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GRADUATE COLLEGE

THE EVOLUTION OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION FROM 1910 TO 1950 WITH THE PRINCIPAL INFLUENCES UPON THAT EVOLUTION FROM BUSINESS THEORY AND PRACTICE

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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ROBERT F. KIRK

Norman, Oklahoma

1977

THE EVOLUTION OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION FROM 1910 TO 1950 WITH THE PRINCIPAL INFLUENCES UPON THAT EVOLUTION FROM BUSINESS THEORY AND PRACTICE

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I want to dedicate this work to my wife, my mother,
and my aunt, who's sacrifices made it possible for me ,

"To strive, to seek, to find, and not to yield."

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank God for the health and endurance to complete this task. I would like to thank my committee for their professional help, guidance, and personal support. I wish to express special thanks to my family who have understood and supported me in so many ways and in many difficult situations.

I also wish to thank all of my teachers and friends who throughout my life have contributed so much to help me start on the long road toward becoming a thoughtful man.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS	vii
LIST OF TABLES	viii
CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Foreword	1
Background	1
Prior to 1900	2
1900-1950	3
1950 to Present	4
Rationale for the Study	4
Statement of the Problem	5
Methodology	5
Limitations of the Study	6
Chapter Outline	7
II. EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION 1910-1920	8
Educational Administration in a Period of Change	8
Business and Scientific Management	10
The Gary Plan	20
The School Survey	22
Standardized Tests, Thrift, College Courses	25
Thrift in Schools	26
Criticism of Scientific Management in Education	27
School Boards, Corporation Schools, Business Ethics, and Merit Pay	30
Selection, Training, and Role of Educational Administrators Changing	33
Educational Administration and Democracy	37
Educational Administration Textbooks	41

Page

CHAPTER

III. Educational Administration 1920-1930. 44

Scientific Administration and Professional Training . . 44
Changes in Schools. 48
Continued Business Influences in Schools. 54
Achievements in Educational Administration. 61
Major Changes in Educational Administrative Practices . 62
Financial Support (Equal Educational Opportunity) . . . 63
School Finance-School Budgets 65
Educational Administrators and School Facilities. . . . 67
Educational Administrators and the Law. 70
Character Education 71
Educational Administrators and the Social Sciences. . . 75
Educational Administration Textbooks. 77

IV. Educational Administration 1930-1940. 81

Status of Educational Administration in 1930. 81
The Depression. 88
Education and Business. 93
Equal Educational Opportunity 99
Administrative Reorganization 105
Educational Administration and Democracy. 106
Educational Administration Textbooks. 113

V. Educational Administration 1940-1950. 116

Training for Educational Administrators 116
Administrative Principles 126
Democracy and Educational Administration. 132
Educational Leadership. 142
Human Relations 148

VI. FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS. 155

Findings. 155

1910-1920. 155
1920-1930. 155
1930-1940. 156
1940-1950. 157

Conclusions 157
Recommendations 160

BIBLIOGRAPHY 161

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Figure		Page
1.	Traditional Chart of School Organization.	143
2.	Proposed Chart of the Organization of a School System . .	144

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1.	Textbook Analysis	42
2.	Textbook Analysis	79
3.	Textbook Analysis	114
4.	The Frequency with which the Items Included on the Check List in Educational Administration are Taught by Institutions of Higher Learning and the Percent that these Frequencies are of the Eighty-One Institutions Reporting, 1940.	122
5.	Number and Percent of Selected Institutions Offering Courses in Various Phases and Fields of Educational Administration in 1900, 1910, 1920, and 1930	124
6.	Textbook Analysis	153

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Foreword

The art and science of educational administration is a relatively new discipline. Education and administration have been interwoven in history and go back as far as Plato's Republic. Educational administration as a field of study in the United States, however, goes back only to the nineteenth century. The evolution of educational administration has been slow and it has been only recently that it has begun to grow rapidly and flourish with direction and purpose.

There have been many influences directing and redirecting the evolution of educational administration. One of the strongest of these has been the discoveries and developments in private business. This institution has played a large role in the development of educational administrative theory and practice. Understanding the development of educational administration would be incomplete without looking at the impact of business.

Background

The evolution of educational administration can be divided into three major chronological periods of development. These three periods are prior to 1900, 1900 to 1950, and from 1950 to present.

Prior to 1900

Before the turn of the century there were few educational administrators[1] and practically no body of knowledge dealing with the subject of educational administration. Many educational administrators were chosen because of their success as teachers in the classroom and operated almost entirely from past teaching experience. After displaying competencies in teaching, a new administrator would then be given the responsibilities of guiding and directing the work of newer inexperienced teachers, "He can go into any classroom, take the reins from the teacher, and drive the chariot around the columns more evenly and rapidly than the regular urger to speed and victory."[2]

The nineteenth century administrator needed also to possess the art of supervision. He must be the inspiration and guide to those he supervised.

> To enliven, to fill with ideals, to give wings to thought, and speed to act, belongs of right to those who lead and guide. In a school, as in any department of life, the most joyous of functions and the most useful of arts is to give strength to hands that would otherwise be weak, to give heart to motives that would otherwise be dull and uncertain, to give light to hopes and imaginings that would otherwise be lampless, depressed, insecure, feelingless.[3]

The theory of administration was only experience and art. The proper direction for education was open to individual interpretation. The measure of right or wrong, proper or improper was only the opinion and voice of the school administrator. The problem was not only that each

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[1] According to Callahan and Button there were only a handful of city superintendents, and only about two dozen state superintendents by 1870. See NSSE Yearbook, Chapter 4, 1964, p. 73.

[2] Louis J. Block, "School Supervision," Education (May, 1892): 560-561.

[3] Ibid., pp. 565-566.

administrator went his own way but that many times they did not know where that way was taking the school system. Grove expresses this point, ". . .each traveled the trail at his own gait, with rations and blanket only, and never knowing, though caring much, where each years tramping would end."[4]

Some educational administrators became well known and made great contributions to education. Among these were William T. Harris, Superintendent of the St. Louis School System in 1868 and who later became U.S. Commissioner of Education (1889-1906); William H. Payne, Superintendent of Schools, Adrian, Michigan in 1875, writer of the first book dealing with educational administration (Chapters on School Supervision). He later became Professor of Education at the University of Michigan in 1879 and taught what has been claimed to be the first college level course in school administration.[5] Other early administrators were Emerson E. White, W. N. Hailman, and Francis W. Parker.

1900-1950

The period from 1900 to 1910 was a period of transition between the philosophical, empirical era of the nineteenth century to the next era of scientific and business developments in educational administration from 1910 to 1950. During these forty years educational administration began to grow and develop. It was influenced by men in business such as Frederick W. Taylor, The Principles of Scientific Management; Henri Fayol, General and Industrial Management; Luther Gulick and Lyndol Urwich,

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[4] A. Grove, "The Trail of the City Superintendent," NEA Proceedings (1900): 215.

[5] NSSE Yearbook, Part 2 (University of Chicago Press: 1964): 75.

Papers on the Science of Adminstration; and others. It was also influenced by a different group interested not in the scientific approach to administration but in the human relations approach. Members of this group included Mary Parker Follett, Creative Experience; Elton Mayo, The Human Problems of an Industrial Civilization; Fritz Roethlisberger, Management and the Worker; Chester I. Barnard, The Functions of the Executive; and Herbert Simon, Administrative Behavior.

1950 to Present

The last major period is from 1950 to the present. In this period there has been a great involvement of many disciplines into educational administration. Private business, sociology, psychology, are only a few of the areas that have influenced educational administrative theory. Computer technology and systems theory along with theoretical models have expanded the administrator's horizon and challenged him in a way unparalleled in the history of educational administration.

A few of the contributors in this administrative era have been D. McGregor, G. Homans, A Maslow, C. Argyris, H. Simon, J. Getzel, E. Guba, A. Halpin, A. Etzioni, P. Blau, and R. Campbell.

Rationale for the Study of the 1910-1950 Era

The period of development from 1910 to 1950 was a very important, if not critical, time in the development of educational administrative theory and practice. Developments outside the field of education swayed and changed the directions of emphasis in educational administration. Professional programs of study were being developed in major colleges and universities for the training of future educational administrators. Economic and political positions put pressure on the schools to operate "efficiently." Many textbooks on the subject of school administration

were beginning to be written. In short, the very foundation was being built during this period. For this reason there is a need to study and record historically the influences and developments in educational administration during this time period.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this dissertation is to examine the evolution of educational administration from 1910 to 1950, and to identify and isolate the principal influences upon that evolution from business theory and practice.

Methodology

The nature of this study is historical. The procedure was to study the time period from 1910 to 1950 examining sources relating to educational administrative theory and practice especially as influenced by business. Sources were publications such as the National Education Association Addresses and Proceedings, founded 1857; The Journal of the National Education Association, founded 1916; Phi Delta Kappan, founded 1919; School and Society, founded 1915; Review of Educational Research, founded 1931; The Nation's Schools, founded 1928; The American School Board Journal, founded 1891; National Society for the Study of Education, founded 1895; American Association or School Administrators, founded 1866; Education Abstracts, founded 1936; and The Educational Forum, founded 1936.

An examination of educational and business writings that have had impact on education administration has been made. Works such as Frederick W. Taylor's The Principles of Scientific Management, Mary Parker Follett's Creative Experience, and Chester I. Barnard's The Functions of the Executive are examples of these writings.

Textbooks in educational administration were examined for developments and trends starting with the earlier works such as William Chancellor's Our City Schools: Their Direction and Management, (1908); Dutton and Snedden's The Administration of Public Education in the United States, (1908); and Ellwood P. Cubberly's Public School Administration, (1916).

Newspaper indexes, lectures, and government publications were used when there was a need for further documentation.

Specific attention was given to educational administration and to changes that occur in educational theory and practice during the period. The Readers' Guide to Periodic Literature and Poole's Guide was the starting point for the beginning of the research.

Developments and trends that are isolated in both educational and business theory and practice were compared to see what impact each has had on the other. An attempt was made to find developments in educational administration that found their beginning or were influenced by developments in business.

Limitations of the Study

1. Time limitations are from 1910 to 1950.
2. Teaching practices were considered only as they were influenced by developments in administrative theory.
3. Major business influences on the development of educational administrative theory and practice were examined; but major psychological, sociological, economic, or political developments were not included in the study.
4. The study of business theories or practices involved only those that had influenced the development of educational administrative theory.
5. Higher education was considered only as it applied to the training of educational administrators.

Chapter Outline

I. Introduction.

II. Educational administrative theory and practice and private business from 1910 to 1920.

III. Educational administrative theory and practice and private business from 1920 to 1930.

IV. Educational administrative theory and practice and private business from 1930 to 1940.

V. Educational administrative theory and practice and private business from 1940 to 1950.

VI. Findings, Conclusions, and Recommendations.

CHAPTER II

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION 1910-1920

Educational Administration in a Period of Change

The period from 1910 to 1920 was one of great transition in administrative thought. It was a period that saw many influences from different sources. One of the greatest influences upon educational administration was that exerted by the business world, with its concern for science, great growth, and for efficiency and economy.

> The master minds of the business and financial worlds have grasped the situation and are rapidly organizing the new forces and conditions; the educational and artisan worlds have not been so quick to move but are responding in a measure to the new impulses.[1]

The look to business and industry to help guide the actions of education was different from the philosophical, pedagogical guide that ruled before the turn of the century. School idols of the past had to be thrown down and destroyed to be replaced by the science of modern business.[2] The philosophical and psychological positions of educators were attacked as nonscientific and were considered subjective and not consistent with the correct objective truths of science.

> Unless it can stand objective tests such as other social reforms, the schools must lose the support on which their efficiency depends. To prevent this, sound educational theory

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[1] J. J. Stoddart, "The Outlook for Educational Administration," NEA Proceedings 48 (1910): 971.

[2] Ibid., p. 973.

> must displace educational history; philosophy and poetry must give way to economic facts; and objective tests must replace the subjective satisfactions education now offers. Only when this is done will we have an education worthy of the name.[3]

The schools and administrators were attacked for not using objective data to support their claims. The methods of teaching and the administration of the schools were open to criticism for the lack of a scientific base.[4]

> What then can the school offer to support its claims? Obviously, it must show results that can be readily seen and measured. Must definite reforms with measurable results give way, that an antiquated school system may grind out a useless product?[5]

The answer was no, for school leaders felt the pressure from business and society and began to make changes in their system.

Not only was there an emphasis on scientific measurement but also there was an emphasis on efficiency, thrift, and economy. Schools found themselves in competition for funds. They began to have to explain their budgets and the reasons for their expenditures in different areas. This was particularly true in the larger city school systems.

> Schools are now in competition for funds with the cities. The cities have figures to back up their needs for funds. The schools do not have any figures. Only the teacher is without figures. Should other worthwhile expenditures give way to schools? The world has moved away from the teacher. He must catch up or take the consequences.[6]

Those administering the schools needed help. The experience of past years of teaching and of being an educational leader would not meet

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[3]Simon N. Patten, "An Economic Measure of School Efficiency," Educational Review 41 (May, 1911): 477.

[4]Ibid., p. 470.

[5]Ibid., p. 468.

[6]Ibid., p. 468.

the demand for verification. The philosophical, psychological, and pedagogical positions could not be measured and therefore could not be used as evidence to support a particular position. The educational positions of administrators were looked upon as mere opinion and were not viewed as important and were many times ignored or successfully opposed. An address given before the National Education Association by Professor Paul Hanus of Harvard in 1913 illustrates the point.

> I maintained, at that time, that neither the organization of educational theory nor the organization of educational experience was attempted by any of us "educators" in any comprehensive or satisfactory fashion; that every superintendent was a law unto himself in these matters; and that because individual opinion and unappraised individual experience determined educational procedure, and these could be successfully ignored or opposed by other superintendents or by laymen, the guidance we needed for steady progress in education was lacking. The reason why laymen in education, school board members, or newspaper men, for example, often find it easy today as they found it easy in 1902, to advocate successfully questionable educational undertakings, or to oppose with equal success promising undertakings or fairly well-established practices, is that the margin between technical information and lay opinion is still too narrow. The only way to combat successfully mistaken common-sense as applied to educational affairs is to meet it with uncommon-sense in the same field--with technical information the validity of which is indisputable.[7]

The question was difficult. "How to meet these demands is the most difficult problem presented to those now administering school affairs."[8]

Business and Scientific Management

The schools looked to the business world to help provide the verification they needed to show society they were professional, modern, and scientific.

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[7]Paul H. Hanus, "Improving School Systems by Scientific Management," NEA Proceedings 51 (1913): 247-248.

[8]Stoddart, "Outlook for Educational Administration," p. 973.

> It is something which, in the first instance, does not wholly belong to the teaching force nor to the professors in the colleges, but it must be worked out largely by persons in close contact with the busy world, knowing its demands and able to show to those in charge of the schools what is necessary for the schools to do.[9]

The schools looked at one of the most popular movements that was taking place in the business world. This movement was known as Taylorism or Scientific Management. The father of this movement in the United States was Frederick Taylor. Some of Taylor's best known works are, A Piece Rate System published in 1895, Shop Management published in 1903, and Principles of Scientific Management published in 1911.

Frederick Taylor was born in Philadelphia 1856. His family was not wealthy but was cultured and reasonably well-to-do. He went to Phillips-Exeter Academy to prepare for the Harvard entrance examinations. Taylor led his class at the Academy. His eyes were damaged because of too much study by kerosene light. The doctors advised against Harvard and any career involving close study.

In 1874, he began an apprenticeship as a machinist in a small shop in Philadelphia. By 1878 he had become a journeyman machinist and pattern-maker. He left his job and began working for Midvale Steel Company as an ordinary laborer. Within eight years he had risen to the position of chief engineer of the works. While working at the steel company, he studied at Stevens Institute and earned a M.E. degree. In the course of his day-to-day work he developed and proved the value of a technique of management which he called the task system. This task system was called the Taylor System by his associates and eventually

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[9]Stoddart, "Outlook for Educational Administration," p. 973.

became designated as Scientific Management.[10] Taylor's technique grew from a conflict between him and workers.

> When he was appointed gang boss he sought to increase the output by putting pressure on the men. A serious struggle between gang boss and workers ensued. Taylor finally won in the struggle, but the experience hurt him. He gave the matter thought and decided that the primary cause of such conflicts is that management, without knowing what is a proper day's work, tries to secure output by pressure. If management knew what is a proper day's work, it could then get output by demonstration. He decided by experiment to discover what was a proper day's work for every operation in the shop. His experiments along this line continued throughout his service with the Midvale Steel Company, then at the Bethlehem Steel Company, and later in various types of enterprises as consultant. Within a few years he had developed a technique of managing that in its factual basis and scope was more effective both in productivity and in good worker relations than any management elsewhere.[11]

The ideas behind his work were different and involved not only what the workers could do to improve efficiency but also what management could do. The basic ideas of his system are as follows.

> This new technique of managing involved two major elements. First, discovery by experiment of the best way of performing and the proper time for every operation and every component unit of an operation: in the light of the state of the art, the best material, tool, machine, manipulation of tool or machine, and the best flow of work and sequence of unit operations. These data were classified, indexed and lodged in the data files for use as new orders came along. Second, a new division of labor as between management and workers: the assignment to management of the responsibility for discovering these best ways of performing units of operations, and the further responsibility of planning operations and actually making available at the proper time and place, and in the quantity, the materials, tools, instructions, and other facilities required from this technique of management by the workers. The great gains in productivity accruing come not from greater exertion on the part of workers (it is generally simplified and reduced) but from elimination of waste of workers' time and machine time through delays of misapplied effort, of failure in coordination of quantities and so forth.[12]

[10]Frederick W. Taylor, Scientific Management (New York: Harper & Row, 1947), p. viii-ix.

[11]Frederick W. Taylor and Harlow S. Person, Scientific Management, 1947), p. x.

[12]Ibid., p. x-xi.

Scientific management is essentially a system for getting greater productivity from human labor. According to Taylor most plants operate at only about one-half their maximum output. The reasons for this were faulty management and soldiering on the part of the workers. Methods used in plants were sometimes good, sometimes bad, but they were always unscientific. There was only one good method and it could only be determined through scientific study.[13] The procedures of scientific management are basically four in number:

> First. They develop a science for each element of a man's work, which replaces the rule-of-thumb method.
> Second. They scientifically select and then train, teach, and develop the workman, whereas in the past he chose his own work and trained himself as best he could.
> Third. They heartily cooperate with the men so as to insure all of the work being done in accordance with the principles of the science which has been developed.
> Fourth. There is an almost equal division of the work and the responsibility between the management and the workmen. The management takes over all work for which they are better fitted than the workmen, while in the past almost all of the work and the greater part of the responsibility were thrown upon the men.[14]

His work became known as "time and motion" studies which were characterized by the stop watch.

Scientific management became popular not only in the United States, but in several foreign nations. It promised to cut waste, improve efficiency, improve employer-employee relationships and increase the earnings of the worker. It became very popular in business practices and seemed to solve many of the problems that were besetting the industrial sections of our nation. Many educators found what they were

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[13] Raymond E. Callahan, Education and the Cult of Efficiency, (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1962), p. 25-26.

[14] Ibid., p. 27.

looking for in the science and documentation of Taylor's scientific management.[15]

> Lately we have had a striking demonstration of what experimental science could do by reducing the motions in laying bricks and the fatigue in handling pig-iron. It will hardly be pretended that scientific efficiency is of less consequence in the schools.[16]

F. E. Spaulding, Superintendent of Newton Schools, Newtonville, Massachusetts, remarked:

> We may at first doubt that scientific management has applicability to the education industry or any other management technique that is characterized as scientific. But when we learn of the marvelous results achieved in some material industries thru the elimination of waste motions. . ., we are somewhat reassured; for we are impressed with the fact that great improvements, if not perfect efficiency, may arise from observations and measurement that are relatively crude.[17]

Scientific management was not only being recommended for use by school systems but its use was at times demanded by some of its followers. "The progressive improvement of a school system demands that these essentials of scientific management be applied incessantly."[18] The old authority of experience and opinion was giving way in all areas of school life. Not only was the material nature of the school under revision but so was its spiritual side.

> Authoritative or dogmatic control in education is going the way of mere authority and dogma in human affairs generally.

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[15] For an excellent discussion of scientific management and its influence on educational administration, see Education and the Cult of Efficiency, Raymond E. Callahan, Chicago, The University of Chicago Press, 1962.

[16] Joseph S. Taylor, "Measurement of Educational Efficiency," Educational Review 44 (November, 1912): 348.

[17] F. E. Spaulding, "The Application of the Principles of Scientific Management," NEA Proceedings 51 (1913): 260.

[18] Ibid.

> They cannot survive unless they can experimentally establish their validity as instruments for promoting the material and spiritual welfare of mankind.[19]

Educators looked at the methods used by Taylor and began to adapt the method for use in education. The procedures are relatively simple and were described by Superintendent Spaulding.

> Scientific management is a method. . .the essentials of this method are:
>
> 1. The measurement and comparison of comparable results.
> 2. The analysis and comparison of conditions under which given results are secured -- especially of the means and time employed in securing given results.
> 3. The consistent adoption and use of those means that justify themselves most fully by their results, abandoning those that fail so to justify themselves.[20]

Many superintendents became followers of scientific management and shared the beliefs of Superintendent J. M. Greenwood, Superintendent of Schools, Kansas City, Missouri. "To substitute systematized scientific management of schools for unsystematized management is the subject to think about, and to measure oneself by."[21] The very justification for administration became the prevention of waste regarding the teacher and their product.[22] The role then of the administrator became one of utilizing the principles of scientific management in the everyday workings and events of the school.

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[19]Hanus, "Improving School Systems by Scientific Management," p. 248.

[20]Spaulding, "Application of the Principles of Scientific Management," p. 260.

[21]J. M. Greenwood, "Scientific Management in Education," Journal of Education 77 (February 13, 1913): 174-175.

[22]Edward C. Elliott, "How Shall the Efficiency of Teachers be Tested and Recorded?" NEA Proceedings 53 (1915): 472.

The measure of efficiency in scientific management theory was the dollar. To gain the greatest return on the least invested was the measure of efficiency. This became the guideline for school administrators to use in their measure of school efficiency. The question of school efficiency is ". . .not the amount spent, but the return secured for the money expended."[23] A request was even made for a national committee or board on school efficiency to be established.[24] The dollar became the measurement by which all programs, classes, operations, or practices were to be compared.

> In making measurements that possess these characteristics of practical reliability, usability, and usefulness, no other unit of measure can compare, either in significance or in the extent of its applicability, with the dollar. How much--how many definite units--of anything, material or immaterial, does one dollar buy or produce; or, what is the cost of any definite unit or number of units of anything that the schools are trying to produce? How is each dollar of expenditure apportioned among the various things--services, plant, equipment, supplies--that are bought? Such questions as these, directed with discrimination, demand measurements that penetrate to the very heart of administrative efficiency.[25]

Scientific management's influence with its method of measuring efficiency continued to grow and become more popular. Scientific management was continually heard of in the schools, especially in the area of school administration. Administrators were about the business of trying to measure accurately the returns on the financial investments made in education.[26]

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[23]George D. Strayer, "Report of the Committee on Test and Standards of Efficiency in Schools and School Systems," NEA Proceedings 51 (1913): 394.

[24]Ibid., p. 397.

[25]Frank E. Spaulding, "Discussion," NEA Proceedings 52 (1914): 306.

[26]George D. Strayer, "Topic: By What Standards or Test shall the Efficiency of a School or System of Schools be Measured?" NEA Proceedings 50 (1912): 360.

Educational efficiency was based on two phases, the financial and the educational. Examples of the financial phase consisted of establishing:

1. Standardized cost in heating.
2. Standardized cost of light and water.
3. Standardized cost for janitorial service.
4. Standardized cost for janitor's supplies.

Examples of the educational phases consisted of establishing:

1. Cost per pupil hour of each regular subject (elementary and secondary).
2. Cost per pupil hour of each special subject,
3. Cost per room or square foot in new buildings.
4. Studies on cost of repairs on older buildings.
5. Measurement of general school results in terms of school progress.
6. Measurement of standardized achievements in school subjects.
7. Experiments to test the value of methods of teaching.
8. Experiments to test the value of plans of organization.
9. Standardization of subject matter for each grade.
10. And contributing to the education world, as a final result of this work, a body of scientifically tested educational principles.[27]

The educational phase became involved with the financial phase with the dollar still being the primary unit of measurement for efficiency. The idea of student retention in grades for example began to be looked upon as inefficient and became an area of concern. "It is the

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[27]George Melcher, "The Two Phases of Educational Research and Efficiency in the Public Schools, NEA Proceedings 54 (1916): 1074-1078.

consensus of opinion that there is generally too much retardation in the elementary schools. Hence, the subject of school progress is worthy of continued and careful consideration by school administrators."[28] To hold a student back in a grade was expensive and that became a primary factor in the promotion of the students, sometimes with little regard for the quality of learning that had taken place.

School systems began to compare the cost of certain accomplishments with the cost of others. F. E. Spaulding, Superintendent of Newton Schools, Newtonville, Massachusetts, produced graphs showing equivalent educational values in the Newton High School as shown by the purchasing power of a dollar expended for class instruction, showing relative valuation of different subjects in the Newton secondary schools as shown in the apportionment of every dollar expended for instruction, showing cost of one pupil-recitation in certain subjects, showing cost of regular classroom instruction between years 1903-1904 and 1910-1911.[29] He said Newton was "pursuing right now in our efforts to improve our school system thru the application of the principles of scientific management."[30]

On one of his investigations, Spaulding found that the price per pupil-recitation was high in the teaching of Greek. His position upon learning this was:

> I know nothing about the absolute value of a recitation in Greek as compared with a recitation in French or English.

---

[28]Melcher, "Two Phases of Educational Research and Efficiency," p. 1075.

[29]Spaulding, "Application of the Principles of Scientific Management," p. 259-279.

[30]Ibid., p. 279.

> I am convinced, however, . . .we ought to purchase no more Greek instruction at the rate of 5.9 pupil recitations for a dollar. The price must go down, or we shall invest in something else.[31]

The ideas of efficiency, economy, thrift, waste and productiveness became very important in the life of the school administrator. J. J. Stoddart, who was President of the Columbus, Ohio, School Board, stated, ". . .the object of education and the true administration of means and methods of education in this country should be to enable the masses to enrich their lives by the highest productiveness possible to each individual."[32] He continued his statement by saying that "the masses must be guided by the skilled masters of industry. . ."[33] Scientific management from the business world with its concern for efficiency was becoming widely adopted and practiced in the schools. Methods of operating were being examined by school boards and superintendents to see if their systems could be run more efficiently. There were articles and speeches discussing many different ways of economizing. William H. Maxwell, Superintendent of Schools, New York City, was calling for the use of facilities during the afternoons, all week long, and all year long.[34] Most of the authors writing on this topic in the 1910 NEA Proceedings took similar positions. The idea taken from business was that the "investment should yield the greatest possible return."[35]

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[31]Spaulding, "Application of the Principles of Scientific Management," p. 265.

