THE APPLICATION OF DEMOCRATIC COOPERATIVE PROCEDURES
TO THE ADMINISTRATION OF CURRICULUM REVISION

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THE APPLICATION OF DEMOCRATIC COOPERATIVE PROCEDURES
TO THE ADMINISTRATION OF CURRICULUM REVISION

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Selection of the Problem

Source. -- This particular problem was chosen because of a sincere personal interest in the current widespread activity in curriculum thinking and revision in the United States of America with its "dominant trends of coherence and lifeliness." Curriculum revision, emerging from the new philosophy that revision to be effective must never cease, has for some time occupied the center of the school stage. The desire for progress appears to be inherent in the culture of our people. It is accompanied by a willingness to undergo change, if by so doing conditions might be improved.

Added to this interest in curriculum thinking, there is also a personal concern in the nature of the curriculum resultant from revision activity. This concern as to the nature of the curriculum is an outgrowth of the awareness of

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2Harold Spears, Experience in Building a Curriculum, p. vii.

the critical prospects for American democracy in the challenging international situation brought on by conflicting contemporary ideologies of government. There is a profound personal conviction that the perpetuation of American democracy is largely dependent on its educational curriculum. In agreement with Professor Jesse H. Newlon, the writer believes that to be effective a democratic educational philosophy must operate in every phase of the educational enterprise. Consequently, the procedures used in the administration of curriculum revision should be of a nature consistent with and inherent in American democracy.

**Justification of the problem.** -- The challenge to lay wide and sound bases for the care and education of youth for healthful, happy, creative citizenship in the American democracy is before us. Perhaps the surest beginning of efforts that will lead to a comprehensive program is fundamental thinking by the profession. The 1938 Yearbook Commission of the American Association of School Administrators of the National Education Association state their aims for public education as follows:

In the program of public education the primary purpose should be to help youth find satisfactory places for which they are fitted in their own social and economic order. If American ideals are to be

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promulgated and improved thru democratic institutions, youth must be trained and educated to make decisions and choices by the democratic process of freedom in learning. Such training and education must in the long run be effected thru growth and development of the experimental attitude and the critical mind and by means of widespread, systematic, and adequate educational opportunities.6

To complicate the realization of the above quoted aims, science and machine technology throughout the western world are definitely changing the basic character of society. The ways of life, the institutions, the mores, and even the daily thoughts of Americans are undergoing fundamental social changes. The conditions under which young people are growing up and attempting to find their place in society have been revolutionized, and thus, the plight of American youth in attempting to find their place in society is one of the major problems of our day.7 Consequently, continued curriculum evolution is necessary to keep pace with technological progress of society, for revision, to be effective, must never cease.8

Another result of professional thinking in regard to the nature of the curriculum toward which revision is aimed is the indication that "The American Problem" might be the


7Samuel Everett, and others, A Challenge to Secondary Education, p. 3.

8Spears, op. cit., p. viii.
guide for educational activities. "The American Problem,"

according to Dr. Harold Rugg and others, is:

...to bring forth on this continent in some form of cooperative commonwealth the civilization of economic abundance, democratic behavior, and integrity of expression which is now potentially available. 9

If the integrating functional curriculum is one tool to help education solve the above indicated problem, 10 then there is justification in introducing such a curriculum. And because this interpretation of curriculum responsibility is comparatively new, and, as yet, experimental, it needs the cooperation of all concerned to exhibit a fair test of performance. Herein is implied the unique problem of administering curriculum revision to provide opportunity for life in a functional democracy through procedures that are anchored in the nature of the civilization which the curriculum is to perpetuate. 11 If in a democracy all who are concerned with carrying out a policy or who are affected by it should participate in its formulation, then there exists the need for cooperative procedures. Furthermore, if there are such procedures existent in the democratic ideology of government, this brings us specifically to certain crucial

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9 Harold Rugg and others, Democracy and the Curriculum, p. 111.

10 Harap, op. cit., p. 90.

11 Educational Policies Commission, The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy, pp. 6-7.
problems of administration of education dependent on democracy; and the democracy, in turn, dependent on education.\textsuperscript{12}

In the light of this philosophy of education lies the justification of the problem of this study, "The Application of Democratic Cooperative Procedures to the Administration of Curriculum Revision."

Limitations and Scope of the Study

\textbf{Nature of the problem.} -- The problem of this study is primarily philosophical in nature. It involves the examination of some illustrations of theory and practice in administration of curriculum revision in the United States of America to discover the nature of traditional methods used. It also involves a study of the fundamental philosophy of American democracy implied in the original frames of reference, the Declaration of Independence and the Preamble to the Constitution. From this underlying philosophy certain implications for education in American democracy of our time evolve. A further exploration of the co-existing philosophy and educational problem is made to discover the nature of educational procedures implied in American democracy. Examination of the work of national educational committees reveals definite principles of cooperation implied in democratic procedures. In turn these cooperative pro-

\textsuperscript{12}Newlon, \textit{op. cit.}, pp. 138-149.
cedures are studied to reveal specific techniques available for their enactment. And finally, these democratic cooperative techniques are placed at the disposal of school administrators for use in administering revision toward a more functional curriculum.

Purpose of the study. -- The purpose of this study is two-fold:

(1) To select procedures based on principles of cooperation implied in American democracy, and

(2) To apply these democratic cooperative procedures to the administration of curriculum revision.

Source and Treatment of Data

The source material for this study has been the wealth of printed and recorded data found in reports of national education committees, societies, commissions, and departmental organizations; bulletins of various state departments of education; current educational magazines; reports on curriculum revision activity in various cities; and many books published by individual authorities in the field. These various data are listed in the bibliography accompanying the study.

As a guide to research in the problem solution of this study, the following leading questions were asked:

(1) What has been the nature of the administration of curriculum revision in the past?
(2) What is the nature of educational procedures implied in the fundamental philosophy of American democracy?

(3) What specific procedures and techniques consistent with democratic philosophy are available for use?

The several chapters of the study attempt to answer these guiding questions.

Definition of Terms

One of the most important, yet difficult, tasks at the beginning of the problem was to arrive at definitions of the various terms used in describing the study, for on the interpretation of such terms as "democratic," "cooperative," "administration," and "curriculum revision" depends the logical merit of the philosophical attempt.

For a meaning of the term "democratic," various source material was examined. The basis for the definition used in the study was found in the following sources:

7. Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association, Teachers and Cooperation, Bulletin Issued by Committee in Charge of the Yearbook on Cooperation, 1937.

8. Lester Dix, A Charter for Progressive Education.


After the examination of the above listed data, the meaning of the term "democratic" accepted for use in this study is drawn from two categories: (1) from the original frames of reference upon which the political government called "American democracy" is established, the Declaration of Independence and the Preamble to the Constitution of the United States of America; and (2) from the social implementation of the ethical conception at the heart of American democracy that it is a way of life based on the fundamental equality and moral worth of all men. Therefore, the term
"democratic" is used as the antithesis of "autocratic" to assert and imply: (1) the worth and dignity of the individual human being, (2) the fundamental moral equality of all men, (3) a faith in mind and reason, (4) faith in the capabilities of ordinary people, (5) the indefinite perfectability of human society, (6) material security for all, (7) equal opportunity for personal growth, (8) safety of life and liberty of person, (10) access to the sources of relevant knowledge, (11) liberty to exchange ideas and opinions, (12) freedom of thought and conscience, and (13) rule by majority decision.

The term "cooperative procedures" is used to mean the working together for achievement. Thus the term linked with "democratic" to read "democratic cooperative procedures" refers to the activities of working together for the achievement of general welfare and individual integrity asserted in the above described meaning of "democratic." Such functional articulation of the continuity and interaction of the various relationships in the culture as a whole is based on the authenticity of American democracy as a reality of history that cannot be successfully challenged whatever may be its defects and limitations.13

In the attempt to define the terms "curriculum," "revision," and "administration" in the light of their generally accepted interpretations, source material in the field of

13George Axtelle, William Wattenberg, and others, Teachers for Democracy, p. 389.
curriculum trends and revision was studied. In addition to the data listed above under "democracy," some of the most comprehensive sources examined were:

1. Franklin Bobbitt, *How to Make a Curriculum*.


11. L. Thomas Hopkins, *Integration -- Its Meaning and


From the study of the above listed sources the historical development of the modern interpretation of curriculum responsibility was traced. A brief summary of this development would relate the struggle between two opposing types of
curriculum practice which was fought and partially decided in the decade between the close of the World War in 1919 and the depression of 1929. On one side was a large group of educators who championed the subject curriculum; on the other hand was the small group of educators who advocated the experience curriculum. The social and economic events following the depression caused educators to stop and evaluate the practices of the preceding decade. As a result, from the kindergarten through the liberal-arts college the subject curriculum with its basic educational ideas has begun to decline, and the experience curriculum with its fundamental principles has begun to increase.

John Dewey's educational philosophy that "school is life and not just a preparation for life"¹⁴ seems to be the basic principle upon which the concept of the modern curriculum is founded. In short, "the curriculum is everything the young people and their teachers do."¹⁵ Embodied in this interpretation of the experience curriculum is the idea of "integration" which refers to continuous intelligent, interactive adjustment.¹⁶

In the light of the above implied interpretation of curriculum responsibility this study accepts the following

¹⁵Harold Rugg, American Life and the School Curriculum, p. 18.
¹⁶L. Thomas Hopkins, Integration--Its Meaning and Application, p. 22.
definition of the term "curriculum": "A life-centered curriculum is one that is related to the daily living of pupils and is centered in the actual problems and opportunities of modern life."\(^17\)

The term "revision" as used in this study refers not merely to the revising of the old curriculum, but to the thorough reorganization of the entire educational program, "for it is impossible to construct an up-to-date curriculum on an antiquated pattern."\(^18\)

The term "administration" is used in its usual interpretation of responsibility in secondary school management. It implies not only the determination of objectives for curriculum construction, but also a vital concern with planning and executing the means and activities of the entire curriculum procedure "for synthesizing the various forces that directly influence the experiences of children."\(^19\)

Related Studies in the Field

In regard to other studies in the field of curriculum revision, several are noted here with brief mention of their similarity and differences to this study.

\(^17\) *Youth Education Today*, Sixteenth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators, February, 1938, p. 56.

\(^18\) *Ibid.*

\(^19\) Hollis L. Caswell and Doak S. Campbell, *Curriculum Development*, p. 76.
Walter D. Cocking made a study, *Administrative Procedures in Curriculum Making for Public Schools*, in which he analyzed the administrative procedures used by twelve cities in their curriculum programs. From these administrative procedures which he analyzed, certain basic principles were established which might be used by those planning programs of curriculum making in public school systems. The study did not include the consideration of democratic philosophy in American education, nor did it include specific techniques of democratic procedures.

Another study involving the administration of a changing curriculum is that by William L. Miller, *Factors Relating to the Administration of the Progressive Education Experiment in South High School, Denver, Colorado*. However, the administrative implications in this study related to the evaluation of the results of the experimental classes cooperating with the Progressive Education Association in their eight-year experiment. He analyzed the administrative changes necessary to put into force a similar organization for the school as a whole, but there was no attempt made to suggest democratic procedures in making the changes.


Professor Edison E. Oberholtzer in his study, An Integrated Curriculum in Practice,\(^22\) analyzes the development, installation, and appraisal of a certain type of integrated curriculum in the educational program of the public elementary schools of Houston, Texas. The administrative phase is subordinate to the every-day function of the curriculum in Professor Oberholtzer's account of this particular school program.

The study in the field that is perhaps the most closely related to this is the study, Teachers and Cooperation, reported by the committee in charge of the yearbook on cooperation for the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association in November, 1937.\(^23\) This study contains suggested specific techniques for cooperative procedures, but they are not studied from the administrative emphasis nor in relation to curriculum revision.

These studies have been of definite value in their contributions to problems in the field.


\(^{23}\)Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association, Teachers and Cooperation, November, 1937.
CHAPTER II

AN ANALYSIS OF NEEDS FOR DEMOCRATIC PROCEDURES
IN ADMINISTERING CURRICULUM REVISION

Introduction

By way of brief review of the general scope of the problem at hand, it is recalled that the major part of the study has to do with the finding of procedures available for use by administrators in executing curriculum revision programs. These techniques to be used in the educational system of American democracy, as pointed out in the introductory chapter, should be consistent with democracy in its fundamental philosophy and educational implications. This, simply stated, means that "if pupils are to be educated for democracy and are to learn to prefer democracy as a way of life, the schools which train them must embody this doctrine in action."¹ Before we approach that part of the study which deals with the specific procedures based on democratic philosophy, it is logical that we first examine some of the tasks in curriculum revision which challenge school admin-

¹Youth Education Today, Sixteenth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators, p. 125.
istrators today to reveal the need of such procedures. As an introduction to needs for democratic procedures, the general status of curriculum revision is briefly reviewed.

The General Status of Curriculum Revision

It has already been stated that curriculum development is definitely and markedly on the increase, the interest in the movement being nation-wide.\(^2\) As to the beginning of this activity in curriculum revision, a backward glance of approximately thirty years recalls the two essays written by the pioneer social philosopher, John Dewey. The one written in 1899 was called The School and Society; the second, written in 1902, was called The Child and the Curriculum. When Professor Dewey selected these two titles, he put his finger on the crucial factors of school education. These factors are the same today as they were thirty years ago: Professor Rugg lists these factors in the following order:

1. The school, which means essentially the artist teachers, the designers and guides of the educative process.
2. The society, that is, the civilization and the culture in which the child lives.
3. The child, the person being educated.
4. The curriculum, that is, activities and materials, the great intermediary between the child and society.\(^3\)

The factors as listed above in the educative process

\(^2\)Harap, op. cit., p. 1.

\(^3\)Rugg, American Life and the Curriculum, p. 17.
have been the same throughout the years, but it is the
opinion of many educators that in a century and a half of
national history the curriculum of the school has not caught
up with the dynamic content of American life. Dating from
the colonial school, the Latin grammar school, academy, or
modern junior high school, the curriculum has lagged behind
the current civilization. The gap between the curriculum
and the current life resulting from this lag has been cut
down in the last three-quarters of a century; nevertheless,
the American school has been essentially academic and today
much of the gap persists.\textsuperscript{4}

The challenge to American educators to reorganize the
school curriculum in an attempt to span the gap is voiced by
the American Association of School Administrators in their
yearbook, \textit{Youth Education Today}.\textsuperscript{5} Their investigation of the
status of American youth today in the social and economic
scene reveals that there were, in 1930, twenty million young
people between the ages of fifteen and twenty-four. The
American people should not think of their youth as a group
to be ignored, or as assets to be exploited, or as children
to be indulged, for the proper treatment of youth is a most
important question for society to decide. It is not a

\textsuperscript{4}Curriculum-Making: Past and Present, Twenty-sixth Year
book of the National Society for the Study of Education,
Part I, p. 3.

\textsuperscript{5}Youth Education Today, Sixteenth Yearbook of the Ameri
can Association of School Administrators, pp. 9-55.
problem solely for parents and school teachers, because any civilization that fails to conserve its children and youth contributes to its own destruction. In the attempt to plan a general program to give youth an opportunity to find their proper role, the schools as agencies for helping to educate youth must face critically specific issues in order that social and economic turmoil may gradually decrease under intelligent planning and guidance. Some of these issues as stated by the American Association of School Administrators are as follows:

Who are the youth? How many are there? How are they distributed with respect to age, nativity, sex, and marital status? How are youth occupied? Under what environmental conditions do they strive and live? In what way do poverty and plenty influence the lives of our youth group? How is society aiding youth to find their places in the field of work? What are the youth problems as seen from the viewpoint of the youth themselves?

It is not the purpose of this study to follow through the entire investigation of each of the above listed issues because the findings of the Commission of Youth Problems, a subcommittee of the American Association of School Administrators, are accepted with their objective data as evidence of the fact that there is immediate need for an educational program to assist in solving the problems of youth. The Commission is of the opinion that such an educational program should include a curriculum which would harmonize youth's educational development with his fundamental needs and in-

\[\text{Ibid., p. 10.}\]  
\[\text{Ibid., p. 14.}\]
terests, with his social environment, and with his whole life career. They have chosen to call this "a dynamic life-centered curriculum." According to the Commission, there are six principles used as criteria for setting up this curriculum. These criteria are quoted here because of their implications for educational administrators in the current activity toward curriculum revision. The principles are as follows:

1. Individuation -- the development of the individual in harmony with his fundamental needs and interests.
2. Socialization -- the education of the individual in harmony with the needs and possibilities of his social environment.
3. Integration -- the attainment of educational values by bringing together and unifying the processes and outcomes of education.
4. Specialization -- the provision of special training and services required both by individuals and by society.
5. Dynamic approach -- the facilitation of purposeful learning and dynamic teaching.
6. Guidance -- a curriculum emphasis which contributes specifically to the individual's educational, vocational, recreational, and social career.

Underlying the principles listed above is the fundamental description of secondary education formulated by Professor Karl R. Douglass: "Secondary education is that period in which the emphasis is shifted from the study of the simpler tools of learning and literacy to the use of these tools in acquiring knowledge, interests, skills, and appreciations in the various major fields of human life and

\[8\text{Ibid.}\] \[9\text{Ibid., p. 15.}\]
thought." This definition implies two points of view. One deals with the relation of the school to society and the other with the relation of the school to the individual. Professor William H. Kilpatrick discusses this interrelation of the individual and society in his book, *Remaking the Curriculum*, and recognizes the aims of any proper educational system to be: "To study life and how to enrich it, to study our customs and institutions and how to improve them, to educate youth so that they may grow up thus socially capable and disposed." 

In the analysis of the concept of education as the development of personality, there is the implication that the stimulus of learning and the learning process itself are essentially social, and learning, to be objective, must draw its content largely from the social order in which it takes place. The reorientation of the school curriculum in the social-economic American scene is necessitated by several root causes of change in contemporary civilization. These causes have been listed by Professors Morton as being freedom of thought and scientific method, man's conquest of


12Ibid., p. 45.

power, invention, diversity of cultural backgrounds, advance of democracy, and the end of the frontier in the United States. These root causes are bringing about a series of revolutionary transitions in contemporary life. These transitions have their implications for curriculum revision in attempting a social orientation of the school. A few of these transitions are: transition from an agrarian to an industrial civilization, the growth of cities, an economy of potential plenty, extension of educational opportunity, and increase of human interdependence. These forces lie behind extensive curriculum revision programs which have been in progress in the United States in recent decades.

The extent of current curriculum revision activity would afford a detailed and interesting study in itself; however, it is reviewed only briefly here in its relation to the general status of curriculum revision.

A glance backward would reveal these three steps of a century of development in America: industrialization, urbanization, and mass education. Beginning about 1800, the necessity of extensive educational opportunity for youth became apparent. Dewitt Clinton took an active part in the organization of the Free Public School Society of New York.

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15 Ibid., pp. 9-20.

in 1805. By 1837 Massachusetts had established the first board of education. High schools, which were first required by law in 1827, had increased by 1895 to 2,600 institutions with an enrollment of 210,000 students.17 The number of pupils enrolled in secondary schools has doubled every ten years since 1890. Today more than six million of the approximately ten million youth aged fourteen through seventeen are in high school.18

During this growth of enrollment in the secondary schools of the United States, the problem of curriculum making was ever present. In the decades prior to 1850, America produced the grammar school and the academy, and these set the graded pattern for the educational system of the eastern half of America for three-quarters of a century. Thereafter the curriculum reformers were striving to undo the evils of a rigid graded system.19 Thus, the administrative outline of America's public educational system was evolved prior to 1890, and the curriculum took the form of a patchwork of "School Subjects." Up to 1900, the curriculum ignored almost totally the emerging economic, political, and cultural problems and institutions. It was essentially "morphological."

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17. *Youth Education Today*, Sixteenth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators, p. 27.


Its designers were interested in classification, in naming parts and describing forms rather than in developing an understanding of function and functioning. 20

Approximately to 1910 the leadership in curriculum making was in the hands of college and private school administrators and of subject-matter specialists. Curriculum making was "dominated by an interest in scholarship, mind training, and knowledge for knowledge's sake." 21 However, about this time, under the leadership of Thorndike, Judd, Cubberley, Strayer, Terman, Whipple, Freeman, Gray, and others, more objective procedures in the quantitative method began to be applied to the solution of educational problems. This was the beginning of the fact-finding era and the day of the questionnaire. Learning was being experimentally investigated in the laboratory, and tests and measurements had entered the classroom. Many matters of administrative importance were being studied by the new quantitative technique; and, during this period, a new type of committee personnel and procedure came into existence to further apply the new methods of educational research. In 1911, the first National Education Association's Committee on Economy of Time was organized and existed eight years, during which time it made four outstanding reports. From that day national committees have directly influenced curriculum revision. 22

20 Ibid., pp. 19-22. 21 Ibid., p. 67. 22 Ibid., p. 68.
The Progressive Education Association which was organized in 1918 has exerted a definite influence in curriculum revision activity. In the last two decades of the nineteenth century, prior to its organization, the movement was active in the work of such persons as Colonel Francis Parker, and later in the thought of William James and especially of John Dewey. Newlon states that this movement "has emphasized the worth and uniqueness of the individual, the active and experiential elements in the learning process, and the social nature and social purpose of all education; it has opposed formalism and imposition." Francis Parker was deeply democratic in his sympathies and believed the school could educate for good citizenship by practice in the schoolroom. Thus he made a significant step toward introducing the spirit of democracy into education. The Dewey experimental school of the nineties broke radically with the traditional school, both in theory and practice.

Gradually the fundamental ideas of this school of thought began to affect all of education and the role of interest, freedom, activity, experience in learning, the needs of "the whole child" and of "integrated personality" are values that have been emphasized by this movement. Gradually the old subject organizations have begun to give way to a func-
tional approach to learning. The content of the curriculum is drawn more from the needs of life, and the community has become a laboratory of study. 25

An outstanding example of curriculum revision was the work of Dr. Jesse H. Newlon when he was Superintendent of Schools in the city of Denver in 1922. The school system of that city was the first to attack the entire curriculum in a comprehensive manner. Perhaps the most significant factor in this new attempt was the use of classroom teachers in positions of leadership in determining curriculum content. Since the time of the work instituted in Denver, hundreds of school systems, large and small, have given definite attention to curriculum revision. 26

Perhaps the best study to reveal the continued and increased efforts in curriculum revision on the part of city and state departments of education is that reported by Harap in behalf of the Joint Committee on Curriculum of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction and the Society for Curriculum Study. The portion of the report which concerns this study to support the generalization that curriculum revision is definitely on the increase is as follows:

We will first consider various categories of evidence afforded by a recently concluded survey which included every city in the United States above 25,000 population, and every tenth community below


26Walter D. Cocking, Administrative Procedures in Curriculum Making for Public Schools, p. 28.
that size listed in the Educational Directory published by the Office of Education. Of the 648 heads of school systems approached in this study, 303, or somewhat less than half, returned usable replies. The cities thus responding included 201 above 25,000 in population, sixty of 15,000 to 25,000 inhabitants, and forty-two with less than 5,000 on their census rolls.

