others whose value is independent of the place and time they are studied.

5Ibid., p. 337.
They must be learned even though their significance is not made clear in the fulfillment of some present purpose. Until such occasion arises later, they are to be learned and stored away.

Variations in pupil interest are to be expected, but these chance variations should seldom, if ever, take precedence over the essentials. If a child has a genuine interest in the essentials, well and good. If not, pressure must be brought to bear to incline him in that direction. Education should afford the child a much-needed discipline. Freedom will be regarded as a well-deserved reward for the youth who has learned to discipline himself through a mastery of the experience of the ages.

The essentialists teach children to recognize and have confidence in authority. Thus the educational corollary is clear. "As the classroom is dominated by the teacher, so the school is by the principal and the system by the superintendent." Adult society, however, is not the final authority for many essentialists. For them, the essential values in education are ultimately sanctioned and consecrated by religion. Their main inspiration is a divine being, God, the author of all values, educational and otherwise.

a. On the borderline is idealism as a philosophy

6Ibid.
of education. Idealism is to be credited with a high regard for individuality and freedom in education. In its modern meaning, idealism has to do with ideas as mental states. Concepts of environment are supplied by the mind of the human learner.

Truth and goodness set the models to which the child's learning should conform. They set the bounds of what is essential. Hence, the essentialist's curriculum, in so far as it is constituted of knowledge that is consistently true, can be made up and learned in advance of its use. It puts an education squarely up to the individual. Neither parent, school, nor church can educate him. Only through a voluntary effort of his will can he educate himself. He will be particularly called upon to make this effort when interest fails to motivate his learning activities. This assures the essentialist that essentials will be learned despite the failure of easier approaches.

Idealism favors democracy in order for its educational theory to grow and also includes moral education as well, believing the universe to be one of law and order, thus laying an inescapable moral imperative on education.

b. So far, the stability and firmness on which the essentialist philosophy of education prides itself has found its rootage in a reality that has been idealistic. Ideas rather than external objects have constituted ultimate reality. Some essentialists, however, think that a more
solid foundation can be found for their philosophy of education in a theory that these objects have a reality independent of mental phenomena. This philosophy is known as realism. It seems essentialist in that it bluntly recognizes the uncompromising limits within which educational endeavors must be taken.

Many educators insist on essentialism, holding to certain unwavering educational objectives. What is fixed and unalterable through all times is undeniably essential. Therefore, educational values which partake of an immutable character remove any difficulty from selecting a program of minimum essentials.

Of course, change is not completely eliminated from the scholastic system. If there were no change, there could be no learning. But education is the process by which the student lifts himself up to the eternal. Progress is measured by advance toward this goal. This progress, however, is primarily a matter of improving the means of gaining the final objective. It takes place within nature. There is no progress in the ultimate end or supernatural destiny of man. This is final, unchangeable, eternal. The scholastic essentialist, thus, is progressive only within very limited, definite, and fixed boundaries. He rejects the radical philosophy of progressive education in which there are no limits or ends that are not subject to further
evolution. Indeed, without the eternal verities as a fixed point of reference, the scholastic essentialist finds it impossible to calculate progress at all.

Among these verities, the nature of truth and goodness has peculiar significance for the philosophy of education. The fact that truth is ever the same enables the teacher to make the curriculum up in advance of any learning activity. Essentials can be determined before school opens. Formal knowledge of the school can be appropriated directly. Being objectively conceived, it can, when learned, be stored away until called upon demand.

So school becomes a place where one takes unto himself the rich deposit of humanistic, scientific, and religious truth. He acquires the essentials of culture.

Education and educators must recognize and know not only what is true but also what is good. So, as has been so well said, education is the means whereby one acquaints himself with the best that has been thought and said.

The sort of social structure in which the scholastic philosophy of education most readily roots may be either aristocratic or democratic. Its dependence on authority and the people who know best ordinarily enables it to work well with states where political power is rather narrowly and autocratically held. At the same time, the fact that it opens the highest careers to talent has a sound democratic ring. But in the relation of state and church the scholastic
philosophy of education maintains its fundamental dualism between the natural and supernatural, the temporal and the spiritual. The state's interest in education being of the natural order, therefore, if of a lower estate than that of the church.

The scholastic philosophy of education comes to a final focus in religious and moral education. Although religion and morals are to be included right along with the secular or lay subjects, nonetheless the fundamental dualism of scholasticism is recognized in the distinction between profane and sacred studies. The lay teaching of morals independent of religious instruction is thought woefully inadequate. Goodness is commended to children as a divine command. Religious education is orienting the child toward his Creator and final destiny.

The following chapters are an attempt to show how schools should be organized, administered, and financed in accordance with modern educational philosophies. Present school procedures and curricula may now be defended upon the basis of the above mentioned philosophies of progressive education and an educational psychology that are in consistent harmony in making purposeful activities and experiences the basic factors in education which is a succession of experiences by which learners grow in power and efficiency to participate in all of the activities of a wholesome and satisfying life.
All phases of school management should be correlated so that there is a definite relationship between the educational philosophy accepted by the school, effective management which necessitates careful organization and thoughtful planning, an analysis of typical business activities, and relationship of administrative members if there is to be successful and harmonious atmosphere for the learners, for whose education all connected with the school are responsible.
CHAPTER II

SCHOOL ORGANIZATION FOR EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT

Organization is the key to effective and efficient management of a school system. No school can be progressive and realize desirable outcomes without proper administration, planning, and cooperation on the part of all connected directly or indirectly with the carrying on of the school program. The responsibility for the attainment of such outcomes rests with all phases of the educational program, including curriculum making, library service, out-of-school activities, school plant equipment and supplies, playground activities, other recreation, and a health program, all of which will be discussed only briefly in the light of administering the school so that all activities of the school program will follow the more recent philosophies of the education of the youth of today.

Curriculum Making and Libraries

Importance. -- There are perhaps no more important responsibilities confronting the school administrator than to see that adequate curricula are available for all boys and girls and to promote the necessary revision and adaptation of those curricula. The enormously increased school
enrollments in recent years, particularly on the secondary levels, have caused the administration of curriculum programs to become increasingly important and correspondingly difficult. In fact, the most capable school administrators fully realize that the curriculum, at least to a large extent, determines school organization, building equipment, methods, and the general value of the school to the community. The curriculum is basic because it is the common medium through which the pupils and the teachers do their work. The difference in curricula is often the major difference between the old traditional type school and the modern school.