[32]Stoddart, "Outlook for Educational Administration," p. 972.

[33]Ibid.

[34]William H. Maxwell, "The Economical Use of School Buildings," NEA Proceedings 48 (1910): 326.

[35]Arthur H. Chamberlain, "Discussion," NEA Proceedings 48 (1910): 335.

The Gary Plan

The Gary School Plan was one that was based very heavily on scientific management for its organization and operation. The Gary Plan was based on four general principles of scientific management. The first of these was to utilize all the facilities all of the time--all the classrooms being used the entire day. "All the plant is used all the available time. None of it is to be idle any portion of the school day."[36] It would be too wasteful in terms of scientific management for a building to lie idle.

> That an expensive plant should lie idle during all of Saturday and Sunday while "street and alley time" is undoing the good work of the schools is a further thorn in the flesh of the clear-sighted educational engineer.[37]

It is significant to point to Professor Bobbitt's use of the term educational engineer in reference to school administrators. The buildings at Gary were used on Saturday and Sunday for voluntary study groups and an attempt was made to keep them open during the two summer months, but the laws of the state prevented this. "A second principle of scientific management is to reduce the number of workers to a minimum by keeping each at the maximum of his working efficiency."[38] This was accomplished in some cases by increasing the number of students in class so that fewer teachers would be required. Educational research studies were conducted to determine what the most efficient class size would be. One such study concluded:

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[36]John Franklin Bobbitt, "Elimination of Waste in Education," The Elementary School Teacher 12 (February, 1912): 263.

[37]Ibid.

[38]Ibid., p. 264.

> . . .we have much evidence in the present and previous studies to warrant the recommendations that, in general, classes in the elementary school of less than 40, especially below the seventh grade; be increased to an enrollment of 40 to 45. The investigations to date indicate that this can be done under our present system without loss in efficiency.[39]

The "third principle of scientific management is to eliminate waste."[40] Gary accomplished this principle by encouraging teachers to give special aid to students during study times, by having voluntary Saturday classes, by giving double work in a subject, and by extending the school day two hours for students to play on the school grounds under regular playground teachers.[41] The fourth principle of scientific management used at Gary was to ". . .work up the raw material into that finished product for which it is best adapted. Applied to education this means; educate the individual according to his capabilities."[42]

The Gary system's instructional program was organized into two areas. The Regular Studies consisting of arithmetic, history, geography, reading, writing, spelling, and composition; and the Special Activities consisting of auditorium, school garden, workrooms, shops, laboratories, and playground. Half of the classes would be in Regular Studies while the other half would be in Special Activities. There was just enough classroom space for half of the students and just enough space in the Special Activities for the other half.

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[39]Frederick S. Breed and Grace D. McCarthy, "Size of Class and Efficiency of Teaching," Educational Research and Statistics 4 (December 23, 1916): 971.

[40]Bobbitt, "Elimination of Waste," p. 266.

[41]Ibid., p. 267.

[42]Ibid., p. 269.

This saved half of the regular space needed for facilities. All of the facilities were used all of the time. The two groups would just change places at the required time during the day. This not only saved on the facilities but also on the number of teachers needed. It was thought that the system was more efficient because teachers would teach only in one subject area. William E. Wirt, Superintendent of Schools at Gary summed up the philosophy of the Gary system when he said, "Tremendous progress can be made in education thru school administration by getting greater returns for the money we are now spending. The key to the solution of this problem is the multiple use of all public child-welfare facilities."[43]

The School Survey

Other practices started from the scientific efficiency movement. One of these was the school survey. The term school survey was started in 1910 when university professors Hanus of Harvard and Moore of Yale conducted studies of two school systems. These systems were Montclair and East Orange in New Jersey. They both used the word "survey" to designate a section of their reports.[44] The purpose of the survey was to educate the public. Ellwood P. Cubberley, Professor of Education, Stanford University, conducted school surveys in Ohio in 1913-1914, in Vermont 1913, and in Maryland 1915. By 1915 there had been only thirty

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[43]William E. Wirt, "The Control of Educational Progress Thru School Administration," NEA Proceedings 55 (1917): 186.

[44]Leonard P. Ayres, "Efficiency of Schools and School Systems," NEA Proceedings 53 (1915): 384-389.

educational surveys accomplished.[45] However, the number increased rapidly. These were among the best.

Surveys were expensive--some of them costing hundreds of thousands of dollars.[46] The school survey was a local study usually conducted by an external, impartial group. The "survey studied the educational resources, needs and practices of the system from a social, economic and educational point of view. What is good in a system should be evaluated, and what is fundamentally bad should be pointed out."[47] They were to bring to the surface problems in the community in regards to its educational system.[48]

The school survey was used as a scientific tool in this scientific era. "They will soon be a part of the modern scientific method in education which was only emerging from theory and experiment a scant ten years ago but which is profoundly reshaping our educational systems today."[49] The survey was sometimes thought of as the only method of studying the schools. Reynold E. Blight, a school board member in Los Angeles, stated, "This is why I so heartily favor surveys of school system. . . . It is a slow process, I admit, but the only method that promises permanent results."[50]

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[45]Ayres, "Efficiency of Schools and School Systems," p. 385.

[46]Ibid.

[47]Ellwood P. Cubberley, "School Survey," NEA Proceedings 53 (1915): 1033.

[48]Ibid.

[49]Leonard P. Ayres, "Significant Developments in Educational Surveying," NEA Proceedings 54 (1916): 1001.

[50]Reynold E. Blight, "Is the Board of Education an Incubus on Modern Education?" NEA Proceedings 53 (1915): 1040.

The measurement of efficiency accomplished by the school survey was acclaimed as its greatest asset. School superintendents were asking for them to show to the public that their schools were being run efficiently. Superintendents were under pressure from local taxpayers to show that the schools were not wasteful, but were being run efficiently and scientifically. Referring to the taxpayers and the school survey, C. S. Meek, Superintendent, Boise, Idaho, said:

> They want to know that no part of the vast sums they each year pay for the support of public education is wasted, but that all of it is wisely and economically expended; that all of it is yielding for their children the greatest possible return in terms of educational units.[51]

Geroge D. Strayer in the Report of the Committee on Tests and Standards of Efficiency in Schools and School Systems summarized the purpose of the school survey:

> A school survey may be defined as an inquiry concerning public education which seeks to acquaint the public with all of the educational agencies supported in whole, or in part, by public moneys, with respect to their organization, administration, supervision, cost, physical equipment, course of study, teaching staff, method of teaching, student body, and results as measured by the achievements of those who are being trained or have been trained therein.[52]

The goal of the survey was to increase the efficiency of the system. "When surveys involve the men of highest scientific attainment and of sound professional judgements, we shall get recommendations which, if followed, will make for the increased efficiency of public education."[53]

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[51] C. S. Meek, "The Public-School Survey," NEA Proceedings 52 (1914): 310.

[52] Strayer, "Report on Test and Standards of Efficiency," p. 322.

[53] Ibid., p. 306.

The school survey had great impact in the area of school administration. It was considered to be a great improvement in the science of administration.

> Mention should be made of the improvement in school administration thru the influence of the school survey. They have at least shown a method of attacking educational problems, and they have aroused greater interest in school administration, especially in the approach from the fact side.[54]

Standardized Tests, Thrift, College Courses

Administrators were beginning to use standardized tests also to help show the efficiency of their school systems. Some of the different types of tests that were developed were the Stone Arithmetic Test, Courtis Arithmetic Test, Thorndike Writing Scale, and the Hillegas English-Composition Scale. The use of these standardized tests became an important movement in educational administration. The tests were used to:

1. Compare the achievements of children in one school system with the achievement of children in other cities.
2. To compare the achievements of children in the several school buildings or other administrative units within the school system.
3. To study the progress of children in any given subject from grade to grade.
4. To indicate for any period or succession of periods the progress made by any particular group or groups of children.[55]

By using the findings or results of these tests school administrators could compare the efficiency of their school system with

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[54] W. S. Deffenbaugh, "Recent Growth In Administration of City Schools," NEA Proceedings 56 (1918): 362.

[55] George D. Strayer, "The Use of Test and Scales of Measurement in the Administration of Schools," NEA Proceedings 53 (1915): 579-582.

other systems. They could also isolate schools within their system that were operating either efficiently or inefficiently. "It may be asserted with confidence that tests and scales of measurement will be used in increasing measure by administrative officers because of the precise knowledge concerning school conditions which can be gained in this way, . . ."[56]

Thrift in Schools

Thrift and waste continued to be important factors in the administration of schools. In 1916 the National Council of Education in the National Educational Proceedings gave at least eight speeches dealing with the topic of thrift. Approximately one-half of their speeches dealt with the problem of thrift in America and in the schools. Arthur H. Chamberlain, the editor of the "Sierra Education News," San Francisco, California stated:

> There is great personal loss and wastage in time, money and energy. The coming of the war and the lessons taught in a concrete and severe way by the great conflict serve as object lessons in bringing to life many weaknesses. . .in our schools.[57]

Scientific management with its emphasis on time, thrift, and waste shaped the thought of many superintendents in the United States. Harry B. Wilson, Superintendent of Schools, Topeka, Kansas, reflected the mood at the time among administrators.

> It is evident that time may be economized in public education either by doing more work in the time consumed or by doing approximately the same work in less time. It is evident that the

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[56] Strayer, "Use of Test and Scales of Mesurement," p. 582.

[57] Arthur H. Chamberlain, "Thrift in the Public Schools," NEA Proceedings 56 (1918): 140.

> schools are responsible for economizing time in all respects in which waste now exists.[58]

Scientific investigation into the areas of administration to help increase efficiency had become a vital part of administration.

> In order to secure the necessary facts on which to base wise and efficient supervision, careful and scientific inquiries must be made and definite tests and standards must be established and used in measuring educational efficiency.[59]

Colleges of Education were building courses of study around the principles found in science and efficiency. Lotus D. Coffman, Professor of Education, University of Minnesota, stated that, "Progress in supervision should be made thru the careful and scientific study of its problems. Mere opinion must give way to facts secured thru trustworthy investigations."[60]

Criticism of Scientific Management in Education

There was from the beginning of the scientific management efficiency era a small number of professionals that were either totally opposed to the movement or opposed to it, at least, in part. Some believed that it was not science or efficiency that made for a better administrative situation but that it was a humane, caring, personal relationship that was important.

> In most towns it is not by innovations, discoveries, proclamations, or other newspaper leads which are so frequently generated in purely office administrations, but just by the happy patient living with the teachers and their little flocks, praising or

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[58]Harry B. Wilson, "Economy of Time in Education," Journal of Education 80 (July 23, 1914): 105.

[59]Melcher, "Two Phases of Education Research and Efficiency," p. 1073.

[60]Lotus D. Coffman, "Control of Progress Thru Supervision," NEA Proceedings 55 (1917): 192.

> correcting thru the days, that we earn an honest wage. Such a superintendent remains a schoolmaster. He is not too anxious to excel as a business man or a politician. His schoolcraft will grow in skill, and will seem increasingly worthy of a devoted life, as he beholds it in actual application by his comrades in the ranks.[61]

H. G. Townsend of Smith College expressed the point that one should use the help that any science can give, but with all the getting one should get understanding.[62]

Some administrators were not only concerned for the great attention given to the scientific management business approach to education, but were also very much concerned about the lack of work being accomplished in the ethical and character building areas of education. Charles W. Cookson, Superintendent of Schools, Troy, Ohio, made this position very clear.

> It has been said, and said repeatedly, by the most thoughtful that the education which neglects the spiritual is a farce. Not withstanding this fact, the intellectual predominates in the school measurements. Teachers are rated very largely by marks in scholarship; pupils are promoted on the basis of their ability to pass certain mental tests, students are graduated from college and university when they have gained definite intellectual accomplishments; yet all recognize that intellectual education alone never has and never will save a nation, uplift a people, sanctify a home, purify a ballot, aid in law respecting or law enforcing, or cause an individual to be transfigured into the likeness of Him who spake as never man spake.
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> When the acquisition of knowledge is secondary and the training for citizenship is fundamental, then scrutinizing surveys and statistical reports will give records of self-sacrifice, of service, of devotion to duty.[63]

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[61] Milton C. Potter, "Roundtable of Superintendents of Small Cities," NEA Proceedings 51 (1913): 298.

[62] H. G. Townsend, "Science in Education," Educational Review 51 (March, 1916): 295-304.

[63] Charles W. Cookson, "The Ethical as the Essential Factor in Training for Efficient Citizenship in a Democracy," NEA Proceedings 54 (1916): 1070-1071.

Educators and administrators were beginning to admit that many methods and results in the public schools were nonexaminable and impossible by quantitative methods to qualify their work.[64] The point was even expressed that those who were working only in the theoretical area and not in the real experiences of schools would be sure to err in their conclusions about practical work.[65]

Disagreement was also developing among past advocates of scientific management about the real values of the scientific approach. George D. Strayer began to caution against the danger of looking at too small a part of a school system with the result being an overemphasis of one phase of school activity.[66] Some superintendents were criticizing advocates of different statistical test plans measuring school efficiency.[67] William H. Maxwell, Superintendent of Schools, New York, New York, described the efficiency movement as a new doctrine and said that new doctrine usually ran a regular course. This course has three stages. In the first stage, everything hitherto done in the school is wrong. In the second stage, if the new theory receives popular support everything will be well and the new method will be described as a panacea that will cure all educational ills. In the third stage, teachers will have pulled away all the preposterous claims of its advocates, and have used whatever

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[64]Samuel T. Dutton, "The Investigation of School Systems," Educational Review 47 (January, 1914): 58.

[65]Ibid., p. 51.

[66]George D. Strayer, "By What Standards or Test Shall the Efficiency of a School or System of Schools be Measured?" NEA Proceedings 50 (1912): 563.

[67]William H. Maxwell, "Efficiency of Schools and School Systems," NEA Proceedings 52 (1914): 395-402.

small kernel of truth it contains or conceals.[68] It was recognized that the scientific management principles were not completely adaptable to education.

> The motions of teaching are not comparable to the motions of bricklaying. The bricklayer, with an identical series of motions, is able to produce immediately the same material results. The teacher, with such an identical series is confronted with pupils results, extremely variable and extremely remote.[69]

School Boards, Corporation Schools, Business Ethics and Merit Pay

One of the most direct ways that business influenced education was that of businessmen serving on school boards. The principles of business management were felt in the policies and directives handed down from these boards. Their impact is shown in this statement:

> The board of education is the dominating element in our school system. Boards of education for the most part are not educators, they are business men, trained in business, and when an order emanates from the board of education it goes down through the superintendent to the principal, thru the principals to the teachers, and the teachers do what they are told.[70]

Schools were looked upon as businesses. School board members were acquainted with the ideas of business and the expenditure of funds. So the expenditure of funds in the minds of many school board members also required facts. Opinion or experience was not enough. School business must also be operated on a basis of fact.[71]

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[68] Maxwell, "Efficiency of Schools and School Systems," p. 400.

[69] Elliott, "How Shall Efficiency of Teachers be Tested," p. 472.

[70] Frances E. Harden, "A Plea for Greater Democracy in our Public Schools," NEA Proceedings 57 (1919): 391.

[71] Melcher, "Two Phases of Educational Research and Efficiency," pp. 1073-1078.

Some businesses actually became involved in the field of education by establishing their own schools. Corporations established schools to train their employees in areas that were lacking on their leaving the public schools. Ford Motor Company established schools to teach several subjects to their employees. The Ford English School taught courses in speaking, reading and writing English, and in arithmetic. Employees were at times pressured to attend this school. The point is illustrated by a quote from a Ford employee.

> This course is not exactly optional. A man who declines to take it is laid off for a couple of weeks in order that he may have time to think it over. If after further persuasion he refuses to attend the classes, he is given an opportunity to find employment elsewhere.[72]

The image of Ford and his organization was upheld by statements like the following:

> Henry Ford's greatest desire in life is to make others happy. Incidentally he has proved to the world that the business of making others happy pays commercially. But the fact it pays is not his first consideration. It seems that every time he discovers a way of making more people happy, more money pours in.[73]

These comments were given before school superintendents during the 1917 National Education Association's annual meeting.

The corporation schools were important to education. In 1912 the National Association of Corporation Schools was formed. The Association had three functions, one of which was, "To influence courses of established educational institutions more favorably toward industry."[74]

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[72]Samuel S. Marquis, "The Ford Idea in Education," NEA Proceedings 54 (1916): 916-917.

[73]Ibid.

[74]W. L. Chandler, "Corporation School and Public Schools," NEA Proceedings 53 (1915): 380.

It was believed that business ethics should be taught in schools.

> There are certain business ethics which might well reflect throughout school life, such as turning out work on time, making delivery to the customer at the time promised, keeping the product up to a standard degree of excellence, always endeavoring to increase sales, etc.[75]

The recommendation was made that schools should train industrial employees. The schools could use the ". . .shops, stores, and offices of industry as laboratories of the schools, ..."[76] Teachers, in order to better understand the relationships of business to schools, should be given jobs in industry during their vacations. "In this way, the schools and business can cooperate in furnishing high-grade employees."[77] It was also stated that, ". . .schools are like factories turning out graduates, which in turn, become employees of business houses and may be considered the raw material of business."[78]

It was believed that the schools took too much time trying to work on matters of little importance. They were concerned with "aims of education, relation of the school to the community, the six-and-six plan. The educational world is slow. All this time the industrial god has been at work, and are we keeping up with him?"[79]

The recommendation of establishing a system of merit pay for teachers based on the methods used in business was suggested. The desire of some administrators to apply sound business principles resulted in

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[75] Chandler, "Corporation School and Public Schools," p. 321.

[76] Ibid.

[77] Ibid.

[78] Ibid., p. 319.

[79] Arthur D. Dean, "A State Program for Industrial and Social Efficiency," NEA Proceedings 53 (1915): 292.

the adoption of a form of a merit system for the establishing of salaries and for promoting teachers.[80] A foundation plan for determining teacher merit was devised by Edward C. Elliott, University of Wisconsin, in 1915.[81] It was very similar to the Management by Objectives Model used in business and administration today.

Selection, Training, and Role of Educational Administrators Changing

The influence business had on education and its administration was felt in several ways in addition to the great impact made by Frederick W. Taylor's scientific management theory.

The use of scientific methods and the impact of business, including scientific management from the business community, had a great impact on the development of a science or theory of educational administration. Ellwood P. Cubberley, a teacher and leader in administration said,

> Finally, the recent attempts to survey and measure school systems and to determine the efficiency of instruction along scientific lines have alike served to develop a scientific method for attacking administrative problems which promises to compel us soon to rewrite the whole of our theory of school administration in terms of these new units and scales for measuring educational progress and determining educational efficiency.[82]

The procedures for the selection and training of school administrators were in need of change because of the scientific movement. Teachers were still being appointed to administrative positions with

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[80] Clyde C. Green, "The Promotion of Teachers on the Basis of Merit and Efficiency," NEA Proceedings, 53 (1915): 473.

[81] Elliott, "How Shall Efficiency of Teachers be Tested," p. 472.

[82] Ellwood P. Cubberley, "Desirable Reorganizations in American Education," School and Society 2 (September 18, 1915): 399.

little or no training. They supervised teachers under them utilizing only the experience they had received in the classroom.[83] This condition was recognized to be in need of correction.

> We shall all agree that there is no adequate provision at the present time for the training of such officers. The common practice of schools is to select some teacher who has been exceptionally successful in meeting classroom problems and to promote this teacher to the position of principal of a school building. The newly appointed administrative officer, at best, rushes off to summer school and gets a few ideas and methods. At worst, and more commonly, the new principal blunders along and learns the problem and principles of administration by the expensive methods of trial and error.[84]

Ellwood P. Cubberley was convinced that there was a real need in our school systems for "men of insight, capacity, adequate professional education, and large executive skill for the management of our . . . schools."[85] He thought that the need for better trained professional administrators pointed unmistakenly to the development of a profession of school administration.[86] Other professionals joined this position and called for better training for school administrators. "In considering waste in education, therefore, no problem looms up larger than the preliminary and after-training of suitable principals."[87] Colleges were begining to offer work in the field of school administration but many

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[83]Lotus D. Coffman, "The Control of Educational Progress Through School Supervision," NEA Proceedings 55 (1917): 187-194.

[84]Charles H. Judd, "Curriculum for School Administrators," School and Society 7 (June 1, 1918): 637.

[85]Ellwood P. Cubberley, "Organization of Public Education," NEA Proceedings 53 (1915): 95.

[86]Ibid.

[87]"Economy of Time in Education," The Elementary School Teacher 14 (December 1913): 146-148.

times there was only one course offered and it was "a broad, general lecture course."[88] The condition existed in some school districts where administrators had less training than teachers.

> For example, in a certain large city 74 percent of the principals had normal training or better. While 83 percent of teachers had normal training or better. In the same city 3 percent of the principals were college graduates, while 7 percent of the teachers were college graduates. In another city the average years of professional training on the part of men teachers is 2.88, while that on the part of men principals is 2.6. In the five cities studies. . .the supervising officials had an average training of 2.6 years, ... In the same system the average training of a high school teacher was 3.6 years.[89]

The need for superintendents to become better trained was present. Superintendents were being called on to be not only college graduates but to have teaching experience and to have special professional training.[90] The position of the superintendent required a great deal of professional competence.

> The superintendent should not only know the science and the art of teaching but should also know the practical technique of teaching, the theory of supervision, and the science of measurements through actual experience; he should also be able to make a survey to find the needs of his teachers in service and to devise ways and means to meet these needs.[91]

The superintendent started to stand out as a professional. He was being thought of as a businessman, man of affairs, and as a leader in the community.[92] He was being asked to perform many roles in

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[88] Judd, "Curriculum for School Administrators," p. 638.

[89] Ernest Horn, "How Leadership in Making New Adjustments in Education Must be Provided," NEA Proceedings 56 (1918): 630.

[90] Frank P. Bachman, "The School Superintendent and His Training," Education 30 (February, 1910): 368-373.

[91] W. G. Coburn, "Preparation of Supervisory and Administrative Officers," NEA Proceedings 57 (1919): 251.

[92] Fred M. Hunter, "Discussion," NEA Proceedings 57 (1918): 620-623.

the school system. Not only was he to be the educational leader but he was to know all about the facilities and equipment.

> He should know not only the details of the school plant and equipment, from pens and ink to plumbing fixtures and vacuum cleaners, but he should be an expert in school architecture, warming, ventilating, school-seating, decorating and landscape gardening.[93]

The role became too big in some systems and business managers were hired, on an equal status with the superintendent, to handle the business matters. Cleveland had a dual superintendent situation. One was the business superintendent, the other was the educational superintendent. This situation did not seem to be too satisfactory. "The business department is steadily growing in relative importance and threatens to dominate the school system."[94] The role of the superintendent continued to be a large one and attempts were made to try and make the job expectations realistic. Some school systems did realize that the job was too big for one man and restricted his role. They decided it was enough for a superintendent to ". . .handle a large corp of teachers, and keep abreast of educational developments in all parts of the country. . ."[95]

The new type of superintendent had to be a man who could use facts to show his position and the status of his school system. He had to make annual reports that were based on definite measurements.[96] The need for administrators at all levels to be better trained and to be able

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[93]William M. Vance, "How Shall the Superintendent Measure His Own Efficiency?" Journal of Education 80 (December 10, 1914): 561.

[94]"Searching for a Superintendent," Journal of Education 84 (December 21, 1916): 626.

[95]E. Shorrock, "Some Unsolved Problems in School Administration," NEA Proceedings 55 (1917): 357.

[96]Deffenbaugh, "Recent Growth," pp. 361-362.

to use the principles of business was present. The administrator's need for training, his role, and his status were changing. "New methods of transacting both public and private business have been introduced, and the need for larger units of administration and administrators of larger grasps have become evident to most of our people."[97]

Educational Administration and Democracy

A very important situation developed in the public schools during World War I. This situation influenced the direction of educational administrative development. World War I was thought by many to be the war that would make the world safe for democracy. As this belief grew, people began to look at the public schools and to see a lack of democracy in their operation. They saw autocracy in the school at almost every level. The superintendent's role, for example, had a history of being autocratic. It had long been taught that, ". . .his should be the final word in the nomination and assignment of teachers, the promotion and transfer of pupils, the choice of textbooks, the preparation of the courses of study, and the supervision of the work."[98] There was a negative reaction to the lack of democracy in the schools. People began to ask why we were fighting for democracy when our public schools were training students by using autocratic methods. Statements such as this were numerous, "Every school house must be a community center of true democracy."[99] In the administration of schools the call for democracy was clear.

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[97]Cubberley, "Organization of Public Education," p. 92.

[98]Vance, "How Shall the Superintendent Measure His Own Efficiency," p. 571.

[99]George D. Strayer, "The National Emergency in Education," NEA Proceedings 56 (1918): 130.

> At this crisis the world is alert as never before to the principle of democracy, and public opinion is ready to react against anything savoring of the autocratic in school administration. A proper school administration must provide the opportunity for a free exchange of opinion between teachers and executive.[100]

Boards of educations were criticized for their lack of democratic practice. The charge was made that "The most dangerous center of arbitrary power of the public schools has sometimes been the board of education."[101]

The methods and practices of educational administrators were undergoing a change from an autocratic emphasis to a democratic emphasis. The war was being fought to change autocracy in government so the change from autocracy in administration to that of democracy was wise and necessary.[102] If a superintendent was not operating according to the principles of democracy, he could find himself in difficulty. For ". . .when he is found wanting he should be succeeded by another who has the ability to meet standards worthy of our democracy."[103]

Democracy was making a tremendous change in the thought, development, and practice of all of those concerned with the schools. The war to make the world safe for democracy was placing pressure on the schools to turn from many of their autocratic practices. School administrators were working to try and continue their scientific and business methods and at the same time trying to develop a democratic spirit within the system.

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[100] C. R. Frazier, "Discussion," NEA Proceedings 55 (1917): 239.

[101] Charles B. Stillman, "Democratic Management of the Schools," NEA Proceedings 58 (1920): 178-179.

[102] Edward C. Balwin, "Educator's Problems from the Business Man's Standpoint," The Elementary School Journal 19 (November, 1918): 198-208.

[103] Coburn, "Preparation of Supervisory Administrative Officers," p. 252.

The system was strained by this attempt. No little strain was caused by the lack of training school administrators had in the operations of democracy. Administrators were still asked to accomplish the same goals, but to go about their achievement by different means.

A movement among teachers that had impact on administration was the growth in demand for input through the democratic process into the administration of schools. "He that would deny that there is a vast deal of discontent among the teachers of this country over this matter of supervision is simply blind to the facts."[104]

The democratic awakening that came from the war brought the question to mind, ". . .whether teachers ought not to be given a larger part in the management of the school. . ."[105]

Teachers believed that they should be given the right to participate in the supervision and the administration of the schools. They said it was the voice of the many that should count and not only the voice of the few in positions of authority.[106] In some school systems an Advisory Council was established made up of teachers and administrators who advised the superintendent.

