

AN EVALUATION OF THE PROGRAM OF THE NATIONAL COMMISSION
FOR THE DEFENSE OF DEMOCRACY THROUGH EDUCATION

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

THE APPROACH TO THE PROBLEM

"Mechanically, we are traveling in America at the speed of a jet plane; socially, we are still plodding along at the pace of an ox cart." This statement by Eric Johnston is not an alarming one, for people have been aware of the cultural lag which sociologists use to explain the failure of institutions to keep pace with scientific progress. Now that the Atomic Age is under way, people are becoming increasingly conscious of the possibility that scientific instruments of destruction will wreck modern civilization unless social scientists discover improved techniques for developing understandings among races, nations, groups, and individuals that are at odds with one another. Furthermore, it should be obvious that major differences among nations cannot be successfully eliminated if social scientists are unable to find more successful methods than those previously used to settle minor difficulties among groups and individuals within the nation.

To solve the many complex problems he faces today, the social scientist must employ research techniques which the physical scientist in his work regards as inaccurate measures yielding results of little or no value. The social scientist is confronted with many uncontrolled variables, his laboratory a dynamic human society. Twenty-five years ago he was not well versed in handling group problems and he had practically no understanding of semantics. Today in a short time he can secure public attitudes on any number of different subjects with a high degree of accuracy. Despite criticism of opinion research as a

jumbled up batch of individual opinions which yield nothing accurate, it is well to remember that the scientist who is working with human problems must study people as they are. To state categorically that factory workers, for example, imagine that they are unfairly treated is a failure to face them as they are--human beings whose views, rightly or wrongly, must be socially measured if the social scientist would understand the society of which they are a part. Not only must the scientist understand a person as an individual but also as a member of a group, for today he knows that group behavior is a strong regulator of individual behavior. Group behavior is not necessarily logical, for it is the result of many intangible factors. A community, for example, may reject the use of fluorine in its drinking water despite overwhelming evidence from chemists that fluorine helps prevent teeth decay. A combination of many factors undoubtedly played a part in developing this attitude toward drinking water.

This study, which evaluates the program of the National Commission for the Defense of Democracy through Education, is based partially on opinion research. It includes the results of a questionnaire sent to presidents of local teachers' associations that are affiliated with the National Education Association. The purpose of this questionnaire is to discover what reliable teacher leaders (local presidents) believe are obstacles to harmonious relationships among teachers, administrators, and boards of education. In the light of this information in comparison with obstacles revealed from cases in the past and present experiences in the Commission's history, the program will be weighed, conclusions and interpretations will be presented, and possible future developments of the Commission's work will be indicated.

SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The scope of An Evaluation of the Program of the National Commission for the Defense of Democracy through Education is defined by the actual program of the Defense Commission, only one of several organizations which protect teachers from unfair dismissal procedures and undemocratic practices. Closely allied with the work of the Commission is the program of the Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom and the Committee on Ethics of the National Education Association. Several state and local associations have teacher welfare, professional problems, or ethics committees which also operate in the area of teacher protection. In addition the American Federation of Teachers and the American Association of University Professors give protective services to their respective members. Although reference to these groups and their activities may be made, this study does not attempt to cover the many worthwhile programs they sponsor.

The scope of the program is more specifically defined by the purposes of the National Commission for the Defense of Democracy through Education, which are:

1. To investigate cases of unfair practices and advise teacher leaders in professional crises.
2. To defeat attempts of special interest groups to control schools.
3. To set forth principles of professional practice.
4. To cooperate with the Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom in investigating and issuing reports in related cases.
5. To collaborate with the N.E.A. Citizenship Committee and the United States Department of Justice in National Conferences on Citizenship.

6. To organize other conferences to win support for education.
7. To alert the profession through the Defense Bulletin and other publications.
8. To work for educational conditions essential for democracy.¹
9. To act as an investigative body for the Ethics Committee.

OTHER RESEARCH

An examination of educational literature yielded no listing of any book-length research which probes into the causes of conflicts among teachers, administrators, and school boards. Yauch's Improving Human Relations in School Administration discusses ways of achieving harmonious relationships among staff members of a school by the school principal, but it does not consider staff relationships with the superintendent and the board of education. There have been several articles describing research activities in this area. Leipold and Yarbrough made a study of what 1600 school people think about teacher morale.² Hoppock surveyed 100 teachers to find out what they thought of school administrators. He asked this general question of them: "If you could tell your boss how to be a better boss, what would you say to him?" Favorable and adverse comments were recorded.³ The recent

¹Taken from brochure National Commission for the Defense of Democracy through Education - What Is It?

²L. E. Leipold and Joseph W. Yarbrough, "What 1600 School People Think About Teacher Morale." American School Board Journal, 119:29-30, December 1949.