This survey revealed clearly that the problems of curriculum development are being attacked systematically along a widely spread front. Especially is this true of the larger communities. Organized curriculum-development programs are now under way in well over seven tenths of the cities of above 25,000 population, whereas slightly less than a half and exactly a third of the school systems serving communities of 5,000 to 25,000 and below 5,000, respectively, reported such enterprises. Moreover, less than one city in ten has ever conducted an organized curriculum-development program in the past without renewing its efforts along this line at the present time.

Increasing interest and effort in curriculum development are shown in the data of the following table [see p. 28].

Well over half of the curriculum programs on each school level whose dates of initiation are known were begun either in 1935 or 1936. Over seven-tenths of these enterprises have been initiated since 1932. Only an approximate tenth on any school level were begun before 1929. Furthermore, this rapidly increasing interest in curriculum development implies a growing willingness to come to grips with the manifold problems which it presents.27

Harap's report gives additional evidence of an increasing interest in curriculum-building and states that almost everywhere this evidence is afforded by the fact that statewide programs of curriculum development -- of widely varying degrees of magnitude, to be sure -- are now under way in thirty-two states. By far the majority of these enterprises, according to the report, have been begun since 1930. Furthermore, to the informed observer it appears highly probable

TABLE 1

PERCENTAGE OF CITIES REPORTING DATE OF BEGINNING OF PRESENT CURRICULUM-DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS IN WHICH THE PRESENT PROGRAM WAS BEGUN IN CERTAIN YEARS ON EACH LEVEL.\(^{28}\)

(Note. This study was made in December, 1936.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date Present Program Was Began</th>
<th>Elementary (115)(^a)</th>
<th>Junior High School (74)</th>
<th>Senior High School (76)</th>
<th>Junior College (9)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1935-1936, inclusive...........</td>
<td>54.8</td>
<td>52.7</td>
<td>57.9</td>
<td>55.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1933-1934, inclusive...........</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931-1932, inclusive...........</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1929-1930, inclusive...........</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before 1929...........</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\)The figures in parentheses indicate the number of cities reporting the year in which the present curriculum-development program was begun.

that the number of state departments of education sponsoring such programs will continue to increase.\(^{29}\)

Some Specific Illustrations of Plans for Curriculum Revision

Thus far this chapter of the study has dealt with the general status of curriculum revision as a background to

\(^{28}\)Ibid., p. 2. \(^{29}\)Ibid., p. 3.
specific illustrations revealing administrative needs for procedures to effectively execute plans for curriculum revision in the schools of democratic America. Because of the impossibility here to examine all administrative plans in the United States, it is the purpose of this study to cite specific illustrations of plans for curriculum reorganization and development which will represent the entire field. Such illustrations will serve as objective data in indicating the administrative needs for procedures to execute such plans.

Before selecting the specific illustrations of administrative setups for curriculum revision to be cited in this study, various data on curriculum reorganization were examined illustrative of activity on the part of rural units, city plans, county needs, district attempts, laboratory schools, schools cooperating with the Progressive Education Association experiments, and state departments of education. In seeking to locate secondary schools and educational units having definite plans for curriculum reorganization, the bulletin, Changing Secondary Education in the United States, Report on a Survey of Modifications of Secondary Education, published by the Michigan State Board of Education, was a helpful guide. Criteria used in selecting these specific illustrations of administrative plans for revision were: (1) acknowledgment by the administration of intentional revision,
(2) a statement of definite aims toward a more life-like curriculum, (3) an expressed desire to use cooperative methods in curriculum revision, (4) representation of various types of secondary schools, (5) illustrative state department of education machinery for curriculum building, and (6) representation of a wide geographical range.

Five specific illustrations of administrative plans for curriculum revision were selected to meet the above listed criteria. These specific illustrations cited in this study are: (1) The Administrative Plans for the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School for the University of Florida, 31 (2) the Administrative Setup for Curriculum Development in the Evansville, Indiana, High Schools, 32 (3) the Administrative Objectives in the Cooperating Schools of California, 33 (4) the Suggested District Organization for Curriculum Study in Texas, 34 and (5) A Central State Curriculum Organization in Virginia. 35 This study does not attempt to present the detailed


33 California State Department of Education, Recent Developments in Secondary Education in California, Bulletin No. 6, October 1, 1936, pp. 1-6.


content of the curricula to be administered in these specific illustrations because the administrative plans with their needs for procedures of execution are of major concern. However, general objectives for the various programs may be listed because of their implications for administrative procedures.

For the illustration of administrative plans for curriculum reorganization in an individual laboratory secondary school, the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School of the University of Florida was selected. The core program set up and followed in this school during the years 1938 and 1939 represented a sincere attempt of the administration and instructors to meet the needs and interests of the students. The philosophy of the P. K. Yonge School is an outgrowth of the belief that schools are maintained to perpetuate and improve society. This improvement, they believe, is to be in the general direction of living in part and striving to live completely the democratic life in the actual daily school life. In order that this improvement of society be facilitated, a maximum development of the individual must be sought by the schools. This development of the individual can best be sought if the following twofold development is recognized: (1) the individual must have an opportunity to develop his capacities and interests to the fullest extent in relation to

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36Tully, op. cit., p. 108.
the problems of his group, and (2) the schools should provide for meeting the common needs of all individuals as participating members of a democratic society.\footnote{Ibid.}

This study, as previously stated, is interested in the administrative features of the secondary school program in the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School. These features, according to the school staff, were designed to be consistent with the philosophy of the school. The attitudes and appreciations which were included within the constant aims of the core curriculum were expressed by the administration as follows:

1. Students shall have a high degree of personal integrity.
2. Students shall have an attitude of cooperation.
3. Students shall respect the rights of others.
4. Students shall have an attitude of critical mindedness.
5. Students shall have an appreciation of the broad culture available in present day society.\footnote{Ibid., p. 109.}

The general criteria used in the selection of learning experiences for this core program based on "areas of living" is of administrative interest. These criteria presented under three separate headings are: "(1) a frame of reference, as determined by certain areas of living and grade approaches; (2) teacher criteria; (3) pupil criteria."\footnote{Ibid., p. 110.} The first criterion was observed in the planning of broad topics for each grade by the instructors based on the areas of living. The plan of broad topics represented the second type of criteria, the teacher criteria. The third type, pupil criteria, took

\footnote{Ibid.}
place after the broad topics were introduced to the students when, through their planning and participation, problems for investigation were selected. During the investigation of selected problems, the students were encouraged to "(1) use a wide range of materials, (2) participate in a variety of activities, and (3) relate the community to the classroom learning experiences."  

This illustration of the attempt to experience a newer type of curriculum on the part of the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School is one example of the jobs confronting school administrators in installing and executing a reorganized curriculum. The need of definite procedures to more effectively plan and administer a curriculum designed for living is voiced by the administrator of the P. K. Yonge School, Professor Tully, when he states that the program organized around the core curriculum for the year 1938 and 1939, was not a completely adequate and satisfactory answer to the challenge to harmonize school functions with school philosophy. He further predicts that the programs for the next years will not be the final answer, but that there will be a continuation of the search for the design of a curriculum consistent with a chosen purpose.  

Whatever the design of the curriculum from year to year, there remains the administrative problem of setting it into operation for satisfactory performance.

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40 Ibid.  
41 Ibid., p. 111.
The second illustration of administrative plans and setups for curriculum revision and development cited in this study is that of the Evansville, Indiana, High Schools. The curriculum revision activity in the secondary schools of Evansville is reported by Harold Spears, Director of Research and Secondary Education of that city, in his book, *Experiences in Building a Curriculum*. The philosophy underlying curriculum revision in Evansville is indicated in the statement, "In a rapidly changing world education ceases to function as a vital force -- and therefore ceases to be education -- unless it proves itself able to meet new conditions."\(^{42}\) In Professor Spears' discussion, "Setting Up the Curriculum Machinery," he begins by saying, "An effective curriculum building program demands effective machinery for the purpose."\(^{43}\) Professor Spears is also of the opinion that it is well to specifically delegate all responsibility at the start, and that it is equally important that as many of the staff as possible be actively engaged in the program. This delegation of responsibility to all members of the staff definitely implies the need of specific cooperative procedures.

Figure 1 shows the administrative plan for the delegation of responsibility among the groups concerned with the program of curriculum development. Department heads and teachers of any subject are invited to look in on the curriculum committees as the program progresses. Professor Spears sum-

\(^{42}\)Spears, *op. cit.*, p. 19.  
\(^{43}\)Ibid., p. 1.
marized the responsibilities delegated to the various individuals and committees in the entire administrative setup for curriculum development. These responsibilities as they were delegated are quoted here because they indicate a need for specific cooperative procedures in performing the tasks. The delegated responsibilities were summarized by Professor Spears as follows:

**Director of Research of Secondary Education:**

1. To work under the direction of the superintendent.
2. To act as director of the program of curriculum development.
3. To select chairmen of the departmental Key Committees, and to aid them in selecting the personnel of the other committees.
4. To make available to the committees literature on curriculum building, courses of study, and other materials needed.
5. To provide a suitable place to work for the committees.
6. To provide for the mimeographing of the courses of study.
7. To conduct any research and experimentation relative to the program, that might be considered advisable by the Director and the Key Committee.
8. To work closely with the Key Committee in study and planning.
9. To aid the Key Committee to install the tentative courses experimentally, here and there in the school system; and to try to evaluate them through supervision, etc.
10. To correlate the programs of all departments by working among them, the principals, and the superintendent.

**High-School Principal:**

1. To act as the professional leader of the faculty, in acquainting them with the program of curriculum building; to keep them informed of the work at every stage; to encourage and assist those members of his staff who are actually engaged in the work.
2. To consider, in principals' meetings, recommendations made by the Key Committee and the Director of Secondary Education, and such matters of general policy as the grade-placement of subjects, graduation requirements, etc.

3. To assist in making contacts, interpreting, and supporting the program with the lay public, he being in closer contact with the public than any other school official.

4. To help in the installation and tryout of new courses.

5. To make necessary adjustments to release teachers from time to time from classroom service to do curriculum work when the need arises.

6. To follow the program closely, and to make recommendations from time to time.

Correlating Committee:

1. To be made up of supervisors, heads of departments, and representatives of departments that have no heads or supervisors. Thus all fields are to be represented. Key chairmen will naturally be members of this committee since they are department heads.

2. Chairman of this committee to be appointed by the superintendent from the department heads.

3. Adviser of this committee to be the Director of Research and Secondary Education.

4. To act as an advisory body and clearinghouse in correlating the entire curriculum building program. For instance, this committee would be interested in such matters as:
   a. A close correlation of departments through proper courses of study and methods.
   b. A consideration of the graduation requirements of one department in respect to the entire school situation.

Chairman, Departmental Key Committee:

1. To be responsible for the development of courses of study in his department, for their installation experimentally, and for revisions in same.

2. To act as chairman of the Key Committee of that department, and as general chairman for all committees under that department.

3. To be responsible to the Director of Research and Secondary Education; to report progress of the work to him from time to time; to present to him general recommendations that must be approved
by the principals, superintendent, etc.; and to report to him the needs of any committee of that department.

4. To hold his position until revision has been completed.

Departmental Key Committees:

1. To be made up of the chairman and representatives from the department in all of the high schools.
2. To analyze present American life needs through the review of studies available.
3. To familiarize themselves with the functions of secondary education accepted for Evansville through the superintendent's efforts.
4. To become familiar with the local environment in which pupils are growing up.
5. To study and evaluate courses and methods being used in the departments locally.
6. To familiarize themselves with the best current practices in teaching methods.
7. To study the abilities, interests, and growth wants of high-school pupils.
8. To acquaint themselves with the curriculum work that has been conducted in the local grade schools.
9. To establish the objectives and the aims of the courses of the department, as a whole, and separately, conferring with each subject-production committee concerning the objectives and aims of that subject.
10. To determine the form of the courses of study.
11. To determine exactly which courses the department will offer, and the grade-placement of each, recommending graduation requirements for the department.
12. To study carefully such problems as will confront the subject-production committees, such as evaluation of texts, evaluation of courses of study, possibilities in visual education, adjusting courses to individual differences, etc.
13. To see that the seventh, eighth, and ninth years form one unit -- a junior high-school unit.
14. To appoint, assist, and supervise the subject-production committees.
15. To see that these committees are supplied with materials.
16. To enlighten these committees on matters relative to the building of courses of study.
17. To correlate the work of all the subject-production committees.

18. To approve and determine final drafts of each course turned out by a production or a revision committee.

19. Department heads on this committee to give special help in the installation and tryout of new courses.

Subject-Production Committee:

1. To be responsible to the chairman of the Key Committee and to any member of the Key Committee delegated to work with this committee.

2. To be made up of a chairman and two or three other members, all appointed by the Key Committee.

3. There is to be one committee for each subject to be offered in the department, generally speaking, but the Key Committee is to work out details.

4. To consider with the Key Committee objectives and aims of the particular subject and grade.

5. To select and arrange content of the course to meet these aims and objectives.

6. To make the studies of other courses, texts, methods, etc., necessary to the building of a course of study.

7. The committees to take in every teacher of the department of all the high schools.

8. To develop the tentative course of study in the subject.

9. To follow the progress of the course as it is tried out.

10. To acquire the broad, social view expressed under the outline for the Key Committee, necessary to useful courses.

11. To know, before work is begun, the possibilities in the full system of instruction.

Revision Committee:

1. To be responsible to the chairman of the Key Committee.

2. To be made up of teachers who have taught the new course of study in tryout form.

3. Membership to be determined by the chairman of the Key Committee.

4. To consider in its revision the reactions of all teachers who have taught the course in tryout form, and the opinions of the original production committee.
Classroom Teacher:

1. To be included eventually on some committee of the curriculum-building program.
2. To feel the responsibility to change in our schools consistent with the change in the world about us.
3. To follow the progress of the program of curriculum building as brought out by the principal, bulletins, and other teachers actually in the work.
4. To familiarize themselves with the best on curriculum building. 44

The third illustration cited to reveal administrative needs for procedures to execute curriculum revision plans is the group of Cooperating Schools in California. These schools are called "Cooperating" because they are participants in experimental curricular programs affiliated with the work of the Commission on the Relation of Secondary School and College of the Progressive Education Association. 45 The list of Cooperating Schools follows:

1. Burbank Senior High School, Burbank.
2. David Starr Jodran High School, Long Beach (senior high school).
3. Eagle Rock Junior-Senior High School, Los Angeles.
4. Benjamin Franklin High School, Los Angeles (four-year high school).
5. James A. Garfield Junior-Senior High School, Los Angeles.
7. Fremont Senior High School, Oakland.
8. University Senior High School, Oakland.
9. Pasadena Senior High School and Junior College, Pasadena (grades eleven to fourteen).

44 Ibid., pp. 3-6.
45 California State Department of Education, Recent Developments in Secondary Education in California, Bulletin No. 6, October 1, 1936, pp. 1-6.
10. Sequoia Union High School, Redwood City (four-year high school).
11. Santa Monica Senior High School, Santa Monica. ⁴⁶

The above listed Cooperating Schools are treated collectively in this study with consideration given to the administrative objectives of the experimental programs in the cooperating schools as stated by the joint staff committee. The objectives common to all of the Cooperating Schools were stated as follows:

1. An organization of the school which permits the conception of education as life to be incorporated into the school program, thus calling for collaboration of teachers, pupils, and community in the interpretation of society and of the individual's rights and responsibilities in that society.

2. An organization which provides for experiences which train the individual to assume responsibility for the improvement of society, in its worldwide, national, and local aspects.

3. An organization which conceives of education as a process of adjustment based on guidance of interests and capacities.

4. An organization which fits the curriculum to the pupil. "The clothes must be made to fit the man," not "The man must be made to fit the clothes."

5. An organization which facilitates the integration of the individual and of the group. ⁴⁷

The need of cooperative procedures to administer these experimental programs is voiced by the administrations of the Cooperating Schools in the following statement: "Administrative officials, centralized departments, principals, teachers, and pupils are collaborating in a redefinition of goals, a study of adolescence, and a selection of activities and experiences for the purpose of setting up that type of

⁴⁶Ibid., p. 4. ⁴⁷Ibid., p. 5.
Fig. 1. -- Administrative Setup for Curriculum Development in the Evansville, Indiana, High Schools. (Taken from Harold Spears, *Experience in Building a Curriculum*, p. 2.)
school environment which, it is hoped, will enable the individual to find his place in society."48

The fourth illustration cited in this study to reveal administrative needs for procedures to install and execute curriculum revision is the suggested district organization for curriculum study in Texas.49 The entire state of Texas is divided into twenty-two districts for the purpose of a complete organization for curriculum study. Figure 2 shows the suggested plan of organization for one district, District 19. Examination of the diagram reveals the personnel included in the setup to be: the Superintendent, the State Director of Curriculum Study, Deputy State Superintendents, District Chairmen, Advisers, Section Chairmen, and local study groups of teachers, Parent-Teacher Associations, and other organizations.

This type of district organization is designed to enlist the cooperation of all forces that affect instruction in the schools, with special emphasis on teacher participation.50 Through the section organization of the various counties, the rural and small high schools have contact with state-wide opportunity for curriculum revision. Such a plan which includes the community, parents, pupils, teachers, ad-

48 Ibid.
49 Texas State Department of Education, Handbook for Curriculum Study, X (September, 1934), 9-32
50 Ibid., p. 48.
Fig. 2. -- Suggested District Organization for Curriculum Study in Texas. (Adapted from Texas State Department of Education, Handbook for Curriculum Study, X, September, 1934, 25.)
ministrators of various ranks, committees, and expert consultants definitely indicates the administration's need of specific cooperative procedures to accomplish the task. A critical analysis of the duties of the various personnel in the organization as listed in the Texas bulletin reveals the need of specific procedures implied in each duty. These duties were listed as follows:

Duties of the Executive Committee:

1. Determine the policies and direct the procedures for the study of the curriculum.
2. Advise with the State Department's Director in the preparation of the Handbook and in the organization of the State study groups.
3. Assist with the study programs in making addresses and securing the services of lecturers from the senior colleges.
4. Receive reports from, and advise with, section chairmen on the programs of study in their respective sections of the State.
5. Work with advisers and division chairmen in the selection of teachers to be considered by the Executive Committee for work on production committees.
6. Determine the principles and aims for the curriculum and select the technique of production.
7. Secure suggestions from school people and laymen as to matters which should be considered in the development of courses of study.
8. Develop detailed plans for continuing the revision during the year 1935-1936.

Duties of the Consultant:

1. Give professional advice to the Executive Committee in all its deliberations.
2. Advise with, and direct, departments of education in the senior colleges in their courses on the curriculum.
3. Direct the work of the committees on principles, aims, procedures, and technique.
4. Advise colleges in the selection of the visiting instructors for courses on the curriculum.
5. Give counsel to the advisers in the various districts.
6. Direct the work of seminar students in handling the materials submitted by the committees on production.
7. Give professional advice to those concerned with the try-out and installation of courses.

Duties of the State Department's Director:

1. Perfect, with the help of the Executive Committee, the organization of the teachers and lay associations for study on the curriculum.
2. Prepare and distribute the Handbook which will serve as a guide for the Texas Program of Curriculum Revision.
3. Assist local study groups in securing material for study and outside lecturers on the curriculum.
4. Prepare and distribute to the various study groups of districts helpful bulletins bearing on the curriculum revision program.
5. Meet with district and local groups.
6. Assist in the arrangement of study plans for local groups and meetings of major divisions.
7. Assist in articulating the study programs of the lay organizations with that of teachers.
8. Together with other members of the Executive Committee, assist in the selection of the teachers for the committees on production.

Duties of District Advisers:

1. Give professional advice to district chairmen regarding the study program.
2. Advise with district chairmen regarding the selection and purchase of minimum library material for study.
3. Advise district and section chairmen on the arrangement and operation of meetings of local and district study groups.
4. Give lectures at meetings and arrange for other speakers.
5. Advise with the Curriculum Consultant and Executive Committee as to the progress of the study program.

Duties of District Chairmen:

1. Divide the district into convenient local units for organization of study groups.
2. With the approval of the Director, select chairmen of local study groups of teachers and lay organizations.

3. Call meetings of local study group chairmen, determine places and dates of meetings and prepare study programs for the year, determining the portions of the Handbook to be covered at each meeting.

4. On advice from local chairmen, notify the Director of the number of copies of the Handbook needed for the district.

5. Distribute copies of the Handbook to chairmen of local study groups of teachers and lay organizations.

6. Advise with local chairmen and district advisers as to securing of minimum library materials for orientation study.

7. Keep the Director informed as to the progress of the study in the sections.

8. Arrange for and conduct general meetings in sections, and, where necessary, communicate with the Director regarding speakers for these meetings.51

The fifth and last specific illustration of jobs to be done by administrators toward curriculum revision cited in this study is that of the administrative organization of the Virginia state curriculum program.52 This program, in its staff's opinion, is an illustration of an organization designed to carry forward a cooperative endeavor to improve classroom instruction on a state-wide basis. Figure 3 shows the diagram of the Virginia state organization.

This organization was developed from the following point of view of the American democratic concept:

51 Ibid., pp. 29-31.

Fig. 3. -- A Central State Curriculum Organization in Virginia. (Taken from the Virginia State Board of Education, Organization for Virginia State Curriculum Program, March, 1932, p. 17, quoted by Hollis L. Caswell and Doak S. Campbell, Curriculum Development, p. 519.)
1. The American system of free public schools has been developed to assist in perpetuating, improving, and realizing democratic ideals. The entire school program should be projected to this end. The school should be democratic, not only in its instructional program, but also in its organization and method.