In some cases, the school administrators pretended to be operating in a democratic way but ran the schools autocratically. This attempt to cover up their real way of operating did not convince some teachers. "The voice of the many must really count, not merely be heard and disregarded.

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[104]Herbert S. Weet, "Necessity and Difficulties of Supervision in a City School System," NEA Proceedings 57 (1919): 504.

[105]Harlan Updegraff, "Participation of Teachers in Management," NEA Proceedings 58 (1920): 180.

[106]Mary C. Harris, "Teacher's Participation in School Administration," NEA Proceedings 57 (1919): 189-191.

There have been sometimes autocratic methods in school administration even under a semblance of democracy."[107]

The teachers in some systems not only wanted a voice in the administration of the system but many wanted to select their own leaders by democratic method.

> In the administration of schools teachers should also have a voice. Until such time as the members of the educational force are permitted to choose their leaders from the standpoint of inspirational leadership we will have in our schools an autocracy permeated by petty tyrannies, with a small group ruling despotically and a large group subserviently obedient to the power that controls the professional lives and activities of its members.[108]

The movements of democracy in the public schools had a great influence on them at the time. The war had raised the conscience of people to the realization that much about the public schools, including their administration, was not democratic. Teachers became involved in attempts to have more of an input into the policy formulation and decision making of their school systems. Administrators were forced to at least apply some kind of democratic covering over their methods and their practices. As the war for democracy drew to a close, so did the fervor for the growth and development of democracy in the schools. There was a caution that the schools would once again move toward autocracy in their practices.

> I am of the opinion that our boasted democracy will have to fight for its very life after this war is over. The world has had a tremendous lesson in the efficiency possible in an autocracy. Many of our citizens and some of our educators before we entered the war were saying, "Give us some of this autocratic efficiency." They would be saying it now if it were not taboo for the moment.[109]

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[107] Harris, "Teacher's Participation in School Administration," p. 189.

[108] Harden, "A Plea for Greater Democracy," p. 392.

[109] C. P. Cary, "Discussion," NEA Proceedings 56 (1918): 505.

Educational Administration Textbooks

The emphasis on the training of administrators for the public schools continued to grow. Books were written on different aspects of school administration.

A few of these could be classified as general administrative textbooks. Three of these textbooks were selected to show the subjects discussed and the emphasis of these subjects in the text. These three are The Administration of Public Education in the United States by Samuel T. Dutton and David Snedden, published in 1908 but with revised new editions published almost every year until 1916; Public School Administration by Ellwood P. Cubberley published in 1916; and Some Problems in City School Administration by George D. Strayer published in 1920.

The following table will show the different general subject areas covered in the three books. The table also shows the percentage of space designated to each area.

It can be seen that the Historical sections of the books increased from no representation in 1908 to twenty-one percent by 1920. The Instruction section showed a decrease from 1908 but still represented a rather large section of the text in 1920. Except for Historical Developments, Instruction, and the Teaching Staff most of the topics represented rather small portions of the books. The Historical, Instruction, and Teaching Staff sections represented about fifty percent of the material presented in the three textbooks. It should be noted that there was no section dealing with the theory of educational administration. There was little discussion of the scientific movements in public school educational administration.

TABLE 1

TEXTBOOK ANALYSIS

Topic Area	Title of the Book		
	The Administration of Public Education in the United States Dutton and Snedden (1908, 1912) Total Pages 225	Public School Administration Ellwood P. Cubberley (1916) Total Pages 473	Some Problems in City School Administration George D. Strayer (1920) Total Pages 609
Historical Development (including Educational Organization)	0%	17%	21%
Instruction	52%	14%	31%
Teaching Staff	4%	16%	10%
School Boards	2%	10%	0%
Superintendent	0%	6%	2%
Finance	3%	3%	7%

TABLE 1--Continued

Topic Area	Title of the Book		
	The Administration of Public Education in the United States Dutton and Snedden (1908, 1912) Total Pages 225	Public School Administration Ellwood P. Cubberley (1916) Total Pages 473	Some Problems in City School Administration George D. Strayer (1920) Total Pages 609
Law	1%	0%	3%
School Building and Equipment	8%	5%	6%
Supervision	4%	0%	4%
School and Community Relations	5%	0%	6%
School Organization	0%	16%	0%
Reports, Records, Statistics	9%	10%	4%
Miscellaneous, Summaries, Conclusions, etc.	12%	3%	6%

NOTE: Percentages of the book devoted to each general topic area are presented. This is found by comparing the number of pages in each topic area to the total number of pages in the book.

CHAPTER III

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION 1920-1930

Scientific Administration and Professional Training

The movement to establish educational administration upon a scientific foundation continued. The practices established before the turn of the century were replaced by the findings of scientific method.

> The quarter of a century ending this year of 1925 will stand out in the history of education as an epoch of remarkable development in science of education. It has witnessed a transition from the time when educational thought and procedure were predicated mainly on tradition, to a new era in which the educational aims, values and educational thought and procedure are based mainly upon demonstrable facts. In the earlier period, our aims were philosophical and idealistic, while in this day and generation our aims are scientific.[1]

George D. Strayer, one of the most well known contributors in the field of educational administration stated, "The time has arrived when scientific inquiry is the basis upon which we discuss all of the problems of administration."[2]

Just after the turn of the century it was possible to find administrators arguing different points of view in administration using only their experience to validate their positions. The scientific view in administration had become so strong by the 1920's that it would be hard

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[1]Frank W. Ballou, "Progress in the Science of Education in the Last Twenty-Five Years," NEA Proceedings 63 (1925): 12.

[2]George D. Strayer, "School Administration During 1927," Journal of the National Educational Association 17 (February, 1928): 45-46.

to uphold a position from only personal experience. Scientific method had become the accepted practice. George D. Strayer remarked that, "It is not necessary among a group of professional administrators any longer to argue the case for scientific procedure in the solution of administrative problems."[3]

The increased use of science to explore problem areas in public schools brought about an increase in the body of information available to administrators. "The scientific approach to the problems of educational administration is helping us to discover. . .the most efficient procedures in the organization, administration, supervision and financing of the program of educational service."[4] As the amount of this information continued to grow, there developed a need to provide some way for school administrators and future school administrators to be provided with the new information. To aid with this problem, colleges and universities increased the number of courses offered in the field of educational administration. The course of study was so impressive that some thought it was on an equal standing with programs of study for doctors, lawyers, and engineers. "The university school of education is in a position today to offer as significant a training for the profession of educational adminstration as it is to offer professional work in law, medicine, engineering, or business administration."[5]

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[3]George D. Strayer, "The Scientific Approach to the Problems of Educational Administration," School and Society 24 (December 4, 1926): 685-686.

[4]Ibid., p. 686.

[5]George D. Strayer, "Professional Training of School Executives in the University," NEA Proceedings 66 (1928): 757.

The program of study for educational administrators was thought to be highly professional. It was also believed that educational administrators must have the new training to become real professionals. "A beginning has been made, but more and more it must be realized that men need to be as highly and specially trained for this profession as are doctors and lawyers for theirs."[6]

Increasingly more educational administrators went to colleges and universities to receive the training that would help them in their positions. "Principals, supervisors, and superintendents of schools are in attendance in our university schools of education in ever-increasing numbers."[7] The scientific training given to administrators was thought of as being the most important development in educational administration in the previous two decades.[8] The course of study for educational administrators included the philosophy of education, psychology, sociology, public finance, municipal administration, comparative education, methods of instruction, technical courses, techniques of problem solving, and an internship of one or two years.[9]

It was recognized that administrators had to solve problems of quite differing natures. To help deal with this problem they were trained in a method of problem attack. This was accomplished by isolating

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[6]"Training for School Administrators," New York Times, cited by School and Society, 31 (May 10, 1930): 651.

[7]George D. Strayer, "Progress in the Administration and Support of Schools During the First Quarter of the Twentieth Century," NEA Proceedings 63 (1925): 21.

[8]James H. Van Sickle, "Best Use of the Superintendent's Time," NEA Proceedings 59 (1921): 727-728.

[9]Strayer, "Professional Training of School Executives in the University," pp. 757-760.

a problem common to administration, and organizing all scientific knowledge available on the problem area. This application of scientific knowledge to the solving of professional problems was thought to be of great value to educational administrators.[10]

Some administrative training was not attempted from a functional approach but was approached from more of a structural approach. Those training in this way were criticized. One such critic was W. W. Charters, Professor of Education, University of Chicago. He commented on the structure of some of the textbooks used in administrator training. He said that,

> . . .the usual professional textbook in schools of administration is organized on a structural basis, and deals with such topics as the state school system, the county school system, city school district, boards of education, superintendents, the teaching corps, the courses of study, texts, the health department, attendance, the library, cost, records, and reports. As a result of this arrangement major attention is given to the structure and only minor attention is and can be given to the activities, since there is a limit to the size of volumes and length of courses. Consequently, very little attention is paid to the techniques of the activities which the administrator carries on in connection with each of the structural units of the school system.[11]

Whatever the method of instruction, training for educational administrators was very popular. It was to be expected that an administrator would have completed some university work in administration before he would take an administrative job. "Our public has come to recognize that there is a special technical field of work in the administration of schools which can be handled only by one who has been trained for this type of service."[12]

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[10]Strayer, "Professional Training of School Executives in the University," pp. 756-757.

[11]W. W. Charters, "The Work of the School Superintendent," NEA Proceedings 66 (1928): 743.

[12]Strayer, "Progress in the Administration and Support of Schools," p. 17.

Larger amounts of money were being given to administrators which influenced them to increase their university work and special training.

> The importance and value attached to the machinery of education are evidenced by the fact that those dealing more directly with the machinery are paid twice to four times the salaries paid to those who teach. These increased rewards, with other causes, have resulted in the development of specially trained school administrators, and the growth of a great body of technical knowledge and procedure relating to school administration.[13]

The attempts to solve problems in educational administration by the use of science, the resulting accumulation of information, and the expanded training for administrators resulted in a recognized improvement in the profession of educational administration.

> When one contrasts the prevailing ignorance of thirty years ago, ignorance of fact pertaining to all kinds of schools in all kinds of situations, with what is known today with respect to the business management of school systems, including finance, accounting, building programs, and school equipment, to say nothing of the light cast upon school procedure by the new psychology, one is impressed with the magnitude of the change. . . . It is. . .the scientific movement in education.[14]

Changes in the Schools

The public schools in America were changing and these changes influenced the role of the school administrator. Some of the changes were: an increase in the number of children attending schools, a greater diversification of course offerings, an increase in size and number of school buildings, larger school districts, an increase in competition for funds between education and other types of community service, a

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[13] J. M. Gwinn, "Unifying Administration of Education with Educational Process," NEA Proceedings 62 (1924): 397.

[14] James E. Russell, "The Scientific Movement in Education," NEA Proceedings 64 (1926): 720.

growing scientific nature of the educational process, and an adjustment of the curriculum and progress to the needs and abilities of children.[15] A leader in educational administration, N. L. Englehardt, said, "the problems of school administration are also undergoing the change to be expected as an enterprise expands."[16] George D. Strayer commented on the many problems of the school administrator and what his job must be.

> In the administration of a school system that seeks to achieve the desirable end, problems of personnel, of pupil records, of diagnostic and achievement test programs, of attendance and health service, of courses of study and curricula, of the planning, maintenance and operation of the school plant, and of the financing of the school system, must be integrated by the executive who relates each administrative procedure to the realization of the purposes for which the school exists.[17]

The role of the educational administrator grew tremendously.[18] As this role grew it became apparent that the administrator needed help to solve the many growing problems associated with the role. Schools very quickly became big businesses. "The school administrators of America are in charge of one of the country's largest businesses when account is taken of capital outlay, expenditures for operation, and number of employees."[19] Many saw the need to look to private business for help in solving the many problems of big business. "All affirm the

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[15] N. L. Engelhardt, "The Administration of Public Schools," NEA Proceedings 66 (1928): 457-460.

[16] Ibid., p. 458.

[17] George D. Strayer, "The Business and Professional Aspects of Educational Administration," School and Society 28 (July 21, 1928): 82.

[18] Strayer, "The Scientific Approach to the Problems of Educational Administration," pp. 685-695.

[19] J. B. Edmonson, "Achievements of American Education-Administration," NEA Proceedings 68 (1930): 676.

necessity for adequate business procedures in the administration of a school system."[20]

The schools were thought of as essentially business organizations.[21] Since the schools were growing in size and complexity with an apparent need for increased administrative function, it seemed only reasonable that the school adapt and operate like any large private business. "The canons of organization on the basis of functional analysis with appropriate administrative breakdowns which are useful in great industrial plants or to nation-wide insurance companies, can be fruitfully and precisely applied to the nation's schools."[22]

Since the schools were to be operated utilizing the principles of organization and administration taken from private business, the school superintendents needed to learn these principles of organization and administration. "The school superintendent should be a constant student of the work of executives in other lines of endeavor. He can learn from the banker, the manufacturer, the railroad executive, the insurance director, the department-store manager."[23] Some still thought the schools should adopt and use the principles of scientific management.[24]

The school administrator had acquired the title of a professional man. This came with the increase of scientific knowledge in the field of

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[20]Strayer, "The Business and Professional Aspects of Educational Administration," p. 83.

[21]James L. Mursell, "A Functional Analysis of School Administration," Educational Review 68 (December, 1924): 260-265.

[22]Ibid., p. 260.

[23]John H. Beveridge, "The Qualifications of the Professional Superintendent of Schools," NEA Proceedings 66 (1928): 750.

[24]W. Hardin Hughes, "Human Side of Research in Administration," Educational Administration and Supervision 18 (1922): 303-309.

educational administration, the improved training for administrators in colleges and universities, and the long internships. Another new term came upon the school administrators before they could really adjust to the title of professional. This was the term executive. The use of principles and practices from private business brought the title executive to the educational administrator.

> The administration of a school plant is at the same time a business requiring executive ability, the power to organize efficiently, and the faculty to eliminate waste, lost motion, duplication of effort, loafing, and various evidences of perfunctory attitudes toward work. Hence, it follows that the administrator of a school - the principal - is both a professional man and a business executive.[25]

Not only was the administrator thought of as a business executive but he was referred to as becoming in the future, an educational engineer. "We have witnessed in the past twenty-five years the development of a science of education. The superintendent of the future will be an educational engineer."[26]

The application of modern business practices to educational administration was looked upon by some as a possibility for great improvement in the functioning of the schools.

> The management of a manufacturing institution, such as United States Steel, knows exactly the service its trade requires and also the commodity which may most effectively render that service. With the least possible expenditure of time, energy, and money it builds its plant, devises its machinery, collects its raw materials, assembles its human agents, and produces its product. It develops its selling organizations and induces its customers to buy its output and to pay for it not what they like but what it costs plus profit. If the superintendence could produce this

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[25] Byron C. Kirby, "Evidences of Inefficiency in School-Building Control," Elementary School Journal 30 (March, 1930): 336.

[26] Jesse H. Newlon, "Why is Superintendence?" NEA Proceedings 63 (1925): 659.

> desired output of the schools with as much dispatch and with as little waste as the manufacturer's processes step by step eventuate in his finished product, how changed would be the world in which we live. The schools would master the Nation . . . .[27]

The practice of salesmanship was also taken from business and added to the role of the public school administrator. The superintendent's training was thought to be incomplete until he had been taught to be a salesman for his system.

> There are two general phases or divisions of the subject. First, the personal attributes of the superintendent who aspires to real distinction as a salesman, and second, the method of accomplishment. To sound general scholarship should be added detailed study of school administration, budget making, mass psychology, production and consumption, curriculum making, economy of time, cost accounting, and methods of appraisal. The distinguished scholar without this other training is poorly equipped for salesmanship.[28]

The Superintendent of Schools in New Orleans, J. M. Gwinn, said, "As practical salesmen, we seek to sell both pupils and patrons, but our chief endeavor is directed toward the children, for it is through them as salesmen that parents find the way to the dotted line."[29] Superintendent Gwinn went on to say, "We believe in our goods and know that about all that is needed to make a sale is to show the goods."[30]

Superintendent Gwinn thought that the selling of the educational program should certainly include the businessmen of the community.

> One of the most important functions of the superintendent of schools is to associate himself with the businessmen of the community. Each Thursday he attends the Chamber of Commerce

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[27]Charles S. Meek, "What is Superintendency?" NEA Proceedings 63 (1925): 665.

[28]B. J. Merriam, "The School Superintendent as a Salesman of Education," NEA Proceedings 62 (1924): 944.

[29]J. M. Gwinn, "How We are Selling the Public School Program to Our City," NEA Proceedings 60 (1922): 1455.

[30]Ibid., p. 1456.

> luncheon, where opportunity is given to talk the school program to businessmen and on special occasions to address the whole group; on Wednesday he sells education to the Rotary Club in the city, . . ."[31]

The superintendent of schools in Berkeley, California, H. B. Wilson, stated that, "leading the public to provide such schools as are necessary. . .is therefore a problem in broad, fundamental, public salesmanship."[32] He said,

> A satisfied public is just as important in financing the public schools as are satisfied customers in the success of any business or commercial enterprise. An educational program which seeks effectively to achieve such fundamental results makes a convincing appeal to every sane person as a plain business proposition.[33]

The principals of the schools also took part in the selling of their schools to the public. One principal remarked, "The school, moreover, is his business, his profession, his interest. Were he selling automobiles he would expect to exploit the advantages of his particular model over previous ones, and those which others may be selling - he would do this for his own advantage, at least."[34]

The local newspapers were used to gain publicity and help sell the schools to the public. "Better school reports and a wider use of the daily and weekly press and of other agencies of publicity have contributed to the development of public confidence in the work of the schools."[35]

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[31]Gwinn, "How We are Selling the Public School Program to Our City," p. 1457.

[32]H. B. Wilson, "Selling the Schools to the Public," NEA Proceedings 60 (1922): 1446.

[33]Ibid., pp. 1447-1448.

[34]Belle M. Monroe, "The Strategic Position of the Principal in Interpretation of the School to the Public," NEA Proceedings 63 (1925): 57.

[35]Strayer, "Progress in the Administration and Support of Schools," p. 21.

The idea of selling the schools to the public or at least gaining favorable publicity for the schools started as a practice and was looked upon as a new field that remained very largely to be created.[36]

Continued Business Influences in the Schools

The schools became larger and larger and the demand grew for the educational administrator to use more of the practices of large businesses. Administrators were criticized for not running the schools efficiently and in accordance with the modern business methods.

"In most cases, principals are inefficient with regard to their four major duties: organization, participation in social activities, administration, and supervision. A modern industrial concern conducted as many schools are conducted would find itself bankrupt within six months."[37]

Superintendents needed to become familiar with business practices to run the school in an efficient manner because members of the board of education were many times local businessmen in the community. These board members would not tolerate a superintendent that could not handle the affairs of the system in a business-like way.

> In no place will a mistake of judgement by the superintendent manifest itself more than in proposals along lines of business. The lack of a clear cut view on business administrative policies often cause a lack of confidence on the school board with one or more men of superior business ability - men of much better business judgement than the average superintendent.[38]

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[36]Jesse H. Newlon, "The Educational Outlook at the End of the First Quarter of the Twentieth Century," NEA Proceedings 63 (1925): 38-46.

[37]Kirby, "Evidences of Inefficiency," p. 345.

[38]W. W. Borden, "Business Principle Applied to Educational Organization and Administration," NEA Proceedings 61 (1923): 1010.

The influence that the business community has had in operation of the schools, by having such a large representation on the boards of education, has been an important issue. Not only have they been able to influence the superintendent on the use of business practices but they have also been active in the policy formulation of the educational system. This development was of interest to George S. Counts, who was a member of the Department of Education, Yale University. He conducted a study of the composition of boards of education in America. In his results, George Counts makes these statements.

> The writer has recently completed a study of the social composition of the boards that control public education in the United States. This study includes district boards, county boards, state boards, city boards, and the boards of the state colleges and universities. Except the district and county boards on which the farming population is strongly represented these boards are composed for the most part of members of the favored economic classes. In 507 cities covered by the investigation all grades and varieties of manual labor contributed but eight percent of the board members; on forty state boards of education there are but four farmers and but one representative of the laboring classes; and on forty-five state colleges and university boards of control there is not a single member drawn from the ranks of manual labor. Those who are directly responsible for determining the policies of the public schools are engaged in the proprietorial, financial, professional, managerial, and commercial occupations. In a word, except where the farming population retains power, the control of education rests in the hands of the capitalist and closely associated classes. It is interesting to observe that the clergy are almost without representation on boards of education. They are in fact outnumbered by the dentist. Thus in both England and the United States during the past century the control of education has passed from the great landholders and the clergy to the bankers, manufacturers, merchants, and lawyers.
>
> This situation does not lack apologists. Students of school administration, often more concerned with the efficient organization and management of the school than with the wider social implications of the policy executed, have commonly looked with favor upon businessmen as members of school boards. Such men being familiar with the function of the executive, so the argument runs, are willing to delegate the task of administration to the administrator and readily recognize their true function to be that of formulating general policies. This reasoning is sound no doubt but it fails to take into account the fundamental question of the

> character of the policies formulated. Individuals and classes must always look at life through their own experiences, and within the limits set by their understanding and power. They will as a general rule guard and promote what they conceive to be their own interest. In so far as the school is thought to touch those interests their special bias may be expected to reveal itself in educational policy.[39]

Many leaders in education were observing the growing influence that private business was having in the direction of education and were critical of the influence. Frank E. Spaulding, Head of the Education Department, Yale University said,

> 'In America out-of-doors all seem a market,' the lecture platform, the pulpit, legislative halls, the public press, 'recommend conventional virtues, whatever will earn and preserve property; always the capitalist; the college, the church, the hospital, the theatre, the hotel, the road, the ship, of the capitalist, -- whatever goes to secure, adorn, enlarge these, is good; what jeopardizes any of these is damnable.' There is not one of the important developments which make up the educational progress of the last quarter century, that does not represent a business demand, that does not maintain itself and justify itself chiefly in terms of its contribution to material prosperity.
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> When the business man is asked to make his criticism of the public schools constructive, . . .what does he reply? Teach pupils. . .to be loyal to the interest of their employers -- all excellent business assets that contribute directly to material prosperity.[40]

Charles H. Judd, Director of School Education, Chicago University, remarked about the influence that business was having in the schools. "Business has in recent years demanded sweeping changes in education in order to prepare more efficient workers. Business has been critical of the schools. . . . Business has said that the schools are bookish

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[39] George S. Counts, "The Place of the School in the Social Order," NEA Proceedings 64 (1926): 313-314.

[40] Frank E. Spaulding, "What Has This Country Reason to Expect by Way of Culture, Efficiency, and Good Citizenship in Return for the Cost of Operating Public Education?" NEA Proceedings 60 (1922): 1401

and theoretical, that teachers are pedantic and without knowledge of the world."[41]

The contact between men of business and the men of education grew. Businessmen realized that they had an important investment, because of the increased taxes they were paying, in the product of the secondary schools.[42] The better the output of the secondary school, the better the input to business. "Anything which is done or can be done to enhance the efficiency of secondary education has an immediate beneficial influence on business which each year consumes a very large part of the human output from secondary schools."[43]

Business continued to have influence on the operation and administration of the schools. The idea was taken from business of organizing the members of the school system into a line and staff relationship. "Certain other inquiries are contributing to a better understanding and making possible a higher degree of efficiency in the administration of schools through differentiating between line and staff organization and functions in administration."[44]

The business problems of a large system, the influence from businessmen involved in education both placed a great amount of pressure

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[41]Charles H. Judd, "How Modern Business May Aid in Reconstructing the Curriculum," NEA Proceedings 61 (1923): 975.

[42]"The Language of Business," The Journal of the National Educational Association 19 (March, 1930): 81.

[43]Frank B. Jewett, "Modern Business Looks at Secondary Education," NEA Proceedings 68 (1930): 652.

[44]Strayer, "Scientific Approach to the Problems of Educational Administration," pp. 685-695. See also: George D. Strayer, "Progress in the Administration and Support of Schools During the First Quarter of the Twentieth Century," NEA Proceedings 63 (1925): 688.

on the superintendent. The job of being the educational leader and the business manager of the school system was tremendous. Some school districts continued to try the idea of the dual superintendency.

> Strange as it may seem, there are still school systems in America that have the dual executive. There are still cities in which the business manager is coordinate with the superintendent. This violates a fundamental principle of administration. Two thousand years ago, ancient Rome demonstrated conclusively that the consulship was a failure. Two heads of a government are impossible.[45]

Jesse H. Newlon, Superintendent of Schools, Denver, Colorado, and President of the National Education Association, was convinced that the dual superintendency was not in the best interest of the educational program of school systems. He said,

> Every business transaction that takes place in a school system has a direct bearing on the education of youth. Business and education cannot be separated. It goes without saying, therefore, that the executive who directs the educational program must of necessity have oversight of the business affairs. Otherwise he is not in complete control of the educational program.[46]

The problems of effective administration of the educational and business aspects of large school systems became very difficult. The Executive Committee of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association held a meeting in 1925 and passed the following resolution.

> Resolved that the Executive Committee favors the appointment of a committee on ways and means of securing an impartial investigation of most effective method of articulating the educational and business departments of city school systems, and that an impartial organization be invited to finance and conduct the investigation to the end that the best interest of education and the community be served.

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[45] Jesse H. Newlon, "Why is Superintendence?" NEA Proceedings 63 (1925): 657.

[46] Ibid., pp. 657-658.

> The commission will keep constantly in mind the great objectives of public education. It recognizes that the objectives for which public schools are maintained are essentially different than objectives for which industrial and commercial corporations are maintained. Results in education which are to bring profits to the entire community are the essential ends and not simply the amount of funds expended.
>
> While cost and expenditures are vital factors to which school boards and superintendents are bound to give due consideration in the development of their programs such factors must not be made the central and controlling power in the final determination of such programs.
>
> In other words, money, finances and business, while always giving the consideration to which they are entitled, must not be the controlling power in the administration of public education. The emphasis should be placed upon education and its professional administration and not upon financial and business aspects of administration.[47]

In 1928, George D. Strayer making a report for the Committee of the National Council of Education said, "The boards of education in our larger communities should elect, . . .an assistant superintendent in charge of business affairs."[48]

The business aspects of larger school systems took so much time and effort from the superintendent that the educational leadership that was needed was just not present. The superintendents and principals were spending almost all of their time on the business aspects of the school system. Jesse H. Newlon stated that:

> The greatest danger that besets superintendents at the present time is that they will become merely business managers. Two conditions make for such a result. In the first place there are those holding executive positions who are lacking in the

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[47]Thomas E. Finegan, "Report of the National Commission on Economy and Efficiency of the Business Administration of City School Systems," NEA Proceedings 64 (1926): 760-761.

[48]George D. Strayer, "Report of a Committee of the National Council of Education on the Fundamental Basis of the Relationship of the Business and the Professional Aspects of Educational Administration," NEA Proceedings 66 (1928): 245-246.