³Robert Hoppock, "What Teachers Think of School Administrators." The School Executive, 69:40-41, November 1949.

trend in research to study ways of democratizing school administration may produce further studies in the area of human relations among school personnel.

Despite the dearth of educational research in teacher-administrator human relationships, considerable progress has been made in the development of human understandings in labor-management relations. A classic in the area of human relations in industry is Management and the Worker, a report of experiments carried on at the Hawthorne Electric plant in Chicago.⁴ Since the publication of that book many experiments have been tried in industry to eliminate frictions between workers and management. A recent account of good management-labor relations is The Power of People,⁵ the story of "multiple management" at the McCormick Tea Company plant in Baltimore. This type of research, while not directly applicable to the professional problems of public education, does parallel them in some respects. Similar types of investigations and experiments in the field of education will undoubtedly be made.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

There is no need for a glossary of terms in this study other than to explain that the title of the Commission will, for the sake of brevity, be referred to as the Defense Commission. The National Education Association will also be called the N. E. A. According to

⁴W. J. Roethlisberger and W. J. Dickson, Management and the Worker, Harvard University Press, Cambridge: 1939.

⁵Charles P. McCormick, The Power of People, Harper and Brothers, New York: 1949.

the thinking of some advanced educators the term teacher should be used with reference to all professional school personnel, superintendent and classroom instructor alike. It will be necessary in this dissertation to distinguish between administrative and teaching personnel; therefore the term teacher will mean classroom teacher.

ORGANIZATION OF CHAPTERS

Chapter II, "History and Function of the Defense Commission," gives an overview of the work of the Commission during the years 1941 to 1949. Behind this program there have been certain understandings and beliefs, even though they have not necessarily been expressed in writing. Chapter III, therefore, presents the democratic philosophy underlying the functions of the Defense Commission and indicates the rights of teachers which emerge from democratic principles. Chapter IV is an analysis of some of the unpublished and the published investigations up to October 1949. Chapter V presents the results of the questionnaire study. In Chapter VI a summary and conclusions are presented. Chapter VII points the way toward some possible future developments of the Commission's work.

CHAPTER II

HISTORY AND FUNCTION OF THE DEFENSE COMMISSION

In the year 1940 Donald DuShane, leader in defending teachers and in promoting tenure legislation both in his home state of Indiana and nationally as a member of the N. E. A. Tenure Committee, became president of the National Education Association. In this capacity he became aware of the need for some kind of national commission for the defense of education. The problem was discussed with members of the Executive Committee of the N. E. A. and as a result Dr. DuShane and Dr. Givens, Executive Secretary of the N. E. A., were asked to draw up a plan for the consideration of the Executive Committee at the Atlantic City Convention. At that meeting a sub-committee was appointed to study the plan for the proposed commission still further and again to submit it to the Executive Committee.

After this had been done, various educational groups were asked to give their reactions. The Department of Classroom Teachers, for example, was requested to consider the proposed plan and send its written criticisms to the sub-committee by May 10, 1941.

The tentative plan, as outlined to the Classroom Teachers in its News Bulletin, stressed the need for a national commission to defend education, pointing out that with a heavy program of expenditures for national defense and increases in taxes, many taxpayers' associations and other groups were bringing strong pressures to reduce school costs. Propaganda organizations had become active in attempting to "create a distrust of the efficiency of the public schools and of the loyalty of

the teaching profession."¹

Under Purpose the following points were listed in the article:

1. To create a better public understanding and support of education through an expanded public relations program.
2. To prevent attacks through an aggressive policy of informing leaders of lay organizations concerning educational purposes and needs.
3. To prevent attacks on education through a careful analysis of all educational activities and procedures and through discarding any found to be unsound.
4. To investigate criticisms and attacks against education, school systems, teachers organizations, and members of the teaching profession and to publish results of such investigations as are found to be significant and constructive.
5. To investigate the sources of funds used by organizations and individuals making attacks on education and to publicize the findings.²

The personnel of the National Commission was to be composed of a steering committee of ten, seven of whom would be appointed for three-year terms by the Executive Committee of the N. E. A. The remaining three members would be the president of the N. E. A., the chairman of the Board of Trustees, and the executive secretary of the N. E. A. Each state and territorial teachers association was to have one representative. These individuals plus the ten members of the steering committee added up to a total of sixty. It was to be the duty of the steering committee to appoint a secretary, who would be employed by the N. E. A.

¹"Tentative Plan Presented for National Commission to Defend Education," News Bulletin for Classroom Teachers, Department of Classroom Teachers, N. E. A., Vol. XIV, No. 3, May 1941, p. 3.