Number to be utilized in curriculum activity. -- Since the superintendent of schools is finally responsible for the curriculum, he usually holds for himself the privileges of setting up certain requirements, offering suggestions to, or approving the work of the person charged with the actual direction of the curriculum program.

In the smaller cities, there is more probability that city superintendents will direct the curriculum activities, although there is a distinct tendency to delegate curriculum direction in all cities, irrespective of size. The superintendent, however, must keep in contact with every phase of this vital work.

It is not feasible to recommend a policy concerning any definite number of individuals whose services should be
utilized in a school year in curriculum activity. It seems probable that the types and scope of programs operated, the philosophies of the administrators toward general teacher participation, and the financial situations of the various school systems are all contributing factors to the evident variety of practice.

Teacher participation in programs. -- As American cities grow larger in population, the tendency is away from the participation of the entire instructional staff in the curriculum activities of the school system.

It appears that the two greatest factors which determine the extent of teacher participation in curriculum work are the type and scope of program adapted and the philosophy toward general teacher participation. For example, if a school attempts curriculum reconstruction on one part of its total offering, or in but one division at a time, the number of participating persons will be limited, but if the entire curriculum is receiving attention at the same time, then the extent of teacher participation will approach more nearly the utilization of the entire staff. Apparently, school administrators are divided as to whether the curriculum work should be done by a small group of highly prepared individuals, thus emphasizing the production of high-grade courses of study, or whether it should be a part of every teacher's regular work, with primary emphasis on the outcome of professional growth. It is evident that in the
largest cities entire staff participation in curriculum work would be extremely difficult and unwieldy to administer.

The practice of city school systems and the opinions of the specialists seem to be divided on the matter of teacher participation in curriculum work. It would, no doubt, be easier to utilize the services of an entire staff on one hundred and fifty or five hundred teachers than to administer a program where fifteen thousand persons were actively involved. The apparent confusion on this point is perhaps partially due to the fact that the term "extent of teacher participation in the curriculum program" was probably interpreted by the school men in a variety of manners.

Apparently, "the primary purpose of the curriculum program should be to produce high-grade courses of study, while the professional growth of teachers should be a concomitant outcome."¹ Hence, an effective program should serve both purposes. The more technical tasks should be delegated to persons prepared to perform them. Active committee work may perhaps involve only a limited number of teachers each year. However, every teacher should have ultimate contact with the work by offering suggestions for improvement of courses, by assisting in the appraisal work of new courses, by participating in experimental and research work, and by

¹Clinton C. Trillingham, The Organization and Administration of Curriculum Programs, Southern California Education Monographs, V (1933-1934), 43.
utilizing the completed courses of study in daily work. It seems likely that each individual will benefit to the extent of his contact with the program. It is the curriculum director's responsibility to make these contacts possible and meaningful to the members of the teaching staff.

**Number, size, and frequency of meetings of committees.**
-- These seem largely dependent on local circumstances. It is reasonable to believe that these factors are determined largely by the particular phases of curriculum work being done. No doubt it is a great variety of needs that call forth such a variety of practices. Even though such mechanical details may seem to be relatively insignificant, it is well that school superintendents study the trends, and through their own research programs attempt to establish best practices for their own situations.

**Make-up of courses of study.** -- As a rule, the new curriculum materials produced for classroom use are mimeographed, loose-leaf, in outline form, and contain a sufficient variety and amount of materials for various mental levels.

The general practice in American cities as to courses of study and their make-up seems to be to produce mimeographed, loose-leaf material in outline form for preliminary tryout, study, and experimentation. After courses of study have been revised, and subsequently adopted, thus receiving a degree of permanence, the larger cities are inclined
to print and bind them, sometimes changing the form from outline to textual. It seems obvious that school systems would profit through their own research work in determining which practices should be employed in setting up local courses of study. Both practice and opinion seem to warrant the conclusion that, as a rule, new courses of study should be mimeographed, loose-leaf, and in outline, providing a variety of method and abundance of content to care for every mental ability. Such a type can be readily revised and modified as needed. Different curricula should be provided for the different interests of pupils, but courses of study should be sufficiently suggestive to meet the needs of a wide range of abilities. Even though a course of study should be suggestive rather than prescriptive, it is the responsibility of the curriculum director to see to it that basic requirements are specified for the committee, and made known to teachers using the courses.

Not many of the curriculum specialists make specific individual recommendations as to setting up courses of study by grades, subjects, or terms, most of them seeming to prefer no rigid boundary limitations. These mechanical details are much less important than the organization, richness of content, and the general ability of pupils and the general utility of course materials. Under either setup, a course can be organized by traditional lessons or units, or by units of work, with emphasis upon pupils' normal life activities.
State education department regulations. -- School administrators throughout the country feel that the regulations and suggestions of state departments of education have but little effect upon their programs, and what effect there may be, is usually beneficial.

Certainly the effect of state department regulations upon the curriculum work done and that proposed in city school systems should be wholesome and beneficial, never detrimental. It is probable that some administrators resent any type of "encroachment" upon their local programs. It is also quite possible that state departments afford more help to rural schools and smaller city systems than is necessary in the larger cities.

University entrance requirements. -- A goodly proportion of school administrators in the United States feel that university entrance requirements interfere with effective curriculum work.

Irrespective of the growth of the modern philosophy of education, the reactions of many city superintendents throughout the country indicate that the university still wields a powerful influence over the educational offering of secondary institutions. Under the present scheme of affairs, many school systems are reluctant to experiment with their curricula, or to depart far from the university's prescriptions. It is possible that the best interests of the
majority of boys and girls who never enter college or other higher institutions of learning are sacrificed somewhat in the desire to establish a curriculum offering which meets college and university entrance requirements.

Library facilities. -- Approximately half the cities in the United States over 30,000 in population have established special professional libraries, consisting of books, pamphlets, monographs, courses of study, and curriculum investigations.

Most specialists agree that one of the essential phases of the training of curriculum workers is that of keeping abreast of current curriculum literature such as textbooks, reports, and investigations. Actual practice seems to correspond with this belief. School administrators should realize that their instructional staffs can do the most effective curriculum work only when they have ready access to curriculum information and research concerning what others have done. Special professional library facilities are necessary tools for meritorious curriculum work.