> qualities that make for leadership, who are more concerned about the purchase of pencils and paper, about the employment of janitors and clerks, about mere business routine, than they are about the educative process that goes on in the schoolroom. Such individuals would make good bookkeepers. They are not executives. The other condition that tends to make merely a business manager of a superintendent is the tremendous size and complexity of the adminstrative problems which he faces. In a period in which enrollment has grown by leaps and bounds and in which the educational program itself has rapidly expanded, the purely administrative and business problems have been so numerous, so complex, so difficult, that it has been very easy indeed for the superintendent to become immersed in purely administrative details or to devote his energy chiefly to the great task of securing adequate financial support of the schools, and thereby lose his interest and active participation in the development of the educational program itself.
>
> There is general agreement that the business administration of schools should be subordinated to educational administration. How often does it happen, however, that the superintendent-either because he gets pleasure out of management, or by force of circumstances-devotes most of his attention to mere management and thus subordinates the educational to business considerations.
>
> Society has created the public school system for the education of youth. Problems of education should therefore be the chief concern of the superintendent.[49]

The educational leadership by some principals began to take second place to administrative duties. It was thought that the principal should be competent in educational leadership as well as in administrative leadership.[50]

It was believed that the educational administrator could better be an educational leader if he understood major differences between public education and private business. "The administrator of a program of public education will understand his task better if the significant

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[49] Newlon, "Why is Superintendence?" p. 658.

[50] Gwinn, "Unifying Administration of Education with Educational Process," p. 399.

differences in the organization of public education and private business are realized."[51] The difference can be seen in the two lists:

	Private Business		Public Schools
1.	Competition	1.	Less degree of competition (Professional attitudes)
2.	Capital secured through voluntary investment	2.	Public taxes - those profiting only remotely compelled to share the cost
3.	Returns easy to measure - dividends or lossess	3.	Returns hard to measure
4.	Accurate measure of production of workers possible	4.	Products of personal service involved is rarely reducible to know units of accomplishments
5.	Salaries are communsurate with success	5.	Salaries may depend on human factors
6.	Personnel management	6.	Life tenure[52]

Achievements in Educational Administration

Some of the major achievements of educational administration from 1920 to 1930 were listed by J. B. Edmonson, Dean, School of Education, Michigan University. His list included the following achievements:

1. School executives continually acquiring enlarged responsibilities.
2. School executive candidates continued to have higher requirements.
3. Changes in legal status of school administration.
4. Clearer understanding of the differences between legislative and executive functions in public education.[53]

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[51] Engelhardt, "Administration of Public Schools," p. 457.

[52] Ibid., pp. 457-460.

[53] For a discussion of this point see George D. Strayer, "The Scientific Approach to the Problems of Educational Administration," School and Society 24 (December 4, 1926): 685-695.

5. School systems recognized as needing to be independent of municipal government.
6. Increase in the effectiveness of the organization of boards of education.
7. Employment of a large number of technically trained specialists.
8. Practice of framing policies in terms of facts.
9. Define school programs in terms that will be clear and understandable to the public.
10. Success that administrators have had meeting the demands placed upon the schools by the far-reaching economic and social changes since 1920.
11. School administrators looked upon by the public for leadership in the solution of community problems.
12. School administrators have built strong and aggressive professional organizations.[54]

Major Changes in Educational Administrative Practices

Many changes in education were brought about by, ". . .the findings of the scientific study of education and partly as a result of the startling social and economic changes that have been brought about by inventions and scientific discoveries, by the world war, and other influences, . . ."[55] These changes brought about increased enrollment in public schools, problems of financial support, need for more and better school buildings and equipment, changes in legal positions of education, the call for better character education programs in the schools, and in a different emphasis in training of educational administrators. Some of these changes will be explored in more detail.

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[54]Edmonson, "Achievements of American Education-Administration," pp. 672-677.

[55]Newlon, "Educational Outlook," p. 40.

Financial Support (Equal Educational Opportunity)

The problem of equal educational opportunity in regard to the financing of public schools is an important issue. It was recognized that the difference in wealth between districts and between states did not provide an equal expenditure per pupil for educational experience.

> The Educational Finance Inquiry revealed the fact that whereas one state has a wealth of $7000 per capita, another state has a wealth of only $1200 per capita. The amounts of wealth per capita of the other forty-six states fall between these two extremes. It is readily apparent that the educational burdens in the various states are very unequal.[56]

It was recognized that the financial system was unequal and was supported by a tax system that was not efficient.

> The whole problem of financing high schools is tied up in two situations--the inability of some communities to support a fair type of program, taking all of their ability to pay into consideration, and the discriminatory nature of the system of financing schools in those states, which are financing government by an outworn tax system.[57]

It was believed that if educational opportunity was to be equalized, financing had to become more centralized. It had to be organized from larger governmental units than the local districts.

> With the most equitable revenue system that is possible to develop, we will still have within a single state, local communities, whether school districts, townships or counties, that are relatively very wealthy and other localities that will be very poor. It is only through state support based upon a sound revenue system that it will be possible, within the state, to equalize both the opportunity for education and the burden of taxation to be borne.
>
> If education is essential to the well-being of the nation and if we propose to make good the promise of equality of opportunity, we shall be compelled to provide a larger measure of national support.[58]

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[56] Newlon, "Educational Outlook," p. 43.

[57] Paul R. Mort, "Financing Secondary Education-Abstract," NEA Proceedings 68 (1930): 555.

[58] George D. Strayer, "The Financing of American Schools," NEA Proceedings 61 (1923): 158-164. See also George D. Strayer, "An American Program of Education," NEA Proceedings 65 (1927): 266-271.

The growing importance of education and the need for increased involvement of the state and national governments in education were pointed out by Professor Ellwood P. Cubberley.

> Problem is. . .that of a much more general equalization of both the advantages and the burdens of a good education. . . . Public education has today become a more important state and national interest than have forest supervision, concrete highways, fish propagation, game preserves, or the control of cattle tick or bovine tuberculosis, all of which we today accept as proper state and national functions. The far-reaching national change of the last two decades, . . .and the new consciousness that education has become the great constructive tool of modern nations, have all alike contributed to evolve the problem of equalization into a truly national problem, and sooner or later it must be faced by our people as such. There is no hope that certain of our states will ever be able, unaided, to provide a good educational system for their children.[59]

Progress was being made in establishing larger units of financial support for education within the states.[60] Equal educational opportunity was an idea that was growing in importance among school leaders in America. "This principle of the equalization of educational opportunity has long been acknowledged. Greater progress was made during the past year in carrying this principle into effect than has been made in any previous period of ten years."[61]

The idea of equal educational opportunity was resisted because of the fear of losing some control over the local school unit. The principles involved in the issue were explained by William F. Russell, Dean of Teachers College, Columbia University.[62] He believed that

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[59]Ellwood P. Cubberley, "The American School Program from the Standpoint of the Nation," NEA Proceedings 61 (1923): 185.

[60]Frank W. Ballou, "Achievements of American Education-Finance," NEA Proceedings 68 (1930): 685-690.

[61]George D. Strayer, Journal of the NEA 17 (February, 1928): 45.

[62]H. G. Townsend, "Science in Education," Educational Review 51 (March, 1916): 295-304.

the problems involved were the same as those that were between Hamilton and Jefferson. Hamilton stressed liberty and property; Jefferson emphasize equality. Citizens were afraid they would lose liberty if they gained equality. His solution to the problem was to centralize externals, such as funds, but localize internals, such as how the funds should be spent.

> The division of school administration points the way, as I see it, to the solution of the American problem. We need centralization to provide equality, we fear centralization as a menace to our liberty. Very well!! Let us agree to centralize the externals reserving to the localities complete control over internals.[63]

School Finance-School Budgets

The financing of schools and the preparing of school budgets received increased attention because of the growing cost of education and the demand for a more scientific approach to problems in the schools. The public wanted a better system of accounting for the monies expended on education. ". . .It is only in recent decades that the public has begun definitely to demand a systematic financial accounting of the schools, . . ."[64] The information available to help with this situation had grown rapidly until by the early 1920's there had been, ". . .the development of a science of public school finance."[65] A bibliography was prepared by J. B. Sears that included the following topics.

I. General works with important bearings on public school finance.
II. The legal basis of public school finance.

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[63]Russell, "School Administration and Conflicting American Ideals," p. 67.

[64]J. B. Sears, "The Literature and Problems of Public School Finance," Educational Administration and Supervision 7 (1921): 133.

[65]Ibid., p. 134.

III. The practical status of education in public finance.
IV. The distribution of school expenditures.
V. Credit financing in public education.
VI. Accounting and budgeting of public school funds.
VII. Purchasing and business management.
VIII. Source materials.[66]

The preparation of the school budget became very important in the role of the educational administrator. "The budget is a feature of importance that has come into its own in business, in industry, and even in the home. It has likewise become the master key to efficiency in school business administration."[67] Articles appeared telling administrators how to prepare, present, and administer school budgets.[68] Administrators needed to know sound budgetary procedures not only to handle the finances of the school system efficiently but to gain and hold the confidence of businessmen in the community, some of whom were probably on the school board. "Well-planned and carefully administered budgets will attract the attention and secure the respect and support of hard-headed businessmen."[69] Businessmen liked a sound budgetary program administered by the educational administrator. "No other innovation in educational administration has met with such hearty approval of businessmen as the modern budget system and building program--both the result of scientific investigation within the past twenty years."[70]

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[66]Sears, "Literature and Problems of Public School Finance," p. 136. This work contains a bibliography on Public School Finance listing 225 titles.

[67]J. W. McClinton, "Distribution of School Expenditures under Budget Control," School Executive 49 (September, 1929): 27.

[68]Arthur B. Moehlman, "The City School Budget," NEA Proceedings 61 (1923): 949-955.

[69]Borden, "Business Principles Applied to Educational Organization and Administration," p. 1010.

[70]Russell, "Scientific Movement in Education," p. 722.

Sometimes the budgetary procedures and the expenditure of funds were looked upon as not helping the education of children but were actually a means to serve the ends of administrators. "School systems are frequently administered more in the interest of the reputation of superintendents, teachers, business managers, and architects, and to the profit of private businesses and contractors than in the interest of children."[71] Regardless of his motives, budgets and financial procedures were important to the educational administrator.

Educational Administrators and School Facilities

The increase in school enrollment and attendance, encouraged by larger populations of school age children, longer school terms, and increases in the number of compulsory attendance laws had a tremendous affect on the role of the educational administrator.

School enrollments were up all across the nation.

> In the six years following 1920 public school enrollment increased by 3,000,000, more than half of this increase was in the high school. This great increase has called for the erection of many new buildings as well as a large increase in operating expenses. From 1920 to 1926 the value of school property increased from $2,400,000,000 to $4,675,000,000.
>
> In 1920 only twenty-six percent of the total population of secondary-school age was to be found in the secondary school. In 1926 this had increased to thirty-eight percent.[72]

The great increase in school enrollments can be shown by the increases between 1913 and 1927.

> Between 1913 and 1927 the number of pupils in average daily attendance in elementary and secondary schools increased from

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[71] Fred. M. Hunter, "Efficient Expenditures of School Moneys," NEA Proceedings 66 (1928): 713.

[72] Edmonson, "Achievements of American Education-Administration," p. 676.

> 13,613,656 in 1913 to 20,200,000 (estimated) in 1927, an increase of 6,586,344 pupils, or 48.14 percent in fourteen years. . . .the total population in the United States increased during that period only 19,811,531 people, or an increase of 20.5 percent.[73]

The high school enrollment from 1890 to 1920 increased over seven fold while the total population did not even double during this time period.[74]

An increase in the population of school children in California during the year 1923-1924 resulted in a capital outlay of approximately $18,000,000 just to be able to house the additional students.[75]

Compulsory attendance laws were one factor that increased the enrollment of students. Attendance laws increased until the last of the forty-eight states passed a compulsory attendance law in 1918.

> Today every state in the union is not only providing free public education, but is requiring young people to secure the fundamentals of an education. Massachusetts passed the first compulsory attendance law in 1852, and Mississippi, the last of the forty-eight states to pass such a law, did likewise in 1918. This expansion of compulsory attendance of children has increased enormously the number of children to be cared for in the public schools.[76]

The increase in the number of days that students attended school was also important. Students began to attend school for more days out of the year.

> In 1900 the public schools of the nation were in session an average of one hundred forty-four days of the school year;

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[73]Ballou, "Achievement of American Education-Finance," p. 686.

[74]Michael H. Lucey, "The Application of Democracy to the Organization and Administration of the High School," Educational Administration and Supervision 10 (1924): 205-211.

[75]F. M. Hunter, "Teacher Participation in the Determination of the Administrative Policies," School and Society 22 (1925): 665-711.

[76]Ballou, "Achievements of American Education-Finance," p. 688.

> whereas in 1928 the average number of days the schools were in session have been increased to one hundred seventy-two days, or an increase of nineteen percent.
>
> From the standpoint of the amount of education the children received, the increase is still more striking. In 1900 each pupil enrolled in the public schools of the United States attended school only approximately ninety-nine days of the school year, whereas in 1928 this attendance had increased to an average of one hundred forty school days, or an increase of forty-one percent.[77]

The educational administrator was faced with the task of building new and better buildings to provide room for the increased number of students in the public schools. The communities looked to the school administrator to plan and develop an adequate school facility program.[78] The building programs took much of the time of the educational administrator. A statement by N. L. Engelhardt, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia, shows the point. "Thus, of the construction of new school buildings, there will be no end. The school superintendent will spend more and more time on the school plant."[79]

Proper construction and modern architectural design was emphasized in the building of new school facilities. Safeguards were taken in construction to protect students from the dangers of fire. Buildings were designed that were more aesthetic and that were more functional. Buildings were being built around the educational program and not the educational program around the building.[80] Superintendents needed to be

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[77] Ballou, "Achievements of American Education-Finance," p. 688.

[78] N. L. Engelhardt, "Important Elements in the Development of a School-Building Program," NEA Proceedings 60 (1922): 1346-1352.

[79] N. L. Engelhardt, "Achievements of American Education-The School Plant," NEA Proceedings 68 (1930): 678.

[80] Charles L. Spain, "Adapting the School Plant to the Curriculum," NEA Proceedings 60 (1922): 1352.

able to understand the principles involved behind the building of buildings and the planning of a total educational facility. Some of the information administrators needed to know about facility planning is shown in this statement.

> The outstanding essentials of modern school buildings are: well chosen sites of adequate plottage to give buildings proper setting and allow for future expansion; expertly planned schools advocating open plan, avoiding inner courts, well designed buildings, truthful to the plan, and with esthetic merit to serve as a note to improve the standard of design of all buildings in the community; the use of good materials with the best of workmanship, both as a matter of economy and a means of making the architectural design endurable; ample provision for future needs and expansions. . . .[81]

Educational Administrators and the Law

The administration of school systems had become so complex that laws were constantly being developed, as well as changed, to help clarify his legal role. Administrators had to constantly attempt to stay informed on their changing legal status. "In order to deal intelligently with many aspects of public-school administration, superintendents and principals should be familiar with those principles of law which in many instances must govern their actions."[82]

In 1926 there had not, as yet, been an exhaustive study made of the court decisions affecting educational administrators. The point was made by I. N. Edwards, Chicago University, that this was not only the

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[81] William H. Gompert, "Outstanding Essentials of Modern School Architecture-Abstract," NEA Proceedings 62 (1924): 750.

[82] I. N. Edwards, "Where and How to Find the Law Relating to Public School Administration," Elementary School Journal 27 (September, 1926): 14-24.

situation but that there was a real need for such a study in terms of the experiences of educational administrators.[83]

The legal requirements for educational administrative candidates were changing. Many states had not required, up to this time, strict legal requirements for superintendents.[84] Iowa presented several requirements in the Iowa Code Commission bill, that was first planned in 1919, to legalize the profession of the superintendent. The bill was not passed in 1919 but the requirements are interesting.

> In all school districts having a four (4) year high school course, the superintendent shall be a graduate of a standard college or univeristy, and shall have had at least two (2) years' teaching experience in the public schools, and shall be properly certified by the board of educational examiners. The requirement for graduation shall not apply to those who are now acting in this capacity in Iowa.[85]

The development of school law was an area that was requiring more and more of the superintendent's time and interest.

Character Education

Conforming to several pressures, the public schools in America became concerned about the moral and ethical character of their graduates. Various pressures, set in motion by the National Education Commission's Seven Cardinal Principles of Education,[86] which stressed citizenship and ethical character, the demands of private business for more trustworthy

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[83]Edwards, "Law Relating to Public-School Administration," p. 15.

[84]Don C. Rogers, "Legal Status of the City Superintendent of Schools," Educational Administration and Supervision 9 (1923): 75-78.

[85]Ibid., p. 77.

[86]S. D. Shankland, "A Review of Superintendents," Educational Review 75 (1928): 127-131.

workers, and the general overall social climate, resulted in curriculum changes to improve the ethical and moral condition of school children.

There was a demand for improved character to help the nation. "The need of the United States for character education is paramount. The schools can make no larger contribution to democracy than character. These statements are almost selfevident and axiomatic."[87]

There was an emphasis among educators to provide character training.

> The tendency throughout modern education today is a growing desire to introduce character education into our schools. Tradition has taught us that the business of the schools is to teach reading, writing and arithmetic. But have these fundamentals in themselves ever produced a really great man or woman.[88]

Private business was concerned about the ethical character of the workers who came to them from the schools. "The diploma of the high-school boy who comes to us tells us that he has some knowledge of books, it is easy to discover his interest in athletics, but the one thing we are concerned about more than anything else is his character."[89]

Many schools either organized new classes in character training or reorganized old ones that had not been effective. "Since 1921 there is hardly a city of importance in the land that has not worked out a new course, or revised its old course, in citizenship or character training."[90]

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[87]John J. Tigert, "Character Education from the Standpoint of the Philosophy of Education," NEA Proceedings 67 (1929): 769.

[88]Agness Boysen, "Character Traits as a Basis for Good Scholarship," NEA Proceedings 66 (1928): 394.

[89]Cameron Beck, "The Necessity of Closer Relations Between Business and the Schools-Abstract," NEA Proceedings 68 (1930): 281.

[90]Leonard M. Patton, "Training in Citizenship-A New Approach," NEA Proceedings 64 (1926): 749.

The criticism was made that a great deal of time and money was spent each year on developing programs to help students learn basic skills in school but little effort was made in providing a scientific approach to moral training.

> Our great institutions of learning spend several hundred dollars a year on each of their students in developing skills in English, in finance, in linguistics, in agricultural practice, in hog-cholera control, in automobile manipulation, and a hundred other matters of material concern. They also make extensive studies of social psychology and the control of people's behavior in salesmanship, in advertising, and in the decisions of a jury; but definite set-up is rarely provided for the scientific discovery of moral fact. Is gambling, social or subterranean, good for society? Let someone examine all the facts and give us the scientific discovery of moral fact.[91]

Some work was attempted to try and determine the scientific elements in the process of character education.[92] "A tide of interest is turning in the direction of the determination by scientific methods of the elements that enter into the complex of states and processes called 'character' or 'personality'."[93] It was believed that the scientific investigation of the processes involved in personality formulation would evenly reduce the problems of character development into a natural science equal to that of biology or physics.

> If all goes well, a decade or two will witness the opening up of this new field. . . . We shall doubtless be able to lay plans and predict results with something of the same feeling of confidence as is now done in botany, biology, and physics. It is not too much to expect that the cultivation of character will shortly become enough of a science to develop into one of the noblest of the arts.[94]

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[91] F. M. Gregg, "Symposium on Citizen Training-The Nebraska Plan," NEA Proceedings 66 (1928): 69.

[92] Edwin D. Starbuck, "Test and Measurements of Character," NEA Proceedings 62 (1924): 357-364.

[93] Ibid., p. 357.

[94] Ibid., p. 361.

Private business played a large role in the expanding of character training in the schools. They wanted to use the schools to provide the businessmen of America future workers trained in good business character. In some schools, business ethics or moral standards were taught.

> Morals today are mostly business morals. We disguise the subject under the vague name of 'citizenship'. The children may be taught practical thrift, budget-making, and responsible accounting, and all these are ways to honesty.[95]

If the schools could not teach certain students to be trustworthy or to have good character then private business wanted the schools to refuse to promote them.

> If he is not trustworthy, he is not promoted. The school simply refuses to put its stamp on absence of character. It refuses to turn over to the business world a tainted product. Such a person might be elected to congress or even become a member of the President's cabinet, but the national schools decline to label such as the product of their discipline.[96]

School administrators were influenced by the pressures for character education and by how to best present a program of character study in the schools. A principal in Flint, Michigan, C. V. Courter said that, "The paramount problem in public school administration today is the acquiring of a technique for the development of moral character in the nations future leaders."[97] Administrators helped in the

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[95]William Byron Forbush, "Teaching Business Morals," NEA Proceedings 62 (1924): 157-158.

[96]Ibid., p. 158.

[97]C. V. Courter, "Practical Procedure in Character Education in High Schools-Abstract," NEA Proceedings 64 (1926): 639.

development of programs of study for character education in the schools and also helped with their implementation.[98]

Educational Administrators and the Social Sciences

Perhaps one of the most important influences in educational administrative theory and practice during the time period from 1920 to 1930 was that made by the social sciences. Administrative leaders began to realize that the problems of administration were many times problems of dealing with people. They realized that a school system is an organization and that organizations are composed of people. They saw that the realization of the goals of an organization is influenced by the attitudes and values of the people who make up the organization.

Jesse H. Newlon said,

> It is apparent, then, that one who would aspire to educational leadership must be a student of human nature and human relationships and of the social and economic changes that go on around him. Those who are charged with the responsibility of formulating and administering educational policies should be students of the social sciences, . . .[99]

The social sciences made contributions to the field of educational administration and it was important that administrative leaders become aware of these contributions.[100] "It is inconceivable that one can be competent as a school executive or as a professor of education unless

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[98]There were other important changes in school curriculae which influenced administration and that were supported by private business in addition to character education. One example would be the vocational education movement into the curriculum by the different federal Smith Acts. The example of the character education emphasis is only to show one curriculum development that influenced school administration and that was encouraged by private business.

[99]Newlon, "Why is Superintendence?" p. 659.

[100]Strayer, "Scientific Approach to Problems of Educational Administration," pp. 685-695.

he keep in contact with the development in many fields of human endeavor."[101] The principles in sociology and psychology were found useful in helping to guide the actions of educational administrators.[102] Articles were written that showed the administrator as a human being with psychological aspects like the teachers.[103] It was also realized that not only is the educational administrator a human being but that he must work with other different human beings. "There are human factors in all administrations to be considered. If a principal has twenty teachers, he has twenty different personalities to deal with."[104]

The human el[redacted]ation was recognized in business management as we[redacted]The administrators in all areas saw how import[redacted]he help and support of the members of the[redacted]

> The ne[redacted]ncreasing stress upon the importa[redacted]This is true not only of school ma[redacted]nd industrial management as well. Whil[redacted]l and human factors are everywhere accor[redacted]is coming to be seen that the best system of [redacted]-the best sort of institutional machine-is practically futile if the persons who compose this organization are not in harmony with it and with each other. When it is further considered that these personal elements are in a sense a part of the institutional machine itself, it may be safely affirmed that the management of these factors is the most important phase of the control of any institution, and

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[101] Jesse H. Newlon, "Chaos of Integration in Educational Thought and Effort," NEA Proceedings 65 (1927): 260.

[102] Charters, "Work of the School Superintendent," pp. 742-747.

[103] Garry C. Myers, "Some Second Lieutenant Psychology in School Administration," Educational Administration and Supervision 7 (1921): 171-174.

[104] W. T. Longshore, "Report of the Committee on Standards and Training for the Elementary School Principalship," NEA Proceedings 65 (1927): 444-446.

he keep in contact with the development in many fields of human endeavor."[101] The principles in sociology and psychology were found useful in helping to guide the actions of educational administrators.[102] Articles were written that showed the administrator as a human being with psychological aspects like the teachers.[103] It was also realized that not only is the educational administrator a human being but that he must work with other different human beings. "There are human factors in all administrations to be considered. If a principal has twenty teachers, he has twenty different personalities to deal with."[104]

The human element in administration was recognized in business management as well as school management. The administrators in all areas saw how important it was to try and secure the help and support of the members of their organizations.

> The new management everywhere puts increasing stress upon the importance of the 'human element'. This is true not only of school management, but of business and industrial management as well. While both the institutional and human factors are everywhere accorded recognition, it is coming to be seen that the best system of organization-the best sort of institutional machine-is practically futile if the persons who compose this organization are not in harmony with it and with each other. When it is further considered that these personal elements are in a sense a part of the institutional machine itself, it may be safely affirmed that the management of these factors is the most important phase of the control of any institution, and

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[101] Jesse H. Newlon, "Chaos of Integration in Educational Thought and Effort," NEA Proceedings 65 (1927): 260.

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[103] Garry C. Myers, "Some Second Lieutenant Psychology in School Administration," Educational Administration and Supervision 7 (1921): 171-174.

[104] W. T. Longshore, "Report of the Committee on Standards and Training for the Elementary School Principalship," NEA Proceedings 65 (1927): 444-446.

> particularly of an institution which is so largely social in its aims and nature as is the school.[105]

There were some early suggestions to try and put together the scientific studies of the workers in educational administration of the last decade with the work provided by the social scientist into a general theory of administration. The statements presented in the following quote would point to the early beginnings of a theory of educational administration.

> We have before us today a number of admirable studies of school administration, which invariably adopt what is essentially the point of view of current history. That is, they consist of surveys of the facts of the present situation, with some reference to their historical and comparative background, and with a body of practical principles and suggestions inductively derived therefrom. It has seemed to me that the way to vitalize the subject of school administration, both for students in our teacher-training agencies and for working schoolmen is to treat it not as an empirical aggregation of facts and principles no matter how interesting and instructive these may be, but to present the facts on the basis of certain broad and well-founded generalizations-that is to say, to work out what I think, without reproach, may be called the philosophy of the subject.[106]

But this early attempt to make generalized or theorized statements about educational administration was only a beginning and would wait for a later time to really develop.

Educational Administration Textbooks

Three educational administration textbooks have been selected to show the subjects discussed and the emphasis of these subjects in the text. The following table will show the different general subject areas

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[105] B. F. Pittenge, "The Study of School Management," Educational Administration and Supervision 9 (1923): 246.

[106] Mursell, "Functional Analysis of School Administration," p. 260.

covered in the three books. The table also shows the percentage of space designated to each area.