2. Democratic ideals can be realized only as democracy is seen to be a way of living. Consequently, the school must guide pupils in the development of types of behavior compatible with democratic ideals.53

Upon this democratic philosophy the administrative organization of the Virginia plan was designed to include the various personnel shown in Figure 3 to accomplish the following major objectives:

1. To improve classroom instruction in Virginia by encouraging teachers, through study of their own curriculum problems, to provide children with richer and more purposeful experience in the classroom.

2. To aid teachers in developing division courses of study especially adapted to their own needs.

3. To develop State courses of study.

In order that these major objectives may be achieved, the State Program proposes to:

1. Provide the services of specialists to the division and State production committees.


3. Organize curriculum centers around the State teacher training institutions for the purpose of offering courses in curriculum construction and of providing expert advice to the divisions on their curriculum work.54


54 Caswell and Campbell, op. cit., p. 518.
Some Needs for Cooperative Procedures to Administer Plans for Revision

From the foregoing data, describing the five specific illustrations of administrative setups for curriculum revision, an analysis of the listed objectives and duties of the various administrative units was made in an attempt to determine the nature of procedures implied in their administration. The term "nature" is used here to indicate the possibility of both autocratic and democratic educational philosophy and practice. The analysis of listed objectives and duties was approached with a twofold purpose: (1) to discover in the administration's stated educational philosophy and objectives a preference for democracy or autocracy, and (2) to detect whether or not the procedures implied in their specific duties and responsibilities were democratic or autocratic.

In checking the general educational philosophy of the several administrative staffs, the basic educational philosophy accepted by the Committee on Secondary Education for the Society for Curriculum Study, reported by Samuel Everett, was used as the measuring stick. The philosophy, as stated by Everett, is as follows:

1. The curriculum consists of all the experiences of pupils under the influence of the school.
2. Education is the development of personality.
3. Progress is realized through guiding social change by intelligent human effort and choice.
4. All education has its orientation in the ideals of the culture and of the epoch in which it exists (American secondary education has its orientation in the ideals of democracy).\(^{55}\)

An attempt was made to define more specifically the fourth fundamental principle listed above concerning the orientation of education in democracy. The goals of education for citizenship submitted by the 1938 Yearbook Commission of the American Association of School Administrators were accepted as criteria for judging the aims of citizenship education listed by the five administrative organizations for curriculum revision. These goals of education for citizenship are as follows:

1. An intelligent appreciation of democratic institutions.
2. Proper methods of action which are of special significance in a democracy.
3. Willingness and the ability to cooperate effectively in a democratic society.
4. The progressive development of the democratic ideal.\(^{56}\)

In all five of the illustrations cited, the administration's statements of fundamental philosophy for education in democracy were in agreement with the above stated philosophy and goals of education for citizenship, thereby voicing a preference for the school's orientation in democracy rather than in autocracy.


In the analysis to determine the nature of procedures implied in the more detailed duties and responsibilities of the administrative personnel, evidence of this democratic philosophy was noted. However, there was also evidence of authoritarian philosophy and practice in contradiction to the point of view stated by the staff. For instance, in the setup for Evansville, Indiana, one duty of the Director of Research was, "To correlate the programs of all departments by working among them, the principals, and the superintendent."\textsuperscript{57} This correlation by means of "working among" implies, to the writer, democratic procedure. On the other hand, in the same list of duties of the Director appears this one, "To work under the direction of the superintendent."\textsuperscript{58} The restriction of working "under" the superintendent implies, to the writer, the authoritative position of the superintendent. Other examples of implied autocratic procedures exist in the various setups studied.

The analysis of the underlying philosophy and the various duties of the five administrations cited revealed these generalizations: (1) the administrative staffs accept revision toward the same fundamental educational philosophy of a more life-like curriculum based on the individual child's needs, interests, and abilities in the light of democratic society; (2) many procedures implied in the setups

\textsuperscript{57}Spears, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 3. \quad \textsuperscript{58}Ibid.
are becoming more democratic in nature; and (3) many other procedures and philosophies implied in the setup remain authoritarian in nature. Consequently, from the foregoing generalizations the following observations are extended: (1) there is definite need for cooperative procedures to administer curriculum revision where democratic ideals and methods are sought by the administration, and (2) there is definite need for democratic cooperative procedures to replace the autocratic ones existing in a professed-to-be democratic school organization.

The findings in the foregoing analysis bear out the situation voiced by Professor Courtis, of the University of Michigan, in his statement after a recent survey that the traditions of American education are authoritarian in character. "Educators profess to believe in democracy, preach democracy, and resent being called dictatorial, but the fact remains that American schools are autocratic to the core."59 Professor Courtis admits that many of the harsh, autocratic disciplinary relationships that once were general have been greatly improved, but he finds that instructional, supervisory, and administrative practices are still largely autocratic in form and spirit. In his survey made by means of questionnaires, he received replies from 457 superintendents and 1,453

teachers in fifty-five school systems in twenty-two states. Both administrators and teachers believe wholeheartedly in the principles of democratic government and cooperative procedures, but when their statements are phrased to indicate school practices and to reveal the degree to which cooperative methods are actually used, the responses fell far below their beliefs and desires. Professor Courtis states the need for administrative cooperative procedures very concisely as follows:

Tradition has kept American schools autocratic. Now that educators have assumed the responsibility for saving democracy through the schools, they must invent new methods for applying cooperative procedures not only in classrooms, but also in the most vital of administrative actions and policy determinations.60

Summary

A brief summary of this chapter of the study, dealing with the analysis of administrative needs for democratic procedures in executing curriculum revision, recalls that the chapter included an examination of data which were discussed under these headings: (1) The General Status of Curriculum Revision, (2) Specific Illustrations of Administrative Plans for Curriculum Development, and (3) Some Specific Administrative Needs for Cooperative Procedures.

From the study of data in the field, the following generalizations are made relative to these divisions of the

60 Ibid.
problem:

1. Curriculum revision is definitely and markedly on the increase.

2. The American people have witnessed a greater development in curriculum revision during the last decade than in previous history.

3. This activity in curriculum revision is resultant of the realization that the traditional curriculum is inadequate in educating modern youth for personal happiness and creative citizenship in American democracy.

4. The life-centered curriculum is sought by administrators to develop youth through individuation, socialization, integration, specialization, dynamic approach, and guidance.

5. In developing youth to be socially capable Americans, secondary education has its orientation in the ideals of democracy.

6. If pupils are to be educated for democracy and are to prefer democracy as a way of life, the schools which train them must embody this doctrine in every phase of its action.

7. The embodiment of democratic action in all phases of the educational system implies the challenge to administrators to use democratic techniques in curriculum revision.

8. From various responsibilities analyzed in five selected administrative plans for curriculum revision, there
is evidence of need for specific democratic procedures to effectively administer the programs.
CHAPTER III

THE NATURE OF EDUCATION AND ADMINISTRATIVE PROCEDURES IMPLIED IN THE PHILOSOPHY OF AMERICAN DEMOCRACY

Introduction

In the preceding chapter a study was made of the general status of curriculum revision which revealed a nation-wide interest and increasing activity in curriculum development. This activity is thought to be an attempt to span the gap between the school curriculum and the content of contemporary American civilization.

Out of this wide-spread curriculum revision activity some specific illustrations of administrative plans and set-ups were cited. In the analysis of these specific illustrations, it was discovered that the various administrations voiced their acceptance of certain general educational aims and philosophies. Among these accepted general aims is the administration of a curriculum designed from the life of the American children as they live with the rest of the American people. In the further analysis of the duties and responsibilities of the various personnel and units in the administrative setups, needs were revealed for democratic procedures
to perform these responsibilities in the revision programs.

The need for such procedures to be democratic in practice was expressed by administrators in their belief that education is dependent on democracy, and the perpetuation of democracy is dependent on education. Consequently, a school, to be effective in democracy, should be democratic in every phase of its operation. This implies the use of procedures which are consistent with the fundamental philosophy of American democracy. It is the purpose of this chapter to examine the nature of education and its administrative procedures implied in American democracy. In order to do this, it is logical that we examine the fundamental philosophy underlying American democracy. From this philosophy certain implications for education and educational procedures are drawn.

The Fundamental Philosophy Underlying American Democracy

Before discussing the fundamental principles in the philosophy of American democracy, let us recall briefly its origin, because the occasion and necessity for formulating any political belief affords an insight into its underlying philosophy. During colonial days in the 1760's there was already a democratic party in Virginia led by Patrick Henry with Richard Henry Lee and George Mason as lieutenants.¹ The strength of this party came from the twenty-one western

¹Herbert Agar, Pursuit of Happiness, p. 33.
counties and from minority groups in the conservative East. To these Westerners democracy was not only the right way of life; it was the only thinkable way of life. Jefferson, a Westerner, grew up in Patrick Henry's party, but because his mother was a Randolph, he also had the advantage of the best education the colonies could afford in fashionable William and Mary. After seven years at the college, Jefferson was ready to take his part in the first well-led democratic movement in America.

Jefferson's philosophy and convictions of democracy were expressed in his draft for Virginia's new constitution in 1776. The draft was not accepted because it was too radical even for Patrick Henry. He asked for a House in which the representation should be in proportion to population, and in which the representatives should be elected annually by the people. This House would elect the Senate and the Governor, thus giving final power to the people. When the draft was not accepted, Jefferson resigned from the Congress to go home and be sent to the Virginia House of Delegates. There in person he fought for his liberal proposals. He did away with entail; he abolished primogeniture and was partly successful in removing the privileges of the established church. But he failed in his two remaining efforts -- to secure a system of free public schools and to secure the gradual abolition of slavery. Jefferson felt that without free schooling

\[\text{Ibid.}, \ p. \ 34.\]
democracy would not have a fair chance to justify itself; and without the abolishment of slavery, the freedom-loving democrats would one day find themselves the defenders of an especially undemocratic form of property privilege.  

In 1776, as a member of the Congress, Jefferson made his first decisive contribution when he drafted the Declaration of Independence, which is the concrete expression of the philosophy of American democracy. The formulations of the spirit of democracy found in the original frames of reference, the Declaration of Independence, may be generalized as follows:

1. That Democracy is based upon "respect for personality"; each individual is sovereign in his right to think and choose for himself. The function of personality is to evaluate distinctively. His sovereignty, however, must in no way obscure his social obligations.

2. That the purpose of life is the "pursuit of happiness."

3. That each individual has a right to choose his own method of pursuing happiness.

4. That in a democracy government is merely a tool for achieving life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.

5. That in a democracy all power resides in, and comes from, the people.

6. That a particular form of government which once was effective, may become destructive of the purposes for which it was established.

7. That the pursuit of happiness involves the continuous search for better ways of achieving happiness.

8. That the continuous modification of the form of government is the means by which improvement is made effective.  

Thus the philosophy of Thomas Jefferson is the foundation

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3Ibid., p. 35.

4Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, Teachers and Cooperation, p. 45.
on which rests the democratic institutions of America. Democracy did not come to the American people without a struggle, for there were men in the Constitutional Convention who thought in terms of governmental authority and power and not in terms of human rights. Jefferson was keenly disappointed that while he was in France in diplomatic service the convention failed to include a Bill of Rights for the protection of the people against the abuse of power. The early emigrants came from countries where their lives had been regulated in detail by their governments. Consequently, in their new environment where they were to shift for themselves and were responsible for their own destinies, their conception of government was of something which might interfere with the freedom of the individual.

This resentment of the attempt to convert the government into an agency for the benefit of the favored few at the expense of the many led directly to very ardent convictions concerning justice, a fundamental democratic postulate. Justice is interpreted in American democratic philosophy as rendering to everyone his due. The aim of justice

5Ellis Meredith, Democracy at the Crossroads, p. 246.
6Ibid., p. 247.
8Meredith, op. cit., pp. 249-250.
insures to each personality that his rights will be protected against encroachment by the group on the one hand, and against exploitation by more powerful individuals on the other. Government is organized in a democracy to insure justice to all.\textsuperscript{9}

It is an old story that to the blindfolded goddess with the scales justice is a form of equality. For her bandaged eyes, qualitative differences do not exist, and only the balance of opposing quantities measures its essence. Professor Swabey asks:

\textbf{In what does this equivalence consist? In equal amounts of wealth, labor, honor or political power? Is it straight numerical equality or one of ratios that is meant? And is the relation the same throughout its political, legal, social, and economic applications?}\textsuperscript{10}

To these questions democratic theory should have some answer, for not only is the essence of justice the demand for equality, but democracy is founded on the same demand.\textsuperscript{11}

In the democratic movement of the eighteenth century, the demand for justice centered in the claim for political equality in simple numerical sense.\textsuperscript{12} It was believed if this was once gained, general betterment of humanity would follow.

\textsuperscript{9}Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, \textit{Teachers and Cooperation}, p. 46.


\textsuperscript{11}Chester C. Maxey, \textit{Political Philosophies}, p. 43.

\textsuperscript{12}Swabey, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 157.
Following the apparent failure of political equality to accomplish justice, new prophets arose. In the nineteenth century men like Proudhon and Marx came forward to point out the inconsistency in this republican ideal and the functioning of certain economic postulates. The old system of wealth and ownership had been accepted on its own terms and was transferred intact into what was intended to be a new social order.\textsuperscript{13} Thus, down to the present day, American democracy is facing the same problem of compromising justice with economic inequality.

From the democratic standpoint, the function of the state in promoting economic justice is much like that of an umpire in a game. This means that the participants are admitted to a fair start as far as possible on equal terms and that the rules are enforced on all alike.\textsuperscript{14} The democratic postulate of men's equality does not mean their works are equal or are to be equally rewarded. The primary duty of the state would seem to be to remove handicaps, to free men's abilities for their fullest expression, and to do this in the same measure for all.

Of the two basic notions of justice in pervading thought, one maintains its strict numerical equality. According to this view, the fairest way to judge persons is on many counts devoid of relevant differences.\textsuperscript{15} On the other hand, the

\textsuperscript{13} Ibid., p. 158.  \textsuperscript{14} Ibid., pp. 170-172.  \textsuperscript{15} Ibid., pp. 173-5.
equivalence implied in justice may be construed as one of proportion rather than of round numbers. For though justice demands that equal persons be equally rewarded, it no less requires that unequals shall fare unequally. The distinction between numerical and proportional justice is really that between the formal and the empirical views of human nature. The one argues that since men are numerically equal, they should share alike; the other, starting from men's obvious empirical differences, reasons that they should be rewarded according to the degree of their inequalities. Both agree that justice implies uniformity of treatment.

From the democratic postulate of justice we pass to a brief discussion of another fundamental philosophy in American democracy, that of the meaning of "free and equal" and its implications for the respect of personality. This liberty and sovereignty of the individual has been jealously guarded by the American people from the first inauguration of government. Jefferson challenged the theory that governments are masters and men but inanimate cogs in the machinery of state. His counter claim was that men are masters, and governments are but instrumentalities created by the people for the people's service. In early American history there were social controls, but they were exercised through the community, not through governmental agencies. This shows

\[16\] Meredith, op. cit., p. 248.
itself in the tradition of local self-government, of state rights, and of the system of checks and balances written into the Constitution.17

The contrast between the initial conception of government as an institution for the performance of police functions and the actual necessities which confront our modern democratic government calls for some consideration of the distinctive quality given to American life by the ideas of freedom and equality. In the earlier communities the term "democracy" took on certain references which were not primarily political or governmental in character.18 The individual possessed which did not mean he could do as he pleased, but that no individual persons were placed in positions of authority over him. He was "free and equal" as a member of his community, privileged to share in the way of life maintained by the community on equal terms with everybody else. The chief function of government was to see that this arrangement was not disturbed from the outside. In the course of time certain standards of equality with respect to the right to vote and to hold office were applied more widely in the extension of suffrage to the colored race and to women.

The meaning of "free and equal" in its application to

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18 Bode, Democracy as a Way of Life, pp. 36-37.
community living presented very little practical difficulty. However, in later applications the requirements of health are supposed to be satisfied if our population can enjoy the fullest life. The requirements of education are supposed to be satisfied if young people are to have the mental equipment to adjust themselves to their physical and social environments. The requirements of economic justice are supposed to be satisfied if every person has the opportunity to maintain for himself a living wage. This is done in the name of freedom and equality. It was Jefferson who gave us the slogan, "Equal rights for all, special privileges for none." Decade by decade it has been recited more and more, but decade by decade it has become less applicable to the life around us. If all men are to have equal rights and none are to have special privileges, it will be necessary to build a society where there is more economic justice than America has yet seen.

Inherent in the democratic postulate of freedom and equality is the respect for personality. Democracy began in history as a government by the people in protest of the many against arbitrary rule of one man or of a favored few. Informed human personality always sooner or later rejects

19 Ibid., p. 38.
20 Agar, op. cit., p. 41.
21 Ibid., p. 42.
tyranny. The study of democracy results in a study of associated living which leads to ethics and the proper relationship of the individual to the group. The Egyptians first conceived justice as applying to men as men. Christianity founded itself on both Egyptian and Greek achievement, stressing the sanctity of the individual with emphasis on the good intents of the heart. Modern science gave man a new faith in himself and so "expanded and implemented the rising significance of individuality with a still greater stress on freedom of thinking." 

American democracy has in its philosophy the potentiality of balanced personalities. Contrasted to the idea of the physical term "balance" which is said to be static equilibrium is the spinning top which illustrates dynamic equilibrium. Thus security and adventure are knit together. The balanced personality stands firm in the midst of stress and strain. Only when tested by strain can a personality know the degree of its stability. The mentally balanced person is ready to entertain a new idea intelligently and unemotionally. Democracy seeks fullest development of the individual. This respect for personality allows freedom to learn, to teach,

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23 Ibid., p. 84.
25 Ibid., p. 90.
to speak, to write, and to assemble with others.  

The only limitation of freedom is found in the goal of common good. The lack of freedom of individuals is due to the failure of others to respect them. This respect for personality rests on two principles -- worthwhileness of the individual and the importance of seeking his fullest development. Selfishness and democracy are mutual exclusives as regards respect for personality and demands that thinking and acting be normally joined together in the same person. Otherwise some form or degree of slavery develops. There can be no effectual respect for personality except as the individual is allowed to develop into the best that he may become. This equality of opportunity stands perhaps closest to the very heart of democracy.

Having explored the rights and respect for individual personality in the postulated doctrine of "free and equal," we now turn to examine the principle of "government by the people." The first need of any group of sovereign personalities who wish to work together effectively is to develop such an awareness, each of the other's natures, needs, and purposes, that as a group they may achieve unity in thought and action. "E Pluribus Unum," out of many one, is the way

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28 Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, Teachers and Cooperation, p. 46.
this purpose is expressed on our coins. Therefore, the supreme goal, as well as the supreme obligation, of individuals in a democracy is to grow ever toward a more perfect union with others.

Unity is social in emphasis. A democratic state derives its just powers from the consent of the governed. To find out the popular will in a democracy we must not, as in a dictatorship, begin by presupposing by a special framework of assumptions what that will is. To secure the conditions of genuine freedom of expression means to establish what amounts to the requisites of a fair game of chance. Consequently, any outcome must be possible of realization. Such a logic is alone adequate to democracy in which the larger social whole is treated as a complex aggregate of units which are basically alike.

The general will is discussed by Professor Smith in his book, Beyond Conscience, as being the metaphysical implementation of conscience. He says that the heart of democratic theory is here at stake and that hallowed phrase of democracy, "the voice of the people," is an accurate enough equivalent for what Rousseau, prophet and friend of modern democracy, sought to describe as the general will. In

31 T. V. Smith, Beyond Conscience, pp. 141-143.
32 Ibid., p. 141.
this belief Rousseau held that individual conscience, which is the will for the good, is the general will individualized.

The pragmatic evidence of the accomplishment of goals held by "the good general-will" has been challenged by modern writers too numerous to mention here. There seems to be an opinion that the Constitution of the United States of America, a compromise between Jeffersonian liberalism and Hamiltonian property interest, has held together a variety of immigrants busily exploiting a rich continent. Now that exploitation has reached the natural boundaries, the limitations of "the government by the people" are becoming more evident. The story of the Democratic Party shows our people deliberately allowing private property to become a system which provides great wealth for few, moderate wealth for many, and destitution for millions. The government by the people passed the laws to make it possible, the courts interpreted the laws so as to make it easy, and the people consented. The philosophy of freedom, democracy, equal rights, general welfare, justice, and security implied in the original frame of reference are, to say the least, inconsistent with the property system of present-day America.

In scientific and material development the advances of the last century outdistanced imagination but the general

33 Wendell Thomas, A Democratic Philosophy, p. 116.
34 Agar, op. cit., p. 360.
welfare continually escapes us. The Federal Trade Commission reported our aggregate annual income for 1928 at about $80,000,000,000. To describe is not to undermine America, but merely to remind us that American genius and idealism survive. There is yet time for realization of America's objectives to approximate equality of opportunities and ever-advancing welfare for all. For in any nation which achieves both social unity and individual justice, the spirit of harmony will become general and each person will be free to enjoy to the utmost the fruits of his efforts to pursue happiness. In this government by the people, then, the causes which give rise to discipline, the purpose to be achieved by it, and the methods and agents by which it is administered, must be decided upon by the people as a whole. Thus unity and general welfare are expressions of the democratic conception of the brotherhood of man.

We become anxious when the American situation is summarized as: "Abundant resources; a great deal of technical equipment; a tremendous amount of technical skill; man power without; and yet want and privation in the midst of plenty."

37 Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, Teachers and Cooperation, p. 46.
38 Ibid., p. 47.
The fact that modern democracy confronts the problem of property beyond all else is no cause for surprise. It is not merely because the unfavored classes are awaking at last to their deprivation and suffering and consequently are aroused to demand their rights, not merely that machine production requires armies of consumers, but because democracy means control by the middle range of the population. 40 Apparently, then, a definite challenge faces the people whom the government represents. Louise Armstrong, author of We Too Are the People, makes this statement:

My thought is that, no matter what political party rules, no matter how or by whom legislation or plans for the betterment of our social order are made, real progress toward social justice cannot be achieved as long as the ethical standards of our people remain unchanged. 41

The encouraging element in the situation lies in the fact that democracy as a form of government has within it the potential solution of difficult problems if its constituents will afford themselves the opportunity of working at the basis of the trouble. This potentiality of solution lies within the philosophy of change which is inherent in the democratic way of life. 42 Democracy recognizes no hierarchy of truth for constant and critical study of experience as the guide to values. The core values are the

40 Swabey, op. cit., pp. 228-229.
41 Quoted by Agar, op. cit., p. 363.
42 Melby, op. cit., pp. 196-199.
human values wherein a thing is good when good for man, aggregate and individuals. Science progresses as the handmaiden of democracy to furnish techniques for analyzing experience and evaluating devices and procedures. Only a changing society can take advantage of new and accumulated knowledge. If effectively administered, "of the people, by the people, for the people," American democracy can be a self-repairing society.  