Provision for adequate books and reference materials. -- The majority of city school systems fail to provide adequate books and reference materials for their pupils. Modern curriculum research indicates that courses of study are depending less and less upon single textbooks as the medium for study, and that there is a growing emphasis upon the
extensive reading of many references on the part of pupils. The school library should exist for this type of service.

A fruitful curriculum program demands an improved library service for pupils. The complete adequacy of school library facilities may be an ideal state of affairs extremely difficult of achievement. Even close approach to this ideal requires constant attention. As is curriculum activity itself, library service should be ever-changing and ever-growing. The financing of sufficient books and materials for all pupils is a grave problem, and undoubtedly explains much of the lagging library service throughout the country. Beyond this, however, the school administrator must be responsible for studying actual library needs, and for providing the best facilities and service in keeping with a reasonable program of economy.

Agencies of publicity for curriculum programs. -- Every school system should maintain the policy of having full emphasis given to the curriculum work being done, in its program of general school publicity. The public will display interest and cooperation to the extent that it receives full information as to the quality of work the school is actually doing. The modern curriculum must be "sold."

City school systems utilize the following curriculum publicity agencies, in order of frequency: the press; the parent-teacher associations; pamphlets, bulletins, letters; school papers, civic clubs, and the radio. General practice
is in agreement with the opinion of specialists that the public must be informed of the curriculum work being done.

**Stimulating teacher attitude and interest for curriculum work.** -- Teacher interest and attitude are highly important factors in the successful administration of curriculum programs. Teachers who do outstanding curriculum work should receive due credit through the school system's publicity channels. Courses of study and other productions should contain the names of the individuals who contribute to their production. School superintendents should not neglect the human side of the problem by becoming engrossed in the purely technical and mechanical details of curriculum work. Every school system should utilize the best devices that local conditions will permit for stimulating teacher morale for curriculum activity.

**The work of subject committees and coordination of their efforts.** -- A large assortment of tasks is assigned committees working on subject materials in the cities reporting. Most school systems have devised plans for coordinating the work of their curriculum committees. In order of frequency they are: central office staff; joint committee meetings; curriculum council or central committee; special committees; skeletal outlines provided by subjects or fields.

Regardless of the different schemes utilized, it is significant that most cities are making some effort to thus
integrate the products of their curriculum workers.

Bases for determining subject content. -- Bases used by cities in determining subject content are: opinions of subject specialists; analysis of curriculum studies and textbooks; analysis of community needs; analysis of pupil life activities; and the results of experimentation and testing. There is little evidence to indicate which bases for justifying curriculum offerings are taken primarily into consideration, though doubtless the curriculum program should include this phase of work. It seems wise to conclude that every item of subject matter should contribute toward the knowledge, skills, or attitudes necessary for achieving scientifically established educational objectives.

Value of curriculum programs. -- Most cities indicate their attempt to determine the value of their curriculum programs by such subjective methods as teacher, pupil, and community reactions, and by such objective methods as testing and research. The greatest improvements due to curriculum activity have been the stimulation and growth of the educational staff members and a richer educational offering for the pupils.

Some of the most difficult problems encountered by those striving to make curriculum programs effective are: finding time for curriculum work, establishing a sound philosophy upon which to build the program, financing the program, training new curriculum workers, establishing programs
of appraisal, and numerous less serious problems.

Many superintendents maintain that their cities are sufficiently large to be able to afford worth-while curriculum programs; however, many others feel that their cities cannot afford adequate programs for genuine curriculum reconstruction.

The opinions of school men seem to be rather evenly divided as to the advisability of regional accrediting agencies coordinating the curriculum work of city school systems; still, the accrediting agency might well serve to bring about the pooling of the fruits of individual programs and research studies.

The Scope of Out-of-school Activities

There are few schools today without some form of activity other than the specified subjects of the curriculum, and there are few teachers who would deny the advantages which school societies create in the school. If the staff of the school is slow to avail itself of the opportunities which these little societies offer, it will be found that in most schools the pupils will form their own. Sociability is a characteristic found in almost every human being to a smaller or greater degree, and it is around the subject of one's hobby that sociability is encouraged.

One of the first essentials in the running of any school society is to give as many members of the society as possible some responsibility. Find a special job for as many members as possible and create offices.
It is best for pupils to be allowed to do the work themselves, for interest is sure to wane if a teacher runs the society. Pupils will make mistakes, but they will thereby learn many lessons. It is by the aid of school societies that one has the greatest opportunity of really getting to know one's pupils, and it is often the surest way of interesting parents in the work of their children. A parent will come to a school concert or a dramatic show, or he will come and watch a school football match where his son is a participant, and yet without such activities it would be most difficult to enlist his sympathy in the general work of the school. It is when something new or something very intimate occurs that his interest is excited.

Out-of-school activities will usually take the form of a society for the furthering of the various hobbies of pupils, or of presenting a school subject in the guise of a hobby. Another interesting feature is the opportunity given to pupils to see teachers out of school hours. Almost every one is different in his behavior away from his work, and by taking an interest in our pupils out of hours, and by mixing with them in their hobbies, we allow them to see us in a different environment, and for both teacher and scholar there is often created a new confidence, which is a powerful influence in our school work. A school society often provides the only real training for certain adult activities. It may be the only chance a boy has for the exercise of
responsibility, and this alone is a necessary part of his equipment for adult life.

Great is the benefit that can accrue from an intelligent handling of a school society. Wayward pupils who have hitherto hated school, find in a school society an agreeable branch of school work and are often drawn into losing the previous hatred. Again, the fact that teachers are prepared to help their scholars after school hours, when they have no need and are receiving no pay for such assistance, will instantly create a bond of sympathy with parents, and with the help and sympathy of parents one finds a factor of great importance in the education of children.