TABLE 2

TEXTBOOK ANALYSIS

Topic Area	Title of the Book		
	A Manual for School Officers W. N. Anderson (1925) Total Pages 371	Problems in Public School Administration Oscar F. Weber (1930) Total Pages 707	Public School Administration Ellwood P. Cubberley (1926) Total Pages 699
Historical Development (including Educational Organization)	0%	0%	26%
Instruction	39%	22%	13%
Teaching Staff	2%	8%	17%
School Boards	5%	3%	8%
Superintendent	10%	6%	12%
Finance	0%	33%	8%

TABLE 2--Continued

Topic Area	Title of the Book		
	A Manual for School Officers W. N. Anderson (1925) Total Pages 371	Problems in Public School Administration Oscar F. Weber (1930) Total Pages 707	Public School Administration Ellwood P. Cubberley (1926) Total Pages 699
Law	0%	0%	0%
School Building and Equipment	3%	0%	3%
Supervision	14%	0%	4%
School and Community Relations	10%	9%	0%
School Organization	13%	7%	0%
Reports, Records, Statistics	4%	5%	6%
Miscellaneous, Summaries, Conclusions, etc.	0%	7%	3%

NOTE: Percentages of the book devoted to each general topic area are presented. This is found by comparing the number of pages in each topic area to the total number of pages in the book.

CHAPTER IV

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION 1930-1940

Status of Educational Administration in 1930

The profession of educational administration had become more organized and the number of members grew through the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. In 1865 a relatively small group of educational administrators established the National Association of School Superintendents. Five years later this group joined the National Education Association as the Department of Superintendents. In 1916 the Department of Secondary School Principals was added to the National Education Association and in 1921 the Department of Elementary School Principals was added to the Association.[1]

Progress was made in many other areas besides increases in membership and organizations. George D. Strayer wrote about the progress that had been made in educational administration. He said that, "significant progress in the administration of city school systems during the past twenty-five years is due primarily to two causes: first, the application of the scientific method to the problems of administration; and second, the professional training of school executives."[2]

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[1]"Achievements in Professional Advancement: Educational Administration," National Educational Association Journal 27 (March, 1938): 95.

[2]George D. Strayer, "Progress in City School Administration During the Past Twenty-Five Years," School and Society 32 (September 20, 1930): 375.

Dr. Strayer believed that, in addition to better training of administrators, the organization of administration had improved because the line and staff structure of organization had become common practice in the administration of school systems.

> Along with the better training of superintendents of schools has come a better organization of the administrative and supervisory staff. In small as well as in the large cities the distinction between the line and staff organizations has been recognized. Those who are to serve as executives with authority over the whole or some particular part of the school system--assistant superintendents and principals, primarily--are acknowledged as belonging in the line organization. Those who serve the school system without having authority to administer any particular part of it, such as directors of research, of physical education and health services, of census and attendance and the general and special supervisory group, have been organized as members of a staff under the general leadership of the chief executive and are at the service of all parts of the school system.[3]

It was thought that a higher degree of efficiency was achieved by the use of the line and staff relationships.

Progress was made in the areas of administration including personnel administration, supervision, and business administration. Dr. Strayer commented on the development of business administration and how it had grown to be on an equal footing with the practices in business.

> Sound business administration has been developed within the period under consideration. Whether one turns to the field of accounting, budgetary procedure, the financing of capital outlays, the detailed procedure connected with payroll, issuance of bonds, the purchase and distribution of supplies or the training of those responsible for the maintenance and operation of the plant, the answer in every case is that progress during the past twenty-five years has placed this phase of the administration of schools on an equality with good practice in private business.[4]

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[3]Strayer, "Progress in City School Administration," p. 375.

[4]Ibid., p. 377.

Progress had been made in the years prior to 1930 in the planning and building of school facilities. "In no phase of school administration . . .has more certain progress been made than in the determination of the size and location of school sites, the type, arrangement and detailed facilities necessary to house the developing educational program."[5]

Improvements were made concerning the handling and recording of student information. This information included the student's physical history, attendance records, his achievement in school subjects, his intelligence quotient, and even information on his social and recreational life after school.[6]

There were attempts to improve the financing of schools, administrator training, administrator certification requirements, and the quality of educational research. The training for educational administrators was examined and changed in attempts to improve the quality of administrators. It was believed that educational administrators should receive the same high quality of training as doctors and lawyers. "A beginning has been made, but more and more it must be realized that men need to be as highly and specially trained for this profession as are doctors and lawyers for theirs."[7]

It was believed that educational administrators should have a general, broad education. If their education was too narrow it would not prepare them for their job.

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[5]Strayer, "Progress in City School Administration," p. 377.

[6]Ibid., p. 378.

[7]"Training for School Administrators," New York Times, cited by School and Society 31 (May 10, 1930): 651.

> The preparation should be broad, and should early open up to the student's permanent interest in fields of music and art, literature, history, science, economics, and human welfare. These he needs for breadth and understanding. . .understanding of the scientific and industrial world about him, his broad human sympathies, and his abilities to meet people of culture and refinement on their own plane.[8]

Leaders in the field of educational administration believed that the training given to future administrators should include areas other than just administration. They thought areas should be studied that would help administrators understand their school's position in society. "Not only are teachers of school administration concerned about the general mastery of professional education, but they are more and more determined to see to it that their students understand the society of which their schools are a part and to which they must make their contribution."[9]

George D. Strayer believed that students of administration should study educational psychology, philosophy of education, educational sociology, government, and social theory. This would be in addition to their studies in administration such as finance and taxation.[10] Strayer believed that ". . .one who would practice in the field of school administration must have a command of the knowledge. . .dealing with pupil personnel; teacher selection, training, and leadership; curriculum development; the planning of adequate buildings and equipment; the improvement of methods of finance and business management; and other phases

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[8]Ellwood P. Cubberley, "Public School Administration," Ch. 14, p. 229, cited by Clyde M. Hill, "Trends in the Teaching of School Administration," School and Society 38 (July, 1933): 34.

[9]Ibid.

[10]George D. Strayer, "Building the Profession of School Administrator," NEA Proceedings 75 (1937): 467-474.

of administration."[11] But he believed that "The objectives of education will be satisfactorily stated only by those who have devoted themselves to the study of educational sociology and the philosophy of education."[12]

The training of educational administrators was changed to include more work out of the college classrooms and more work in the schools. Clyde M. Hill, Professor of Education, Yale University, said, ". . .teachers of school administration are recognizing in practice as never before the importance of taking their students into the field to study problems as they occur in all their complexity in their natural settings."[13] Clyde M. Hill further remarked on the work of his students in the field and in doing so states his position on the theories of educational administration. "We require our students to work in the fields which deal with the fundamental theories underlying the administration of public education, courses in philosophy, psychology, comparative education, statistics, economics, and government furnish the base principles which control in the administration of schools."[14]

Dr. Harlan Updegraff, a leader in educational administration, believed that the foundation for training of educational administrators was too narrow and that it should be strengthened by including the subject of political science in their studies. "All these considerations lead to the conclusion that the subject of school administration needs a better foundation than that it now possesses, . . . , that they can be

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[11] Strayer, "Building the Profession of School Administrator," p. 473.

[12] Ibid., pp. 472-473.

[13] Hill, "Trends in Teaching School Administration," p. 35.

[14] Ibid., p. 36

provided only by students of school administration extending their studies into the field of political science and incorporating its aims and its knowledge into a widened science of school administration."[15]

The conception of the educational administrator was changed by the leaders in educational administration. With the additional training called for in the social sciences, the attempt was made to help the administrator to be more socially conscious. George D. Strayer thought the time had come when the educational administrator should be thought of as a social engineer.[16] He remarked on the role of the school administrator.

> His major duties and responsibilities lie in the development of social policy quite as certainly as they concern the induction thru education of all the population into a constantly developing social democracy. He must be technically competent, but he must also be a student of society. No matter of social policy is foreign to his thinking. . . .the fundamental social point of view held by the school executive should contribute largely to the development of the school as a social enterprise. He cannot discharge his obligation except as he is able to understand the major issues which confront society and to see the place that education occupies in relation to these problems.[17]

The educational administrator was receiving varied training and was being asked to accomplish many things. Along with these changes came a change in title. Educational administrators were referred to as educational leaders.[18] E. T. McSwain, Professor of Education, Northwestern University, made the statement, "The principal is a leader,

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[15]Harlan Updegraff, "A Deficiency in School Administration," School and Society 32 (August 23, 1930): 247.

[16]George D. Strayer, "Changing Conceptions of Educational Administration," NEA Proceedings 71 (1939): 238-247.

[17]Ibid., pp. 241-242.

[18]For more information on this point see "Educational Leadership; Progress and Possibilities," in the Eleventh Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence (Washington, D.C.: Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association of the United States, February, 1933).

not an administrator."[19] As the role of the educational administrator grew, it became very important that an administrator be able to work with people and help them achieve a high quality of work. This point is made clear by George D. Strayer, "Possibly the most severe test that can be put upon the work of the administrator is to ask in what degree all persons associated with him have realized their highest possibilities under his leadership."[20]

Carrol R. Reed, President, American Association of School Administrators, talked about the principal as an educational leader and listed several things with which, as an educational leader, he should be involved. These areas included the organization of the school, administration, supervision, promotion of teamwork among teachers, and action as a public relations expert.[21] In a speech presented in 1937 to the National Education Association, Carrol Reed talked about the many problems and duties involved in the public schools. He believed the school administrator should be involved as a leader in trying to solve the many problems and inconsistencies found in school systems.[22] He thought the job of the educational administrator was that of an educational leader working with his staff to help solve problems.

> The great task of the school administrator is to do something about the inconsistencies which exist in every school system. He must examine critically and seek to coordinate and reconcile

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[19] E. T. McSwain, "The Modern School -- A Workshop in Democratic Citizenship," NEA Proceedings 78 (1940): 449.

[20] Strayer, "Changing Conceptions of Educational Administration," p. 247.

[21] Carrol R. Reed, "The Principal as an Educational Leader," NEA Proceedings 78 (1940): 441-444.

[22] Carrol R. Reed, "Administrative Obstacles to Educational Progress," NEA Proceedings 75 (1937): 538-540.

> conflicting points of view relative to educational objectives; curriculums; training, selection, and improvement of teachers; classification of students; methods of teaching; and the corresponding problems of school finance.[23]

There were different points of view on what was really important in the training and practices of educational administrators. Training varied from college to college. Practice varied from state to state and from large city school districts to small rural school districts. It was because of the changing role of the educational administrator and the different approachs to his training and practice that George D. Strayer was influenced to ask the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association in 1937 to set up requirements for the profession. George D. Strayer said,

> It is rather my duty to propose that the time has arrived for the Department of Superintendence, thru such committee or committees as it may decide to set up, to determine the requirements for admission to the profession. Having done this, the Department should proceed to secure the acceptance by boards of education and by state legislatures of the requirements which it considers a minimum for entrance to the profession.[24]

The Depression

The depression had a great effect on the public schools of the nation and thereby had great effect on the educational administrators who operated them.

After the stock market crash in 1929, the amount of financial support for the schools, and many other institutions, began to diminish. By 1932, the effects of the Depression had crippled the educational programs of public schools in the United States. Some of the effects were noted by George D. Strayer.

[23]Reed, "Administrative Obstacles to Educational Progress," p. 538.

[24]George D. Strayer, "Building the Profession of School Administration," NEA Proceedings 75 (1937): 473.

> In cities and in rural areas schools have been closed, terms have been shortened, teachers' salaries have been reduced, classes have been increased in size, some of the more significant offerings have been eliminated from the curriculum, adequate educational supplies and books have been denied, health service and physical education have been dropped, the attendance service has been crippled, proposals have been made for the lowering of the standards for entrance into the profession, building programs which were to provide adequate housing have been abandoned, night and continuation schools have been closed -- in short, the whole program of education is being curtailed, if not indeed placed in jeopardy.[25]

The Depression caused school budgets to be reduced and for economy of operation in the schools to be of great importance.

> Economy in the support of education is desirable at all times. Under existing conditions, thrifty and careful administration of public education is the only basis upon which the essential services can be maintained.[26]

The educational administrator was called upon to operate the schools in the most efficient and economical way possible. "Again the principal is responsible for a thrifty and careful administration of education for less money than was spent in more prosperous times."[27] The effects of the Depression on the educational administrator were forceful and direct. If many of the nation's schools were to remain in operation, it rested on the abilities and training of administrators to keep them going. "The field of administration. . .is the field where the depression hit very directly and where action was taken regarding what was happening."[28]

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[25]George D. Strayer, "Adequate Support of Education, the Condition of an Effective Service," NEA Proceedings 70 (1932): 588.

[26]George D. Strayer, "Educational Economy and Frontier Needs," NEA Proceedings 71 (1933): 581.

[27]Edith B. Joynes, "The Principal's Responsibility for Leadership and Interpretation," NEA Proceedings 72 (1934): 133.

[28]Jesse B. Sears, "Research in the Influence of the Depression upon Education-Abstract," NEA Proceedings 75 (1937): 271.

School administrators tried to work with the financial problems presented to them; but the effects of the nation's economic situation were overwhelming. Observations of the situation only showed to educators and citizens that the schools were in a state of crisis.

> Comprehensive and current figures concerning the closed schools, shortened terms, sub-code teachers, and wrecking of school programs have been continuously collected and widely disseminated by a variety of means. The American people have been brought to a recognition of the gravity of the present educational crisis.[29]

National radio broadcasts were made at strategic hours to inform the people of the growing educational crisis in America.[30] Payson Smith, Commissioner of Education, Boston, Massachusetts, in describing the conditions of the schools, said that they are, "livid scars that are upon the face of American education today."[31]

People realized that the public schools were in real danger. The cutting of funds to schools was causing some to close and many others to reduce their programs to a minimum level. The education of future generations of the country was suffering. Movements began in the nation to reverse the trends that were destroying the schools. Robert M. Hutchins, President of Chicago University, remarked on the financial crisis of the schools.

> The plain fact is that the schools are under attack because it is easier to get money from them than it is to correct the fundamental iniquities and antiquities of local government. Only a

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[29] John K. Norton, "Report of Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education," NEA Proceedings 72 (1934): 206.

[30] Ibid.

[31] Payson Smith, "Education at the Cross Roads," NEA Proceedings 72 (1934): 573.

> people that has no conception of the place of education in its national life could contemplate the ruin of the next generation as the best remedy for governmental insolvency.[32]

George D. Strayer was also concerned about the cut in funds going to education. He agreed with Robert Hutchins that we must not sacrifice the future of the youth in America by not providing an adequate education for them. In a speech before members of the National Education Association, he said,

> It is alarming to propose retrenchments which would interfere with the efficiency of the school system merely because the revenue system needs reform. Men and women who wish well for our society will be willing to bear the burdens and make the sacrifices necessary to preserve the rights of boys and girls.[33]

Paul R. Mort, Director of the School of Education, Teacher's College, Columbia University, advised that educators be very careful about retrenchment steps. He believed that investigations should be made into the different retrenchment policies to see which ones were real economy measures. He also suggested that care be taken not to take action that would sacrifice the educational opportunities of students.[34]

Many of the leaders in educational administration saw the need to help practicing administrators with the various problems they were facing because of the economic condition of the nation. The schools in their crippled condition placed administrators in very difficult positions. The school administrators needed help to overcome the problems that were facing them. Educational administrators tried to establish institutes

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[32]Robert M. Hutchins, "The Interdependence of Educational Institutions," NEA Proceedings 70 (1932): 651.

[33]George D. Strayer, "The Fight for the Rights of Children in the Period of Depression," NEA Proceedings 70 (1932): 134.

[34]Paul R. Mort, "National Survey of School Finance," NEA Proceedings 70 (1932): 364.

or special classes to aid the school administrator. One of these institutes was given at Teacher's College, Columbia University, by several of the leading men in education and administration. Among these leaders were George D. Strayer, N. L. Engelhardt, Paul R. Mort, and Jesse H. Newlon. The program for the institute was given in this advisement. "There will be lectures and discussions dealing with the financing of the school program, the reorganization of the educational service in the light of present-day needs, the remaking of the curriculum, the improvement of the supervisory and administrative service, the recruiting and management of personnel, changes in buildings and equipment, and other factors influencing changes in educational policy."[35]

Programs such as this helped administrators gain insight into solving problems in the schools. Because of these programs, which made available the latest research findings, the call was made for more research to be accomplished into the problems of the schools. The need for research and reform in many areas, such as school finance, was pointed out by the effects of the Depression as seen in this article.

> It stands to reason that just as the support of schools is vital to their existence so the scientific study of the manifold elements of educational finance and business administration is essential to the efficient application of this support.
>
> The depression pointedly indicates the need of studies such as the following: (1) influence of depression cycles on school support and its continuity; (2) the contractual status of state support provisions; (3) the safeguarding of school funds; (4) the efficiency of public works and school plant extension as a tool for unemployment relief; (5) the relation of education cost to

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[35]"The Institute on the Administration of Public Education," School and Society 37 (1933): 246.

> business and industrial cost, especially salaries, in response to economic conditions at both high and low levels.[36]

The recommendation even came during this time of crisis, that educational administrators look at some of the methods used in private business and research their use for the possible operation of the schools. "Specifically in the field of research in administration, this means that every device for reducing the unit cost of services must be used in every branch, and it is suggested that educators who have not done so familiarize themselves with the progress that has been made in other branches of the public service toward this end thru centralized purchasing, stores and equipment control, unit cost accounting, budgetary control and allotments, and public reporting."[37]

Regardless of where one should look for guidance it was made very clear that educational administrators must plan very carefully the programs that they would like to see developed now and in the future. N. L. Engelhardt, Professor of Education, Teacher's College, Columbia University, said that, "The administrators and teachers who would advance the cause of education during this period of stress will be compelled to plan on a more significant scale, . . ."[38]

Education and Business

The devastating collapse of 1929 and the floundering of the business community during the Depression years left some educational communities

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[36] Alfred D. Simpson, "Needed Research in Public-School Finance," NEA Proceedings 70 (1932): 373.

[37] Charles Ascher, "The Cooperation of Public Administrators and Educators in Research," NEA Proceedings 77 (1933): 393.

[38] N. L. Engelhardt, "Education and Future Planning," NEA Proceedings 70 (1932): 149.

with feelings of disappointment and even disgust toward private business. They had heard much from private business about how to handle the financial affairs and various other operations of the schools. They had been told about sound budgets, fiscal planning, efficiency of operation, future planning, and all the other operations and practices that make up a sound business. Businessmen had been members of boards of education and informed the educational administrators of the proper way to operate the affairs of the school district. Businessmen had talked before national organizations like the National Education Association and had given advice on the proper way to operate the business of education. Now that the businessmen of the nation were fighting for their economic and financial lives their advice seemed hypocritical and empty to some educators.

> No matter how big a fool a big business man may make of himself before an audience of educators, those educators have usually assumed that he did understand business. And we know now that that is not so.
>
> Great financiers wrecked our finances. Power kings turned out to be weaklings. Captains of industry fled from the battle at the first smell of danger and, . . .led the grand stampede away from industry and toward unemployment.[39]

Before the General Session of the National Education Association Glenn Frank, President of the University of Wisconsin, expressed his dissatisfaction with the problems that private business had created for the schools and the lack of progress made in the solutions to the problems.

> With this vast assembly as a sounding board, I want to restate the gravity of the crisis in education which the crisis in enterprise has precipitated. Out of the No Man's Land of

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[39]Edward A. Filene, "Public Education and the Nation's Business," School and Society 39 (March 31, 1934): 393-400.

> uncertainty between old deals and new deals, I want to sound again the bitter cry of the children for a square deal.[40]

Many educational administrators did not take this view toward business. Some believed that private business and public education are so close that they should operate for the benefit of the other. Others believed that the schools were in fact businesses and wished to be thought of as one of the great businesses of the nation. "Why do they fail to realize that we, too, are one of the great businesses? Sometimes it seems that we are not doing just what we might to make them realize that we, too, are one of them."[41]

Some businessmen and educators called for a close relation between private business and education. "The relation is reciprocal. Each owes an obligation to the other and each is entitled to benefits from the other."[42] Edward A. Filene, a businessman, wrote this statement, "Nor can I see how education can longer leave the field of business to business men. Business problems are your problems quite as definitely as they are ours."[43]

A few educators saw the need to try to convince private business that the money spent on education was not wasted but was actually a wise investment. William John Cooper, U.S. Commissioner of

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[40]Glenn Frank, "The Double Crisis of the Schools," NEA Proceedings 73 (1935): 515.

[41]Lucy M. Hott, "The Principal as a Maker of Business Values," NEA Proceedings 69 (1931): 89.

[42]Susan M. Dorsey, "The Relation of Business to Education-Abstract," NEA Proceedings 69 (1931): 452.

[43]Filene, "Public Education and the Nation's Business," p. 393.

Education said, ". . .I believe I could pile up an array of facts which would convince the most skeptical business man that every dollar invested in education brings returns to American business by creating a higher standard of living with the concomitant variety of economic wants."[44]

Willis A. Sutton, Superintendent of Schools, Atlanta, Georgia, held a similar view and said, "Education is the basis of real, genuine production of wealth. The cultural level of the masses of the people is the basis of good business."[45] Willis Sutton believed it was important that businessmen realize that increased education would result in increased economic benefits for them. He enlisted the aid of his teachers to gain evidence that increases in educational level resulted in increased economic activity. The idea came to him while looking at a phone book of a city that was about the same size as his city of Atlanta, Georgia. He noticed that this city's phone book was much bigger than his city's, even though they had about the same population. He checked into the average grade level attainments of the population in the city and found it to be higher than his city. He theorized that the larger number of phones and the larger number of businesses in the city were the result of the increased educational level of the population of the city.[46] He believed that the increased cultural level of the citizens,

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[44]William John Cooper, "Education and Business," NEA Proceedings 69 (1931): 130.

[45]Willis A. Sutton, "Education, the Mainstay of Business," NEA Journal 30 (May, 1941): 130-134.

[46]Ibid.

as a benefit of their education, provided the demand for more and better products from business. This, of course, would stimulate the growth of business.

Willis Sutton also knew that the school systems were large consumers of the products of business. He was aware that the businessmen knew this and he called for the businesses and schools to work together. He said the school systems should, ". . .let business know that education is the partner of business."[47]

Many businessmen and educators looked at this partnership between education and business as advantageous to both and good for the nation. Statements on this partnership made by leaders in both education and business were common. "Education is the chief ally of business and the foundation of good government, education prepares people to absorb the products of industry."[48] Reynold E. Bright, a public accountant in Los Angeles, California, stated at the 1931 National Education Association meeting that, "Business accepts education as economically valuable."[49]

The partnership between education and business was also evidenced by the cooperative classes (where schools utilize industry as a large scale laboratory), continuation classes (where workers from industry were sent back to the schools during part of the work day for more education), and vocational schools.[50] Business leaders believed that they

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[47]Willis A. Sutton, "Problems of a Superintendent," NEA Proceedings 75 (1937): 547.

[48]A. O. Thomas, "Education and World Business," NEA Journal 20 (October, 1931): 241.

[49]Reynold E. Bright, "Education and Business-Abstract," NEA Proceedings 69 (1931): 454.

[50]Iris O'Leary, "The Schools and Industry," NEA Proceedings 69 (1931): 687-690.

had an important investment in the schools and they wanted to take more interest in the operation of the schools and their investment. Dr. Frank B. Jewett, Vice-President of American Telephone and Telegraph and President of Bell Telephone Laboratories, said,

> If we grant, as I think we must, that business should have a vital interest in secondary education, the question at once arises as to whether it does in fact evince that interest. My answer to that question is that I think the last ten years have seen a rapidly growing direct interest of business in secondary education.
>
> I think you may be sure that we of business in the years ahead are bound to take a more concretely active interest in secondary education than we have in the past. . . .[51]

Some businessmen believed that because of the economic crisis in the nation the public schools should look at the curriculum of the schools and consider if it was really worthwhile. Some believed that the demands of industry for qualified workers should influence the schools to train workers for industry and disregard the established curriculum.

> In the light of what is apparently impending, prudent school men should, I believe, begin to restudy educational values; appraise at their true worth the innovations of the last twenty years and reconsider the demands of business and industry for the education of young people to fit into positions in the industrial and commercial fields.[52]

Some businessmen were very committed to this idea of using the schools to train workers for industry and promised support for those schools who provided the training. "When all is said and done, American industry, trade, commerce and finance are not only demanding training but are unequivocally committed to support the institutions that are

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[51] Jewett, "Business Looks at Secondary Education," p. 419.

[52] Will C. Wood, "Education--A Foundation for Business-Abstract," NEA Proceedings 69 (1931): 619.

making it possible."[53] Many educators and businessmen supported the idea of the schools training students to be good workers in industry and better consumers of the products of industry.

Equal Educational Opportunity

The movement for the establishment of equal educational opportunity that was very popular in education during the 1920's was also popular in this decade. The statement was made that, "The American ideal of equality of opportunity thru education has not yet been fully realized."[54] Leaders in education, especially those interested in educational administration, knew this and worked to try and see the fulfillment of this ideal. A. J. Stoddard, Superintendent of Schools, Providence, Rhode Island, and President of the National Education Association Department of Superintendence, said that, "It was not enough to guarantee the freedom to exercise the right to the pursuit of happiness; there must be provided also the opportunity for realization of the right and reasonable assurance of some degree of success in its exercise, or the guarantee of the right would be futile."[55] A. J. Stoddard believed that the ability to pursue the good life and to find happiness were not innate to the human being. It could only be developed through education and the best means to provide an education was through the schools.

> The ability to claim and live the abundant life is not innate in the human being but must be acquired thru long and patient study.

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[53]Paul F. Cadman, "The Business Man Surveys the Graduate," NEA Proceedings 69 (1931): 113.

[54]Educational Policies Commission, "Structure and Administration of Public Education," NEA Journal 27 (January, 1938): 25.

[55]A. J. Stoddard, "Functions of the School in this Democracy," NEA Proceedings 73 (1935): 68.

> It is the function of the schools to give to every person, as far as it is possible to do so, the key to unlock and claim the riches that are the common possession of all who are willing to pay the price.[56]

Willis A. Sutton was concerned about equal educational opportunity for members of all races.

> There must be equalization of opportunity between the races. It is not fair to any group of people living in any section of a state to be discriminated against in providing educational opportunities and yet at the same time to demand that they shall observe the same customs, be guided by the same laws, tried by the same juries, and rewarded or punished by those who maintain the standards of the state.
>
> Equalization of educational opportunity demands that the children of the slum districts shall have something of the same advantages which are afforded to those living in a community of comfort and luxury.
>
> The proposition that each child of a democracy is entitled to something like equal service from its state or its nation is so evident that it needs absolutely no elaboration, but it is a subject about which we have talked a great deal and which still remains unsettled and unsolved.[57]

The difference in the amount of money that could be raised in poorer states as opposed to richer states, and the amount of money that could be raised between poor and rich school districts within states is the major problem. This affects the opportunities available to students in different districts and different states. This makes the opportunities for educational growth and achievement an accident of their birth. George D. Strayer noted the differences in expenditure per child, per year in different states.

> A still better measure is found in the actual amount of school expenditure per child in attendance. In the state making the greatest expenditure, this amounts to $192 per child, while in

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[56] Stoddard, "Functions of the School in this Democracy," pp. 72-73.