The philosophy of American democracy was summarized by Charles E. Merriam in his article, "The Assumptions of Democracy." These assumptions quoted by him are as follows:

1. An assumption of the doctrine of democracy is that of the essential dignity of all men and the importance of protecting and cultivating personality primarily on a fraternal rather than on a differential basis.
2. It is assumed that there is a constant trend in human affairs toward the perfectability of mankind.
3. It is assumed that the gains of commonwealths are essentially mass gains and should be diffused through the mass by whom they are created as rapidly and as fairly as possible.
4. The next assumption is the desirability of popular control in the last analysis over basic questions of policy and direction, with recognized procedures for the formulation of such policies and their execution.
5. The next assumption is that of confidence in the possibility of conscious social change, accomplished by consent rather than by political violence.

In conclusion of this portion of the study dealing with

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43 Ibid.

the fundamental philosophy underlying American democracy, several democratic postulates formulated in the Declaration of Independence and amplified in the Preamble to the Constitution have been discussed. These postulates include: justice, equality, personal freedom, social control, respect for individual personality, pursuit of happiness, unity, general welfare, security, and provision for change. This examination of the American philosophy of democratic life and government as revealed in the original frames of reference was made to establish the characteristics of the American civilization which its schools are to perpetuate.

In the perpetuation of democracy there is a twofold challenge facing the American people: (1) the gains of Fascism abroad, and (2) the imminent danger of special interests to democracy at home.45 These dangers reveal that real democratic government cannot be brought about merely by establishing constitutional guaranties of liberty and by providing the machinery of suffrage. There still remains the more fundamental problems of educating the people to an understanding and of participation in their collective affairs. Consequently, in the general plan for American education, consideration must be given to the nature of American culture.46

45 Rugg, American Life and the School Curriculum, p. 13.
46 Dix, op. cit., p. 9.
The Nature of Education
in American Democracy

Having reviewed the fundamental philosophy inherent in American democracy as the source of the roots for the educational system, it is now the purpose of the study to examine the nature of the outgrowing education as revealed by data in reports of committees and other sources of printed material.

The nature of education in American democracy is analyzed because of its implications for the administrative procedures used in the system. From the analysis of needs for democratic procedures made in Chapter II, it will be recalled that the administrations of the specific setups cited accepted the social orientation of education to be in democracy. In seeking procedures which are to be consistent with democratic educational administration, it is logical that the characteristics of the educational system will be studied in the following arrangement: (1) the function of education in American democracy, (2) the scope of the public project, and (3) the structure of the system.

Introductory to the discussion of the function of education in American democracy, it is recalled that in the foregoing part of this chapter the fundamental postulates inherent in American democratic government were examined. Within these postulates the nature of American education is reflected; and, therefore, "in any realistic definition of education for the
United States, must appear the whole philosophy and practice of democracy.  

The reports of the Educational Policies Commission offer concise data concerning the function and purpose of education in American democracy. In their report for 1937, prepared by Dr. Charles A. Beard, *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy*, there are five principles quoted as imperative bearings by which to chart the rediscovering of the task of education. These principles are:

1. Public education is anchored in the history of American civilization and at any given moment operates within the accumulated heritage of that civilization.
2. Every system of thought and practice in education is formulated with some reference to the ideas and interests dominant or widely cherished in society at the time of its formulation.
3. Once created and systematized, any program of educational thought and practice takes on professional changes in the society in which it assumed its original shape.
4. Any restatement of educational objectives and responsibilities which is rooted in reality takes into account the nature of professional obligations and makes adjustments to cope with the major changes wrought in society since the last general reckoning in education.
5. Any statement of educational objectives and responsibilities that is not merely theoretical involves a quest for the institutional forms and operating practices through which education can best attain its ends.  

The function of education as it is anchored in the history of American civilization is revealed in the fact that

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48 Ibid., pp. 6-7.
democracy and education have developed together. "Out of the historical development of American society have come the ideas, aspirations, knowledge, and working rules which prevail today and set the task of education." 49

A brief historical review of the beginning of the American educational system recalls the fact that education was considered in the Constitutional Convention of 1787. George Washington advocated national aids to education, and Thomas Jefferson made education a primary interest. One biographer said that Jefferson was the first conspicuous advocate, in this country, of centralization of education, being a firm believer in state aid to higher institutions of learning and free education in the common schools supported by local taxation. "To him the schoolhouse was the fountain-head of happiness, prosperity, and good government, and education was a holy cause." 50 Jefferson's educational objectives for secondary schools are quoted here as evidence of the function of education interpreted by him from his democratic idea of civilization. It is interesting to recall that his plan for education was rejected as being too liberal at that time. The ends to be attained in education, according to Jefferson, were:

1. To give every citizen the information he needs for the transaction of his own business;
2. To enable him to calculate for himself, and to express and preserve his ideas, his contracts, and accounts, in writing;

49 Ibid., p. 9. 50 Ibid., p. 20.
3. To improve, by reading, his morals and faculties;  
4. To understand his duties to his neighbors and 
country, and to discharge with competence the 
functions confided to him by either;  
5. To know his rights; to exercise with order and 
justice those he retains; to choose with discre-
tion the fiduciary of those he delegates; and to 
otice their conduct with diligence, with candor 
and judgment;  
6. And, in general, to observe with intelligence and 
faithfulness all the social relations under which 
he shall be placed.51  

Thus, from the days of Jefferson down to the present 
time we have seen that before the objectives of education can 
be stated, people must decide which social policies are to 
claim their allegiance.52 Professor Newlon states that there 
is no escaping the conclusions that all education proceeds 
of necessity within some frame of reference.53 Dewey stresses 
importance of the time and place element in the function of 
education in his statement: "The conception of education as 
a social process and function has no definite meaning until 
we find the kind of society we have in mind."54  

The Function of Education in 
American Democracy  

Dr. Dewey's philosophy of education is grounded in the 
democratic conception. Because of his profound influence 
on redefining the nature of modern education and its func-
tion in democracy, his major meanings of the democratic ideal  

51Ibid., p. 22.  
52Educational Policies Commission, The Purposes of Edu-
cation in American Democracy, p. 7.  
53Newlon, Education for Democracy in Our Time, p. 87.  
and their implications for education are briefly reviewed here.

First, Dr. Dewey believes that the democratic attempt to embody the principle of individual within social relationships implies that in the determination of the educational program the individual child's present experiences, uniqueness, and felt needs and interests are to play their important part.\(^{55}\)

Second, because of the democratic conception implied in a society that individuals enjoy the status of ends, and institutions the status of means, Dr. Dewey believes the growth of this actual individual is the final end of all educational activity. This implies the provision of equal opportunity, and consequently, genuine educational opportunity for all children, regardless of race, religion, or the occupation of parents.\(^{56}\)

Third, the democratic principle that each individual be treated as an end signifies that the individual must be educated so that he shall be competent to judge of values. The individual must have knowledge of life-conditions and institutions to be intelligent about values. These phases of life are scientific, technological, economic, political, domestic, cultural, and religious.\(^{57}\)

Fourth, Dr. Dewey believes that since democratic society implies a plurality of groups and a distribution of power, it

\(^{55}\)Ibid. \(^{56}\)Ibid., p. 442. \(^{57}\)Ibid.
is not compatible with a totalitarian state in which all forms of power are concentrated in one political party. Therefore, "since a democratic society repudiates the principle of external authority, it must find a substitute in voluntary disposition and interest; these can be created only by education."\footnote{Ibid.}

Fifth, Dr. Dewey's interest in democracy emphasizes the importance of method in education. He believes that in a society composed of many diverse interest groups where power is distributed among all of its members, conflicts of interest and value arise. Therefore democracy has great need for a method for the resolution of conflict -- because it cannot make adjustments by external authority, or by the application of fixed standards and remain a democratic society. Dr. Dewey has sought to organize the school so as to give the young actual experience in the process of making adjustments by the method of inquiry, discussion, conference, and the principle of majority rule.\footnote{Ibid., p. 443.}

And finally, Dr. Dewey feels that present conditions in American society are such as to constitute a real threat to our democratic heritage. Equality of opportunity has been destroyed in the economic sphere because of concentrated wealth in the hands of a small class. He concludes that both democracy and education demand that the anarchy of the present competitive profit economy be supplanted by a planning
society in which production is democratically controlled for the good of all. It is Dr. Dewey's faith that this social transformation can be achieved by cooperative, peaceful economic and political means, provided education can be kept free to carry on its function of criticism and construction.\(^{60}\)

Many groups of educators working as national committees on the problem of redefining education in American democracy voice the foregoing generalizations drawn from Dewey's philosophy. The Commission on Educational Interpretation of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association in their Fifteenth Yearbook, \textit{The Improvement of Education, Its Interpretation for Democracy}, agree that any adequate program of improvement and interpretation of American public education must rest upon four foundation stones. These foundation stones are quoted by them as follows:

1. Democracy -- the American social ideal.
2. The present social scene.
3. Processes of social change and the relationship of public opinion and propaganda to social change.
4. A long-time educational program for realizing the democratic ideal in social life with economic, political, educational, and religious freedom for the American people.\(^{61}\)

From the foregoing opinions of recognized educators, there is agreement that the school should be thought of as a social institution established, supported, and maintained by society for its own purpose. While benefiting all in-

\(^{60}\)Ibid., p. 443.

individuals who attend it, its primary responsibility is to the interests of society. Dr. Suzallo, formerly president of the University of Washington, said shortly before his death, "The fruits of the educative process ought to be more public than private."

In studying the nature of education in American democracy, it has been indicated that its social foundations are of extreme importance. To analyze further the implications for education of these social foundations, various reports of national committees, individual philosophies, and other pertinent literature in the field was examined.

Many years ago John Dewey said, "What nutrition and reproduction are to physiological life, education is to social life." Although the true school conceived as an institution designed for the more or less prolonged and systematic instruction of some portion of the younger generation may be traced back three or four thousand years, only in recent times has it touched directly any large part of the population. With the advance of industrial society the school has expanded with great rapidity until today it occupies the position of a major social institution.

Within the social foundations of education two points of

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63Democracy and Education, p. 12.
view may be regarded. One deals with the relation of the school to society and the other with the relation of the school to the individual being educated. These two considerations are often thought to be inconsistent and confusing; however, between the interests of society and those of the individual there need be no occasion for serious conflict. From a broad viewpoint, the welfare of the individual and the welfare of society are almost identical in the American social organization, for the welfare of the truly democratic society can be measured only in terms of the total gains of all individuals. "Benefits must be mass benefits, passed on to all members of society as widely and quickly as possible."

The source of the social foundation of American education was referred to in a previous portion of this chapter of the study as being the original frame of reference, the Declaration of Independence. It is the purpose of the study at this time to recall briefly a few broad generalizations of these minimum essentials of democracy as a general description of democratic ways of living which are indispensable in any discussion or statement of educational purposes.

The generalizations of the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association in their report, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, are accepted

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Because of the discussion in the beginning of the chapter on the above named fundamental philosophies of American democracy, the Commission's examination of each of these five ideals of democratic conduct will not be recalled at this time. After their examination of the five ideals they conclude that "the general end of education in America at the present time is the fullest possible development of the individual within the framework of our present industrialized democratic society."  

Four aspects of educational purpose were identified by the Commission centering around the person himself, his relationships to others in the home and community, the creation and use of material wealth, and socio-civic activities. The educational objectives further explaining the above named areas are quoted from the Commissioner's report because of their interpretation of the nature of education in American democracy. The following four groups of objectives are identified by the Commission:

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68 Ibid., p. 41.

69 Ibid., p. 47.
1. The Objectives of Self-Realization:

The Inquiring Mind. The educated person has an appetite for learning.

Speech. The educated person can speak the mother tongue clearly.

Reading. The educated person reads the mother tongue efficiently.

Writing. The educated person writes the mother tongue effectively.

Number. The educated person solves his problems of counting and calculating.

Sight and Hearing. The educated person is skilled in listening and observing.

Health Knowledge. The educated person understands the basic facts concerning health and disease.

Health Habits. The educated person protects his own health and that of his dependents.

Public Health. The educated person works to improve the health of the community.

Recreation. The educated person is participant and spectator in many sports and other pastimes.

Intellectual Interests. The educated person has mental resources for the use of leisure.

Esthetic Interests. The educated person appreciates beauty.

Character. The educated person gives responsible direction to his own life.  

2. The Objectives of Human Relationship:

Respect for Humanity. The educated person puts human relationship first.

Friendships. The educated person enjoys a rich, sincere, and varied social life.

Cooperation. The educated person can work and play with others.

Courtesy. The educated person observes the amenities of social behavior.

Appreciation of the Home. The educated person appreciates the family as a social institution.

Conservation of the Home. The educated person conserves family ideals.

Homemaking. The educated person is skilled in homemaking.

Democracy in the Home. The educated person maintains democratic family relationships.  

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70 Ibid., p. 50.  
71 Ibid., p. 72.
3. The Objectives of Economic Efficiency:

Work. The educated producer knows the satisfaction of good workmanship.
Occupational Information. The educated producer understands the requirements and opportunities for various jobs.
Occupational Choice. The educated producer has selected his occupation.
Occupational Efficiency. The educated producer succeeds in his chosen vocation.
Occupational Adjustment. The educated producer appreciates the social value of his work.
Personal economics. The educated consumer plans the economics of his own life.
Consumer Judgment. The educated consumer develops standards for guiding his expenditures.
Efficiency in Buying. The educated consumer is an informed and skillful buyer.
Consumer Protection. The educated consumer takes appropriate measures to safeguard his interests. 72

4. The Objectives of Civic Responsibility:

Social Justice. The educated citizen is sensitive to the disparities of human circumstance.
Social Activity. The educated citizen acts to correct unsatisfactory conditions.
Social Understanding. The educated citizen seeks to understand social structures and social processes.
Critical Judgment. The educated citizen has defenses against propaganda.
Tolerance. The educated citizen respects honest differences of opinion.
Conservation. The educated citizen has a regard for the nation's resources.
Social Applications of Science. The educated citizen measures scientific advance by its contribution to the general welfare.
World Citizenship. The educated citizen is a cooperating member of the world community.
Law Observance. The educated citizen respects the law.
Economic literacy. The educated citizen is economically literate.
Political Citizenship. The educated citizen accepts his civic duties.

72 Ibid., p. 90.
Devotion to Democracy. The educated citizen acts upon an unswerving loyalty to democratic ideals.\textsuperscript{73}

The educational objectives listed above by the Educational Policies Commission are centered around the individual's responsibility and development. Professor Dix summarizes society's role in the nature of education, thereby stressing the group's responsibility to the individual. He states that "the most elaborate social institution was foreshadowed in the first pair of hunters sharing the weight of a freshly killed animal."\textsuperscript{74} He further points out that earlier institutions are useful, not ornamental; that worn out institutions damage society; that a mature society lives by education; that society utilizes environment; that society utilizes institutions; that society must integrate institutions; that society must integrate individuals; and that society must integrate schools.\textsuperscript{75}

Thus, in conclusion of this particular part of the study dealing with the function of education in its relation to the general nature of secondary education in American democracy, it is recalled: (1) that primarily we educate for democracy, (2) that education must be universal to include all of adolescent education, (3) that we educate for more collective living, for personal stability, for self-realization and for creative

\textsuperscript{73}\textit{Ibid.}, p. 108.

\textsuperscript{74}\textit{A Charter for Progressive Education}, p. 29.

\textsuperscript{75}\textit{Ibid.}, pp. 29-34.
capacity. It is now the purpose of the study to briefly analyze the scope and structure of education in American democracy.

The Scope and Structure of Education in American Democracy

As to the scope and structure of the undertaking of public education this study only briefly summarizes its extent in so far as it further analyzes the nature of education in American democracy.

The American people have constructed a publicly supported system of schools which boys and girls under the age of fourteen or sixteen years must attend, and which older persons may attend if they wish. We have already seen that as a social institution, the school exerts tremendous influence; and as a financial enterprise, it takes its place among the larger business institutions of the nation.76 This educational enterprise in the United States consumes the time, strength, and money of a large part of the national population. Children, youths, and adults connected with the elementary, secondary, and collegiate institutions as pupils or learners number about thirty millions. To keep classes running, more than a million teachers and administrative officers are required. There must be, in addition, clerical workers, and custodians for the buildings and grounds. The production and

distribution of books and supplies, indispensable if the school is to function properly, constitute in themselves a large industry. Many persons are engaged annually in erecting new buildings and repairing old ones. Besides all of these who devote their full time to one phase or another, there are scores of thousands of part-time students and members of boards of education who exert general control.\(^{77}\)

Added to this expenditure of human energy is the financial cost of operating public elementary and secondary schools. In 1930, the expenditure was approximately two and one-half billions of dollars. During the first three decades of the twentieth century this expenditure increased ten-fold. As the national population, and hence the school population, has increased, the schools have been called upon to do more for the nation's children. As the national wealth has grown, so the expenditures for education have multiplied to "big business" proportions.\(^{78}\)

The Educational Policies Commission reports that the structure of the school system in the United States is determined in a large measure by the democratic ideal of equality of opportunity through education. They state that ours is a "one-track" school system because of the common expectation that one will begin his education in the elementary school and will progress through the common school to the completion of

\(^{77}\text{Ibid.}\)  
\(^{78}\text{Ibid., pp. 4-31.}\)
his work in graduation from high school. 79

For those pupils of unusual intellectual ability who graduate from high school, the door should be open to the opportunities provided by institutions of higher learning. Possibly the greatest limitation of the structure as now operated lies in the failure to adapt the curriculum of the schools to the greatly varied abilities, interests, and vocational outlook of the students in attendance. The Commission also believes that another major limitation in structure is found in the failure to provide education on the upper levels, especially in sparsely populated areas. "The realization of the ideal of equality of educational opportunity is dependent upon effectively free education and upon the organization of adequate attendance and administrative units." 80

According to the report of the Commission, this effectively free education involves free tuition; the provision of books and educational supplies; in many cases, of transportation; and in some cases, of maintenance grants necessitated by the low income of the family group. The Commission goes so far as to state that "American education will reach the ideal of equality of opportunity when all barriers, whether economic or social, resulting in a denial of educational opportunity are removed." 81

80 Ibid., p. 1.
81 Ibid., p. 2.
Closely allied with this idea of equality of opportunity in the scope and structure of education is the design of the curriculum which is to accomplish those objectives peculiar to education for democracy. Professor Rugg believes that, "Design, in the sense of appropriate and self-consistent adaptation of means to end, is of major importance in all types of constructive and creative endeavor." In the educational awakening to redesign the curriculum the Progressive Education Association has already been mentioned as an instrumentality making a great contribution through the program of its commissions. Conspicuous among these commissions are the following: (1) Commission on the Relation of Secondary School and College, (2) Commission on the Secondary School Curriculum, (3) Commission on Human Relations, and (4) Commission on Educational Freedom. This study does not take time and space to give consideration to the valuable work being done by each of these commissions, but their general viewpoint and direction are summarized to throw light on the nature of education exemplified in principles underlying the curriculum functioning in American democracy.

For a summary of the generalizations concerning the principles underlying an American curriculum, the writer accepts those set forth by Professor Dix in his book, A Charter for Progressive Education. According to Professor Dix these

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82 Harold Rugg and others, Democracy and the Curriculum, p. 406.
principles are:

1. In design American education must be:
   a. General -- a unified plan appropriate to any individual so far as he is able or willing to pursue it, not a new form of regimentation, but intended to rule out any proposal to have a separate scheme of education for any elite class. 83
   b. Comprehensive -- sufficiently broad in scope and sufficiently adaptable to include both the common education for citizenship and unlimited opportunity for the development of leadership. 84
   c. Coherent -- an internal unity of design which would show where any area of personal interest, field of inquiry, or area of knowledge fitted. 85

2. In spirit American education must be:
   a. Modern -- the general plan to place a premium upon fitness to life in the world today, especially in America. 86
   b. Functional -- its activities to be related intimately to all the activities of the population. 87

83 Dix, op. cit., p. 42. 84 Ibid. 85 Ibid., p. 43. 86 Ibid. 87 Ibid., pp. 43-44.
c. Practical -- to provide for every promising area of growth and self-realization, not to remain a vested academic interest.\(^{88}\)

d. Cooperative -- planned as a cooperative activity conditioning individuals for an interdependent and collective social life.\(^{89}\)

e. Intellectually unifying -- to provide for continuity from simplest learnings of young children to most elaborate specialized exploration and research, not to separate doing and thinking.\(^{90}\)

f. Socially integrative -- to lead the learner, to the limits of his capacity at any given level of maturity, to relate his personal interests and desires to the whole cultural pattern within which these interests must be served.\(^{91}\)

3. In practice American education must be:

a. Personal -- the curriculum to have an emphasis centering around the increasingly socialized individual, his interests, desires, needs, and capacities.\(^{92}\)

b. Integrative -- to provide for an integrated

\(^{88}\text{Ibid.}, \text{p.}\ 44.\)  \(^{89}\text{Ibid.}\)  \(^{90}\text{Ibid.}, \text{pp.}\ 44-45.\)  
\(^{91}\text{Ibid.}, \text{p.}\ 45.\)  \(^{92}\text{Ibid.}\)
pattern of activity on part of the learner, regardless of how far or widely he ranges.\textsuperscript{93}
c. Active -- to be organized in terms of unified healthy growth resulting from self-activity, freedom of choice, the assumption of individual responsibility, and social sensitivity.\textsuperscript{94}
d. Adventurous -- to place a premium upon courageous and adventurous self-initiation as against merely conservative and protective attitudes.\textsuperscript{95}
e. Developmental -- to value the promotion of a continuous process of growth above the attainment of any specific knowledge, capacity, or standard.\textsuperscript{96}

4. In emphasis American education must seek:
   a. Balance in capacities -- to provide for a balanced experience with respect to skills, knowledges, attitudes, and purposes.\textsuperscript{97}
   b. Balance in experience -- to provide a balanced and overlapping activity in dealing with material things; natural forces, people, and ideas.\textsuperscript{98}
   c. Self-reliance -- to place a premium upon origi-
nality and variation as against acceptance, conformity, and regimentation. 99

d. Creative capacity -- to offer unlimited opportunity for creative capacity and initiative for herein lies the ultimate hope of democracy. 100

e. Personal enjoyment -- to encourage the learner to respect his body; to respect his total personal life; and to live so as to enrich his emotional experience, as well as to expand an intellectual competency. 101

f. Vernacular competence -- to provide a rich and active experience with the native language as the essential vehicle of thinking and of social impression and expression. 102

g. Aesthetic interest -- to put a premium upon the emergence of any and all activities upon the level of an aesthetic interest in and enjoyment of them, and to offer an experience balanced with respect to appreciation, criticism, and productive activity. 103

Thus far in the chapter under consideration an analysis has been made of the fundamental philosophy underlying Ameri-

99Ibid.  100Ibid., pp. 48-49.  101Ibid., p. 49.
102Ibid.  103Ibid., pp. 49-50.
can democracy, and of the nature of education implied in this democracy with attention given to its function, scope, and structure. This material revealed from the survey of literature in the field is included in this study because of its implications for methodology in the administration of education in democracy, thereby throwing light on the nature of procedures needed for the democratic administration of curriculum revision. In the light of the preceding discussions a brief analysis will be made of these implications for administrative procedures.