There is, of course, the danger of "over-doing" the idea of school societies. It is better to have a few efficient societies than several inefficient ones, but there should be diverse appeals in order to appeal to almost every pupil. Make your societies as different as possible in order that at least one will appeal to every scholar. Much depends on the teacher's personality, but if there are no societies or clubs in a school, there is much ground for starting some. Make your goal and steadily work for it. In conclusion, "once you have chosen the title, aims, and objects of your club, take it seriously and keep your enthusiasm warm by hard work."2

2George H. Holroyd, The Organization of School Societies and Other School Activities, p. 10.
Let us hope that the near future will see no school without its school or class societies, with whose aid a school will become a center for all that is best in character formation, loyalty, and service to the community.

Basic Equipment and Supplies

One of the difficulties that have confronted the teacher who believes thoroughly in the use of practical activities has been that of securing the appropriate materials and equipment. The school needs conveniences and time-savers quite as much as does the industrial world or the home. The overburdened teacher should be provided with whatever will relieve the mechanical drudgery of teaching and set strength and effort free to be expended where most needed -- directly on the children. Moreover, the children themselves profit by the use of short-cuts and certain aids. The duplicator and paper cutter, for instance, save time and effort, while the typewriter means almost as much in the progressive school as in a business office.

Kinds of equipment. -- Selecting suitable basic equipment for the modern school is an important problem, of which furniture proper is but one phase. Not only must there be seating facilities, tables, chairs and other regulation furniture, but there must also be the many different fixtures and accessories which will prove most valuable factors in good teaching.

Some of this varied equipment belongs to the architect's
field, other plans are too complicated for adoption except under expert direction; but there is much which is possible, under good management, for use or application in any school.

Methods of obtaining equipment. -- Some things may be purchased ready-made. This may be most expensive though often the most satisfactory plan. On the other hand, many things which will serve as well, or better, and cost less, can be made locally. Old equipment already on hand may also be adapted or made over. Great care is needed in deciding which is best; judgment, forethought, and common sense are the only reliable guides.

Obviously the cost in both time and money must be carefully worked out. The time spent on a "job" may easily be out of all proportion to the finished object. The money spent for material and work sometimes creeps up to a sum which would have purchased a more satisfactory ready-made piece. The finished product must be usable and suitable for the purpose in mind; therefore size, appearance, and suitability should always be thought of before the decision is made.

Purchased equipment. -- Certain kinds of equipment -- chairs, desks, slate for blackboard -- must be purchased. For these there are no substitutes. Other items, such as tables, bookcases, lockers, and display cases may also be purchased if desired.

All ready-made equipment should be the best of its kind. It is poor economy to buy things which will fall to pieces
or quickly become shabby, shaky, and broken. Strong, well-made furniture with good lines will last indefinitely and can be refinished whenever the outside becomes shabby or the color scheme of the room is changed. Good slate blackboards never need replacement.

School-made and adapted equipment. -- Tables, cases, screens, lockers, and many other things are included here. These also should be strong and durable. Finished cabinet making is not required, but rough ugly pieces are not desirable. The finish should be that of the other woodwork and furniture if possible. If not, it should blend well with it. No attempt at decoration should be made; straight, simple lines and correct proportion are best.

Built-in features, such as shelves of all kinds, cupboards, wall cases, boxes, lockers, and bulletin boards, which add greatly to the appearance, convenience, and cleanliness of a room if rightly placed, properly designed and finished, need a special note.

Each built-in feature should be plain in design and should look, and really be, a part of the plan and structure of the room. To obtain this effect the lines and general proportions of the room and of such items as openings (doors and windows), blackboards, radiators, floor space, and alcoves or wall depressions, should be taken into consideration. Each piece should be really needed and should be conveniently placed with regard to its need and use.
Making over, changing, or "fixing up" old furniture is often practical and economical, especially where make-shifts are to be used only until better things are possible or where it is a case of using made-overs or something worse. The furniture may be bought from a second-hand store or at a sale. Sometimes the results are quite as good as new purchases -- even better. It all depends upon conditions.

The material for making any of this equipment is selected according to its use, and the making or adapting of this equipment is done in various ways.

Problems in selecting equipment. -- Many of these problems are in the transition state, with experts and authorities differing on almost every item. Perhaps the most important problem just now to both administrators and teachers is the question of movable or fixed seating arrangements. Here the field seems about evenly divided, with perhaps a small but practical-minded majority favoring movable seats, deeming them better suited to the needs of modern school work.

Practically all the progressive school people are on this side and arguments for the movable seating arrangements are many.

A close second in importance is that of the choice between the separate table and chairs and the seat units. Other problems have to do with size, adjustment, and arrangement of seating furniture.
Problems growing out of materials and equipment. --

Out of the need for, and the use of, school materials come a number of practical problems and difficulties. Some of these are of great importance if a liberal curriculum and successful activities for the children are to be achieved.

The expense, with its double action in wasting old things and spending money for new things, is almost sure to be a stumbling block. This matter of expense is likely to be the first objection raised in any discussion of better school equipment and of more material for work, and it is nearly always the explanation of why there is such reluctance in taking a forward step in this matter. Especially is this true with the teacher who must sometimes make over the school or the room from the floor up -- often with little interest and no support from anyone else. Hence such matters as how to get the needed money, how to spend it wisely and economically, and how to care for the material purchased, often raise questions that must be answered. The problem of what to do with materials is always a live one. It would seem, therefore, that some discussion of ways and means is much needed. It is certainly true that by taking thought and counsel, much time, trouble, effort, money, and space may be saved. Even a big educational principle is sometimes conserved through practical methods.

Reasons for inadequate equipment. -- The modern school-
house is made to serve the program needs of the school and
is therefore planned with that purpose in mind. The fact that school administrators now consider school building in this light has led to careful planning of the various departments to the end that they will better serve the program that is to be operated in the completed building. Even a casual study, however, shows that the planning of the purchase of equipment has not kept pace with school building planning and that there is need for a more systematic procedure in the purchasing of equipment for schools.

There are definite reasons why the equipment problem is not handled adequately at the present time. The more important reasons follow:

1. Boards of education usually employ architects to plan school buildings, but the equipment problem is often left to one of the school executives. It is not to be assumed that the only satisfactory plan is to employ the architect to take care of the equipment as well, for even that plan can prove disastrous under certain conditions. The separation of the building and equipment problems indicates the relative importance of the school building and equipment in the minds of the school officials when they engage the architect. This attitude is reflected in the whole building program of the large majority of school systems today, and the business of equipping will not be properly handled until those officials who are responsible for such programs become aware of the fact that a building, even though carefully planned, cannot function at its greatest efficiency unless it is properly equipped.