[57] Willis A. Sutton, "The Equalization of Educational Opportunity," NEA Proceedings 74 (1936): 52-53.

> the state in which the expenditure is least, the average amount expended per pupil drops to $35. During the current depression, these differences have been still further increased.[58]

John A. Sexson, Superintendent of Schools, Pasadena, California, recognized the difference in wealth between states and described the differences.

> The state with the relatively small number of children has a per capita wealth and a per capita income three times as great as the state with the larger number of children. There is small wonder, then, that the first state spends for public education nearly five times as much per pupil as does the second state. In order to bring about comparative equality of position, with respect to the education of children in these two states, it would be necessary in the first state, to double the number of children and to reduce the wealth and income by two-thirds.[59]

John Sexson noted that in a study by the National Tax Association it was stated that, ". . .under the most defensible plan of raising revenue for. . .education, the richest state in the Union would expend 16.5 percent of its tax resources for schools, while, . . .the poorest state would have to expend 96.5 percent of its tax resources for schools, . . ."[60] The difference in equality of educational opportunity varied greatly under these conditions and educational administrators wanted to see changes made that would provide help to children living in a school system with few opportunities.

It was also noted that urban schools seemed to have a better educational situation than rural schools. Walter E. Morgan, Assistant Superintendent of Public Instruction, State Department of Education,

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[58]George D. Strayer, "Shall the People Control their Schools?" NEA Proceedings 76 (1938): 265.

[59]John A. Sexson, "Federal Relations to Public Education," NEA Proceedings 74 (1936): 53-56.

[60]Ibid., p. 55.

Sacramento, California, stated that the average expenditure per pupil was 57 percent more in urban schools than in rural schools. He said the median salaries were 40 percent higher in urban schools than they were in rural schools. He said the teacher training was greater in urban schools and that there were many more educational services available in urban schools than were available in rural schools.[61]

The average length of school terms also varied because of the difference of funds available within different school districts. "The average school term ranges from nearly nine and one-half months in the highest states to barely six and one-half months in the lowest states."[62] The problems of equal educational opportunity were apparent for a long time to educational leaders. Men of vision, like Ellwood P. Cubberley, had advocated making revisions in the financial structure for support of education, and had advocated federal aid to education for years. The situations that continued to develop during the 1930's that widened the differences in equality of educational opportunity continued to cause educational leaders to call for federal aid. Paul R. Mort. said that, "Our social and economic welfare demands a more adequate educational program than the poor states can provide."[63] He recommended that the solution to the problems would be, ". . .that a satisfactory

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[61]Walter E. Morgan, "Reducing the Financial Inequalities Between Urban and Rural Schools," NEA Proceedings 77 (1939): 122-124.

[62]Howard A. Dawson, "What Federal Aid Means for Public Education," NEA Proceedings 77 (1939): 127.

[63]Paul R. Mort, "Symposium on Federal Support of Public Education," NEA Proceedings 74 (1936): 401.

foundation of education should be provided in every community thruout the nation."[64] Even with the economic situation at such a reduced strength Paul Mort believed that the nation could afford a basic foundation program financed by the federal government. He provided information for the provisions of such a federal program.[65] Jesse B. Sears, Professor of Education, Stanford University, believed that the Depression did at least one service and that was to bring some state aid to the schools and emergency aid from the federal government.[66] George D. Strayer said, "It would seem wise to propose that aid be granted in order that a minimum program of education may be made available throughout the nation."[67] Many educational administrators called for federal aid to help ease the difficult situations in the public schools created by the economic crisis.

The fear of central control was one large obstacle to the use of federal funds for public education. The long established idea of local control had become so strong that fear of doing anything that would hurt the concept caused the federal aid proposals to move mery slowly. People believed that the local school board, representing the common man, should be in complete control of education in their community. George D. Strayer made the point that many times the local school boards do not represent the common people but represent the interest of business and professional groups.

[64]Dawson, "What Federal Aid Means for Public Education," p. 401.

[65]Ibid., p. 402.

[66]Sears, "Influence of the Depression upon Education," pp. 267-272.

[67]George D. Strayer, "Report of Advisory Committee on Education and Impending Legislation," NEA Proceedings 77 (1939): 184.

> There is need in the United States for making the board of education more directly representative of all of the people. Even where members of the board are elected without party designation and at special election, the tendency has been to choose members of these bodies almost exclusively from the business and professional groups.
>
> It would seem many times that the majority of the people have little or no representation on the board. As conditions are at present, the board of education all too frequently assumes responsibility without any adequate presentation of the views of the entire citizenship, and still more frequently with a complete denial of even a hearing to minority groups.[68]

But George D. Strayer did caution against the dangers of federal control. The dilemma was the need for a federal foundation program of education with its dangers of centralized control compared with the lack of ability of some school districts to provide an adequate school program while maintaining the concept of local control.

The problem was stated very well by Agnes Samuelson, a past president of the National Education Association, when she asked the question, "How can local control be preserved and the financial inequalities be reduced?"[69] She commented further and made the point that, "It is certain that the American people will not vacate the principle of local initiative in government, especially in education."[70]

The request for federal aid to education, even with the concern that this aid would lead to centralized control was commonly heard. In a statement given by the Educational Policies Commission, the need for federal aid to education was recognized and the concern for federal control was stated.

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[68]Strayer, "Shall the People Control their Schools?" pp. 263-264.

[69]Agnes Samuelson, "How Important is the Safeguarding of Local Initiative in Education," NEA Proceedings 77 (1939): 126.

[70]Ibid., p. 127.

> These and other well-established facts clearly indicate that there is little possibility of the maintenance of an adequate system of public education in this country except on the basis of a very much larger participation by the federal government in the support of schools.
>
> In granting this assistance, however, the federal government should in no way interfere in the management and control of education. . . .[71]

Administrative Reorganization

It was clear to most educational administrators that there was, in the nation, a, ". . .need for the reorganization of the units of school attendance and of administration."[72] The following information will help illustrate the conditions that called for the reorganization of school districts.

> Facts indicate the indefensible type of district organization which prevails in many states. In Kansas there are 7,106 one-teacher schools with an average enrollment of only sixteen pupils. In Missouri, more than half of the rural school districts have fewer than twenty pupils in average daily attendance in all the schools which they provide. In Illinois, there are 1,777 school districts having no more than ten pupils, and 4,284 districts having no more than fifteen pupils.
>
> In Arkansas, Idaho, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, Oregon, South Dakota, and Wisconsin the school board members outnumber the teachers. The ratio of the number of school-board members to the number of teaching positions in the district unit states is 1 to 1.3; in town or township unit states, 1 to 6.1; in county unit states, 1 to 17.7; and in the United States as a whole, 1 to 2.[73]

In many states the number of school units or districts were in the thousands. In Illinois there were 12,070 school administrative units;

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[71] Educational Policies Commission, "New Outlook in Educational Policy; Review of Structure and Administration in American Democracy," NEA Journal 27 (November, 1938): 244.

[72] Educational Policies Commission, "Structure and Administration of Public Education," p. 25.

[73] "The Reorganization of the Mechanism of School Organization," The Elementary School Journal 33 (June, 1933): 721.

Kansas had 8,747; and Pennsylvania had 2,587.[74] The result of these small school units was a lack of good educational facilities for students, poorer salaries and working conditions for teachers, and a lack of highly trained, qualified leadership. The larger city schools systems could provide better educational conditions for students and better leadership. It was noticed that, ". . .cities have maintained for generations almost a monopoly of the genuine leaders in educational administration. Better teachers, better housing and equipment, and better results have gone hand in hand with the adoption of the larger units."[75] It was clearly evident to educational administrators with any vision that the reorganization of the small administrative units into larger units was necessary for the growth in quality of education in the nation.

Educational Administration and Democracy

The autocratic model of administration that had been taken historically from government and business was criticized by some leading educational administrators and educational philosophers. John C. Almack, a professor at Stanford University, had some comments on the historical development and proper ends of educational administration.

> A sound system of administration should be occupied with the definition of general and external elements, and with the promotion of decentralization, freedom and initiative in all

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[74]Ben G. Graham, "Critical Problems," The 1934 Yearbook of School Administration, cited by NEA Proceedings 72 (1934): 555-557.

[75]Harry E. Eldern, "Larger Units of Organization," NEA Proceedings 73 (1975): 427.

> that is personal to the pupil. These ends can not be met by bureaucratic methods, whether they result because of the exercise of the sovereign right of the state, as in Europe, or because they result from the application of efficiency principles derived from industry and business, as in the United States.
>
> History, therefore, reveals that concepts of the purpose and form of administration originated two thousand years ago--perhaps much earlier. Both were essentially aristocratic--not that alone, but products of an age in which authority was thought to flow from some transcendental source, not to be questioned and not to be disobeyed. The centuries which lie between the 200--the climax of imperial age--and the nineteenth century were devoted to the refinement and expansion of imperial administration, and any loss of power growing out of doubts of the sanctity of central authority was compensated for by rigor with which discipline was enforced in the ranks and the ready support which authority commanded from the military.
>
> The first signs of democracy in administration appeared in America with the institution of lay management, as separate from political management. Its era was brief; for by 1860 school administration had been centralized in the state, in the charge of a political state superintendent and a political state board.[76]

John Dewey, one of the greatest contributors to philosophy and education that America has ever produced, had a deep commitment to democracy. His view of democracy was not just in the political sense. He viewed democracy as a way of life. It was a concept, a pattern of living, that would enter into every relationship of the actions of men. It was his deep interest in democracy and in the schools that led him to speak of democracy and its relation to educational administration.

> Democratic political forms are simply the best means that human wit has devised up to a special time in history. But they rest back upon the idea that no man or limited set of men is wise enough or good enough to rule others without their consent; the positive meaning of this statement is that all those who are affected by social institutions must have a share in producing and managing them.

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[76] John C. Almack, "Historical Developments of School Administration," School and Society 43 (May 9, 1936): 629-630.

The development of political democracy came about through substitution of the method of mutual consultation and voluntary agreement for the method of subordination of the many to the few enforced from above. Social arrangements which involve fixed subordination are maintained by coercion. The coercion need not be physical. There have existed, for short periods, benevolent despotism. But coercion of some sort there has been; perhaps economic, certainly psychological and moral. The very fact of exclusion from participation is a subtle form of suppression.

Every autocratic and authoritarian scheme of social action rests on a belief that the needed intelligence is confined to a superior few, who because of inherent natural gifts are endowed with the ability and the right to control the conduct of others; laying down principles and rules and directing the ways in which they are carried out. It would be foolish to deny that much can be said for this point of view. It is that which controlled human relations in social groups for much the greater part of human history. The democratic faith has emerged very, very recently in the history of mankind.

The foundation of democracy is faith in the capacities of human nature, faith in human intelligence and in the power of pooled and cooperative experience.

The individuals of the submerged mass may not be very wise. But there is one thing they are wiser about than anybody else can be, and that is where the shoe pinches, the trouble they suffer from.

What, it may be asked, have these things to do with school administration? There is some kind of government, or control, whenever affairs that concern a number of persons who act together are engaged in. The principle applies with special force to the school. For it is the main business of the family and the school to influence directly the formation and growth of attitudes and dispositions, emotional, intellectual and moral. Whether this educative process is carried on in a predominantly democratic or non-democratic way becomes, therefore, a question of transcendent importance not only for education itself but for its final effect upon all the interests and activities of a society that is committed to the democratic way of life.

Hence, if the general tenor of what I have said about democratic ideal and method is anywhere near the truth, it must be said that the democratic principle requires that every teacher should have some regular and organic way in which he can, directly or through representatives democratically chosen, participate in the formulation of the controlling aims, methods and materials of the school of which he is a part. Nevertheless, the issue of authoritarian versus democratic methods in administration remains with us and demands serious recognition.

> Absence of participation tends to produce lack of interest and concern on the part of those shut out. The result is a corresponding lack of effective responsibility. In some cases, indifference passes into evasion of duties when not directly under the eye of a supervisor; in other cases, a carping, rebellious spirit is engendered. A sort of game is instituted between teacher and supervisor like that which went on in the old-fashioned schools between teacher and pupil. Other teachers pass on, perhaps unconsciously, what they feel to be arbitrary treatment received by them to their pupils.
>
> I suppose there has never been an autocrat, big or little, who did not justify his conduct on the ground of the unfitness of his subjects to take part in government. Upon the whole, what exists in the schools is more a matter of habit and custom than it is of any deliberate autocracy. What the argument for democracy implies is that the best way to produce initiative and constructive power is to exercise it. Power, as well as interest, comes by use and practice. It is impossible that the work should not be better done when teachers have that understanding of what they are doing that comes from having shared in forming its guiding ideas.
>
> Classroom teachers are those who are in continuous direct contact with those taught. The position of administrator is at best indirect by comparison. If there is any work in the world that requires the conservation of what is good in experience so that it may become an integral part of further experience, it is that of teaching.
>
> The fundamental beliefs and practices of democracy are now challenged as they never have been before. I can think of nothing so important in this country at present as a rethinking of the whole problem of democracy and its implications. My utmost hope will be fulfilled if anything I have said plays any part, however small, in promoting cooperative inquiry and experimentation in this field of democratic administration of our schools.[77]

Jesse H. Newlon, Professor of Education, Teacher's College, Columbia, was a strong advocate of democracy in educational administration. He believed that it was important for educational administrators to have a point of view, a position or ideal, that would give direction to their lives and to the life of the school or school system which they were

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[77]John Dewey, "Democracy and Educational Administration," School and Society 45 (April 3, 1937): 458-462.

to administer. Democracy gave him the model for his point of view. From his point of view he asked some very important questions concerning educational administration.

> How should democracy's schools be administered? What should be the point of view and the methods of administration and of the administrator of education? It is peculiarly true that ends and means cannot be separated. For in a democracy institutions are regarded as instruments, not sacred, but to be altered in accordance with human needs.
>
> It cannot be too strongly emphasized that educational administration is always instrumental. Its sole purpose should be to facilitate the educative process. If administration is to facilitate the educative process, it must harmonize with the educative process which it serves. If schools are to serve the purpose of democracy, they must be administered so that these purposes will be served, for it is possible to operate a school as to defeat the purposes of democracy. Its internal administration must likewise harmonize with the purposes and principles of democracy.[78]

Jesse Newlon was aware of the studies that had shown that privileged groups or classes had control of many of the school districts in the nation. He was also aware that many times decisions in school districts were made by one person, such as a superintendent, principal, or president of a school board. Or some times decisions were made by small powerful groups that surround the superintendent or board of education. This left the majority of the teachers little or no room for input into decisions that were made concerning the operation of the school or school system. He said that a school system with conditions like this cannot serve democracy.[79] He said that,

> It is fantastic to believe that teachers who have no share in the development of policies, who are not permitted to think for themselves, can teach others to think for themselves.

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[78]Jesse H. Newlon, "The Importance of a Point of View in Educational Administration," NEA Proceedings 75 (1937): 495-496.

[79]Ibid., p. 497.

> What are the limits of teacher participation? At the moment I can think of no function or service with which this participation should not be concerned. Teachers have contributions to make, not only in the development of policies with reference to curriculums and methods, but with reference to budgets, personnel, salaries, building, equipment, types of schools, home and community relationships, every aspect of the operation of the schools.[80]

Jesse H. Newlon knew that much of what was being utilized as a guide for educational administration had come from private business. He was somewhat critical of some of the thoughtless applications of the methods of industry to educational administration.

> In our passion for educational efficiency we have patterned the administration of our schools too largely after the administration of industry. Educational administration undoubtedly has much to learn from business. But the efficiency of an enterprise can be judged only in the light of its purposes. Methods of administration that made for efficiency in one enterprise may in another of different character, be disastrous. We do not solve our problem by taking over bodily the practices of business and applying them uncritically to education. For, after all, a school is someting different from a factory. This borrowing from business no doubt explains much of the authoritarianism and opportunism that so often characterise educational administration in this country. The administration of business and industry has been autocratic--often to the disadvantage of those concerned, it now appears. Vaguely aware of the vital issues at stake, we in education have frequently given lip service to democracy, while our practices have not squared with our professed ideals. More often, I think, we have in a period of prosperity and rapid educational expansion simply been indifferent to basic problems of educational administration.[81]

Newlon summarized his position by stressing that educational administrators have a point of view and that it should be a democratic point of view. Newlon believed that the future of democracy in the schools rested with the action or inaction of educational administrators.

> The conclusion of all this is that point of view makes all the difference in the world in the administration of schools.

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[80] Newlon, "Importance of a Point of View in Educational Administration," pp. 497-498.

[81] Ibid., p. 497.

> Every school is administered from some point of view. Every administrator operates from some point of view. In an authoritarian state both policy-making and administration proceed from the top down. Obedience and submission are exalted. In a democracy the procedure is reversed. In a democracy the values of the free play of intelligence and of cooperation are exalted.
>
> Upon educational administrators, then, more than upon any other group, rests the ultimate decision as to whether our schools will, in the uncertain years ahead, actually serve the purposes for which they were established.[82]

M. M. Chambers, a Professor at Ohio State University, was concerned about the lack of democratic practice in the schools, and the preoccupation educational administrators had with methods of operation taken from private business. He said that,

> Schools are not factories wherein children are raw materials and graduates are the finished products. Teachers are not routine operatives tending a great educational machine which grinds out its quota of processed materials. Superintendents and principals are not straw bosses employed to drive their subordinates to a maximum daily output. Boards of education bear a public trust which is somewhat different from the responsibility of the direction of private industrial and commercial corporations as at present organized.[83]

He stated that, ". . .education aims at the advancement of human welfare and worth and dignity, and necessarily produces results which, . . . , can not be immediately estimated in objective terms."[84] He thought that business prizes coercion, routine drudgery, and thoughtless repetition while education prizes inspiration, leadership, and recognition of the necessity for fruitful leisure. For him these differences were enough to

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[82]Newlon, "Importance of a Point of View in Educational Administration," p. 497. For more information on Newlon's point of view see, Jesse H. Newlon, "The Importance of a Point of View in Educational Administration," School and Society 45 (March 13, 1937): 361-368.

[83]M. M. Chambers, "A Philosophy of Educational Personnel Administration," School and Society 37 (June 10, 1933): 736.

[84]Ibid.

justify a different philosophy and a different form of administrative organization from that utilized in business and industry.

Educational Administration Textbooks

Three educational administration textbooks have been selected to show the subjects discussed and the emphasis of these subjects in the text. The following table will show the different general subject areas covered in the three books. The table also shows the percentage of space designated to each area.

TABLE 3

TEXTBOOK ANALYSIS

Topic Area	Title of the Book		
	Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools Harl R. Douglass (1932) Total Pages 566	The Administration of American Education Frank P. Graves (1932) Total Pages 624	Principles of School Administration Arthur M. Proctor (1938) Total Pages 528
Historical Development (including Educational Organization)	0%	16%	11%
Instruction	13%	10%	12%
Teaching Staff	9%	13%	11%
School Boards	0%	6%	6%
Superintendent (Principal)	5%	15%	4%
Finance	0%	0%	6%
Law	0%	0%	4%

TABLE 3--Continued

Topic Area	Title of the Book		
	Orga... Adm... Se... H... (... T...	...The Administration ...American Educa-...n ...k P. Graves ...2) ...l Pages 624	Principles of School Administration Arthur M. Proctor (1938) Total Pages 528
School Building and Equipment		0%	13%
Supervision		21%	16%
School and Community Relations	9%	0%	5%
School Organization (includes Pupil Organizations)	24%	7%	12%
Reports, Records, Statistics	18%	0%	0%
Miscellaneous, Summaries, Conclusions, etc.	0%	12%	0%

NOTE: Percentages of the book devoted to each general topic area are presented. This is found by comparing the number of pages in each topic area to the total number of pages in the book.

TABLE 3--Continued

Topic Area	Title of the Book		
	Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools Harl R. Douglass (1932) Total Pages 566	The Administration of American Education Frank P. Graves (1932) Total Pages 624	Principles of School Administration Arthur M. Proctor (1938) Total Pages 528
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Supervision	13%	21%	16%
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Reports, Records, Statistics	18%	0%	0%
Miscellaneous, Summaries, Conclusions, etc.	0%	12%	0%

NOTE: Percentages of the book devoted to each general topic area are presented. This is found by comparing the number of pages in each topic area to the total number of pages in the book.

CHAPTER V

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION 1940-1950

Training for Educational Administrators

Training for educational administrators was not available in the earliest beginnings of the profession. Along with this lack of training often came a lack of competence to manage the affairs of the school. This resulted in many early school administrators not having a good image with the public. Clarence C. Moore, Superintendent of Schools, Grover, Colorado, remarked on the reputation of early school administrators.

> In early history of education almost anyone who was unfit for other school work was considered as a good candidate for the office of superintendent of schools. The following words characterized the situation as it then existed: 'The ordinary superintendent is apt to be a grammar-school teacher run to seed, or some retired clergyman or local politician out of a job.'[1]

The situation had changed by the 1940's. The training for school administration had become an established university discipline. From the first course in school administration at Teachers College, Columbia University, Pedagogy XV, offered in 1894-95, and the first course in school administration offered by Ellwood P. Cubberley at Stanford University, "Organization and Supervision of School Systems," in

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[1]Clarence C. Moore, "The Educational Administrator and His Opportunities," Educational Administration and Supervision 23 (1937): 622-623.

1897-98[2], had developed a well organized study of educational administration with a large body of literature.

The increase in number and quality of training programs was accompanied by better certification standards required by the states for school administrative positions. These improvements can be seen by comparing the states requiring certification of superintendents in 1937 with those in 1941. In 1937, twenty-nine states provided for the certification of superintendents at the state level. Nineteen states issued no certificate to superintendents which differed from that of a classroom teacher.[3] In 1941 the number of states requiring a special certificate for superintendents had climbed to thirty-six. Only twelve states still had no special certificate for superintendents.[4]

The change in the preparation of school administrators was improved from the earlier days. But the preparation of administrators was not perfect. Ralph W. Tyler, Professor, Chicago University, stated the accomplishments and the shortcomings of the training and preparation of educational administrators.

The accomplishments made in preparation of administrators.

1. One important achievement has been the formulation of a fairly clear picture of the major functions of the school administrator.

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[2]Jesse B. Sears, "A Program of Instruction for School Administrators," Educational Administration and Supervision 35 (March, 1949): 129-149.

[3]Moore, "Educational Administrator and His Opportunities," pp. 628-629.

[4]Clarence C. Moore, "Superintendents' Certificates," Nation's Schools 27 (February, 1941): 49.

2. The second major achievement has been the outlining in considerable detail of the legal conditions under which schools operate in various states of the union.

3. There has also been developed, over the past twenty-five years, a fairly comprehensive analysis of the kinds of duties that the administrator performs in discharging his major functions.

4. A fourth major achievement of importance in the development of training programs for school administrators has been the extensive invention of devices and practices of value in performing administrative duties effectively. This includes such things as record forms, budget procedures, salary schedules, rating scales--. . .particulars that are useful in a variety of administrative activities.

5. A fifth accomplishment is the growing recognition, on the part both of the professional staff and of the public, of the need for systematic training in educational administration.

6. A sixth achievement is to be found in the considerable group of school administrators who have received systematic training in educational administration. . . .

7. Finally, mention should be made of the achievement represented by the fact that both pre-service and in-service programs for the education of school administrators have been developed and are widely accepted by leaders of the profession.

Shortcomings in preparation of school administrators.

1. The first weakness in the training of educational administrators is the shortage of high-grade candidates for training.

2. A second weakness. . .is indicated by the fact that a considerable fraction of school executives lack adequate understanding of the social world in which they operate.

3. A third weakness. . .is evidenced by the large number of administrators who have no consistent set of educational goals by which to guide their work. In fact, a consistent, well-unified educational philosophy is rare among administrators. As a result, many of them become engrossed in details or in matters, like business administration or public relations, that are only means to an end; or they encourage various parts of the school to carry on activities which are so inconsistent that the work of one part of the school cancels the work of another.

4. A fourth weakness. . .of many of them is a rationale for educational processes; that is, a conception of the means involved and of the techniques to be used in major educational tasks, such as curriculum construction, evaluation, and pupil guidance.

> 5. A fifth major weakness. . .is the failure to provide an adequate understanding of human relations and human development.
>
> 6. A sixth common weakness in the training of educational administrators is the failure to provide an adequate bridge between theory and practice.
>
> 7. A seventh shortcoming. . .for the education of administrators is provincialism--educational provincialism. In the minds of many administrators, education is something that goes on only in the school or under school direction.
>
> 8. Finally, . . .a shortcoming which does not affect the majority of administrators but still exists in too many cases, that is the lack of certain essential personal qualities demanded for effective administration.[5]

Ralph Tyler believed that study in educational philosophy should be an essential part of the work to be given to administrators. He also thought that a one year intern experience should be provided in training for administration to provide a bridge between theory and practice.[6]

Other leaders in education were critical about the training given to school administrators. Walter D. Cocking, Dean, College of Education, University of Georgia stated that the results of a study by the National Association of Colleges and Departments of Education, published in 1941, revealed, "In some of the institutions no philosophy had been clearly formulated," and in those institutions with a philosophy of administration, ". . .study of the existing programs frequently revealed little compatibility with the stated philosophy."[7] Cocking was not only critical of the schools for not being guided by a philosophy of

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[5]Ralph W. Tyler, "The Role of University Departments of Education in the Preparation of School Administrators," School Review 54 (October, 1946): 452-456.

[6]Ibid., p. 459.

[7]Walter D. Cocking, "Education of an Administrator," Nation's Schools 28 (July, 1941): 31.

administration, he was critical of the lack of the establishment of sound entrance requirements into the training for administration.

> It is difficult to understand the indifference that national organizations and school administrators and professional schools offering programs in school administration have displayed to the establishment of entrance requirements to school administration programs.
>
> In the majority of schools visited there are only two selected bases upon which students are chosen for school administration training: (1) the completion of a four year undergraduate college program, and (2) sufficient money to permit attendance at the institution.[8]

The demand for more training for administrators and for better established criteria for administrative certificates continued even with the criticism of administrative programs. In 1924 only seven states required special qualifications for the principalship or issued a principal's certificate. In 1939 thirty-two states made such requirements.[9] In 1928, fifty-four percent of elementary-school principals did not have a degree. In 1948, the situation changed so that only four percent did not have a degree.[10] There was a growing tendency to require the doctor's degree as the standard for administrative positions of importance.[11]

Private institutions contributed large sums of money to help train school administrators. The W. K. Kellogg Foundation provided a grant totalling about $3,000,000 through the American Asscciation of School Administrators, to several major colleges and universities for

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[8] Cocking, "Education of an Administrator," p. 32.

[9] "Certification Requirements for High-School Principals," School Review 48 (April, 1940): 248.

[10] F. W. Hubbard, "The Elementary-School Principal--Today and Tomorrow," NEA Journal 37 (September, 1948): 364-365.