Some Implications for Administrative Procedures in American Democratic Education

From the foregoing analysis of the nature of education in American democracy, the study agrees with the various educators that American democracy and organized education are equally dependent on one another.\textsuperscript{104} Despite the fact that the provision and administration of education has been left by the implication of the Constitution to each of the forty-eight states, the common acceptance of clear and definite aims and purposes has made education as truly national as in those countries where it is controlled and administered by a central authority.\textsuperscript{105} Because of the democratic heritage, the purpose, the scope, and the far-reaching influence of the

\textsuperscript{104}Harold Rugg and others, \textit{Democracy and the Curriculum}, p. 222.

American educational system, the administration of this institution has become one of the most vital functions of modern society.\textsuperscript{106}

Professor Newlon in his discussion, "School Administration, An Applied Social Science," states that while the aims and methods of administration are fundamentally determined by the controlling purposes of a system of education, the theory and practice of administration does, in turn, affect these broad educational purposes and methods. Since the process is one of constant interaction, methods of control and of administration are crucial factors in the redirection of American education.\textsuperscript{107}

There is abundant evidence, both from history and from the contemporary scene, that a critical social intelligence develops only in an atmosphere of democratic freedom.\textsuperscript{108} Professor Newlon says, "One does not have to look far to find ample authority for the statement that American democracy faces few problems so critical as the control and administration of education."\textsuperscript{109}

The Joint Committee on Curriculum of the Department of


\textsuperscript{107}\textit{Ibid.}, p. 230.

\textsuperscript{108}Axtelle, Wattenberg, and others, \textit{Teachers for Democracy}, p. 5.

\textsuperscript{109}Newlon, \textit{Education for Democracy in Our Time}, p. 126.
Supervisors and Directors of Instruction and the Society for Curriculum Study voices a need for democratic administration. In their report, edited by Harap, they grant that it is a well-known fact that current patterns of educational organization and administration have their origin in industrial and military practices.\textsuperscript{110} Harap further states that these practices are based upon authoritative concepts of human relationships, and, as such, they are in conflict with the philosophy which seeks individual creative growth in the part of every pupil, teacher, and the entire community. The committee believes that the authoritarianism in our present concept of administration is made more injurious through such instruments as the rigid course of study, the grading system, and the general regimentation of the learning activity.\textsuperscript{111}

In current educational administration the committee reports that one of the most damaging principles is the idea of separating planning and performance. This concept assumes that the superintendent and his staff in a downtown office can determine the detailed educational experiences that children should have in widely varying conditions in different parts of the city. In this concept the teacher merely follows the dictates of superior officers. An unfortunate outcome of such an authoritative scheme of administration is that it sets the pattern for the life of the school; and, thereby,

\textsuperscript{110}Harap, op. cit., p. 133. \hfill \textsuperscript{111}Ibid.
encourages teachers to be authoritative and dictatorial in their dealings with children. 112

In the recent report of the John Dewey Society, Teachers for Democracy, edited by Axtelle and Wattenberg, the authors agree that on the basis of all information now available, democracy as a way of life is preferable to any authoritarian form. Their concern with democracy led to an analysis of American education in which they brought to light the startling fact that many school procedures prepare children and teachers to live in an autocracy rather than in a democracy. 113

In the light of the various aspects of the "Desirable Professional Relations in a Democratic School Program" presented before the Second Annual Institute on Professional Relations held at Peabody College, June, 1939, Joseph Roemer summarized the implications for administrative procedures in democratic education. From the total contributions of the afternoon's discussions he agreed that "The Way Out" is as follows:

1. That we must accept representative democracy as the ideal.
2. That we must not just talk about democracy, but actually put it into practice in all of our administrative procedures.
3. That many administrative areas must be shared with the classroom teachers.
4. That the entire school program must be planned about the conference table.

112 Ibid., p. 134.
113 Axtelle, Wattenberg, and others, op. cit., p. 58.
5. That in the finest of spirit the teachers must be allowed to assist the superintendent with his problems.

6. That there must be a greater development of the educational organization which looks toward a closer and finer relationship within the profession.\footnote{114}

Because "democratic methods produce democratic citizens,"\footnote{115} and because good administration seeks to develop in the publicly controlled and supported schools the good will, tolerance, and cooperation among all the people for the maintenance of democracy,\footnote{116} it is the purpose of this study to seek in the following chapter specific cooperative techniques available for administrative use.

Summary

After an examination of pertinent literature in the field, this chapter of the study has attempted three major considerations: (1) The Fundamental Philosophy Underlying American Democracy, (2) The Nature of Education in Democracy, and (3) Some Implications for Administrative Procedures in Democratic Education. Some generalizations drawn from this portion of the study include the following:

1. Democracy as a way of life is accepted and preferred by the American people to any authoritarian form.


\footnote{115}{Dix, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 39.}

\footnote{116}{Educational Policies Commission, \textit{The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy}, p. 128.}
2. The fundamental philosophy of American democracy is inherent in its original frame of reference, the Declaration of Independence.

3. The formulations of the spirit of democracy found in this original frame of reference may be generalized in these postulates: justice, equality, personal freedom, social control, respect for individual personality, pursuit of happiness, unity, general welfare, security, defense, and provision for change.

4. The perpetuation of democracy is challenged by the spread of Fascism abroad and imminent dangers of special interests at home.

5. In a truly democratic society government is education, and education on the social side is the practice of government.

6. The role of education is a critical one since education is dependent on democracy, and democracy is dependent on education.

7. The nature of education as to function, scope, and structure is inherent in contemporary American culture with its social foundations.

8. The social foundation of education considers two points of view, the relation of the school to society, and the relation of the school to the individual.

9. Progressive educators accept definite principles and objectives for education in American democracy interpreted
in the light of the assumptions of democracy found in the original frame of reference, the Declaration of Independence, and amplified in the Preamble to the Constitution of the United States of America.

10. The principles are briefly summarized by progressive educators as follows:

   a. In design American education must be general, comprehensive, and coherent.

   b. In spirit American education must be modern, functional, practical, cooperative, intellectually unifying, and socially integrative.

   c. In practice American education must be personal, integrative, active, adventurous, and developmental.

   d. In emphasis American education must seek balance in capacities, balance in experience, self-reliance, creative capacity, personal enjoyment, vernacular competence, and aesthetic interest.

11. The unique function and nature of education in American democracy necessitates definite implications for administrative procedures to be used in revising the curriculum to meet the desired design and purpose.

12. These implications include among them the challenge to administrators to put democracy into practice in all
of the administrative procedures since democratic cooperative methods produce democratic citizens.
CHAPTER IV

SOME SPECIFIC PROCEDURES FOR
DEMOCRATIC COOPERATION

Introduction

The study, thus far, has considered two phases of the problem in the application of democratic cooperative procedures to the administration of curriculum revision. These phases have been: first, an analysis of needs for democratic procedures in administering curriculum revision; and, second, the nature of education in American democracy with its implications for administrative procedures. In the light of the findings in the preceding chapters, definite needs for specific democratic procedures exist in our own educational system founded on democratic philosophy.

Because of the peculiar nature of democracy interpreted by the American people, education in America has a unique function. This function is centered around the preparation of the oncoming generation to perpetuate democracy by living successfully in it. This study agrees with the theory that to become creative citizens in a functional democracy, children should live democratically during their formative years. To live democracy in school implies the participation of all
personnel concerned in the development of the life-centered curriculum.

From the examination of literature in the field, it appears that modern progressive educators accept the old axiom, "There can be no social progress worthy of the name unless individuals are able and willing to work together -- unless they have common backgrounds of experience and culture, common purposes, and the cooperative spirit."\(^1\) In the light of this philosophy of effectiveness in the democratic system, the function of the administration of education becomes something so different from that in authoritarian states as to deserve another name.\(^2\) There has been acknowledged acceptance by administrators of this concept of the curriculum presented in the preceding chapters with considerations basic to curriculum revision in American democracy.\(^3\) Because of this changing conception of educational administration, there is need for modification of practice away from authoritarian methods toward more democratic techniques.\(^4\)

It is the purpose of this chapter of the study to present some specific procedures of democratic cooperation which,

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\(^1\) Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, XXI (January, 1937), 23.

\(^2\) Harold Albery, Boyd Bode, and others, Educational Freedom and Democracy, p. 181.


\(^4\) Harold Rugg and others, Democracy and the Curriculum, p. 455.
in the opinion of the writer, are available for use in administering curriculum revision. Before presenting these procedures, some principles of cooperation are examined as a basic approach to cooperative techniques. These principles include the definition of cooperation, the purpose of cooperation, and some types of levels of cooperation.

The Definition and Purpose of Cooperation

The report on "Cooperation" in the Eleventh Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction states that "cooperation" is the master word in present-day idealism. The major problems confronting the world such as war, unemployment, the shifts in human relationships and values, and the conflicts of different political ideologies are social in nature and require cooperation for their solution. The report points out that presidents and kings plead for cooperation while dictators enforce it; and, lesser men all down the line, from industrial magnates to parents in the home, see in cooperation a solution for social ills, if it could only be achieved. The indication is that the only choice open to humanity seems to be either widespread disaster or more cooperation than has ever previously existed in world history.

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5Cooperation: Principles and Practices, Eleventh Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, p. 18.

6Ibid.
School administrators also agree that under the democratic conception of social organization, the emphasis is not upon getting things done quickly, but in getting them done as nearly as possible to mutual advantage by a process of deliberate consideration, compromise, and adjustment of the various interests involved. In the area of education, the democratic procedure becomes an end as well as a means. It is educative and is to be extended to become the atmosphere of the whole school system.

When the ideal of cooperation as a method is accepted, implementing this ideal is the next step to be faced. The problem of how to achieve cooperation presents two facts. First, there are so many varying definitions of what cooperation is that the general emphasis upon the need for it. Second, there is widespread emphasis upon cooperation as something new when, in reality, it is as old as man himself. This characteristic called "new" is evidently the focusing of attention upon some new type, interpretation, or level of the age-old process.

The definition of cooperation might vary even though it is usually taken for granted that all people know intuitively what is meant by the term. Cooperation under dictatorship and cooperation in a democracy have very different implications.

7 Alberty, Bode, and others, op. cit., p. 181.

8 Cooperation: Principles and Practices, Eleventh Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, pp. 18-19.
under the varying situations. Cooperation, then, is not one process, but many. The writer accepts the definition of cooperation given by the committee in charge of the Yearbook on Cooperation for the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. The definition accepted from the bulletin prepared by the committee is as follows:

Cooperation means, literally, working together. In ordinary conversation you are said to cooperate with me when you work with me to help me to achieve my purpose, but in this bulletin whenever two or more persons work together on any basis whatsoever they will be said to cooperate.

The committee gave as the reason for their adoption of this broad definition the fact that cooperation is not one thing, but many. In the light of history as man has progressed in knowledge and power, his relationships with fellow men have also changed. Cooperation on each different level merits a special name; and thus, the above definition serves to make it clear that the real problem is that of raising the motives and procedures of cooperation from low levels to high levels.

Very closely allied to the definition of cooperation is its purpose. The study agrees with the National Committee on Cooperation that the fundamental purpose of all cooperation is achievement. When individuals are able to attain their desires unaided, there is no need for cooperation. But

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9 Ibid., p. 18.
10 Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, Teachers and Cooperation, p. 4.
11 Ibid.
the mature individual man is incapable of accomplishing the
great things he desires without the cooperation of others.
As a member of a cooperating group, living and working to-
gether, so that all may enjoy higher standards of life, each
has a greater power of achievement than he has singly. 12
In addition to the desire for achievement, the human being ap-
pears to have an inherent urge toward enjoyment in association
with others.

To interpret the problem of cooperation as it pertains to
the socialization of educational practice and to the improve-
ment of human relationships in community living represents a
great transition from a long and painful period of external
domination and control of human action to an era of internal
choice and mutual consideration. 13 In the educational realm,
the purpose of cooperation for the administrator in executing
a program of curriculum revision is formulated by this study
to be the achievement of a functional curriculum designed for
democratic living by means of cooperative planning, thinking,
and evaluating on the part of the entire personnel represented
in the school community.

Some Types and Levels of Cooperation

In the further analysis of the principles of cooperation,

12 Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Prin-
cipals, XXI (January, 1937), 25.

13 Cooperation: Principles and Practices, Eleventh Year-
book of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of In-
struction, p. 95.
the writer accepts the description of the types of cooperation presented by the previously mentioned Committee on Cooperation of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. The Committee believes that in all voluntary achievement there are the three following phases:

(1) the legislative phase of deciding what achievement shall be attempted, and of planning how it is to be brought about; (2) the executive phase of putting the plan into effect; and (3) the appraisal phase of determining the efficiency of the purposing, planning, and executing that when the same need reoccurs, there may be improvement in achievement.14

The activities of purposing and planning described above as phase one and the activities of judging and generalizing in phase three are creative mental activities. The executive phase, listed second, provides for carrying out as exactly as possible the decisions of group planning, and is, therefore, not creative in itself, although, to some degree, action is always a stimulus to creative thinking. The Committee thus classifies the various types of cooperation as either creative cooperation or executive cooperation.15

The specific illustration of the highest level of democratic cooperation cited by the Committee is that of a symphony orchestra where each individual is a genius but each must cooperate with others to give a concert. The musicians, recognizing the need for cooperation, democratically unite to form an orchestra. After creative purposing, planning and

14Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, Teachers and Cooperation, p. 5.
15Ibid., p. 6.
harmonizing, the group elects one of its members to act as
director to coordinate individual efforts. Each person's
performance, being a unique action according to his expert
ability, is said to constitute creative cooperation, while
his regimentation in action in terms of the agreed-upon plan
is said to constitute executive cooperation.16

The following implications for the administration of cur-
riculum revision in the illustration of creative and executive
types of cooperation are drawn by the study. The development
of skill in the use of cooperative techniques inspires the
entire educational staff to make a symphony of the difficult
undertaking. Cooperation in curriculum revision would in-
volve the following experiences: to see the need for prepara-
tion and readiness for revision; to realize that each per-
sonality has his responsibility to meet and his contribution
to make; to learn how to best perform his part to help, not
hinder, the other members in the situation; to appreciate the
place and value of self-control, self regimentation, and self
coordination in group action; to acquire the social as well
as the individual point of view in the job to be performed;
and to give artist performance, both as an individual and
as a member of the cooperating group.

Because performance, either of curriculum revision or
symphony concerts, may be produced on bases other than demo-

16 Ibid.
ocratic cooperation, a differentiation is sometimes necessary between the achievement as a whole and the motives which determine action. This calls into light the various levels of cooperation which may exist in human relationships. The writer accepts the analysis of the various levels of cooperation made by the Committee on Cooperation for the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association. Their analysis is summarized by this study for brief presentation in the following paragraphs.

First level: Compulsion. When one individual works with another because he is compelled against his will to do so to help achieve the other stronger person's purpose, the level of cooperation is called compulsion. Compulsion may operate between individuals, groups, or from group to individual and from individual to group. Many modern educators indicate that much school work today proceeds on the basis of compulsion which tends to retard the realization of functional democracy. "Real functional democracy cannot perform smoothly and effectively when its children spend their first twenty years in the autocratic atmosphere of home and school."  

17 Ibid., p. 7.


Second level: Compromise. Often when two strong personalities or groups attempt compulsion, they discover that neither can control the other. Consequently, the only solution to the conflict appears to be the combination of forces on some plan which represents a solution satisfactory to both. This level of cooperation is called compromise because it involves the giving up of something desired in order to obtain something thought to be essential.²⁰

Third level: Exploitation. Because some men are more intelligent than others, the brainy man who is unable to compel his neighbor to do his will, and is not satisfied with the results of compromise, sometimes tricks another individual or group into cooperating in something which seems beneficial but in the end is harmful. This type of cooperation is called exploitation.²¹ Lewin and Lippitt in their experiment in autocracy and democracy conducted at the Child Welfare Research Station at the University of Iowa, report that children participating in democratic self-government and group activity programs are less susceptible to exploitation than children intimidated and rendered submissive by autocratic authority.²² Herein lies an implication for the administration of curriculum revision.

²⁰Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, Teachers and Cooperation, p. 7.

²¹Ibid., p. 8.

The three levels of cooperation listed thus far are compulsion, compromise, and exploitation. These types all tend to engender resentment, hatred, and the spirit of revenge, and cooperation ceases when the compelling force is removed. The Committee considers them undesirable in that they are divisive forms of cooperation when they tend to place the cooperators against each other. 23

Fourth level: Bargaining. Another method of getting others to cooperate in achieving one's purposes is to pay them for their services. An illustration of this might be when the teacher promises to read a story to the class on Friday if the class helps achieve the teacher's purposes during the week. Much of the cooperation of the world proceeds on this basis called bargaining. This is the first level of cooperation, according to the Committee's report, in which the emotional concomitants are not evil. In bargaining each gives something and each gets something from voluntary choice, all are benefited, and no one is injured. However, bargaining is individualistic, for there is no social unity except at the time of exchange. Bargaining is not divisive, yet is is merely a primitive form of desirable cooperation. 24

Fifth level: Leadership. Sometimes a person of superior

23 Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, Teachers and Cooperation, p. 8.

ability rises to the level of social awareness and group thinking and, because of a desire to be of service, he visions achievements that will benefit both himself and the group. Such an individual may explain his goal to others and attempt by persuasion on the basis of reason to gain their support for the general cause. This level of cooperation is called leadership, and less capable individuals consent to act under the direction of the leader so long as they feel that the interest of all is his motive. Leadership demands unity of purpose, injures no one, and is of benefit to all concerned. Its by-products may be said to be respect, honor, friendship, and further opportunity to be of service. 25

In the John Dewey Society's Fourth Yearbook, Teachers for Democracy, the leadership level of cooperation is prescribed as a challenge to education in these words: "The democratic leader as teacher and administrator conceives of his function as co-worker and adviser, as a guide in the educative process." 26

Sixth level: Democratic Cooperation. Out of leadership grows the highest form of cooperation, democratic cooperation. This level of cooperation occurs when a group of individuals all achieve social mindedness, and work together for the

25 Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, Teachers and Cooperation, p. 8.

26 Axelle, Wattenberg, and others, op. cit., p. 308.
common good. The illustration of democratic cooperation was referred to above in the performance of the symphony orchestra during a concert. On the democratic level each individual is a leader and carries full responsibility for the group achievement, voluntarily performing his part in conformity with the adopted plan, even though a director may be needed to coordinate the individual efforts. This level of cooperation is difficult to achieve because of its demands on self-directions and self-control; but its benefits are far-reaching because problems can be solved by the combined brain-power of a cooperating group which could not be solved by any unaided individual.27

In such a cooperating group, leadership is dependent on ability and contribution in specific situations. In other words, leadership shifts about and at times in the educational system it may be in the hands of a co-worker, a parent or a pupil, depending on whoever is particularly capable and has a real contribution to make.28 Thus viewed, the group becomes a synthesis of members' roles. Every social role involves the following components: (1) a social circle of which the performing person is the center, (2) the person's social self, (3) the person's status, and (4) the person's function in the undertaking. These components are found in the role of group

27 Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, Teachers and Cooperation, p. 9.

28 Axtelle, Wattenberg, and others, op. cit., p. 308.
member, but they are included in and determined by the composition and structure of the group.\textsuperscript{29}

Figure 4 summarizes the various types and levels of cooperation taken from the report of the Committee on Cooperation and presented in this study.

\textbf{SCALE OF LEVELS OF COOPERATION}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Creative Cooperation,</td>
<td>Executive Cooperation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>involving the mental</td>
<td>Coordinated action</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>activities of purpos-</td>
<td>Controlled by:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ing, planning, and</td>
<td>- Trickery</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appraisal.</td>
<td>- Necessity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Force, fear</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Levels

6 Democratic..................Brotherhood
5 Leadership..................Service
4 Bargaining..................Reward
3 Exploitation................Trickery
2 Compromise..................Necessity
1 Compulsion..................Force, fear

Fig. 4. -- A Summary of the Various Types and Levels of Cooperation. (Taken from Teachers and Cooperation, Issued by the Committee in Charge of the Yearbook on Cooperation for the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association, November, 1937, page 9.)

The world today faces the challenge as to whether or not the democratic method of cooperation for the mobilization of brain power is to be more effective than other methods.

The writer accepts from this international scene a challenge to the administration of education to seek through social

creativity the development of adequate methods of achieving democratic cooperation for harmonization and unification, and to provide adequate training in the use of these democratic procedures.

Some Specific Procedures for Democratic Cooperation

The writer accepts the specific techniques for democratic cooperation presented by the Committee on Cooperation for the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction as available democratic methods to be used in the administration of curriculum revision. The writer agrees with the Committee in its opinion that these techniques are not final in their form, but they are accepted as being specific enough to suggest the general plan so that administration may, at least, have a point of departure in seeking the active cooperation of the entire personnel concerned in curriculum revision. These specific procedures for democratic cooperation are presented in the following summary.

*How to understand another person's point of view.*

The usual traditional procedure involved when conflicts arise between two persons is argumentation, involving statements and restatements of opinions with neither party's opinion changed by the other's point of view.