2. Money set aside or raised by bond issue for new building is usually placed in one fund unless the statutes forbid, and designated as "Funds set aside for the building and equipping of the new school." Such practice leads to disaster.

3. Even after the contracts have been let and the work is under way, the danger of exceeding the original budget appropriation still exists.
4. Another reason why the equipment problem is not usually well handled at the present time is that the problem is relatively new.

5. Finally, the work which has been done in the field of correct posture for pupils and in sanitation as it applies to janitorial service has had a definite influence on equipment planning.\(^3\)

Playground Activities and Other Recreation

All education from the standpoint of a child is resident in activities sometimes designated as experiences. These activities which start as play activities and which eventually emerge into work activities are classified by Professor Clark W. Hetherington as follows: "big muscle activities, linguistic activities, manual activities, environmental activities (which includes general science and social activities), and musical activities."\(^4\)

A careful analysis of these activities shows that they become the basis of all education and upon these activities a complete educational program can be built. They may all be thought of as play activities.

A program of activities has definite objectives in and of itself. Out from the activities if guided by proper leadership will flow a program of health education, character and citizenship training. Physical education of the school and playground is concerned with these physical activities and the standards which are resident in them.

\(^3\)Ray Eugene Cheney, Equipment Specifications for High Schools: Their Use and Improvement, p. 1.

\(^4\)Jay Bryan Nash, The Organization and Administration of Playgrounds and Recreation, p. 298.
The play activities themselves become the basis of all development. All standards of health, citizenship, and character training are resident in these activities.

This lays the basis for another primary reason why we should stress the big-muscle type of play activity rather than the musical or the manual. The big-muscle play program is absolutely essential both in and of itself and as an antidote to a great many of the strain-producing activities which occur in the schoolroom. It is essential that the major part of the play program be a vigorous, big-muscle, social-game type. It is upon this basis that the selection of activities must be made.

It is true, of course, that there should be time left for individual experimentation on the apparatus, at the workbench and elsewhere. In certain instances, such as rainy days and extremely hot days in the summer, it will be quite advisable to organize in the elementary program such activities as top tournaments, marble tournaments, sandcraft activities and the making of toys, fancy lanterns, or crepe-paper creations.

Most of these "stunt activities," however, emphasize the small muscles of the hand and the eye and simply supplement the strain of the schoolroom. In addition, they are distinctly individual and thus lack the social aspect. Save for "fill-in material," these activities are practically valueless as developmental activities.
The modern school is eliminating these small-muscle activities. Surely the playground should not encourage them, save on a very limited scale.

Administering the School Health Program

A school health program in which the school fulfills the two functions of protection and education — "protection of the children while they are in attendance, and education in the fullest possible measure in those things that contribute to healthful modes of living"5 — is the desire of every school. Like all educational activities, those in the field of health never end. The development and the administration of plans and procedure which will bring the school personnel to a conscious cooperative effort in attainment of these general objectives so that the desired protection and education shall reach every group of pupils throughout every hour of this school day constitutes a school health program of the first order. If this be obtained, (1) the school administrator, supported by his board of education, should be devoted to an educational program in the field of health, and (2) responsibility for the development of the program should be delegated to some one with adequate health knowledge and vision to coordinate the teaching personnel and enlist parents in cooperative support of the program.

5Fred Moore and John W. Studebaker, Organization and Administration of School Health Work, p. 15.
The health program in its best concept is a responsibility of the school authorities; it should be executed in cooperation with other community agencies; it need not develop overlapping or duplication of activities.

Contributions of the school personnel may be lost in large measure if control of the program passes from the school authorities because the type of education conducted by public health agencies is wholly different from that of the school organization. The needed improvement in the school program should be generated from within its own ranks, by additional personnel where needed, rather than by imposition from another group. The school should assume responsibility for the health of its group within the limits of educational capacity just as individuals should assume responsibility for their own personal health problems.
CHAPTER III

TYPICAL BUSINESS ACTIVITIES ANALYZED

The evolution of the administrative control of city school systems is one of the most interesting phases of the history of education in America. The "school committee," or "school board," or "board of education," by whatever name called, has gradually changed from a combined administrative and legislative body to one primarily legislative, delegating its administrative functions to one or more officials specifically trained presumably to do the tasks originally performed, if at all, by the board as a whole, or by standing and special committees of that board. Such delegation of authority was inevitable as educational activities expanded in scope and increased in complexity. Among the functions so delegated have been the certification of teachers, the supervision of instruction, and the classification of teachers, the supervision of school business, and the classification and promotion of pupils.

But with the increasing complexity of education have come complicated problems of housing, of sanitation, of provisions for books, equipment, and supplies, until a modern
city school system represents a multitude of activities, business and professional, well-nigh overwhelming to the casual observer.

With the multiplication of activities and the accompanying demands for physical accommodations has come the correlative problem of finding ways and means of adequately supporting these financially without undue waste of public funds.

The following business activities have been selected for study: budgetary procedure, financial reporting, accounting, the purchase of supplies, the storage and distribution of supplies, the purchase of the fuel supply, payroll procedure, the insuring of school property, and the maintenance of the school plant.¹

Budgetary Procedure

Presumably, some sort of budgetary procedure would everywhere be found. In fact, one would expect the construction of the budget to be one of the most important single business activities of the entire year. This expectation is further emphasized through the present activities of the federal and state governments and of municipalities in budget-making.

The superintendent is usually responsible for the final form of the budget. In some instances he and the business

manager work jointly, but the superintendent even then has the responsibility for the larger portion of it in final form. Thus the budget is constructed with emphasis on the educational end to be attained.

In many cities, on the other hand, we find that the secretary or the business executive has final responsibility more frequently than has the superintendent of schools. Where it is a joint effort it seems to be the practice for the superintendent to submit his askings to the business executive and to review the entire budget with him, but with primary responsibility resting on the business executive rather than on the superintendent of schools.

It is apparent that in all school systems the instruction department is represented in the preparation of the budget, and usually principals and supervisors have the opportunity of participating to the extent at least of filing annual requisitions for "supplies of instruction."