[11] W. C. Bagley, "On the Doctor's Degree as a Requirement for Important Public-School Posts," School and Society 62 (August 4, 1945): 70-71.

a "new nation-wide project. . .to improve the professional preparation of rural, city, county, and state school superintendents through pre-service and on-the-job training programs."[12]

The criticism was made that these training programs for school administrators provided training that was too specialized. It was believed that this specialized training would not prepare the administrator to do his job properly.

> In the past two decades the whole emphasis in our society has been on specialization. School administration too has not escaped. . .and the administrator of today often has become a specialist in one phase of administration, to the extent that the broader aspects of it have been relegated to a secondary position. . . .the evidence is clear that as administrators we are finding it increasingly difficult to be adequately informed and prepared to execute all the functions which are ours by virtue of our positions.[13]

A broader education of school administrators was called for to help administrators not to fall victim to fads in education.

> Like fashion designers, those responsible for 'selling' education to the public feel it incumbent to sell the latest as the best. It is against this kind of practice that the broader preparation that is now in sight should protect and caution the administrators of education, who should become educational statesmen and leaders rather than salesmen of education with labels.[14]

The subjects studied in courses of school administration included, "The relation of government to the financing, control, and administration of schools; functions served by the local school officials; the place of the federal and state government in the support of education; local support for schools; the determination of educational policy; the relation

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[12]"A New Training Program for School Superintendents," School and Society 72 (August 12, 1950): 107.

[13]Will Hayes, "Informed School Administration," Educational Administration and Supervision 33 (1947): 104.

[14]I. L. Kaudel, "Improving Public-School Administration," School and Society 72 (August 26, 1950): 139.

of lay control to professional service; and the grading, segregation, and promotion of students."[15]

The results of a national study on the course offerings in educational administration showed what courses were available and the similarity of these courses. The course offerings can be seen in Table 4 . The summary of the study points out that these courses represent virtually all the types of courses offered.

TABLE 4

THE FREQUENCY WITH WHICH THE ITEMS INCLUDED ON THE CHECK LIST IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION ARE TAUGHT BY INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING AND THE PERCENT THAT THESE FREQUENCIES ARE OF THE EIGHTY-ONE INSTITUTIONS REPORTING, 1940

Main divisions of educational administration	Frequency of items taught	Percent of total teaching
Federal relations to education	66	81.5
State control of education	67	82.7
County educational organization	68	84.0
Local units of organization	68	84.0
The district board of education	64	79.0
The superintendent of schools	66	81.4
Educational organization	64	79.0
The teaching staff	65	80.2
The administration of pupil personnel	65	80.2
Business administration of schools	65	80.2
The school building program	63	77.7
Standards in school buildings	57	70.4
Care of the school building	62	76.4
School building insurance	56	69.1
School supplies	62	76.4
Transportation	60	74.1
Average of these divisions	63.3	78.1

[15] John T. Wahlquist, "Conflicting Views of School Administration and Supervision," Educational Administration and Supervision 27 (February, 1941): 96.

Summary

This study shows that colleges are now offering courses in educational administration which are available to students in all sections of the United States. It is evident that this offering is taught with a certain degree of uniformity in all the institutions surveyed. Of the eighty-one institutions reporting the average frequency for the items taught amounts to 63.3 when all the sixteen main divisions of the check list are considered. This average is 78 percent of all the eighty-one reporting institutions (the fact that no new main divisions were offered and that the miscellaneous items of each main division have a comparatively low frequency check shows that the check list rather definitely covered the offerings of these institutions.

SOURCE: Clarence C. Moore, "The College Offerings in School Administration," Educational Administration and Supervision 27 (1941): 617-622.

Table 5 shows the number of and percent of selected institutions offering courses in various phases and fields of educational administration in 1900, 1910, 1920, and 1930. It is worth noting that course description number four, Social Foundations of Administration, was nonexistent until the 1920's and then shows a very small percent of the total course offerings.

TABLE 5

NUMBER AND PERCENT OF SELECTED INSTITUTIONS OFFERING COURSES IN VARIOUS PHASES AND FIELDS OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN 1900, 1910, 1920, AND 1930

Description of courses	1900		1910		1920		1930	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Educational Administration (general)	10	83	15	94	18	90	24	92
Major Course for Superintendents	1a	8	---	---	1b	5	2	8
City School Administration	2	16	6	38	7	35	8	31
Social Foundations of Administration	---	---	---	---	1	5	1	4
Functions of School Officials	---	---	1	6	2	10	4	15
Public School Finance	---	---	1	6	3	15	18	69
Business Administration	---	---	---	---	---	---	10	38
Child Accounting	---	---	---	---	1	5	10	38
Administration of Personnel	---	---	---	---	1	5	10	38
Schoolhousing	---	---	1	6	1	5	16	62
Hygiene and Sanitation	---	---	6	38	---	---	---	---
School Records and Reports	---	---	---	---	1	5	1	4
School Surveys	---	---	---	---	13	65	16	62
Public Relations--Publicity	---	---	---	---	---	---	8	31
Organization of Supervision	---	---	---	---	---	---	1	4
Statistics Applied to Educational Administration	1c	8	---	---	1	5	1	4
Administration of Special Education	---	---	1	6	6	30	11	42
Elementary School Administration	1	8	2	13	4	20	12	46
Administration of a School	---	---	2	13	2	10	1	4
Junior High School Administration	---	---	---	---	6	30	14	54
High School Administration	2	16	6	38	14	70	23	88
Administration of Higher Education	---	---	1	6	3	15	16	62
Legal Aspects of School Administration	---	---	---	---	---	---	4	15
School Law	1	8	4	25	1	5	8	31
Education and the State	2	16	3	19	6	30	11	42

TABLE 5--Continued

Description of courses	1900		1910		1920		1930	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
County or Rural Administration[d]	--	--	--	--	5	23	10	38
Foreign School Systems	5	42	7	44	3	15	--	--
Research for Superintendents	--	--	--	--	1	4	2	8
Research in Educational Administration	1	8	4	25	11	55	19	73
Research in Education	6	50	8	50	15	75	25	96
Number of different subdivisions offered each decade	32	--	68	--	127	--	286	--

SOURCE: "Educational Leadership Progress and Possibilities," The Eleventh Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence (Washington, D.C.: The Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association of the United States, February, 1933), p. 270.

NOTE: Data from: Table V in Basic Training Program for City School Superintendents, by A. B. Murphy. Doctor's thesis, University of California, Berkely, California, 1931. MS Abstract published in School Executives Magazine 51 (March, 1932): 291-93.

[a]Apprentice course in superintendency.

[b]Major course covering entire field.

[c]Interpretation of school statistics.

[d]Does not represent true status as institutions were selected for offerings in city rather than rural administration.

Administrative Principles

Many educational leaders believed that school administration needed to look outside its own area of experience and practice to gain a better understanding of administration theory and principles. Historically, school administrators had looked to private business for leadership in this area. But as the social sciences grew they too were considered for the contribution they could make to school administration.

> It seems axiomatic that school administration has to be related to education and to our social sciences. Yet, too often we treat it as if it were a separate and independent field. We are much in need of a thorough examiniation of these propositions, together with their implications for a theory of school administration.[16]

Nolan Charles Kearney, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, St. Paul, Minnesota, conducted a study of administration in education, in social sciences, and in business to see if there were common principles that could be found in all areas of administration. He made this statement regarding the study.

> In this attempt, it has been proven valuable to search through authoritative statements on administration in political science to find areas of agreement that might be accepted as standards of administrative effectiveness, both by educators and by political scientists.
>
> An analysis of a large number of publications in the field of political science as well as in education led to the conclusion that a set of standards could be found concerning which there were no significant differences of opinion.[17]

Kearney examined many works before arriving at his conclusion. Some of the work that he examined were:

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[16]Sears, "A Program of Instruction for School Administrators," p. 131.

[17]Nolan Charles Kearney, "Seven Standards for Administrative Effectiveness," Educational Administration and Supervision 36 (March, 1950): 180-181.

1. Educational Policies Commission, The Structure and Administration of Education in the United States. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1937.

2. Educational Policies Commission, The Structure and Administration of Education in the American Democracy. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1938.

3. National Society for the Study of Education, "Changing Conceptions in Educational Administration," Forty-fifth Yearbook, Part II. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1946.

4. Louis Brownlow, Charles E. Merrian, Luther Gulick, President's Committee on Administrative Management. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1937.

5. L. Urwick, The Elements of Administration. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1943.

6. Luther Gulick, L. Urwick, Editors. Papers on the Science of Administration. New York: Institute of Public Administration, Columbia University, 1937.

7. Woodrow Wilson, "The Study of Administration," Political Science Quarterly, Vol. II, No. 2, June, 1887.

Nolan Kearney found that, "Certain broad areas of emphasis recurred again and again."[18] He was able to group these emphasized areas into seven general principles that could be applied to educational administration. These seven general principles are:

> 1. The school board, the city council, the commissioner of education, or other lay authority should largely confine official activities to the exercise of legislative and policy-forming authorities and should delegate professional functions to a trained professional staff headed by the Superintendent of Schools.

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[18] Kearney, "Seven Standards for Administrative Effectiveness," p. 183.

2. The Superintendent of Schools should be established as a responsible and effective chief executive and 'as the center of energy, direction, and administrative management' and professional leadership. The executive should be held accountable for his administration. He should be given responsibility commensurate with his administration.

3. There should be unified executive control. Stated negatively, as it might apply to a school situation, there should not be a dual or multiple control or division of executive functions between the 'business' aspects and the 'educational' aspects of school administration or between the Superintendent of Schools as executive officer and any member or members of the legislative authority.

4. A straightforward, equitable, and clearly formulated fiscal policy should be provided for in the law and should be based on the financial abilities and the cultural ideals of the community and designed to finance a carefully planned educational program.

5. Continuity of planning, of policy, and of 'legislative personality' should be achieved.

6. If the schools are to function as the stronghold of democracy, they must be democratically administered. They must be up-to-date, efficient, and effective instruments for carrying out the will of the people. Educational policy including financial policy must be subject to an ultimate review at the polls, and responsibility for policy must be clear-cut.

7. In order that the executive authority and responsibility may be clearly established and that data may be at hand for the study and improvement of administrative procedures, there should be on record the legislative decisions, the adopted policies, and the authorizations of the lay authority, as well as some indication of the historical aspects of the various situations and a record of the discussions and considerations that led to decisions on policy and program. Ordinarily most of these should appear in the minutes and in the adopted rules and regulations.[19]

Jesse B. Sears, Professor, Stanford University, was a leader in educational administration. In his writings may be seen the development

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[19]Kearney, "Seven Standards for Administrative Effectiveness," pp. 180-181.

of several influences that modified the thought in school administration.[20] In 1934 he wrote,

> Without overlooking the treatment of general principles to be found in the literature on school administration, and aside from organizational charts and actual organization of the school staff, these codes, together with many subordinate administrative devices, offer the only tangible detailed expression we have of our administrative theory.[21]

His reference to codes are the rules and regulations of the local school board.

This view of school administration changed rapidly and by 1945 the changes could be seen in the writing of Sears. He said that similarities existed in administration among the fields of business, engineering, and education.[22] He said that, "Since all administration must deal with material and personnel in a physical sense and with relations that are definable in terms of physical law, as well as with personal judgments, values, and relations, in that far there can be a general science of administration."[23]

Jesse Sears analyzed the administrative process, with the influences from many areas, and divided the administrative responsibilities into three main areas. He said, "The task of taking the administrative process apart would seem to require three separate approaches or independent analyses as follows:

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[20]For more information, see: Jesse B. Sears, "Analysis of School Administrative Controls," Educational Administration and Supervision 20 (September, 1934): 401-430. See also: Jesse B. Sears, "The Nature of the Administrative Process in Education--A Partial Analysis of Factors Involved," Educational Administration and Supervision 31 (January, 1945): 1-21.

[21]Sears, "Analysis of School Administrative Controls," p. 412.

[22]Sears, "Nature of the Administrative Process in Education," pp. 1-21.

[23]Ibid., p. 4.

I. In terms of the work to be done, the job:

1. Formulation and establishment of educational objectives
2. Preparation of the school program
3. Grouping of the children
4. Staffing of the schools and the programs
5. Provision of shelter and equipment
6. Giving instruction and care to the children
7. Financing and keeping records
8. Public relations

II. In terms of the process or the types of activities required:

1. Planning
2. Organizing
3. Directing
4. Coordinating
5. Controlling

III. In terms of the forms of authority to be applied:

1. Authority of law
2. Authority of administration
3. Knowledge obtained by the study of the task[24]

Of particular significance is Sears' Section II and Section III. In Section II he is utilizing the principles of Henri Fayola that were used in business administration. Sears stated in a footnote concerning Section II,

> Practically this same analysis of types of activities was suggested for the field of business administration by Henri Fayola, Industrial and General Administration. (English translation by

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[24]Sears, "Nature of the Administrative Process in Education," p. 7.

J. A. Canbrough, published by International Management Institute, Geneva, 1930.) Its suitability for use as one of three approaches in school administration seems obvious, though point 5 following is a slight variation from Fayola's plan.[25]

Section III refers to different natures of authority. Jesse Sears said that authority deals with the nature of power. Sears was saying that there are different natures of administrative authority and that authority is used as a source of power for administration to effect action. He said, "Here but three headings are presented, two of which refer to the authority of government--government by law and government by discretionary power under law--and the third refers to the authority of knowledge--facts, reasoning, and judgements."[26]

Jesse Sears thought that the five types of activities and the three types of authority were, ". . .the ingredients of the total administrative process and the act of combining and recombining and applying them to work in hand, as characterized by Group I, is the art and science of administration."[27]

Jesse Sears also talked about the process of decision making. He believed that decisions should be made by looking at the facts and using the best reasoning possible. He was aware however, that sometimes administrative decisions are not based on reason. He cautioned against this.

> Inertia, indifference, laziness, selfishness, or ignorance might cause one to ignore the real needs and to rely on legal and administrative authority alone to justify one's acts. Such dereliction can only lead to low morale, incoordination, and poor service.[28]

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[25]Sears, "Nature of the Administrative Process in Education," p. 7.

[26]Ibid., p. 9.

[27]Ibid.

[28]Ibid.

Because of this danger, Sears believed the personality of administrators should be taken into consideration before they were placed in a particular job. He said, "Personalities vary widely as aid or hindrance in administration, and if all administrators would learn and apply the above analysis of the administrative process it still would be true that we should have a wide range in quality of administration, due merely to difference in personality, or to the human equation."[29] He believed the personality of people and human nature with its good points and bad points should be considered in all areas of administration. It should be considered in the hiring practices for administrators and the decisions that administrators make when established in positions in an organization. The consideration of human factors in administration was an important development in administrative theory.

Democracy and Educational Administration

School administration was primarily concerned, from the beginning of the twentieth century, with adopting the administrative methods and practices of business, politics, and the military for use in education. Educational administrators placed so much importance on these methods and practices that some very important concepts were disregarded. The growth and development of democracy in education was one very important conception that suffered because of the emphasis placed on authority, efficiency, and traditional means of organizational structure.

Theodore L. Reller, Visiting Professor of Education, University of California, commented on the problem of trying to combine democracy and the traditional idea of efficiency.

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[29]Sears, "Nature of the Administrative Process in Education," p. 19.

Education during the first three decades of the twentieth century was marked by an emphasis on efficiency. Unfortunately the concept of efficiency held by many schoolmen was almost as narrow as that found in some industrial enterprises. These educators appeared to lose sight of the fundamental purposes of education and regarded efficiency in a few particulars as the purpose. 'Efficiency', without too much thought of the broad meaning of efficiency or of its inevitable meaning in a democracy, came to be the end instead of a means.

Courses in school administration emphasized the development of an efficient system in what was perhaps too direct a manner and gave too little attention to the establishment of conditions that would stimulate the development of superior teachers and to the purposes of administration.

During this period the survey movement made great progress--partly because it was a way of determining the 'efficiency' of the various educational systems.

Another phase of this drive toward efficiency was the measurement movement. Testing and measuring were more favored concepts than evaluation, which includes them.

Supervision spurted in this period and there were attempts to measure its results in dollars. It, too, emphasized a narrow, rigid concept of efficiency and gave much too little attention to how and why individuals behave as they do and how genuine changes in behavior can be effected. Everywhere the thought uppermost in mind seemed to be 'efficiency'.

The mistake made was that efficiency in a narrow sense came to be the end instead of being a means toward the larger end of democracy.

To approach the problem from another view, let us raise the question as to whether a society which is democratic can be an effective one. If a democratic society is the one in which the people have the largest opportunity and thereby grow, surely they in a broad sense become the most efficient people. Yet despite the simplicity of this thinking the idea persists that the totalitarian system is efficient. School administrators who talk democracy have been known to administer school systems in a totalitarian manner. If the view that totalitarianism is efficient is defensible, it is possible only if a very short view is taken. If the development of the dignity and worth of human beings is accepted as a significant purpose of life, then the totalitarian state is one of the most inefficient conceivable.

Surely a system which does not stimulate growth of all individuals concerned cannot be considered efficient in a democracy.

> As more democracy is achieved--as the reconciliation of democracy and efficiency is achieved--the highest type leader is demanded and is developed.[30]

There was much debate about democracy and school administration. There had been for about thirty years. However, it was easy to see that most of the practice in administration was based on traditional lines of authority. Archibald Anderson, Assistant Professor of Education, University of Illinois, said,

> Anyone who attempts to survey the current literature on democracy in school administration is apt to end up with a feeling of frustration in which elements of both encouragement and discouragement are mixed. He is also likely to conclude that the task of getting the schools to operate democratically in administrative matters is one of the great unsolved problems of American education.[31]

Leaders in educational administration who believed that the democratic ideal was workable in school administration were frustrated by the lack of real attempts to put it into practice. Sometimes school administrators attempted to use the democratic ideal as a cover for autocratic practices. Other times they attempted to mix the procedures and operations of both. This led to confusion and lack of meaningful direction. Referring to this situation, Archibald Anderson said,

> The plain fact is that much of the current discussion of democratic administration is confused and inconsistant. It represents an attempt to combine democratic administrative practices with authoritarian features of our traditional line-and-staff organization, and to reconcile democratic principles with the shibboleths which customarily have been employed to justify authoritarian administrative procedures. The attempt to formulate a

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[30]Theodore L. Reller, "The Reconciliation of Democracy and Efficiency in Educational Administration," Educational Administration and Supervision 35 (March, 1949): 168-174.

[31]Archibald W. Anderson, "Violations of the Democratic Ideal in Current Conception of Administrative Procedure," Educational Administration and Supervision 47 (March, 1947): 26.

> theory based upon an imcompatible mixture of democratic and authoritarian principles can lead only to confusion in thought. And the attempts to pass this mixture off as a democratic theory of school administration comes under the head of fraud, whether it be the result of deliberate intent or the result of honest confusion of thought.[32]

To utilize democracy in an organization there are certain skills that must be available. These skills of democratic action can only come through use. And they can not be used in an organization that is dominated by arbitrary authority.[33] The school can only be an effective teacher of democracy to the extent that opportunity is available for all members of the school community to contribute to the best of their abilities, being limited only by legal obligations, and immaturity of students.[34]

Otis C. Amis, Professor of Education, Western Michigan College of Education, said that

> The essence of democracy is absolute freedom of thought and expression coupled with cooperative action. The opportunity for each individual to make the greatest contribution which he is capable of making to the total thinking of the group is essentially the difference in the advantage of democratic organization over totalitarian organization.[35]

Otis Amis thought it was fallacious to assume that we could move from dictated thought and action to freedom of thought and action at will. If democracy was to grow and develop it must be free to do so by constant usage. He said that, "Democracy is a way of life in the truest sense.

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[32]Sears, "Nature of the Administrative Process in Education," pp. 26-27.

[33]William G. Carr, "Efficiency Thru Democratic Administration," NEA Journal, 31 (March, 1942): 83-84.

[34]Ibid.

[35]Otis C. Amis, "What is Democratic Educational Administration," School and Society 55 (April 4, 1942): 388.

We learn to live democratically by living democratically, or we never have democracy."[36]

The concepts of democracy encountered difficulty with several of the older established views of administration and with some of the newer ideas in school administration. One of these was the idea of the principal being the "educational leader" in the school. In a democratically operated organization anyone could become the leader. Leadership would depend on the situation. All the people in an organization would be available to help solve any problem present in a situation. Jesse H. Newlon makes this position very clear. "But democracy is unique in that it encourages and aids everyone to develop his capacities for leadership and does not restrict leadership to a class or party."[37]

The current concept of leadership in the schools was that the principal was the educational leader. With his traditional position in the line-and-staff relationship he was the one who should provide leadership to the teachers in his school. Archibald W. Anderson did not agree with this view of the principal. He said,

> The second way of protecting the authoritarian power of the principal is to label him 'the educational leader of the school.' By this device, leadership is in effect attached to a particular position, the principalship. This is a procedure which is the very antithesis of democracy.[38]

Anderson thought that there could be a principal, but that he should be designated by the teaching group and that his authority should be

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[36]Amis, "What is Democratic Educational Administration?" p.389.

[37]Jesse H. Newlon, "National Seminar on Practicing Democracy in our Schools," NEA Proceedings 79 (1941): 107.

[38]Anderson, "Violations of the Democratic Ideal in Current Conception of Administrative Procedure," p. 31.

derived from the group of teachers and not from the traditional sources of the superintendent or the school board.[39]

He believed leadership was necessary in an organization, even an organization functioning under democratic ideals. But the leadership was not a property of a particular position in the line-and-staff organizational chart. It was the property of any particular individual who in any particular situation could help the group solve their problems. Leadership can only be determined after the event, and not before it happens.[40]

Some administrators believed that the trend was away from traditional administrative organization and practice to a more democratic way of operation.

> The role of the administrator has shifted toward that of a democratic leader. In this leadership role, executive authority is not positional but functional authorization which comes with the job. Superintendents think of the whole staff as a team, a functioning unit working on a common problem. Together these parterns show a swing away from the traditional, rigid patterns of line and staff toward a more democratic conception of the way schools should operate.[41]

Harl R. Douglas, Professor, University of Colorado, gave a short but rather complete background to the traditional idea of authority and the present more democratic view of authority and leadership.

> Along with the development of corporate organization of business, with its executives of various levels and with lines of authority proceeding from the top executive and his board of directors, there developed an analogous theory and practice of the organization and responsibilities of the staff of schools.

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[39] Anderson, "Violations of the Democratic Ideal in Current Conception of Administrative Procedure," p. 31.

[40] Ibid., p. 32.

[41] A. H. Skogsberg, "The Trend in Administration is Toward Democratic Leadership," Nation's Schools 43 (March, 1949): 37-38.

Cubberley, Strayer, Engelhardt, and other prominent leaders in the teaching of school administration gave sanction, pattern, and impetus to the idea and practices of centralized final authority. Charts featuring lines of delegated authority were utilized in spreading the older concept. In practice many administrators carried the idea to what also seems today to be ridiculous extremes. In many city school systems, weekly instructions relating to content to be covered and methods to be used were issued from the offices of the 'higher-ups.'

In recent years the old idea of centralized and final authority has steadily given way to a theory and a practice more soundly based upon the nature of human beings and the psychology of human motivation. It is perhaps not without cause-and-effect relationship that this trend has been a concomitant of (a) the better education and greater experience of teachers and (b) the discovery and application of and more effective use of more democratic and more human relationships and practices in industry.

It is also very interesting to note that in industry, research investigations, such as the Hawthorne studies of the Western Electric Company, show that increased production, less absenteeism, and less turnover result from the greater recognition of the individual worker. When caused to feel that he counts--that he is an important part of an important organization--he works with keener satisfaction, better morale, and increased production. It is also notable that better results seem to be associated with a concern on the part of the firm of which he is a part for his individual welfare and happiness--his health, his security, his family, and his recreation.

This new concept of human relationships and allocation of responsibilities and opportunities is not to be confused with any of the fuzzy concepts of 'democracy' in school administration which have been fairly common in recent years. It is not in any way the same kind of thinking which supports a sham democracy--merely the titles and pretense--with final authority in educational matters exercised freely by a centralized administrative agency. Nor is democracy a 'right' of the teacher, except that it is the right of the teacher to render the best service to his pupils and to society through an effective educational program and activities.

Sound democratic practice is based upon proven principles of human leadership and management now recognized as sound in human relations in the home, in industry, in schools, and everywhere. The long-term effectiveness of individual workers is the criterion.[42]

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[42]Harl R. Douglass, "Leadership or Authority in School Administration," Educational Administration and Supervision 34 (January, 1948): 25-28.

John T. Wahlquist, Professor, University of Utah, commented on the development of the traditional organizational arrangement in education.

> As the critic likes to emphasize, the development of the American school system paralleled the development of Big Business. There can be no question that the schools were influenced by the methods employed so effectively in the factory.
>
> The critic was quite right when he said that a glance at an organization diagram for a large city (school) system reminds him of a corresponding diagram of a railway system.[43]

John Wahlquist also believed that the traditional concepts of administration and organization were influenced by the military. He stated that,

> The army is the acme in organization. Through thousands of years, it has evolved certain stereotypes and an attendant terminology. Certainly, these are in evidence in the nearest school system. There can be no question; the school system did adopt the military terminology, either directly or via business.[44]

The traditional principles of administration and the rigidity of organization structure brought criticism from leaders in education. Some believed that the traditional pattern could only develop educational administrators who were rigid, autocratic, and shallow in their thinking. S. A. Courtis, and others, stated in the National Education Association's Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction Yearbook that,

> . . .administrative positions appeal to those who by nature like action rather than reflection, who are practical rather than theoretical, who are hardboiled rather than sentimental. It is almost inevitable, therefore, that administrators should be dominating and autocratic in behavior.[45]

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[43] Wahlquist, "Conflicting Views," pp. 84-85.

[44] Ibid., pp. 85-86.

[45] S. A. Courtis, and others, "Teachers and Cooperation," National Educational Association's Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction Yearbook (Washington, D.C.: Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction), cited by Educational Administration 27 (February, 1941): 81-98.

The traditional organizational structure with its line-and-staff relationships placed varying amounts of authority up and down the structure. This authority was accompanied with the responsibility to see that job assignments handed down to a position would be successfully completed. This concept was used in educational administration at the various positions in the organizational structure. Some school administrators believed that this arrangement was an obstacle to progress and democracy.

> Many of the 'best minds' have asserted in their teaching and writing that final responsibility rests with the principal, the superintendent, and the board. Such statements have often been made in a way to give them the sanctity of gospel. And in the main they have gone unchallenged in the operation of schools.
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> The vicious nature of these concepts is illustrated by the remark of a principal. 'When any teacher in my school knows more than I do I will resign.' He had been taught in college classes and in meetings of administrators that the principal is finally responsible and therefore must have final authority. To be a good principal it was essential that he 'know more', or at least make himself believe that to be the case, than any of the teachers.
>
> The acceptance of the belief that the principal is finally responsible, and that his final responsibility is to come from outside the school service, stands as a great barrier to progressive action in many schools. To permit new developments, to introduce something novel, to do what is important in the situation at hand, always includes an element of danger. And danger is to be avoided.[46]

It was thought that democratic practice in American education was retarded by educational administrators who were looking back and not looking to the needs of the school today.[47] Practices adopted from business and industry were criticized for becoming ends and not

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[46] C. L. Cushman, "Final Responsibility in Educational Programs," Educational Administration and Supervision 32 (1946): 537.