The cooperative procedure to understand another person's
point of view might include five steps. The first necessary step is the establishing of an attitude accepting the cooperative point of view. Such a point of view rides the individual of egoistic thinking and biased self-emotions in order to respect the other person's personality and to take the attitude of an investigator or observer, and not that of a defender. The cooperative individual recognizes the possibility of his own thinking being wrong, biased, or incomplete as to facts of reasoning. 31

The second step in the specific procedure of how to understand another person's point of view is that of taking inventory. This involves asking the other person to state his views on the issue and the attempt to list the elements and sequences of his thinking. From this listing a comparison of points of conflict or understanding may be made. The third step involves understanding gained by asking questions about points of conflict without hinting at one's own opinion. When the purpose is understanding, an individual's own views should be concealed and of little importance compared to the concern of studying those of the other person. 32

The fourth step in this specific procedure of understanding another person's viewpoint is partial testing. This testing may occur when the other person's views seem wrong, or when he appears to be ignorant of certain important facts

31 Ibid., p. 17. 32 Ibid., p. 18.
and has probably ignored others. By the use of questions in which facts are stated one may attempt to determine the other's reaction, inferences, and how his reasoning operates. Often one's own mistakes become revealed in such statements. This method of testing should be applied to every point of conflict between views and every issue not understood.33

The final step in how to understand another person's point of view is called the "master" test. This test requires that another's point of view is really understood "only when you can state it so perfectly that the other person unqualifiedly accepts your statement."34

How to harmonize conflicts of opinion.35 -- The first procedure for democratic cooperation described above as understanding another person's point of view often does not remove the cause of conflict, but it does help prepare the way for harmonization. The procedure followed in any conflict of opinion is dependent upon the level of cooperative thinking attained by the conflicting parties. On the level of compulsion force is attempted, while on the level of leadership reasoning is attempted. The purpose of such efforts on any level is to bring the other person to one's own point of view. Under democratic cooperation the two parties in the conflict combine efforts in an attempt to discover the truth in the situation and not which one is right.36

33 Ibid.
34 Ibid., p. 19.
36 Ibid., p. 22.
This procedure of how to harmonize conflicts of opinion involves four steps. First is that of understanding, wherein each individual tries to understand the other's point of view in order to locate the exact points of conflict. The second step is to come to an agreement as to the type of the existing conflict. The types of conflicts are grouped by the Committee on Cooperation in the following manner:

(1) Intentional, where the motive to create a conflict is deliberately willed.

(2) Irrational, where the conflict arises because feelings and emotions involuntary control the reasoning process.

(3) Rational, where there are differences in the intelligent control of the process by which opinions are formed. 37

The third step in the procedure of how to harmonize conflicts of opinion is for both parties to apply the remedy appropriate to the type of conflict. Figure 5, on the following page, is a summary of the types of conflict with their descriptive names and appropriate remedies suggested by the Committee on Cooperation.

The fourth and last step of the procedure of harmonizing conflicting opinion is the final check in case the conflict is not harmonized by the processes described above. This checking invokes the aid of other individuals or groups to check the reasoning processes involved in the various steps taken. 38

How to enrich and clarify thought. 39 The traditional procedure when any problem engages public attention is for a

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few to participate in the activities of its discussion and study, but many just listen. The cooperative procedure encourages all to participate in creative thinking. The Committee suggests the Overstreet Jury-panel method of holding a discussion to increase the general participation of the whole group.

### SUMMARY OF TYPES OF CONFLICTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Conflict</th>
<th>Specific Name</th>
<th>Remedies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. Intentional</td>
<td>Deliberate</td>
<td>Proof; exclusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. Irrational</td>
<td>A. Permanent</td>
<td>Cure disease</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B. Temporary</td>
<td>Kindness, Time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C. Distorted Values</td>
<td>Explanations; Experiences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. Rational</td>
<td>1. Misunderstandings</td>
<td>Definition of Terms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Different Facts, Questionable Facts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Different Methods</td>
<td>Experimentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Faulty Reasoning</td>
<td>Logical Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Different Values</td>
<td>Understanding through sharing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 5. -- A Summary of Types of Conflicts with Suggested Remedies. (Taken from Teachers and Cooperation, Issued by the Committee on Cooperation for the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association, November, 1937, page 61.)

This method involves ten different steps. The first step is to phrase the statement of the problem so that both those for and against will feel moved to speak. The second step involves the selection of not more than eight nor less than six to serve as the panel. The basis of selecting the members of the panel should be: "(1) difference in viewpoint (all points of view should be represented on the panel),
(2) aggressiveness of personality, (3) cooperativeness (egotists are unsuited for the position), (4) ability to think creatively, (5) ability to speak clearly and loudly.\textsuperscript{40}

The third step in the procedure of enriching and clarifying thought is the selection of a chairman. The qualifications of the chairman should be competency in the given field, a well-balanced and poised manner, a quick wit and a keen sense of humor. The fourth step explains the fact that no previous preparation should be made except the notification of members of the panel as to the rules to be observed. The fifth step includes the seating arrangement of the panel which specifies that the panel be seated in a semi-circle facing the audience with the chairman in the center.\textsuperscript{41}

The sixth step gives consideration to the rules for the panel discussion, to be announced by the chairman. These rules include: (1) no speeches after the introductions and each speaker contributes a single thought at a time, (2) no arguments or criticisms, but there may be questions of understanding, and (3) all contributions are welcome, no matter how diverse, for the purpose is to enrich and clarify thought and not to reach a decision.\textsuperscript{42}

The seventh step in the specific procedure of clarifying thought covers the introduction of each panel member by the chairman. Each member states briefly in two minutes his

\textsuperscript{40}Ibid., p. 24. \textsuperscript{41}Ibid., p. 25. \textsuperscript{42}Ibid.
general position. The eighth step provides for the discussion when the panel members speak on their own initiative. The chairman's responsibility is to hold the discussion to the topic, to prevent clashes and arguments, and to summarize the various points made. The ninth step gives consideration to the audience. When the pattern of the panel's thinking becomes clear, after approximately an hour, the chairman opens discussion for the audience. During this period individuals may make statements of points not brought out, ask questions, or ask to have points previously made explained more in detail. The tenth and final step in the panel method of discussion to enrich and clarify thought is that of the summary when the chairman rises and in a well-organized statement reviews the points made by the panel and by the audience.  

How to pool the products of creative thinking. The fourth specific procedure for democratic cooperation named by the Committee on Cooperation is that of how to pool the products of creative thinking. The jury-panel method discussed in the preceding procedure is designed for general discussions intended merely to enrich and clarify thought but often the situation needs more specific participation by all. The small group conference method described in the following procedure is adapted to informal discussions and participation by all in specific planning. The general procedure consists of three parts. First, there is a meeting of the group as a

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44 Ibid., pp. 27-29.
whole for a clear and detailed definition of the problem to be considered and for the determination of the procedure to be followed. Second, the formation of small groups for discussion; and third, the reformation of the group as a whole to hear reports from the smaller group discussions.45

The procedure of the first part in the group as a whole involves the decision of the group upon a specific statement of the problem, how many should be in each smaller group, the basis for selecting members of smaller groups (friendship, preference, capacity, measured by intelligence tests, experience or achievement), and conditions under which the groups should meet.

The procedure for the second part, that of the smaller group meetings, involves seven different steps. First, each member should get acquainted with the other members and their general views. Second, the group selects a coordinator to direct discussion and a recorder to keep a record of important contributions to the discussion. Third, the time allowed for the group meeting and for each individual in the group is budgeted. Fourth, contributions from each member's report of his creative thinking are collected. Fifth, the individual contributions to be included in the final report are evaluated by taking a preferential vote on them. Sixth, the final report is organized; and seventh, the group selects the

45Ibid., p. 27.
person to present the report to the larger group as a whole. The individual selected presents the report, usually written, to the whole group at the appointed time.46

The procedure for the third part when the group as a whole reunites includes two steps. First, the reports of the various groups are heard; and second, the entire group takes action on the problem under consideration, the action being based on the reports assembled from the smaller group meetings.47

**How groups may reach decisions cooperatively.**48 -- The fifth specific procedure for democratic cooperation described by the Committee on Cooperation is that of how groups may reach decisions cooperatively. In the procedure immediately preceding, creative thinking was used to produce suggestions. However, before action can be taken by a group, decisions must be made and plans organized. In traditional procedures for this purpose "parliamentary law" has been used to meet the need. When analyzed, parliamentary law reveals that it was developed in an individualistic society operating on a competitive basis; and, therefore, the final product is more of the nature of a forced compromise which divides the group into majority rule of the minority than of cooperation on the democratic level.49

Several factors influence group cooperation. A group

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cooperating on the highest level harmonizes its conflicts before a decision is reached. However, unanimous consent requires a great length of time and is impossible except in a group where the members are socially minded enough to value unity above personal desires. In times of emergency and excitement, parliamentary law seems to be the best procedure to use, but if the emergency is not vital, skill in the use of cooperative procedures should be developed. 50

The cooperative procedure for groups in reaching decisions includes eight steps, according to the Committee on Cooperation. First, the group selects a coordinator and a recorder if the group has not been previously organized. Second, the group determines the purpose of the meeting and the degree of emergency which exists. The degree of emergency is reckoned in terms of the time in which the group has to reach a decision. Third, a collection of suggestions and understandings is made. Fourth, the group is held rigidly to understanding all suggestions made. Fifth, a preferential vote is taken when each member votes for the suggestions he holds worthy of consideration. Sixth, the suggestions receiving the most votes are selected as the basis for group discussion. Seventh, any modification in the suggestions selected are made, using the second procedure described above, how to harmonize conflicts of opinion. When the conflict is one of different values mutually exclusive, counter-organization may be resorted to. The eighth step involves planning

50 Ibid.
and acting after the group has reached a decision. 51

How to serve skillfully as coordinator or as recorder. 52
-- The specific procedure of democratic cooperation involved in serving as coordinator includes two steps. The first step deals with attitude, for the coordinator should think of himself not as the leader of the group, but as its agent. The second step gives consideration to the following duties of the coordinator:

a. To define the purpose before the group and ask if it is understood.
b. To recognize members.
c. To protect those who have the floor from interruption.
d. To hold the group to adopted purposes and procedures.
e. To collect suggestions and see that they are recorded.
f. To take votes and see that the results are tabulated.
g. To see that questions are answered satisfactorily.
h. To execute the orders of the group.
i. To determine the pleasure of the group in all situations involving uncertainty.
j. To determine the appraisal of his actions in all situations of uncertainty. 53

To serve skillfully as a recorder involves two similar steps as in the responsibility of the coordinator. First, in attitude the recorder should consider himself the agent of the group and records all proceedings impartially. Second, his duties include determining the pleasure of the group in all cases of doubt and the recording of purposes adopted, suggestions of members, questions asked, tabulations of votes, objections to suggestions adopted, details of duties assigned committees and individuals, reports of all committees, and

51 Ibid., pp. 31-32.  52 Ibid., pp. 33-34.  53 Ibid., p. 33.
the nature and details of all decisions reached.\textsuperscript{54}

**How to serve skillfully as a member of a cooperating group.**\textsuperscript{55} -- The seventh specific procedure for democratic cooperation listed by the Committee on Cooperation is that of how to serve skillfully as a member of a cooperating group. There are seven steps in the procedure of serving skillfully and efficiently in democratic cooperation where severe demands are made on individualistic thinking and acting. First, the member must adopt a social point of view in which he magnifies the group and minimizes himself. Second, he must be "group-minded" in thinking of himself as an organ of the group and should contribute to the fullest extent possible. Third, the individual member must censor his thoughts, language, and behavior in terms of group welfare and regulations. Fourth, each member must rid himself of all sensitivity to criticism of contributions made, and should surrender completely all worthwhile contributions to the group. Fifth, the cooperating member attempts to understand the other person's intent as well as his contribution. Sixth, each member must hold to the group purpose; and seventh, in assuming this "each for all, and all for each" viewpoint, the democratic balance is preserved between the individual and the social phases of living.\textsuperscript{56}

**How to plan.**\textsuperscript{57} -- The eighth specific procedure essential

\textsuperscript{54}Ibid., p. 34. \quad \textsuperscript{55}Ibid., pp. 35-36.
\textsuperscript{56}Ibid., p. 36. \quad \textsuperscript{57}Ibid., pp. 37-38.
to democratic cooperation is the technique of how to plan. The Committee on Cooperation defines a plan as being "any statement, by means of symbols, of the sequence of activities by which a desired objective may be achieved as efficiently as possible." A plan should consist of the best procedure in terms of the best consequences and should show situations, agents, materials, tools, processes, tests, times, and products in sequence. Consequently, planning becomes the series of activities followed in developing a plan for achieving a purpose. Several prerequisites to planning are (1) a situation involving agents with knowledge and power to manipulate elements in the situation, (2) awareness of the existence of the problem, (3) a vision of the objective, aim, and purpose, and (4) the desire to achieve the objective.

The procedure in the technique of how to plan is outlined by the Committee on Cooperation as follows:

(1) Define the problem as decisively as possible.
(2) Analyze the situation to discover:
   a. The causes of dissatisfaction.
   b. The relation of causes to consequences, immediate, remote, direct, and indirect.
   c. Relation of all elements to consequences.
   d. Appraisal of values attached to all possible elements and consequences.
(3) Decide:
   a. What standards of value shall control selection.
   b. What the purpose shall be.
(4) Collect all known or imagined agents, actions, materials, tools, processes, sequences, consequences.
(5) Classify the collection as to degree to which the various items are pertinent.

58 Ibid., p. 37.  
59 Ibid.
(6) Select the most pertinent elements, forming a consequence of events from the present situation to the desired situation.

(7) Organize the selected elements into a plan, avoiding conflicts between elements and steps, and making adjustments in terms of unity, harmony, and balance in the completed plan.

(8) Try, so far as possible, to test out the plan before putting it to practical use. Appraise result and modify plan accordingly.

(9) Formulate the perfected plan in the way best suited to the use to which it is to be put.  

How to delegate action.  Another specific technique for democratic cooperation listed by the Committee on Cooperation is that of how to delegate action. Consideration was given to group planning in the preceding procedure; however, a group can act efficiently only through individuals; consequently, there is need for cooperative delegation of power to act. The general principle underlying this procedure includes the provision for both growth and efficiency in each delegation of action. The various steps in delegating action should include:

(1) Planning the precise action to be taken.
(2) Formulating the related adopted policies or regulations under which action is to be taken.
(3) Determining the kinds of talents and the degrees of skill that are essential.
(4) Formulating the degree of efficiency expected and the standards by which results are to be judged.
(5) Setting of time limits for action, and the time and condition of the agent's appraisal and report.
(6) Determining the probably benefits the action is likely to bring to the individual and to the group.
(7) Determining the qualifications of available agents.
(8) Selecting the best qualified agents.
(9) Presenting the plan, qualifications and benefits to candidates.

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60 Ibid., p. 38.  61 Ibid., pp. 39-42.  62 Ibid., p. 39.
(10) Inviting statements of wishes, reasons, and motives from candidates.
(11) Selection of agents and delegation of action. 63

A competent individual should be free to determine for himself the best means to be employed to achieve a definite objective in a specific situation where action has been delegated. However, in accepting an assignment, the individual agent should be sure of the following conditions:

(1) That he understands and accepts the group's purposes in making the assignment.
(2) That he understands and accepts the policies and regulations under which he is to act.
(3) That he can command the talent and skill that are necessary.
(4) That the rewards are satisfactory.
(5) That his motives are known to the group and are acceptable to them.
(6) That the standards of appraisal and the time for report are acceptable. 64

When the individual to whom action has been delegated has achieved his goal, he should report both the achievement and any criticisms of the group's assignment or in his own work. The report is appraised by the group first as to the performance of the individual in achieving that which was delegated to him, and second, as to its worthwhile phases to be used for generalization in guiding future action. 65

How to act cooperatively. 66 -- The last specific procedure listed by the Committee for democratic cooperation is that of how to act cooperatively. There are some situations in life when the most efficient results can be achieved by

63 Ibid., p. 40. 64 Ibid., p. 41.
65 Ibid., p. 42. 66 Ibid., pp. 43-44.
individuals acting simultaneously, as when several lift a log which no one could lift alone. The procedure for such action includes seven steps. First, all plan cooperatively until each knows what is to be achieved and the part he is to play in the undertaking. Second, a director is appointed to put the plan into effect. Third, the group is organized into an effective machine acting on orders. Fourth, the proper sequence of orders is issued. Fifth, each individual assumes "blind obedience" in cooperating. Sixth, each should report to the director consequences of action without bias but with recommendations for improvement. Seventh and last, the commander reports to the group the consequences of the action with suggested improvements. The group thus functions as a corporate individual.67

Summary

This chapter of the study has dealt with the analysis of: (1) some principles of cooperation, (2) the definition and purpose of cooperation, and (3) the types and levels of cooperation. These principles were examined preliminary to the presentation of some specific procedures for democratic cooperation which the study believes are available for use in the administration of curriculum revision in American democracy. In the light of the material presented in the chapter, the following generalizations are drawn:

67Ibid., p. 44.
1. Modern administrators acknowledge their acceptance of cooperation as an effective philosophy toward social progress in democracy.

2. The function of educational administration in American democracy challenges the use of authoritarian techniques.

3. The study recognizes the need for democratic techniques of cooperation to replace the traditional authoritarian procedures.

4. In seeking democratic cooperative procedures available for use by administrators, certain principles of cooperation are revealed.

5. The definition and implications of cooperation vary in different frames of reference. For example, cooperation under dictatorship has a different meaning from its interpretation in democracy.

6. The definition of cooperation used in this study is "whenever two or more persons work together on any basis."

7. The fundamental purpose of cooperation is achievement.

8. There are two distinct types of cooperation analyzed and accepted in this study: creative and executive cooperation.

9. The various levels of cooperation accepted for analysis by the study are: compulsion, compromise, exploitation, bargaining, leadership, and democratic cooperation.

10. For participation in the highest form of cooperation,
known as democratic cooperation, several specific procedures have been presented.

11. The specific procedures analyzed were:
   a. How to understand another person's point of view.
   b. How to harmonize conflicts of opinion.
   c. How to enrich and clarify thought.
   d. How to pool the products of creative thinking.
   e. How groups may reach decisions cooperatively.
   f. How to serve skillfully as coordinator or as recorder.
   g. How to serve skillfully as a member of a cooperating group.
   h. How to plan.
   i. How to delegate action.
   j. How to act cooperatively.

12. These procedures are not final in form or number, but suggest specific points of departure for further analyses of techniques for democratic cooperation available for use by administrators of curriculum revision.
CHAPTER V

THE SELECTION OF DEMOCRATIC COOPERATIVE
PROCEDURES FOR ADMINISTRATIVE USE IN
CURRICULUM REVISION

Introduction

The problem of this study has progressed through these phases: (1) an analysis of needs for democratic procedures in administering curriculum revision, (2) the nature of education and its administrative procedures implied in the philosophy of American democracy, and (3) some specific procedures for democratic cooperation.

Several broad sweeping generalizations drawn from these phases of the study reveal that in the current activity in curriculum revision there exists a definite need for democratic procedures to execute the plans for revision. In seeking procedures for administrative use, an analysis of the philosophy of American democracy was made to determine the nature of education and its administrative methods implied therein. The implications drawn from the democratic philosophy of American education and its procedures include the challenge to administrators to put democracy into practice in administering curriculum construction for the development of
cooperative citizens.

In the preceding chapter the study presented specific procedures for cooperation on the democratic level which are available for administrative use in supplying the need for such procedures of democratic nature. It is the purpose of this chapter to give consideration to certain elements which should influence the selection of procedures for application in specific situations. Some of the elements to be considered include the philosophy of the administrator himself, the degree of emergency in the local situation, the competency and attitude of the teaching personnel, the financial status of the local educational system, the attitude of the community, the recognition of results from other experiments in similar situations, and the use of desired achievements as criteria for selecting and applying democratic cooperative procedures to curriculum administration.

Of primary importance, in the analysis of some of the elements to be considered by administrators in selecting and applying democratic cooperative procedures, is the philosophy of education in American democracy which is professed by administrators. This philosophy is briefly reviewed as a basic frame of reference.

Democratic Educational Philosophy
Professed by Administrators

Professor Dix has formulated the working philosophy for democracy because he believes that if Americans are ever to
apply to their social living the kind of engineering genius that has built their industrial processes, they will have to learn to implement a functional democracy. Such a democracy is characterized by Professor Dix in the following description:

1. Evolutionary -- a process growing from day to day because continually rebuilt anew out of the tested experience of the old, in accordance with the purposes which citizens wish their social system to serve;

2. Experimental -- constantly changing and adventuring in response to human emotional drives acted upon by human intelligence as these drives press men on;

3. Operational -- expressed in terms of the way it acts upon living persons, for living persons, and by means of living persons, and of the social arrangements created by these persons as they live together;

4. Controllable -- responsive to human needs and desires, and conforming to the definition that democracy requires the utmost respect for the personalities of all the human beings who co-operate it and control as a society all social living.1

Educators accept the point of view that a democracy thus conceived is more manageable than one which remains in the realm of theoretical ideals. The operation of a democratic order thus becomes a problem in social engineering, vast and complex, but one which may be analyzed into concrete terms of specific things to be accomplished when the goals of the system are decided upon.2

According to Dewey, the rise of the newer progressive school is a product of discontent with traditional education

2Ibid., p. 41.
with its subject-matter information and skills transmitted as inherited instruments in conformity with standards of conduct developed in the past; and, with its general pattern of organization making the school a kind of institution sharply marked off from other social institutions. However, the philosophy of the newer education with its free activity, expression and cultivation of individuality, learning through experience, and acquaintance with the opportunities of life in the changing world can accomplish little if these principles remain only principles. All principles by themselves are abstract for they become concrete only in consequences which result from their application.\(^3\)

These general principles of new education set new problems to be worked out on the basis of a new philosophy of experience. There is danger in developing the new movement negatively in merely rejecting traditional aims. Any theory and set of practices is dogmatic when it is not based on critical examination of its own underlying principles.\(^4\) The writer, after an examination of the underlying principles of democratic education, accepts with Kilpatrick the challenge to modern education in a changing civilization to revise the entire educational process originally conceived in autocracy to follow the path of cooperative democracy.\(^5\)

\(^3\) *Experience and Education*, pp. 1-116.  
To clarify the differentiation between the principles of authoritarianism and democracy the study accepts the differentiation made in Professor Melby's discussion of the two ideologies. According to Melby, the first basic principle of authoritarianism is "a lack of faith in people." The masses of mankind are thought to be incapable of determining or developing their own criteria of truth and value; and, consequently, the masses cannot effectively govern themselves. Accordingly, the masses must place their faith in the wisdom and authority of the few highly selected individuals who by competence become the ruling class. Likewise, because the masses cannot effectively seek or find the truth, they are assumed unequal to the task of deciding what is good.