The superintendent of schools is authorized to review these requisitions in any type school so that the executive in charge of instruction participates in the actual padding or cutting. It is interesting to observe at the same time that the superintendent frequently handles this jointly with the business executive or purchasing agent where there is such an officer.

Most cities are fiscally dependent. In view of the
fact that many cuts are made in budgets of some schools, it is pertinent to inquire whether there is a relationship between the business executive and the frequency with which the school budget suffers a cut at the hands of the reviewing body, which should not assume that a balance returned at the close of the fiscal year gives this body license to "trim" the askings for the next fiscal year.

An item of paramount importance, of course, is the frequency with which boards of education in a few cities spend more than their budgets provide. In other words, cities usually handle their finances so that there is little necessity for exceeding their appropriations.

Financial Reporting

Cities usually publish an annual financial report of some kind, some using the city daily paper for the purpose rather than the pamphlet form. Several cities that do not publish one offer as a reason the belief that the reports are never read.

Some cities present certain pertinent financial facts such as a summary of outstanding bonds, the budget, and a comparison of expenses over a period of years. Some cities make use of as powerful an instrument as graphical representation to show financial facts.
Accounting Procedure

The accounting procedures of many cities are somewhat superior to those of other cities. The following appear more frequently in some cities than in others: the general ledger; allocation of expenditures on a building basis; the checking of budget appropriations on issuing purchase order; check protector; capital investment accounts; appraisal of the physical plant by commercial appraisers; the checking of meter readings; and audits by certified public accountants. In short, it appears that the greater frequency with which certain corporation practices predominate accounts very largely for this difference.

Three pertinent questions arise in this connection. Is budgetary procedure affected by superior accounting practices? Do some cities really have better financial reports? Are school costs affected in any manner?

Purchase of Supplies

The most significant difference in activities and practices involved in the purchase of school supplies is the responsibility of the purchasing agent. In every city where the school buys its own supplies, the purchasing agent is responsible directly to the superintendent of schools. In many instances the superintendent himself is the purchasing agent. In some cases, responsibility to a board committee was also emphasized but through the superintendent of
schools. In some cities, on the other hand, dependence on the board, or a committee of the board, was emphasized with no reference to the superintendent except as he approved requisitions for certain types of supplies. In one instance dependence on the business manager or the secretary of the board as the official purchasing agent was noted.

This difference is indeed significant. The situation in one type city signifies that all activities involving purchases are conducted through the superintendent whose point of view is primarily educational. The situation in another type city, on the other hand, implies that such activities are conducted through an individual whose point of view may be other than educational.

Certain safeguards are everywhere set up in an endeavor to give the educational department the kind of supplies that its personnel desires, but this safeguard ceases theoretically at least when the superintendent approves the requisitions as to specifications and quantity, the actual purchasing activities being carried on by an agent responsible directly to the board or its committee. Sometimes, on the other hand, the purchasing activities are actually performed under the direction of the superintendent who is in turn responsible to the board or its committee.

It will be noted that both types of cities depend on the members of the instructional staff for the first estimate of quantities and for the quality of supplies desired;
budget estimates are made in every instance, these budget estimates being based almost wholly on the lump sums used the year before though there is a tendency in a few of the cities to base these on pupil averages. The specifications as to quality and quantity, with one exception, are prepared by the educational department and revised by the superintendent of schools.

Since it is apparently impossible without being present at a series of lettings to determine precisely what principles, if any, are followed in the making of purchases, it is pertinent to note here that occasionally the superintendent stands between the purchasing agent and the board in an official capacity. If the superintendent bears only an advisory relation to the purchasing agent, it is reasonable, then, to infer that two different and divergent points of view may prevail between lettings in the one type of city and in the other type.

In general, then, it may be said that purchases are handled in much the same manner in almost all cities. In the actual mechanics of handling purchases no marked differences can be noted. But a fundamental difference of far-reaching implications is evident in the relationship of the superintendent of schools and of the purchasing agent to the board of education. While the preparation of specifications is apparently safeguarded in every way, yet in the
actual purchasing this difference may have a most profound bearing.

Storage and Distribution of Supplies

One is struck immediately by the preponderance of "decentralized" storage of supplies in individual buildings rather than in a central storehouse or storeroom. In fact, few cities are found with stock clerks.

School business and educational executives offer two explanations for this situation. The former insist that a storehouse adequately handled is very expensive. It may be seriously questioned, they aver, whether the saving effected offsets the additional expense incurred. The latter say frankly that a central storehouse in certain cities is almost sure to be manned by people placed there for other reasons than merit. These individuals ultimately cause embarrassment by making improper use of the knowledge at their disposal.

Purchase of the Fuel Supply

Few cities make any claim to testing for heat units. Whether the coal conforms to specifications or not, it is accepted, though occasionally there are protests.

Practically every city has something that passes under the name of inspection. But it is interesting to note how much more frequently the coal is "inspected" at the school building than at the point of loading. The "inspection"
consists almost without exception of the janitor or engineer's noting the kind and quality as it is unloaded into the bins and reporting it, if inferior. Occasionally, however, the head janitor or the superintendent of buildings and grounds goes to a building when coal is being unloaded.

Usually, the superintendents of schools which use coal for the fuel supply rely upon recommendations of the head janitor as to amount of and time for purchase of coal. They also depend on him to report condition of supply on arrival, and to store the fuel properly. Actual inspection and management of other heating systems is left largely to the janitors, too, who should make only necessary reports to the superintendent or any other person who is directly responsible for maintenance of the school plant.

Payroll Procedure

The following activities and practices are usually involved in payroll procedure:

1. The principal of each school submits regularly a report on
   a. All operation and instruction employees.
   b. Instruction employees only.
   c. Absence of operation and instruction employees only.

2. Reports on operation employees may be made by other official than principals.
3. The principal's report should include date of each absence for employee, reason for each absence, and name of substitute.

4. Payroll may be kept in loose-leaf form or in permanent book form.

5. Form of payroll necessitates writing of names
   b. Once only for a period of months.

6. Provision may be made for payroll distributor to show allocation by functions and type of schools and buildings.

7. Accounting control of each employee's salary may be obtained by
   a. Ledger account or payroll ledger account.
   b. Division of salary into equal period installments.