[47] Orin B. Graff, "On Final Authority," Educational Administration and Supervision 34 (January, 1948): 28-31.

means to help education. It was recognized that new means and more thoughtful application of them was necessary if progress was to be made.

> There is great need for the identification and development of administrative principles. Our 'know-how' on the level of school business and engineering practices has outstripped our thinking on the level of educational purposes, learning and social development.[48]

The idea of final authority needed to be one of the concepts revised in administration. In democratic administration, this concept as traditionally formulated would have to be viewed differently.

> There is no person in 'final authority.' The administrator is a type of leader who has the responsibility for seeing that major decisions involving purposes, policies, and programs are made through a process of intelligent interaction involving all persons concerned. These decisions, not the administrator's wishes or opinions, are the only guages used by the group in operating the educational program. Yet the decisions are not final; rather they are subject to change and re-interpretation through the same process of intelligent cooperation through which they were made.[49]

One of the main principles in a democratic organization is that all members in the organization may participate in the formulation and implementation of any policy that would effect them. This would include pupils as well as teachers.

> Pupils must also participate in the educational planning and democratic living in the school if they are to understand democracy as adults. The integrity of the personality of each individual teacher and pupil must be respect in the school that is democratic.[50]

Clarence A. Newell, Educational Supervisor, State Department of Education, Connecticut, noted that in a traditional school organizational

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[48] V. E. Herrick, "Leadership, the Administrator's Job," Elementary School Journal 47 (November, 1946): 125.

[49] Graff, "On Final Authority," p. 30.

[50] Amis, "What is Democratic Educational Administration," p. 389.

chart the students are at the bottom. He believed the traditional chart also reflected authoritarian concepts, again with the children on the bottom. He believed the situation should be changed to a more democratic organizational structure. He proposed a different type of organizational chart with the children at the top and with an emphasis on service. He said of his chart, "It shows the school organization at work, not in a vacuum but amoung the members of the community. The purpose of the whole school organization is to meet the needs of individuals."[51] Newell's chart (Figure 2) is presented as compared with the traditional school organizational chart (Figure 1).

The concept of democratic administration had been talked about for many years. It was still an issue of concern in this era of school administration.[52] This statement was made that placed a deep obligation on school administrators.

> Administration can avoid concern for developing intelligent, democratic leadership only at the risk of being declared the greatest single bloc to the advance of education for democracy. Due to the work of Dewey, Bode, Kilpatrick and others there is a sound philosophical basis for democracy.[53]

Educational Leadership

The concept of educational leadership continued to grow in this era. It took on new meaning as examination of the traditional

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[51]Clarence A. Newell, "Organizational Chart based on Modern Educational Design," Nation's Schools 31 (June, 1943): 24.

[52]For a series of good articles on issues in democratic administration see: "Democracy in Administration," The School Executive 65 (December, 1945): 63-74. See also: John A. Ramseyer, "Democracy in School Administration," Educational Administration and Supervision 34 (January 1948): 31-34.

[53]Graff, "On Final Authority," p. 31.

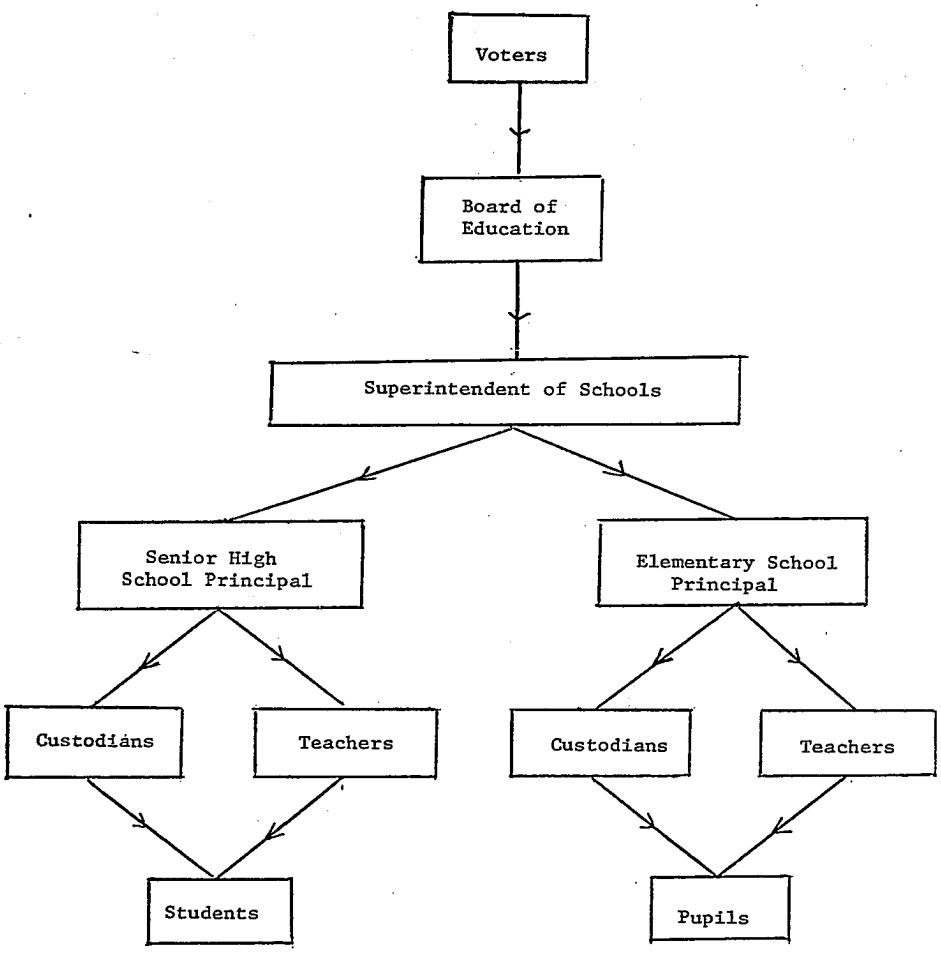


Fig. 1. Traditional Chart of School Organization

*Arrows indicate lines of policy formulation and authority.

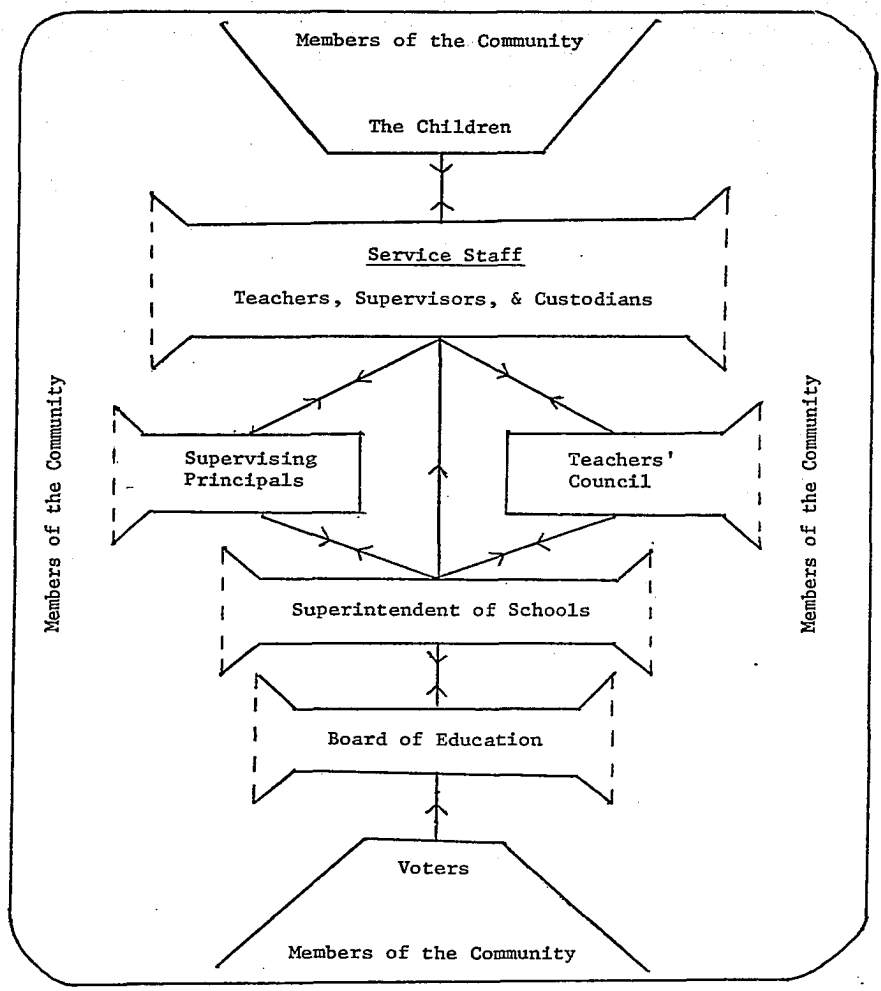


Fig. 2. Proposed Chart of the Organization of a School System.

*Arrows indicate lines of policy formulation and authority. Flares and broken lines indicate interplay between the school organization and the community.

administrative structure was continuing and as more information was coming to education from the social sciences. As educational leadership grew as a concept, it became clear to some that it was very important for the future development of education. "It is equally clear that education can not become the dynamic enterprise it needs to be without a more effective educational leadership than our profession has enjoyed to date."[54] This position was based on several influences. One of these was the world war involving the struggle between "free nations" and totalitarianism. Autocratic nations had shown to many leaders the serious need to change some of the practices in education, in particular, leadership in education. It was also becoming apparent to several individuals that the techniques taken from private business to be used in education were not as suitable as once believed.

> Such administrative techniques as we now employ have largely been borrowed from industry and military affairs without much recognition of the peculiar problems we face in education. Freedom for creative living is thus a dominant characteristic of a democratic society, and the one thing which distinguishes such a society from a totalitarian regime. If these things are true, administration is not primarily a problem of management. It is not a process of 'turning a crank.' It is not the mere process of assigning responsibilities and checking on the degree to which they have been performed. It is not a routine job of control. On the contrary, educational administration and leadership must themselves be creative undertakings.[55]

Grayson N. Kefauver, Professor, Standford University, wrote Chapter I in the Forty-Fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. This Yearbook was titled, "Changing Conceptions in Educational Administration." The topic Grayson Kefauver

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[54]Ernest O. Melby, "Educational Leadership--The Postwar Imperative," Education 67 (December, 1945): 205.

[55]Ibid., pp. 206-207.

offered as his contribution was "Reorientation of Educational Administration." In his section he covered four main areas, Educational Administration as a Social Statesmanship, Leadership in Educational Administration, Educational Planning, and Democracy in Educational Administration.[56] Regarding the topic of educational leadership, he said,

> Actual leadership, as judged by the contribution made to the solution arrived at, may come from a classroom teacher, a parent, or the administrator. The role of the administrator may or may not involve the introduction of the idea finally accepted. In many situations, the administration's leadership role will be that of encouraging and assisting others to participate effectively.[57]

This was a departure from the traditional idea of organizational leadership. The traditional idea of leadership taken from business and the military was that of telling others what they should do and seeing to it that it was done. The leader had been the manager--the person in a position of authority who managed certain affairs and made decisions for those working under him in the organizational structure to follow. The newer concept of leadership was very different. "The responsibility of educational leadership in these times is that of developing a new concept of education, of upholding educational progress on every front, of inspiring teachers, pupils, and parents to renewed effort, and of helping all associated with the educational enterprise to a firmer faith in humanity and in democracy."[58]

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[56]Grayson N. Kefauver, "Changing Conceptions in Educational Administration," The Forty-Fifty Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1946), pp. 105.

[57]Ibid., p. 3.

[58]Ernest O. Melby, "The Responsibility of Educational Leadership in These Times," Education 63 (February, 1943): 332.

It became clear that leadership involved interaction with human beings. If leadership was to be democratic and effective then sound psychological principles must be taken into consideration. "Democratic educational leadership employs those psychological principles of human interaction which promote positive social attitudes."[59] Leadership was described as involving a relationship between persons. It refers to an exchange and interplay among persons. This interplay changes so that one person becomes a leader for a time, and then another person becomes a leader for a time.[60] This situation is fluid and flexible not rigid and structured. New terms were described for use in the area of leadership. Some of these terms were prestige, motivation, group planning, group morale, and personality traits.

The idea of personality traits was very important in the new concept of educational leadership. Studies were made to try and discover what important qualities or traits were possessed by successful educational leaders. These qualities once discovered were to be used to help select and train the best educational leaders. "The importance of the principalship requires careful selection of personnel. Certainly, qualities such as these are needed: good health, poise, good appearance, sense of humor, and ability to get along with one's fellows."[61]

J. R. Shannon, Professor of Education, Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana, did a study of the personality traits of

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[59] "Educational Leaders--Their Function and Preparation," School Executive 68 (March, 1949): 63.

[60] Ibid., p. 61

[61] Stanley W. McKee, "A Questionnaire Study of the Elementary-School Principalship," The Elementary School Journal 49)December, 1948): 213-218.

419 widely known and presumably successful American school administrators. He took information from biographies, periodicals, and encyclopedias. The results of his study showed many common personality traits. He listed them in order from the most to the least common. The top sixteen traits were leadership, intelligence, progressiveness, reverence (religiousness), planning, activeness, expressiveness in writing, vision, industriousness, courage, oral expressiveness, alertness, creativeness, forcefulness, altruism, and enthusiasm.[62]

Personality traits became an interesting field of study in the attempts to understand and explain educational leadership.[63]

Human Relations

The traditional organization structure and arrangement did not concentrate a lot of time on the consideration of the human element involved in the organization. This was true in private business, the military, industry, and in education. In regard to this situation Ernest O. Melby, President, Montana State University, said,

> Unfortunately, the teaching of school administration in the past has stressed the technical and mechanical aspects of the task. We have been concerned with the duties of administrators and boards of education, with techniques of supervision and measurement. All these have their places, but they are means and not ends. The human relationship aspect has been little considered. Generally speaking, we have been afraid to invade this area because many of its considerations are subjective.[64]

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[62] J. R. Shannon, "Traits of School Administration," The School Executive 67 (March, 1948): 31-33.

[63] Note: John K. Hemphill's, "Situational Factors in Leaderhsip," Bureau of Educational Research Monographs, No. 32, (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1949) was reviewed in The Elementary School Journal 51 (December 1950): 173.

[64] Melby, "Educational Leadership," p. 207.

Even though human relations had been neglected in the past and even though they were in part subjective, Ernest Melby believed they should be considered. He said we know certain things that all people prize and need if their creative talents are going to be released. "A first requisite for the release of the creative talent of individual human beings is a large measure of professional and personal security. . . ."[65] He said the second requisite for the release of human talent was freedom. "One can not live creatively in a regimented school system. Freedom for the exercise of creative talent is an essential condition for creative teaching."[66] He went on to list other requisites including human sympathy, understanding, communication, humility, and unselfishness.[67]

Harry E. Benz, Professor, Ohio University, said concerning the educational administrator, "More than anything else, he needs to be a specialist in human relations,"[68] He believed that one of the biggest problems in human relations was communications. He listed five rules that had been developed to help people communicate better. These five rules were: listen patiently without interrupting, avoid expressing disapproval, avoid arguments, discover the sentiments behind what is being said, and note what a person does not say either because he does not wish to or because he cannot.[69]

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[65]Melby, "Educational Leadership," p. 207

[66]Ibid., p. 208.

[67]Ibid., pp. 209-210.

[68]Harry E. Benz, "Human Relations in School Administration," The Elementary School Journal 50 (November, 1949): 135.

[69]Ibid., pp. 138-139. Note: It is interesting to point out that Benz quoted his five points from F. J. Roethlisberger's Management and Morale (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1941), pp. 41-43.

Benz believed cooperation was also important in the administration of an organization. He discussed how to gain the needed cooperation. He said that,

> Anyone who is in the position of needing the cooperation of others in getting work done needs to give attention to ways of securing that cooperation. It is important to know what values people have--what makes a difference to them.[70]

He makes the suggestion that if you want the cooperation of others you must take into consideration their values and their needs.

A very important observation noticed in organizations was that people were often found in groups. It was realized that administrators needed to be able to work with these groups. This understanding influenced the development of human relations. "Improved human relations in any organization means improved inter- and intra-group relations and increased group efficiency."[71]

Roald F. Campbell, Professor, Chicago University, believed that groups should be used to plan in education. He said,

> In our nation, now just through waging its most costly war in national resources and in human lives so that the democratic idea might live, we see the first need for group planning. In a democracy the people concerned ought to have a voice in determining the policies of an institution. In the school, teachers, parents, and pupils ought to participate in this group planning.[72]

Roald Campbell, in his doctoral dissertation, did a study of the decisions made by twelve western city school boards over a ten-year period. The purpose of his study was to see if the teachers had any

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[70]Benz, "Human Relations in School Administration," p. 139.

[71]D. Nylen and L. P. Bradford, "We Can Work Together--A Group Approach to the Human-Relations Problems of Administration," NEA Journal 37 (October, 1948): 436.

[72]Roald F. Campbell, "Educational Leadership and Group Planning," Educational Administration and Supervision 32 (April, 1946): 194.

participation in the decisions made by the different school boards. He found that,

> School boards made only one hundred and twenty-one decisions involving the issues of teacher participation and the recognition of teacher's associations. In other words, the board of education in each of these cities averaged but one decision a year which could be construed as having any relationship to group planning on the part of teachers.[73]

Roald Campbell thought that if teachers were affected they should have the opportunity to have a voice in the solution of problems. He said, "Thus, in the realm of management whether it be in school, business, or government the need for planning on the part of the people concerned becomes clearly evident."[74]

The effects of people in groups were being recognized in administration. Business was first to recognize their influence. School administrators soon became aware of their influence. Nolan Kearney noticed some of the more interesting aspects of human groups.

> By the same token, there seems to be a social dynamic at work in all groups of people that is a function of their whole composition with all the attendant over-lapping between other groupings in the society and with all the overtones that come from such things as emotional loyalties and economic interest and patterns. This process has remained intangible in many of its aspects, but its potency is easily felt by those who think to look for it.[75]

The study of human relations involving groups and group participation was an area that had great impact on educational administration.

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[73]Roald F. Campbell, "Social Implications of School Board Legislation" (Ph.D. dissertation, Stanford University, 1942), cited by Educational Administration and Supervision 32 (April, 1946): 195.

[74]Ibid., p. 197.

[75]Kearney, "Seven Standards for Administrative Effectiveness," p. 187. See Also, Daniel R. Davies, "Needed Emphasis in Administration," Phi Delta Kappan 28 (April, 1947): 355-357. Davies talks of the importance of the works of Chester I. Barnard, Elton Mayo, and others for educational administration.

Educational Administration Textbooks

Three educational administration textbooks have been selected to show the subjects discussed and the emphasis of these subjects in the text. The following table will show the different general subject areas convered in the three books. The table also shows the percentage of space designated to each area. The topics covered in Paul Mort's book would not fit into the general outline. His book is covered in a general statement converning the work.

TABLE 6

TEXTBOOK ANALYSIS

Topic Area	Title of the Book	
	School Administration Arthur B. Moehlman (1940) Total Pages 887	Public School Administration Jesse B. Sears (1947) Total Pages 415
Historical Development (including Educational Organization)	54%*	33%*
Instruction	5%	2.5%
Teaching Staff	3%	9%
School Boards	3%	1%
Superintendent	13%	12%
Finance	3%	12%
Law	0%	0%
School Building and Equipment	5%	9%
Supervision	0%	6%
School and Community Relations	7%	2.5%
School Organization	0%	2.5%

TABLE 6--Continued

Topic Area	Title of the Book	
	School Administration Arthur B. Moehlman (1940) Total Pages 887	Public School Administration Jesse B. Sears (1947) Total Pages 415
Reports, Records, Statistics	5%	2.5%
Miscellaneous, Summaries, Conclusions, etc.	2%	8%

NOTE: Many of the subjects covered in Paul R. Mort's Principles of School Administration will not fit into the subject patterns that I selected from earlier writings in educational administration. This point makes it an important departure from the books discussed thus far. Paul Mort presents several subject areas in this book that show the impact of psychology, sociology, economics, politics, and democracy on educational administration. Some of his chapters deal with the topics of psychological interpretation of purpose, socioeconomic interpretation of purpose, democracy and administration discretion, justice and equality of opportunity. The book shows an influence of the social sciences on school administration.

NOTE: Percentages of the book devoted to each general topic area are presented. This is found by comparing the number of pages in each topic area to the total number of pages in the book.

*Includes state and federal government relations to education.

CHAPTER VI

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Findings

The findings from Chapters II through V are listed below. It can be seen that some areas have evolved from one decade to another. Only the major findings have been listed.

1910-1920

1. Tradition, experience, opinion, and philosophical positions gave way to science and verification.
2. The public schools looked to business for help in verification.
3. The schools applied scientific management's concepts to educational areas.
4. The saving of money in the operation of schools was an important issue in the application of scientific management concepts to public education.
5. The desire for efficiency and for saving money influenced the curriculum in the schools.
6. Business influenced school administration particularly through businessmen serving on school boards.
7. The scientific movement prompted a need for better training among educational administrators.
8. Educational administration continued to grow into a profession.
9. During World War I there was a movement for more democracy in the operation of the schools.
10. Teachers wanted to participate in the administration of the schools.

1920-1930

1. Universities and colleges were offering significant training for the profession of educational administration.
2. Increasing numbers of school administrators were going to colleges and universities for training in their positions.
3. Professional training for school administrators became necessary.
4. There was an increase in salaries paid to school administrators.
5. The schools became big businesses.
6. School administrators learned much about how to operate the schools as a business from the business world.
7. Because of the business influence school administrators were taught to "sell" their schools to the public.
8. Organizational design was taken from private business for use in school systems.
9. Changes continued to be made in the legal status of school administrators and in school law.
10. The growth of professional administrative organizations continued.
11. The importance of equal educational opportunity was promoted.
12. School administrators needed to understand new areas like facility planning; a few began to realize the importance of the social sciences in administration.

1930-1940

1. There was an increase in professional training for school administrators.
2. Training of educational administrators was recognized to be in need of change. It was believed to be too narrow.
3. Educational administrative theory and practice was influenced by social events.
4. Business practices in the area of finance were utilized by the schools.
5. Education was thought of as a partner of business.
6. There was a movement to establish equal educational opportunity.

7. It was recognized that school boards did not represent the majority of the people.

8. It was recognized there was a need for the reorganization of school districts into larger units.

9. The conflict over authoritarian versus democratic methods in administration was a serious issue.

1940-1950

1. Training programs for school administration continued to change. Both pre-service and in-service programs were stressed.

2. Weaknesses in the training for school administrators became clearer. Some of the weaknesses stated were:

   a. Lack of social understanding
   b. Shortage of high-grade candidates for training
   c. Lack of a consistent philosophy or goals of education
   d. Lack of an understanding of human relations and human development
   e. Lack of an intern experience.

3. Training for educational administrators was thought to be too narrow. Most training programs were about the same at all universities and colleges.

4. The roles of the school administrator (executive function) and the school boards (legislative function) were clarified.

5. The nature of authority and power were recognized as important in school administration.

6. The personality of the administrator was recognized as important in administration.

7. Democratic administration continued to be an important issue.

8. Democracy was promoted among teachers and pupils.

9. There was an increase in the importance of human relations in administration.

Conclusions

There can be little doubt that the professional status of educational administration experienced tremendous change and growth during the first

half of this century. The increases in the number of university courses offered, the number of textbooks written, and the establishment of professional standards for state certification are all achievements that illustrate the growth educational administration has experienced. The number of members in the profession had grown from only a handful of early leaders in the last part of the nineteenth century to thousands of school administrators having membership in numerous professional organizations by the mid-twentieth century.

The growth of school administration was influenced from many directions and areas. One of the more powerful influences came from the area of private business. School administration received much from business. It received its organizational arrangement, its ideas on authority, its procedures for business education, and its rationale for various other practices and beliefs. Business influence gave school administration its organization and a basis for growth--but this arrangement turned out to be a paradox. The close relationship between educational administration and private business hindered growth along very important lines. Two of these were the growth of democracy in the schools, and the development of a theory of administration based upon educational philosophy.

The social sciences was another neglected area that played only a small part in school administration until its worth was realized in the business world and brought from there to school administration. What was emphasized in school administration were areas like business administration (involving topics such as finance, budgets, facility planning, reports,

and records) and organizational structure. The organization structure with its line-and-staff relationships, flow of authority, and its autocratic nature was utilized almost totally and almost without criticism. These tools that are means to an end many times became ends. This had a stifling effect on the growth of democracy in the schools and in the development of a comprehensive philosophy of administration.

Since the emphasis was so great on the business aspects of school administration several of the skills needed to be a thoughtful, well-informed administrator were not presented to those training for these positions. They were not trained to be students of society. They were not trained to understand the historical, philosophical, and social currents that were driving the schools in society. This had serious effects on the students in the schools and on the society. School administrators fell easy victims to any political, educational, or social pressure that might develop. School systems, in too many cases, were led by leaders who knew only how to reach a goal, but did not have any thoughtful, worthwhile goals to achieve.

The Scientific Mangement movement, the two World Wars, and the Depression are all examples of powerful social forces that drove the schools into varying degress of chaos and disorder. School administrators with broader training and insight could have provided better direction for the schools and eased the impact of these forces. But school administration has been, to a large degree, passive and not active to the social forces acting upon it. Some administrative leaders have called for broader training and more independent thought in school administration. Until this is achieved, the limited training given to future school administrations will not prepare them for the important social roles they will occupy.

The profession of school administration has come a long way. It has made progress in many areas and has made mistakes in others. It is believed by some that it has allowed business to be too influential and allowed authoritarianism to be primary in its organizational structure. Dewey, Newlon, Bode, Counts, and many others pointed this out while it was taking place.

If educational administration is to mature and grow and become an instrument for promoting learning in the schools of our society, it must become more democratic in all its aspects. It must promote democracy as a way of life. It must become active and not passive and free itself from the world of business and grow for its own educational ends.

The training for school administrators should help this happen. It should make them students of society. The social sciences must be subjects for their training. The school administrator must be taught to develop a philosophy of administration based on educational philosophy, democracy, social science, and business administration. His training in the past has not included all of these things and therefore has been too narrow.

Recommendations

Further study is desirable in two areas not covered in this dissertation. The first is the historical period prior to the study and the historical period after 1950 up to the present time. The understanding of the evolution of educational administrative theory and practice would be only partially complete without this additional study.

The second area for further study would be an attempt to understand fully why democratic educational administration has not grown and flourished in our democratic social setting.

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