The second principle of authoritarianism is "the principle of priority of the system" wherein there is a lack of respect for personality and the human individual becomes insignificant to the totalitarian creations. The third principle is "the static character" of authoritarianism wherein creed becomes the yoke for enslavement and resistance to change becomes a major concern.

In contrast to the principles of authoritarianism, Professor Melby describes the democratic way of life as having faith in the masses of people. This first principle involves

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7Ibid., p. 197.
8Ibid., pp. 198-199.
a faith in people's capacity to judge truth and value; faith in their ability to govern themselves; faith in their education, sincerity, and altruism; and faith in their perfectability and capacity for growth. In democracy there exists respect for personality as a social concept. In democracy change is an essential element, for no hierarchy of truth is recognized. Herein lies the hope of democracy to be a self-repairing society, for only a changing society can take advantage of new and accumulated knowledge.

It is in this matter of "self-repairing" that the function of educational administration is to enable education to play its part more intelligently and effectively. Since program and purpose can never be separated, the administrator's first concern must be with purpose, for, more than any other person in the profession, he should be an educational and social philosopher. Methods of control and of administration, particularly important factors in the redirection of American education, are to be of the nature of applied social science.

The concept of school administration as an applied social science implies the basic problem of educational leadership to be the creation of an environment in which there is the maximum opportunity and incentive for growth on the part of teachers, pupils, and parents. This indicates that however


10 Ibid., p. 230.
skilful a single administrator may be, it is evident that "he cannot approach in his resourcefulness and stimulating influence the combined resourcefulness and effectiveness of a considerable number of persons." The writer agrees with Harap in his belief that from the standpoint of effectiveness alone a cooperative approach to leadership and responsibility in installing a revised curriculum would be superior to any individualistic approach.\(^{12}\)

**Desired Achievements as Criteria Selecting and Applying Cooperative Procedures**

It is not enough for progressive administrators to merely profess a theoretical philosophy of cooperation in attempting to administer revision toward an integrated curriculum based on the concept that education is the improvement of living through "creative grappling with the situations which the world continually puts before us."\(^{13}\) The problem of putting into practice this profession of democracy and cooperation is the pragmatic test of the philosophy. The method of organizing and conducting the school must harmonize with the nature of the child and the social function of the school. Such an educational program should incorporate the entire machinery and working forces of education because its chief importance is "the utilization of the teaching power to its fullest capacity with all co-operative and contributing agencies."\(^{14}\)

\(^{11}\)Harap, *op. cit.*, p. 137.

\(^{12}\)Ibid., pp. 136-138.

\(^{13}\)Oberholtzer, *op. cit.*, p. 15.

\(^{14}\)Ibid., p. 13.
Administration may be thought of as involving two processes: (1) the determination of a plan of action, and (2) the execution of that plan. In the determining process, deliberation is nurtured while the executive process is concerned with getting things done.\textsuperscript{15} In the area of educational administration, the tendency of authoritarian societies is to exaggerate the importance of the executive process and to minimize the deliberative, for in them the end in view for administration is imposed beforehand. The tendency in democracy is to exaggerate the deliberative and to minimize the executive. As to the weaknesses of these contrasting processes, in authoritarianism the weakness is to act without argument; while in democracy, the weakness is to argue without action. The authoritarian plan may possess advantages in speed, orderliness, and discipline, but it "postulates a subservient people."\textsuperscript{16} The challenge, then, to the administrator appears to be that he should actually expedite action, but the expedition must proceed within the democratic frame of reference. In other words, "he must work democratically to secure through cooperative study, planning, and action, the continuous improvement of the educative process."\textsuperscript{17}

The particular situation at hand might be summarized briefly by recalling that we are given two identities:

\textsuperscript{15}Alberthy, Bode, and others, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 182. \textsuperscript{16}ibid. \textsuperscript{17}Axelle, Wattenberg, and others, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 309.
(1) democratic cooperative procedures, and (2) the administration of curriculum revision. The problem is to fuse these into effective operation for achieving the desired goals of functional education in democracy.

The criteria of desired achievements used in selecting and applying democratic cooperative techniques include the formulation of a generally accepted understanding of the functions of secondary education. These functions will not be reviewed at this time, since they were stated in Chapter II, and were analyzed in Chapter III of the study when the nature of education in American democracy was discussed. The first step in curriculum construction is the formulation of a definite philosophy in the light of these desired achievements. To undertake curriculum construction and revision in the absence of an accepted and understood philosophy is analogous to the attempt to drive a car without the steering apparatus.

The following values of a curriculum philosophy formulated in the light of an analysis of the local situation and its desired achievement have been listed by secondary-school principals: (1) it enables logical decision concerning administrative units; (2) it stimulates the profession to clarify its philosophy of secondary education; (3) stated functions furnish criteria for evaluating the school program; (4) it

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19Dennis Cooke and others, Principles of School Administration, p. 259.
will give direction to the formulation of modifications in
curriculum construction; and (5) it makes possible a program
of articulation.20

In the formulation of a curriculum philosophy based on
needs for achieving desired goals, administrators have at
their disposal much material concerning various approaches
that have been proposed and utilized in programs of curricu-
num revision. Some of the better known ones include the
child experience approach, the creative values approach, the
frontier thinkers approach, social values approach, adult
needs approach, objectives approach, scientific approach,
the educational shortage approach; and the best practice ap-
proach.21 However, in formulating a philosophy that is
based on job analysis of the local situation, sometimes no
one of these distinctive approaches proves satisfactory. In
this case an "eclectic" approach, that, choosing what is
thought best from various approaches, is planned. The ecle-
tic approach is thought by the Texas State Department of Edu-
cation to "pave the way for the most practical type of cur-
riculum revision; maintains an experimental attitude toward
the selection of content; and guarantees the freedom essential

20 Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Prin-
cipals, XXI (January, 1937), 15-17.

21 Texas State Department of Education, Handbook for
to local initiative and community needs.\textsuperscript{22}

Some Factors to Be Considered in Selecting
Cooperative Procedures for
Specific Situations

After formulating a general philosophy of education for
democracy, and having accepted the challenge to revise the
curriculum through a chosen approach, the administrator is
faced with the problem of installing the program for revision.
The nature and methods of installation present several pos-
sible processes. Harap reveals some of the possibilities in
the following guiding questions which he asks concerning the
installation of the curriculum:

1. Shall the curriculum be installed instantaneously
   by executive fiat, or shall it be a process of
   professional education of teachers in the use of
   new teaching materials?
2. Shall new curricular material be considered as some-
   thing strictly of professional concern, or is it
   something which the lay public should be enabled
   to understand through activities carried on by the
   curriculum-development organization of the school?
3. Should there be peaks when large amounts of new ma-
   terials are being installed and corresponding
   valleys of inactivity, or should installation be
   gauged to provide a rather even flow of new ma-
   terials?\textsuperscript{23}

In choosing the type of administrative procedures to be
utilized in curriculum revision, there is need for giving
consideration to several factors in the local situation where
the development is to take place. In different sections of
the country, even in the same state, not all school systems

have attained the same levels of educational development. Consequently, "curriculum administration, although a problem of the nation and the state, must in the last analysis be treated in close association with the other local issues of school management."\(^{24}\)

From a survey of literature in the field, some of the factors to be considered in determining the choice of techniques include the degree of emergency in the situation,\(^{25}\) the competency and attitude of the teaching personnel,\(^{26}\) the financial status of the local educational system,\(^{27}\) the attitude of the community,\(^{28}\) the interest and needs of the pupil personnel,\(^{29}\) and the results from other experiments in similar situations.\(^{30}\)

**The Consideration of the Degree of Emergency in the Local Situation in Selecting Cooperative Procedures**

The factor involving the time allotted in which to ac-


\(^{25}\) Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, *Teachers and Cooperation*, p. 10.

\(^{26}\) Cooke, *Administering the Teaching Personnel*, pp. 302-335.


\(^{28}\) Rugg and others, *Democracy and the Curriculum*, pp. 499-503.

\(^{29}\) Cooke and others, *Principles of School Administration*, pp. 502-503.

\(^{30}\) Cooperation: Principles and Practices, Eleventh Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, pp. 120-152.
complish curriculum revision helps determine the choice of cooperative procedures. The greater the degree of emergency, the less practical will be the cooperative procedures entirely on the democratic level because these procedures, presented in Chapter IV of the study, require a longer period of time for operation. This process on the democratic level is described by Courtis as a "making-up-of-the-group-mind" in a very similar way in which the individual makes up his mind. Even though democratic cooperation is difficult to achieve immediately in any public school situation, it is a dynamic concept that will suggest the direction in which those engaged in cooperative activity should seek to move.

However, a satisfactory new curriculum has, in very few cases, been constructed at one time, for it usually evolves slowly out of some other established curriculum. In the process of this evolution conflict often arises between those struggling to keep the old and those desiring to change. Changes in a curriculum have in many instances represented the victory of one faction over another, achieved by methods which not necessarily gave a true answer to the difficulty.

It is in this gradual long-time program of educational

31 P. W. Cox and R. E. Langfitt, High School Administration and Supervision, pp. 579-610.

32 Cooperation: Principles and Practices, Eleventh Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, p. 82.

improvement that the techniques of democratic cooperation should be utilized. Few persons have had experience in group purposing, planning, and evaluating activities in curriculum revision. For so long this has been left to the curriculum expert to plan and make as if it were a ready garment; and often the design of the garment didn't fit the situation. Today progressive administrators believe the establishment of a curriculum revision program necessitates the inclusion of representatives from every division of the educational staff and the school community. Thus, "the most important criteria of progress will be the evidences that more and more planning and deciding are being done by more and more persons."35

The Consideration of the Attitude and Competency of the Local Teaching Personnel in Selecting Cooperative Procedures

In the opinion of many educators, the qualifications of the teaching personnel are most important factors to be considered when selecting and applying cooperative procedures to the administration of curriculum revision. Professor Cooke says that "however successful the administrator may be in his external policies, his administration will be a failure if he neglects the administration of his teaching staff."36

34 E. M. Draper, Principles and Techniques of Curriculum Making, pp. 813-834.


36 Administering the Teaching Personnel, p. 302.
In the administration of the teaching personnel, Professor Newlon states, "It cannot be too strongly emphasized that only through a larger participation in policy-making can the teacher become more effective in terms of the social objectives of education." 37

According to Newlon, administration in American schools is generally a form of benevolent autocracy. The fact that the school executive should see the need for more democracy is not to advocate that an autocrat should grant concession in his own interests. The interests of the people demand the wisest and most competent utilization of all available professional ability in the schools. 38

In this consideration of the basic relation of teacher participation to curriculum improvement the competency and attitude of the individual teacher directly affect the undertaking. 39 One of the most comprehensive surveys made to obtain information from the field pertaining to cooperation was that made by Courtis and the Committee on Cooperation. This survey was described in Chapter II of the study. The replies received in answer to questionnaires from 457 superintendents and 1,453 teachers in fifty-five school systems in twenty-two states revealed data regarding: (1) attitudes held by superintendents and teachers toward certain ideals

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37 Educational Administration as Social Policy, pp. 244-245.
38 Ibid., p. 244.
39 Newlon, Education for Democracy in Our Time, p. 225.
and principles of education in a democracy; (2) the opportunity to engage in cooperative administration; (3) the extent of sharing in administration on the part of administrators, teachers, and pupils; and (4) the advantages and difficulties encountered in democratic cooperation. 40

The report of the survey includes some problems listed by administrators which are centered around the teaching personnel involved in cooperative administration. Table 2, on the following page, lists these problems.

From the report of the survey there was revealed a difference of opinion between administrators and teachers regarding the above listed problems. As groups, the teachers are more conscious of the discrepancies between theory and practice and are more anxious to move toward democratic cooperative practices than are the superintendents. According to Professor Courtis, the fact that such statements by many administrators that "teachers are not prepared for," "they do not desire," and are "unwilling to assume responsibility for" democratic participation are more alibis than truth is revealed in the comparison of superintendents' and teachers' responses to these matters. 41 Table 3 presents the percentages of agreement in comparing superintendents' and teachers' responses. These figures reveal some of the cause


41 "Are Administrators Autocrats?" The Nation's Schools, XXIV (August, 1939), 20.
TABLE 2
PROBLEMS INVOLVED IN COOPERATIVE ADMINISTRATION

1. Inadequate preparation on part of many teachers.
2. Teaching load too heavy to allow time for additional responsibilities.
3. Lack of interest toward cooperation in administration.
4. Teachers do not possess appropriate knowledge of administration.
5. Lack of experience on part of personnel in techniques of democratic cooperation.
6. Administrators hesitate to relinquish power of control.
7. Boards of education hold superintendent responsible for school administration.
8. Teachers and administrators are not familiar with the nature of each other's problems.
10. Personality difficulties among personnel make cooperation too difficult.
11. Superintendents do not desire teachers to share in administration.
12. Lack of cooperation among teachers.
13. Difficult to persuade teachers to utilize opportunities given to cooperate.
14. Easier for administrator to plan and delegate responsibilities.

Taken from the Eleventh Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, Cooperation: Principles and Practices, p. 175.

of the growing unrest among teachers. 42

In proposing the administrative use of the specific procedures for democratic cooperation in order to obtain more teacher participation in curriculum development, this study recognizes the acknowledged desire of teachers for more opportunity to participate in administrative practices. Table 4

42 Ibid.
### TABLE 3

**COMPARISON OF SUPERINTENDENTS' AND TEACHERS' RESPONSES REGARDING COOPERATIVE PRACTICES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Percentage of Agreement</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Superintendent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Teachers are adequately prepared to participate. | 41.2 | For system... 58.2  
                                  |               | For own school..... 73.2  
                                  |               | For own class...... 89.3  |
| Teachers desire to participate. | 45.3 | For system... 77.8  
                                  |               | For own school..... 90.6  
                                  |               | For own class...... 94.1  |
| Teachers are willing to participate. | 56.7 | 93.5 |

* Taken from *The Nation's Schools*, August, 1939, p. 20.

presents a comparison of desired participation and actual participation by teachers in nineteen administrative practices reported in the survey made by Professor Courtis. These figures, in the opinion of the writer, reveal a definite challenge to administrators for more democratic cooperation in administration which would include continuous curriculum revision.

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TABLE 4
COMPARISON OF DESIRED PARTICIPATION AND ACTUAL PARTICIPATION BY TEACHERS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practices</th>
<th>Desired Participation</th>
<th>Actual Participation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Evaluating pupil progress</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Determining promotion practices and policies</td>
<td>68.7</td>
<td>40.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Preparing daily programs</td>
<td>68.4</td>
<td>65.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Preparing salary schedule</td>
<td>68.0</td>
<td>22.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Selecting textbooks</td>
<td>67.5</td>
<td>64.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Building and evaluating courses of study</td>
<td>66.3</td>
<td>76.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. Selecting and administering tests</td>
<td>65.6</td>
<td>45.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. Planning and conducting teachers' meetings</td>
<td>62.6</td>
<td>30.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. Determining playground supervision practices</td>
<td>58.8</td>
<td>45.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j. Planning teachers' meetings for school system</td>
<td>56.8</td>
<td>28.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k. Preparing budget</td>
<td>55.6</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l. Determining pupil classification practice</td>
<td>48.4</td>
<td>49.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m. Planning school buildings</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n. Assigning teachers to buildings and grades</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o. Evaluation of teachers' growth</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p. Preparing school calendar</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q. Employing teachers</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r. Discharging teachers</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s. Employing janitors</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*a Taken from the Eleventh Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, Cooperation: Principles and Practices, p. 168.

Figure 6 is a graph illustrating the comparison of desired participation and actual participation by teachers revealed in the statistics presented in Table 4.
Fig. 6. -- Comparison of Desired Participation and Actual Participation by Teachers in Certain Administrative Practices. (Taken from Cooperation: Principles and Practices, Eleventh Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association, p. 169.)
Probably the real reason that democratic practices of both administrators and teachers fall below ideals is that both are inadequately prepared for participation in this type of procedure. Even the supply of information about democratic cooperative procedures is as yet limited. Many modern educators advocate the development of teacher personnel to meet the new demands of cooperative education because teacher growth is the basis of curriculum improvement. 44 In-service education is in-service growth, and the conditions for teacher growth are those that exist in a cooperative effort to improve the opportunities for pupil growth. 45

The contributors to the John Dewey Society's Fourth Yearbook, Teachers for Democracy, state that there are at least four important considerations that constitute the essential basis for effective in-service education of teachers. These considerations are: "(1) the need for an inclusive outlook on the role of the school in modern society, (2) the problem of how learning takes place, (3) the consequent problem of teaching and administering the school, and finally, (4) the use of scientific procedures in education." 46

From the consideration of in-service teacher growth and

44The Improvement of Education, Fifteenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, pp. 147-148.
45Harap, op. cit., pp. 322-323.
46Axelle, Wattenberg, and others, op. cit., p. 301.
the relation of teacher participation to curriculum improve-
ment, there appear certain guides which are of importance in
selecting and applying democratic procedures in administering
a curriculum program. In Professor Rugg's opinion, "the first
of these guides is that plans and programs should arise to
meet needs which emerge from group thinking."\(^47\)

The first responsibility of educational administration
in curriculum development is to arrange conditions in such a
way as to make possible the study by all educational workers
of the problems involved.\(^48\) Only brief mention can be made
of some of these agencies which include teachers' meetings,
supervision, committee work, visiting days, leaves of absence,
informal discussion, experimentation, reading circles, ex-
change of teachers, research projects, educational clinics,
demonstration teaching, contributions to educational litera-
ture, membership in professional groups, teacher self-rating,
group extension classes, correspondence study, summer schools,
regular academic-year study, short field trips for study, edu-
cational exhibits, libraries, museums, bibliographies, bul-
lettins, school surveys, substitute teaching, teachers' exami-
nations, press books, magazines, and newspapers, radio, cinema,
participation in civic affairs, and participation in adminis-
tration.\(^49\)

\(^{47}\) Rugg and others, Democracy and the Curriculum, p. 458.

\(^{48}\) Cooke, Administering the Teaching Personnel, p. 306.

\(^{49}\) Ibid., pp. 307-324.
This study agrees with the idea that "the professionally well-prepared teacher participates intelligently in curriculum planning" and that an "abundant experience in cooperative study and planning of the school curriculum is a necessary part of the preparation of teachers in a democratically man-
aged school." The study, furthermore, advocates the use of the specific democratic cooperative procedures presented in Chapter IV by the administration in order to provide opportunity for the needed teacher participation in administering curriculum revision.

The report of the survey, previously referred to, made by Courtis on practices in cooperation, includes some results of cooperative participation reported by teachers. Table 5 lists these results. From these acknowledged results of teacher participation the educational administration may discover important implications for achieving curriculum revision through more democratic cooperation of all school personnel.

The Consideration of the Local Community in Applying Cooperative Procedures to Curriculum Revision

The American system of public education places stress upon local support and approval of educational practice, for "faith in the local administration of schools is a part of

50 Axtelle, Wattenberg, and others, op. cit., p. 276.

TABLE 5
RESULTS OF COOPERATIVE PARTICIPATION
REPORTED BY TEACHERS

| 1. | More interest created among staff members. |
| 2. | Improved relationship between faculty and administrators. |
| 3. | More interest in teaching. |
| 4. | Teachers possess more sympathetic understanding of administrative problems. |
| 5. | Better planned educational program for the school. |
| 7. | Important changes made in salary schedule for the system. |
| 8. | Improved morale among teaching staff. |
| 10. | Improved relation between teachers and supervisors. |
| 11. | Noticeable improvement in the development of initiative and creativeness on part of teachers. |
| 12. | Greater feeling of responsibility for general welfare of school system. |

*Taken from the Eleventh Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, Cooperation: Principles and Practices, p. 173.*

It is important that the people of the community should feel responsible for the efficiency of their schools. The fundamental criterion of efficiency in the administration of schools is the provision of educational opportunities for children and youth. In this provision it is essential that the thinking, desires, and ambitions of the public be made effective.  

The financial status of the local school system is neces-

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52 Educational Policies Commission, The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy, p. 42.

53 Ibid.
sarily a very important factor to be considered in any plan for curriculum revision, for the problem of costs is related to the administration of every activity of the public school. Irrespective of the educational philosophy, cost is the factor that determines whether a service shall or shall not be rendered in the operation of schools. School costs are usually thought of by the tax-paying public in terms of the tax bill received; and therefore, costs are high or low depending upon the tax-payers' general attitude toward education. This is unfortunate, because the public often compare local costs with those of other schools in terms of the tax rate. The tax rate is not a true index of costs because when the percentage of assessment is low, tax rates are numerically high.\footnote{Engelhardt, \textit{op. cit.}, pp. 509-510.}

In the last analysis, then, no school can proceed faster or function more effectively than the community is willing to approve. To enlarge the concept of the school and to secure financial support for revising the curriculum in terms of the modern concept requires a degree of community education and participation comparable relatively to that of the professional staff.\footnote{Rugg and others, \textit{Democracy and the Curriculum}, p. 495.} The administration of the educational systems of states, cities, districts, rural units, or individual units within these divisions must recognize this need and make provision for it. The study advocates the administrative use
of cooperative procedures on the democratic level presented in Chapter IV to provide opportunity for the participation of lay groups in programs of curriculum revision.

From an examination of literature in the field it appears that many modern educators believe that "the development of thinking in this fashion in both the community and the professional staff, assures a basis for continuous action in educational improvement."

Thus, education is coming more to be a product of community action based on community needs. In many communities the focus of this cooperative planning for continuous curriculum revision can be found in the expression, "the Community School." This interpretation involves two major phases:

(1) the utilization of the rich environmental materials in the community to replace or supplement the typical text-book centered curriculum; and (2) the concept of the school as the creative and purposive intelligence of the community with a responsibility of contributing through socially useful projects to the improvement of community life.

Included in the influence of the community is the consideration to be given boards of control and other similar educational committees. "Their powers to influence educational policy through control over budgets, buildings, equipment, and more important, over personnel and curriculum, are

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56 Ibid., p. 499.
57 Everett, The Community School, p. 15.
58 Rugg and others, Democracy and the Curriculum, p. 500.
very large and are likely to continue so for a long time to come. 59

The value of the contribution made to the life of their communities by the large group of men and women who have served as members of such boards and committees is difficult to estimate. However, studies show that only in the rural districts is the membership of such boards truly representative of the people, because often in urban communities the membership is drawn almost entirely from the favored classes economically, business and professional men, and industrialists, including perhaps one woman on each board drawn from the same class. It is highly desirable that labor and the intellectual classes should have a larger representation on these boards, for the interests of democracy require more balanced representation of the entire people, not merely a group or class. 60 This study proposes the use of the specific techniques for democratic cooperation presented in Chapter IV to pool the creative thinking of the entire people.