²Loc. cit.

In the matter of finances it was decided that the expenses of the members of the steering committee, which would meet twice a year, would be paid by the N. E. A. In order to keep expenses down, the N. E. A. executive secretary would try to reassign personnel at headquarters so that the new Commission would have a staff.

In his opening speech, "A Challenge to the Teaching Profession," delivered at the seventy-ninth annual meeting of the National Education Association at Boston, June 29, 1941, President DuShane pointed out that a crisis was developing in the United States. The immediate problem was a fight for survival as a nation, and to that end the army, navy, and factory workers were meeting the challenge adequately. But long-time survival, he stated, depends upon "the quality and extent of the education of the great mass of our people."

After calling attention to the marked increase in destructive attacks on teachers, textbooks, courses of study, and school expenditures, Dr. DuShane went on to say:

Believing as we do that effective education of all our people is the only sure and ultimate protection of democracy, we must seek and win from the public a new and more understanding loyalty to education. We must protect our schools from misunderstanding and unjust attack. We must protect teachers from fear, intimidation, and unjust discharge. We must so protect our schools and teachers that the youth of today may be prepared to live effectively in a changed but democratic world of tomorrow.³

Dr. DuShane concluded his speech with the hope that the N. E. A. delegates would take such action as necessary to protect the interests of education.

³Addresses and Proceedings of the Seventy-ninth Annual Meeting. National Education Association, Washington, D. C., 1941, Vol. 79, p. 33.

Later on in the convention, after the outline of the proposed "National Commission for the Defense of Democracy through Education" had been read by Dr. Givens, Dr. DuShane stepped down from his chair as president in order to address the representative assembly. Again laying stress on the critical situation in public education, he said that the N. E. A. was the only educational organization reaching into all the states and therefore it must assume the responsibility for meeting the unjust attacks being made on education if schools were to continue to have necessary public support.

We must convince them (thinking citizens, organizations, authors, and speakers over the radio) that it is just as important to defend democracy through the schools as it is to defend democracy through the army or armament. That is our one big job, to win a new and understanding public support.⁴

Dr. DuShane explained that the proposed Commission must be set up on a national level in order to combat attacks originating in one state but directed against groups outside its boundaries. To do the job properly, the N. E. A. would need additional staff workers, for the present staff was already overloaded with responsibilities.

Regarding the membership of the Commission, he stressed qualities of courage, balance, common sense, and devotion to the cause of public education.

If we get that kind of a commission and the right kind of a staff back of it, and give it all the financial support we can, I believe the time is here when the N. E. A. can come into its own, can speak for the teaching profession of the country as it has never done before, and can occupy the field that needs to be occupied.

⁴Ibid., Vol. 79, p. 766.

⁵Ibid., Vol. 79, p. 769.

After the Commission had been voted in by the Representative Assembly, the amount to be set aside in the proposed budget for its activities was discussed at some length. Mr. Abraham Leftkowitz, of Brooklyn, New York, exercised leadership in getting the proposed amount of \$12,500 increased to \$20,000. This increase was all the more remarkable because the proposed budget is always determined from the budget of the previous year and conservatism is the key word in financial matters. At this convention the spirit of the delegates was enthusiastic, for they were certain that the extra money would easily be raised.

Note the emphasis on specifics in the list of purposes of the newly organized Commission as presented to the assembled delegates:

To create public understanding and support of education through informing leaders of lay organizations concerning educational purposes and needs; and to strengthen education through analyzing and evaluating educational activities and recommending the discontinuance of those found to be unsound.

To investigate criticisms and movements against education, school systems, teachers colleges, textbooks, teachers' organizations, and members of the teaching profession, and to publish the results of such investigations as are found to be significant and constructive.

To catalog the various groups opposing education, to investigate the sources of their funds and to make resumes of their activities available to local and state teachers organizations.

To cooperate with state teachers associations in analyzing sources of taxation and financial conditions and to help coordinate the work of local and state associations with lay organizations.

To investigate alleged subversive teaching and to expose any teacher whose attitude is found to be inimical to the best interests of our country.

To acquaint individual teachers with their responsibilities for participating in the public relations programs of the schools and to help them with their work in this field.⁶

What more natural step could be taken by the newly appointed steering committee of the Defense Commission than to select the very man who had seen the need for the defense of education and had done the spade work of setting up the organization? Donald DuShane became the secretary of the National Commission for the Defense of Democracy through Education and as such had it functioning in the autumn of 1941.