8. Timesheets are usually kept for maintenance workers.

Insuring School Property

The following activities and practices are included in insuring school property:

1. Insurance is carried on all school buildings.

2. Kinds of insurance carried are
   a. 80% co-insurance.
   b. Flat-rate insurance.
   c. Combination of both types (interpolated value).
3. Maturities are distributed over period of years
   a. Equally.
   b. Unequally.

4. Three to five-year policies are usually written.

5. Methods of allocating insurance among agencies of
   the city:
   a. Equally.
   b. Politically or by no definite plan.
   c. One agency only.
   d. To all in proportion to strength of companies.
   e. On recommendation of a city bureau.

6. Record of insurance policies is kept in insurance
   register.

7. Valuation of plant for insurance purposes is deter-
   mined by
   a. Appraisal concern.
   b. Committee of local contractors and real
      estate men.
   c. School secretary or business manager.
   d. Estimated replacement value.
   e. Cost of construction.
   f. Appraisal by insurance experts.
   g. City assessment.
Maintenance of the School Plant

There is considerable variability in the method of handling the maintenance of the school buildings. Some cities have repair gangs and some do not. Some have school repair shops; some use the shops of the manual or vocational training departments; and some maintain no repair shops at all.

The favorite method of making budget estimates for maintenance is to lump the amount on the basis of the expenditures of previous years in the hope that the reviewing body will cut as little as possible from it. After the appropriation has been made, an effort is then made to secure as much repair work as possible from the funds available. In a few cities, the budgets include maintenance items listed by buildings in great detail. The members of the reviewing body are then compelled to designate which items they think could be deferred if they propose a cut.

There is some tendency in many cities to criticize the lack of promptness with which repairs are made. This is especially marked in the type city where there is evidence of a total disregard of the educational function of the school plant. With but few exceptions, however, maintenance work is handled carefully and with reasonable promptness.

The general point of view in the cities having repair gangs is to keep them busy without too much record-making
in connection with the exact amount of time and materials consumed on the specific job.
CHAPTER IV

ADMINISTRATIVE RELATIONSHIPS

If an educational system is to perform its true function, it cannot be hampered by unfortunate relationships existing among its executives.

The fundamental weakness of many cities lies in the possibility that one of the executive officers in charge of business activities may not be trained as an educator, and may have a business, an architectural, or possibly a political point of view, and not an educational point of view. With each executive responsible directly to the board of education, it is possible that all departments may lack coordination. This may result in seriously hampering the realization of the primary objective of the schools -- the education of the children.

It is evident that many of the business executives are thoroughly alive to the responsibility of the positions they hold and to the necessity of keeping the welfare of the children ever in mind. But it is also evident that both business and educational executives in many schools are conscious of the fact that one officer might invade the
field of the other, and that care should be exercised at all times lest there be strained relations, or even an open break. There has been, on the part of some business executives, a tendency to stress the fact that their policies are resulting in telling economies, that their school systems are costing less than others nearby. Other statements indicate that other points of view sometimes prevail which might, under certain conditions, operate to the possible detriment of the educational end of the organization.

Some Characteristic Weaknesses of the Organization for Administration

1. The administrative organization of a city may include one or more executive officers whose points of view may be other than educational, a situation which may profoundly affect educational practice.

The executives other than superintendent of schools may be business men, or architects, or engineers, or contractors, or former municipal employees, or representatives of any one of several other professions, and untrained in educational administration.

Concrete examples show definitely points of view other than an educational one, and in some instances other motives than the educational welfare of the children operating. The presence of these other points of view may have profound and

1For discussion, see Smith, op. cit., pp. 58-81.
far-reaching influence on the activities of the public school systems of many cities. The planning and equipping of school buildings, the operation and maintenance of the school plant, and the purchase of supplies are all affected in a direct and vital way, and through these the education of the children themselves.

2. The lack of an educational point of view may result in the improper planning and equipping of school buildings where the business executive is responsible for this phase of the work of the school system.

This aspect of school administration is delegated with surprising frequency to a business executive who is responsible to the board of education, and who functions independently of the superintendent of schools.

A great many things are put into new buildings in the way of equipment and planning of the buildings which are not adapted to the best educational ends because of the lack of close cooperation between the architect's office and the educational side of administration. Instances of this could be mentioned almost without end in the new building, such as: (1) physical training equipment for this building ordered without consultation with the physical training supervisor in regard to supplies for the last five or six years; (2) showers installed of a type that every principal who has had any experience with showers would
recognize at once as being impossible to use satisfac-
torily because of being placed too low, and also because
of being so frail that they could be broken off easily;
(3) physics laboratory furnished with furniture of an extravag-
ant type that no principal would approve; (4) chemistry
laboratory equipped with a number of things that would not
be approved by an up-to-date chemistry teacher; (5) no con-
sultation held with the director of industrial arts in plan-
ning any of the shops in the building, with, of course, all
sorts of friction with what teachers want and expect in new
shops; (6) seats put in the gymnasium contrary to the ad-
vice of the principal and a representative of the physical
education department; (7) no tool rooms supplied in a num-
ber of shops and no place provided for the storage of proj-
ects; and (8) inadequate study-hall space provided in the
building. This list could probably be extended to several
scores of instances if one would take into consideration
minor difficulties.

These situations prove that the buildings and equip-
ment should be carefully planned to fit the program of edu-
cation and that the building program should be planned on
the basis of careful research conducted under the direction
of the superintendent of city schools, the buildings and
equipment being carefully adjusted on the basis of that re-
search to the educational program offered.
3. The proper maintenance of the school plant may be seriously hampered for educational activities due to the lack of an educational point of view where the business executive is responsible for this activity.

The maintenance of the school plant is assigned as a rule to the business department. The methods of requisitioning repairs, the order in which they are made, and their handling in the light of educational requirements and educational standards may have a most profound influence on the physical and educational welfare of the children.

The methods of securing needed repairs may be so cumbersome that it is very difficult to get action and when the machinery is set in motion the results may not be altogether satisfactory from an educational point of view.

Various incidents show that (1) the office of the business executive who is responsible for maintenance work is sometimes negligent and that in numerous instances the superintendent is compelled to bring items needing attention before the board of education to secure the desired activity on the part of the business executive; (2) the responsibility for maintenance work is often a divided one and the vesting of responsibility for maintenance of the school plant in the municipal government is by no means uncommon; and (3) a worse state of affairs exists if the business executive is responsible under both the state statutes and the rules of the board of education for all business activities.
4. The operation of the plant with a view to serving educational needs may be seriously hampered by the lack of an educational point of view in the business department of some cities.