The Consideration of Pupil Personnel in Selecting and Applying Democratic Procedures

Another principle of modern education revealed in the examination of its literature is that regardless of the im-

59 Newlon, Education for Democracy in Our Time, p. 141.
60 Ibid., p. 142.
importance of our social heritage, it is not enough to administer a curriculum for group life alone. Education should be primarily devoted to the development of individual persons, and consequently, "an educational program is therefore as dependent upon the facts of individual personality as upon the content of group culture."61

In an effective administration of curriculum revision there should be a maximum of pupil participation and opinion. "One of the best incentives to activity is the identification of one's self with the processes and outcomes of the activity."62 The opportunity for character development in youth by participation in the attempt to solve some of their problems should not be neglected. Dr. Rainey is deeply concerned with this phase of education in the attempt to adjust the economic status of youth and bridge the gap between school and the job.63

Democracy implies that the individual shall have a share in determining the aims and conditions of his own work. If the administration of educational policy is to be most effective, there should be complete understanding of all policies on the part of all concerned. Even though it may not be physically possible or practical to have the actual partici-

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61 Rugg, American Life and the School Curriculum, p. 25.

62 Cooke and others, Principles of School Administration, p. 502.

pation of each individual in a school system in the formulation of policies, an adequate plan of representation can be carried out whereby differences in points of view can be made known and general trends of agreement recognized. The study proposes the use of the democratic cooperative procedures analyzed in Chapter IV as possible techniques for securing the cooperation and participation of the pupil personnel in the administration of curriculum revision.

Some Practical Suggestions for the Application of Cooperative Procedures to the Administration of Curriculum Revision

The Department of Superintendence has summarized a number of guides which they believe may prove helpful to the administrator in attacking the problem of the long-time program of curriculum development. These guides are accepted by the writer as practical means for the consideration of several factors mentioned above in the administration of curriculum revision. The suggestions are:

First, it should be recognized that curriculum improvement of the functional, social-minded type can be accomplished only thru teacher growth. No mechanical procedure of committee organization, course-of-study preparation, or installation will meet the need shown here. All means must be employed to guide all teachers in accomplishing a broadened vision and in experiencing new possibilities in guiding boys and girls. Teacher growth! Therein lies the road to improvement.

Second, it must be recognized that the curriculum cannot be revised in entirety or in a limited time. Curriculum revision is a major task which will require a long-time program with carefully planned experimental

and exploratory work. Principals and teachers must be encouraged to project in limited areas -- limited not in the sense of subjects, but rather in the sense of time and size of groups of pupils involved -- efforts at improvement that involve attack on the fundamental problems faced. Thru such experience successful practises should be spread, teacher leadership should emerge, and a truly evolving curriculum which is continuously improving should develop.

Third, no fundamental program of curriculum improvement can be carried to successful development without lay cooperation, understanding, and approval. Lay groups should, consequently, be given a basis for understanding the purposes and procedures employed for improvement and a part in such improvement. An informed, intelligent, and favorable public is the only basis upon which a forward-looking curriculum program may safely rest.

Fourth, curriculum development should not be looked upon as something separate and apart from the regular administration of a school system. Regular administrative officers should have the responsibility for this work and regular administrative relationships to the process of revision should be maintained. Extra-administrative organization for curriculum improvement leads to units of work isolated from other phases of school activities, and to piecemeal programs. A democratically administered school system will find no need for an extra-administrative organization for curriculum improvement.

Fifth, it is imperative that the administrator of a school system be enlisted in a sincere attack on the problem of curriculum improvement. He must be as willing to go before the people and fight for curriculum programs as he is to fight for improved buildings or higher salaries. Lacking such support, teachers find their efforts at curriculum improvement reduced to "busy work" and soon come to resent the imposition on their time.65

In advocating more cooperative participation of the entire school personnel and the lay groups of the community in curriculum administration, consideration is given to the lack of their actual participation reported in current administra-

65 The Improvement of Education, Fifteenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, pp. 146-147.
tive practices. In the survey made by Courtis, previously referred to in the study, to determine some principles and practices of cooperation in the field, comparisons were made in the participation of teachers, principals, supervisors, pupils, and patrons. Table 6 was arranged and presented by Courtis to reveal the percentage of persons participating in nineteen administrative practices. The report reveals that a greater participation is granted to principals and supervisors than to teachers, pupils, and patrons. Participation by teachers exceeded that of principals and supervisors in only five activities, and relatively little opportunity was provided for sharing in these activities by pupils and patrons.

By this stage of the study, it is hoped that there is an awareness of a philosophy and a desire for practice away from autocratic regimentation of school administration toward "a flexible coordination of pupil, teacher, patron, and administrator in the intelligent exercise of their capacities for cooperative social living and growth." From the analysis of needs for democratic procedures in the administration of curriculum revision made in Chapter II, interpreted in the light of the nature of education implied in the philosophy of American democracy in Chapter III, the study justifies


67 Ibid., pp. 170-172.

68 Ibid., p. 120.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practices</th>
<th>Percentage of Participation Reported</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Evaluating pupil progress</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Building and evaluating courses of study</td>
<td>76.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Preparing daily schedule</td>
<td>65.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Selecting textbooks</td>
<td>64.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Determining pupil classification practices</td>
<td>49.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Selecting and administering tests</td>
<td>45.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. Determining playground supervision practices</td>
<td>45.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. Determining promotion policies and practices</td>
<td>40.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. Planning and conducting teachers' meetings (separate buildings)</td>
<td>30.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j. Planning teachers' meetings for the system</td>
<td>28.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k. Preparing salary schedule</td>
<td>22.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l. Preparing school calendar</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m. Evaluating teachers' growth</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n. Preparing budget</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o. Planning school buildings</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p. Assigning teachers to buildings and grades</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE 6 -- Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practices</th>
<th>Percentage of Participation Reported</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q. Discharging</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teachers............</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r. Employing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teachers.</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s. Employing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>janitors.</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Taken from the Eleventh Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, Cooperation: Principles and Practices, p. 172.*

The application of democratic cooperative procedures presented in Chapter IV to specific situations in accordance with the guides given in Chapter V for selecting the procedures.

It is the opinion of the writer that cooperative participation may be secured if sincerely attempted by the administration. Even though the patterns for curriculum administration may vary in detail as observed in Figures 1, 2, and 3 of the study, the practice of democratic participation of all units may be achieved. The writer accepts the planning organization suggested by Professor Dix not as a final achievement in democratic cooperative curriculum administration, but as a suggestion in advance of any practice achieved thus far.69

Figure 7 represents schematically the interwoven character of the above mentioned plan for curriculum building. An examination of the plan reveals two interacting planning organizations: (1) horizontal planning groups, and (2) vertical planning groups. Each group meets regularly "to project advanced work, to evaluate achievement, and to integrate the activities of various contributing members." The need in such procedures for the specific cooperative techniques presented in Chapter IV is immediately recognized in this type of organization.

In the horizontal planning groups the work of each grade, or possibly a two-year chronological age group, is guided by a group of teachers. In this group there are found representatives of each of the three great circles presented in the chart by Professor Dix. These circles are called "Natural Environment, Social Environment, and Human Expression and Communication," and their representatives would be under the direction of an adviser representing the central circle of "Self Development." This group would meet together as often as they found to be necessary and efficient, but systematically as a regular part of the educational process in the classroom.

The vertical planning groups consist of one planning group extending vertically throughout the school to represent

70Ibid., p. 69.  71Ibid., p. 62.  72Ibid., p. 69.
Fig. 7. -- A Staff Organization for Curriculum Building and Teaching. (Taken from Lester Dix, A Charter for Progressive Education, p. 71.)
each of the three great circles, and one includes the advisory chairman of all horizontal groups. These four groups would be charged with the responsibility of building a continuity of development throughout the years of the entire school life. Their chief concern would be how their area could best be integrated with all other areas, and "what contributions could be made from their specialized knowledge to the all-round growth of each individual student, and to the researches, projects, and plans of the advisement group as a whole." 73

The chart in Figure 7 is schematic rather than exact, for actual relationships resulting from specific cooperative procedures would likely be more complex. The study proposes that the participation of representatives of the entire personnel affected by the school curriculum might be had following a similar plan. From the data presented in this study, such personnel should include representatives of pupils, patrons, lay groups, teachers, supervisors, principals, superintendents, experts, specialists, and any other participants in the administrative setup for curriculum revision in local, district, state, or national organization. The study recognizes that any situation involving cooperation in action of many interests requires division of labor, specialization of agents, and organization approaching that of an institution. As the complexity of the institution grows, there arises need

73Ibid., p. 70.
for more coordination between the various elements. The nature of the plan represented in Figure 7 provides more integration and flexibility than do the selected administrative plans represented in Figures 1, 2, and 3; and integration is important to a democracy because of its widely diffused authority and dynamic tendency.74

The writer accepts the viewpoint that the administrator with an attitude of service who thinks of himself as an organ, not as an autocrat, attempts to bring unity out of diversity and to make it possible for all to participate in creative planning. The procedure for the administrator in applying the specific techniques for cooperation presented in Chapter IV to the delegated responsibilities for curriculum revision listed in Chapter II in order to reach group decisions in the solution of problems might involve the following steps:

A. Collect from the entire situation and staff including himself all the evidences of need which gives rise to the problem.
B. Organize and integrate this material.
C. Transmit it to all the agents in the institution with a request for creative reflection and the return of their suggestions.
D. Tabulate, organize, and formulate a tentative solution based on the suggestions received.
E. Transmit to those concerned the tentative solution with a request for return of creative criticisms.
F. Harmonize all conflicts until unanimous agreement is reached.
G. Adopt as the agent of the group the modified plan.

H. Give the directions necessary to put the adopted plan into effect and coordinate all specialized actions.

I. Receive from the staff their appraisal of the effect and their creative suggestions for its improvement. (Note that if the plan does not work out as expected (I) becomes the (A) of a new problem and the process is repeated.)

Summary

This chapter of the study has been concerned with the selection of democratic cooperative procedures for administrative use in specific situations. The selection of techniques to be most effective was based on the analysis of several factors to be considered in the local scene. These factors included the democratic educational philosophy professed by administrators, desired achievements as criteria for selecting and applying cooperative procedures, the degree of emergency in the situation, the competency and attitude of the teaching personnel, the financial status of the local system, the attitude of the community, the interest and needs of the pupil personnel, and the results from other experiments in similar situations.

From the data presented in this chapter several generalizations are drawn:

1. Progressive administrators accept the concept of functional democracy in education to be evolutionary, experimental, operational, and controllable.

75Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, Teachers and Cooperation, p. 64.
2. To implement functional democracy the entire educative process originally conceived in autocracy must be revised.

3. Educational administration in its concept revised to coincide with the philosophy of functional democracy assumes the nature of an applied social science.

4. This concept implies the creation of an environment in which there is maximum opportunity for participation, cooperation, and incentive for growth on the part of all personnel included in the school community.

5. This goal indicates that a single administrator, however skilful, cannot approach the combined resourcefulness and effectiveness of a number of participating persons.

6. The desired achievements of the life-centered curriculum are to be used as criteria for selecting and applying procedures to be most effective in their realization.

7. Administration involves two processes: (1) the determination of a plan of action, and (2) the execution of that plan.

8. The accepted purposes of democratic administration are:

   a. The active participation of all agents on a thoroughly democratic basis.

   b. A means whereby the creative contributions of individual staff members may be most effectively capitalized.
c. Unity of purpose in all the activities of the professional organization in accordance with the adopted philosophy of education.

d. Continuous improvement of instructional policies and practices as opposed to spasmodic and periodic campaigns of reform.

e. An effective means of cooperative professional improvement to the end that there may be complete understanding and growth on the part of all professional agents.

9. In the installation and execution of the chosen cooperative plan for revision the administration should consider certain factors in the local situation.

10. The degree of emergency influences the selection of procedures in that immediate results require lower levels of cooperation, while gradual long-time planning operates most effectively on the highest democratic level.

11. A just consideration of the teaching personnel in the specific situation emphasizes the dependence of effective curriculum revision on their attitude and ability. Only through more direct participation in policy-making and execution can the teacher become effective in terms of the social objectives of education.

12. To insure teacher-growth, professional training and experience in participation should be provided in ac-
cordance with the desire of the personnel.

13. The attitude and financial status of the community are to be considered in the selection and application of cooperative procedures, for, in the last analysis, no school can proceed faster or function more effectively than the community is willing to approve.

14. The participation of the various lay groups in the community is to be achieved through the use of specific democratic cooperative procedures.

15. The cooperative participation of the pupil personnel in the democratic administration of curriculum revision is to be sought because one of the best incentives to activity is the identification of one's self with the processes.

16. Guided by some practical suggestions of modern progressive administrators, the study proposes the application of the specific cooperative procedures for democratic participation presented in Chapter IV to the administration of curriculum revision toward more democratic education described in Chapter III in order to supply the needs for such procedures analyzed in Chapter II.
CHAPTER VI

GENERALIZATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

In summation, it is recalled that the problem dealing with the application of democratic cooperative procedures to the administration of curriculum revision was chosen by the writer because of a personal interest in the current activity in curriculum thinking and revision in the United States of America. Added to this interest is a sincere concern for the role of education in the preservation and perpetuation of American democracy. The writer has accepted the philosophy that if education is to meet this responsibility of safeguarding democracy, it should proceed within the functional democratic frame of reference.

The two-fold purpose of the study has been: (1) to seek specific procedures based on certain principles of cooperation implied in American democracy, and (2) to apply these democratic cooperative procedures to the administration of curriculum revision in order to obtain an effective performance of the life-centered educational program.

The source material used in the solution of the problem was procured from the wealth of printed and recorded data found in reports of national education committees, societies,
commissions, and departmental organizations; bulletins of various state departments of education; current educational magazines; reports on curriculum development activity in various cities; and many books by individual authorities in the field.

In the attempt to achieve democratic cooperative administration for curriculum revision, the study progressed through several phases of the problem involved. These phases included: (1) an analysis of needs for democratic procedures in administering curriculum revision, (2) an examination of the nature of education and administrative procedures implied in the philosophy of American democracy, (3) the presentation of some specific procedures for democratic cooperation, and (4) the selection of democratic cooperative procedures for administrative use in specific situations. Each of these phases was treated in a separate chapter of the study under a descriptive heading.

From a survey of literature in the field to determine needs for democratic cooperative procedures in the administration of curriculum revision, the general status of curriculum revision was established. From this widespread curriculum activity five specific illustrations of administrative setups for curriculum revision were selected for more detailed consideration. These specific illustrations were selected to meet these criteria: (1) acknowledgment by the administration of intentional revision, (2) a statement of
definite aims toward a more life-like curriculum, (3) an expressed desire to use cooperative methods in curriculum revision, (4) representation of various types of secondary schools, (5) illustrative state department of education machinery for curriculum building, and (6) representation of a wide geographical range.

The five illustrations chosen were: (1) The Administrative Plans for the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School for the University of Florida, (2) the Administrative Setup for Curriculum Development in the Evansville, Indiana, High Schools, (3) the Administrative Objectives in the Cooperating Schools of California, (4) the Suggested District Organization for Curriculum Study in Texas, and (5) a Central State Curriculum Organization in Virginia. From an analysis of these administrative plans delegated responsibilities for curriculum revision were listed as specific needs for cooperative procedures.

Some generalizations drawn from this phase of the study were:

1. The American people have witnessed a greater development in curriculum revision during the last decade than in previous history.

2. This activity in curriculum revision is resultant of the realization that the traditional curriculum is inadequate in educating modern youth for personal happiness and creative citizenship in American democracy.
3. The life-centered curriculum is sought by administrators to develop youth through individuation, socialization, integration, specialization, dynamic approach, and guidance.

4. In developing youth to be socially capable, American secondary education has its orientation in the ideals of democracy.

5. If pupils are to be educated for democracy and are to prefer democracy as a way of life, the schools which train them must embody this doctrine in every phase of their action.

6. The embodiment of democratic action in all phases of the educational system implies the challenge to administrators to use democratic techniques in curriculum revision.

7. From various responsibilities analyzed in five selected administrative plans for curriculum revision, there is evidence of need for specific democratic procedures to effectively administer the programs.

Having located specific needs for democratic procedures, the next phase of the problem was concerned with an analysis of the nature of education and its administrative procedures implied in the fundamental philosophy of American democracy. The primary purpose of this division of the study was to determine the nature of the frame of reference within which educational administrative procedures should proceed if they are to be democratic.
The analysis of data related to this phase of the problem yielded the following generalizations:

1. Democracy as a way of life is accepted and preferred by the American people to any authoritarian form.

2. The formulations of the spirit of democracy found in its original frame of reference, the Declaration of Independence, may be generalized in these postulates: justice, equality, personal freedom, social control, respect for individual personality, pursuit of happiness, unity, general welfare, security, defense, and provision for change.

3. The perpetuation of democracy is challenged by the spread of Fascism abroad and imminent dangers of special interests at home.

4. The role of education is a critical one since education is dependent on democracy, and democracy is dependent on education.

5. The social foundation of education considers two points of view, the relation of the school to society, and the relation of the school to the individual.

6. The principles of democratic education accepted by progressive educators are briefly summarized as follows:
   a. In design American education must be: general, comprehensive, and coherent.
   b. In spirit American education must be: modern, functional, practical, cooperative, intellectually unifying, and socially integrative.
c. In practice American education must be: personal, integrative, active, adventurous, and developmental.

d. In emphasis American education must seek:
balance in capacities, balance in experience, self-reliance, creative capacity, personal enjoyment, vernacular competence, and aesthetic interest.

7. These implications include among them the challenge to administrators to put democracy into practice in all of the administrative procedures since democratic cooperative methods produce democratic citizens.

In order to meet the need for specific cooperative procedures for administrative use which would be in harmony with functional democratic education, the next step in the solution of the problem was the analysis of certain principles of cooperation and the presentation of some specific procedures for democratic cooperation.

Some of the generalizations drawn from data presented in this chapter were:

1. Modern administrators acknowledge their acceptance of cooperation as an effective philosophy toward social progress in democracy.

2. The study recognizes the need for democratic techniques of cooperation to replace the traditional authoritarian procedures.
3. The fundamental purpose of cooperation is achievement.

4. There are two distinct types of cooperation analyzed and accepted by this study: creative and executive cooperation.

5. The various levels of cooperation accepted for analysis by the study are: compulsion, compromise, exploitation, bargaining, leadership, and democratic cooperation.

6. The specific procedures presented for democratic cooperation were:
   a. How to understand another person's point of view.
   b. How to harmonize conflicts of opinion.
   c. How to enrich and clarify thought.
   d. How to pool the products of creative thinking.
   e. How groups may reach decisions cooperatively.
   f. How to serve skillfully as coordinator or as recorder.
   g. How to serve skillfully as a member of a cooperating group.
   h. How to plan.
   i. How to delegate action.
   j. How to act cooperatively.

7. These procedures are not final in form or number, but suggest specific points of departure for further analyses of techniques for democratic cooperation available for use by
administrators of curriculum revision.

The final step in the study dealt with the selection of democratic cooperative procedures for application in specific situations. Consideration of certain factors in the local situation was given as a basis for selecting effective procedures. These factors included: (1) the professed philosophy of administration, (2) desired achievements as criteria for selecting and applying effective procedures, (3) the degree of emergency for local action, (4) the attitude and competency of the teaching personnel, (5) the attitude and financial status of the local community, (6) the interest and needs of the pupil personnel, and (7) the results of other experiments in cooperation.

Some of the generalizations which were drawn from the analysis of data relating to this phase of the study were:

1. Progressive administrators accept the concept of functional democracy in education to be evolutionary, experimental, operational, and controllable.

2. Educational administration in its concept revised to coincide with the philosophy of functional democracy assumes the nature of an applied social science.

3. This concept implies the creation of an environment in which there is maximum opportunity for participation, cooperation, and incentive for growth on the part of all personnel included in the school community.
4. This goal indicates that a single administrator, however skilful, cannot approach the combined resourcefulness and effectiveness of a number of participating persons.

5. The desired achievements of the life-centered curriculum are to be used as criteria for selecting and applying procedures to be most effective in their realization.

6. Administration involves two processes: (1) the determination of a plan of action, and (2) the execution of that plan.

7. The accepted purposes of democratic administration are:

a. The active participation of all agents on a thoroughly democratic basis.

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c. Unity of purpose in all the activities of the professional organization in accordance with the adopted philosophy of education.

d. Continuous improvements of instructional policies and practices as opposed to spasmodic and periodic campaigns of reform.

e. An effective means of cooperative professional improvement to the end that there may be complete understanding and growth on the part of all professional agents.
8. In the installation and execution of the chosen cooperative plan of revision the administration should consider certain factors in the local situation.

9. The degree of emergency influences the selection of procedures in that immediate results require lower levels of cooperation, while gradual long-time planning operates most effectively on the highest democratic level.

10. A just consideration of the teaching personnel in the specific situation emphasizes the dependence of effective curriculum revision on their attitude and ability. Only through more direct participation in policy-making and execution can the teacher become effective in terms of the social objectives of education.

11. The attitude and financial status of the community are to be considered in the selection and application of cooperative procedures, for, in the last analysis, no school can proceed faster or function more effectively than the community is willing to approve.

12. The participation of the various lay groups in the community is to be achieved through the use of specific democratic cooperative procedures.

13. The cooperative participation of the pupil personnel in the democratic administration of curriculum revision is to be sought because one of the best incentives to activity is the identification of one's self with the processes.
14. Guided by some practical suggestions of modern progressive administrators, the study proposes the application of the specific cooperative procedures for democratic participation presented in Chapter IV to the administration of curriculum revision toward more democratic education described in Chapter III in order to supply the needs for such procedures analyzed in Chapter II.

Finally, in the light of the data presented in the study, the writer proposes the application of democratic cooperative procedures to the administration of curriculum revision because of the far-reaching implications of the challenge: "We are told that unless educational institutions themselves democratize their own administration and procedures the schools can play no very significant role in the maintenance and extension of democracy."¹

¹Axelelle, Wattenberg, and others, op. cit., p. 402.
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