Not infrequently the business department of city school systems is vested with authority to appoint building custodians and engineers and to oversee their work. Such situations may lead to the improper appointment or assignment of operation employees. The lack of authority of principals over employees responsible to an independent business executive may lead to difficulties between the building principals and the custodians. In any event it is not uncommon for other motives to operate than the furthering of the educational welfare of the children.

5. The lack of an educational point of view in the business executive often results in the purchase of cheap and improper supplies for instructional use. Various incidents show that the results of a lack of an educational point of view in the administration of the so-called business affairs of a city school system may be tremendously significant in the lives of the children attending school. There is seldom any suggestion of motives other than the best-intentioned on the part of executives responsible for the various activities. The difficulty is in a setup which does not permit the operation of an educational end which ultimately determines all activities, procedures, and
policies, whether business or instructional.

6. The division of administrative authority may result in the improper assignment of functions among the executives of the school system. While theoretically there may be a division of functions among the executives, yet there is a tendency for the one to invade the field of the other. The director, supposedly in charge of business affairs, is delegated jointly with the superintendent to investigate a discipline problem while in another instance he goes voluntarily in search of a petty thief in one of the high schools. The architect is sent to look over high school buildings to be designed for instructional activities while the director seeks information on the "school construction program" from a municipal research bureau.

Nor is this all. The director may submit at every meeting lists of appointments made "subject to the approval and confirmation of the board" which contain names of clerks for the various schools, high school telephone operators, stenographers, student assistants for the "school of education" maintained by the city, "tool-room boy" for a chemistry laboratory, "escorts for blind pupils," a "reader for a blind high school pupil," a research director in the division of architecture, "student assistants" in the office of the superintendent, department of instruction, and even a stenographer for a ten-day appointment in the office of the superintendent, department of instruction.
7. The division of administrative authority and responsibility fails frequently to center responsibility definitely in some one individual and permits a shifting of responsibility on the part of one executive to another.

A few instances show the lack of a definite centering of responsibility. It is not entirely clear, for example, from the official action of the board who is responsible for the discipline of the public school pupils. Nor can it be said that it is clear who is responsible for the planning of the school building program.

8. The administrative organization may result in such an attitude on the part of one executive toward another that affairs are conducted on a purely personal basis.

It has already appeared that functions may be so allocated among the coordinate executives that there is either an evasion with a consequent shifting of responsibility, or the unintentional invasion of the field of one executive by another. Theoretically, all are working for the welfare of the children attending the schools, but practically, many situations may arise where other motives may operate due to the administrative setup.

It is argued that the board of education should be the coordinator, but it is obviously impossible for the board of education in a large city to foresee and prevent a large number of incidents which are relatively trivial but which in the aggregate may have the cumulative effect of destroying
the harmonious spirit of the administrative and professional staffs.

9. The administrative organization may result in the lack of adequate financial planning and reporting.

There is often no coordination between the keeping of financial records and the use of cost figures for determining educational policies for the future. Primary responsibility for the construction of the budget for consideration of the board or its committee rests quite consistently with the business executive in many cities. In many instances the superintendent cooperates to the extent at least of giving the necessary data for the education department of the school system. One raises the question whether there can be that careful coordination so desirable in a well-constructed budget and that long look ahead necessary for adequate future planning.

Often the situation of the superintendent is such that he cannot call attention of the board to budgetary matters affecting in his judgment the welfare of the schools, though he is held personally responsible for that welfare. Perhaps he will not even have seen the budget of the business executive prior to its submission to the proper committee of the board and yet he is responsible for constructing the instructional service portion of the budget.

10. The administrative organization may result in hampering the execution of the policies of the education
department or even in actually determining them.

That this is possible is evident when one considers the fact that the business executive may be solely responsible for planning and equipping school buildings, for keeping the financial records, for purchasing supplies and equipment, and for construction of the budget for presentation to the board of education.

Recent Tendencies

Thus is shown two tendencies of paramount importance to the proper administration of the activities of city public school systems:

1. The administrative organization of many cities fails to center responsibility for the educational activities as a whole in one individual who can be held definitely responsible for their successful administration. This results in the shifting of responsibility, difficulty in locating responsibility, the improper assignment by the board of education of functions to be performed, and the handling of many affairs of vital concern for the welfare of the children attending the schools.

2. This organization results in the operation of a point of view in the handling of many activities vitally affecting the welfare of the schools, which is not primarily educational. In fact, it has been shown over and over that the point of view held by the one department may be so at
variance with that held by the other department that the program of education is seriously hampered if not blocked altogether.

Harmonious situations are obviously due -- not to the setup which apparently in every instance has the possibility of violent disagreement with every possibility of the unhappy incidents related earlier occurring -- but to the individuals holding the executive positions and their desire to cooperate for a common end. In other words, the successful operation is due very largely to personalities and very little to the type of organization which permits a complete change with a change of personnel.

The solution, then, is unified administrative control centered in one individual whose point of view is primarily educational. This will center the responsibility in one executive officer who can be held strictly accountable for the success or failure of the educational work under his direction and will insure an educational point of view in the administration of educational activities. The exact title to be given that executive is immaterial, but his responsibility for the successful administration of the school system and the point of view which determines his policies are of the greatest importance.
Summary

1. The administrative and personnel relationships not easily subjected to objective study constitute a vital aspect of the functioning of school administration.

2. The administrative setup is fundamentally weak if it fails to center administrative responsibility in one executive and permits points of view other than educational to determine policies and dominate activities.

3. Harmonious relationships characteristic of school administration are due primarily to the personnel in the executive positions rather than to the administrative setup.

4. The solution is a single executive officer in whom responsibility is centered and whose point of view is primarily educational.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Holroyd, George H., The Organization of School Societies and Other School Activities, London, Sir Isaac Pitman and Sons, Ltd., 1933.


Moore, Fred, and Studebaker, John W., Organization and Administration of School Health Work, 1939.


Trillingham, Clinton C., The Organization and Administration of Curriculum Programs, Los Angeles, University of Southern California Press, 1933-1934.