To present a complete account and analysis of the work of the Commission each year, giving due recognition to the individuals who showed leadership, would be a task going beyond the scope of one chapter. But because a major portion of the Commission's work concerns investigations of undemocratic practices in local school systems, a separate chapter (Chapter IV) will take up these cases in some detail. The remainder of this chapter will describe some of the significant activities carried on during the past decade by the Commission. Although some of these are continuing ones--attacks on education, for example--for convenience of discussion they have been divided into two main sections: The Defense Commission in Operation and The Program Continues To Grow.

⁶Ibid., Vol. 79, p. 779.

THE DEFENSE COMMISSION IN OPERATION

Since the first year in a newly formed organization is generally a crucial one, such questions as the following naturally arise: What did the group accomplish? Did it really come to grips with the problems which caused it to be set up in the beginning? A partial answer appears in the list of activities reported to the N. E. A. Convention in 1942:

1. A number of individuals and organizations whose activities were injurious to education were investigated.
2. The Commission has secured a better understanding and support of education from a number of important national lay organizations.
3. A study of teacher shortage and its consequences was made in November and widely circulated.
4. The Commission initiated a national movement for increased teacher salaries in cooperation with the National Education Association.
5. Every effort has been made during the year to secure the effective organization of state defense committees and to render assistance to them when organized.
6. The Commission assisted in planning important school campaigns in Omaha, Nebraska, and Kenosha, Wisconsin.
7. An active campaign was conducted against organizations seeking to reduce school and other non-war expenditures.
8. The Commission has carried on an active campaign for the passage by Congress of an amendment to the Hatch Act to remove certain political restrictions from teachers.
9. A confidential Defense Bulletin has been issued from time to time for the purpose of furthering the Commission program.
10. Regional conferences have been conducted jointly with the N. E. A. Committee on Tax Education and School Finance.
11. A series of regional meetings are being held jointly with the National Association of Manufacturers for the purpose of securing a better understanding and support of education.⁷

⁷Addresses and Proceedings of the Eightieth Annual Meeting.
National Education Association, Washington, D. C., 1942, Vol. 80,
p. 532.

The word defense implies attacks, and from the very beginning stages of planning for the new Commission a major activity was to be the investigation of individuals and organizations whose activities were injurious to education.

Organizations and Individuals Attacking Education. The first two Defense Bulletins carry accounts of groups attacking education or apparently acting in a direction which would endanger the welfare of the public schools.

The Citizens Emergency Committee, organized in 1941 for the purpose of reducing Federal nondefense expenditures, entered into cooperative arrangements with nineteen state taxpayers' associations. In a pamphlet entitled "America Needs Your Voice" issued by this committee, a statement was made that schools as well as other public services might be found to be "luxuries which the ordinary community can no longer afford."⁸ The Defense Commission wrote to members of the Citizens Emergency Committee and requested them to take "an unequivocal stand for the continued support of public education as a necessary defense institution in our democracy."⁹ One of the nineteen cooperating groups, the Taxpayers' Federation of Illinois, sent out a letter and folder (November 21, 1941) containing a plan for reducing government costs--schools included. Then the Commission contacted Dr. Wriston, president of Brown University and also president of the above-mentioned committee, but received no statement from him which would

⁸Defense Bulletin, No. 1, p. 1.

⁹Loc. cit.

give any assurance that school budgets would be excluded from its budget-paring aims. Teachers were alerted, however, so that they could work for adequate school support in those communities where affiliated taxpayer groups were attempting to carry out the program of the Citizens Emergency Committee.

The American Bottlers of Carbonated Beverages came out with a statement that textbooks were being used in schools to destroy respect for our system of government. They further resolved that students be taught loyalty, patriotism, and not subversive theories.

Channing Pollock, a noted lecturer and author, bitterly attacked the public schools in a speech before the Toledo Rotary Club, directing his criticism particularly at failure to teach the three R's and what he called subversive teaching. The challenge was promptly taken up by E. L. Bowerer, Toledo, Ohio, superintendent of schools, who accused Mr. Pollock of seeking to undermine the misrepresent public education. The Commission arranged a conference with Mr. Pollock.

In 1944 many of the taxpayer groups were still assiduous in their attacks on the schools. A survey by the Frank G. Arnold Research Service (Mr. Arnold was head of the Nebraska County Taxpayers' Association) concluded among other things that educators are theorists, high school years should be shortened, school expenditures must be determined not by the needs of children but by the ability of taxpayers to pay, and more intensive training is needed in a few fundamentals.

Another group which was active during the early years of the Commission and is still vigorously fighting the public schools is the organization called "Friends of the Public Schools." Founded in the 1930's, the so-called Friends came into the hands of General Amos A.

Fries, who has bitterly assailed federal aid to education and has stated again and again that subversive elements have infiltrated the schools. His bulletin has a circulation of 33,000 and the work of the organization is supported largely from contributions.¹⁰

"Guardians of American Education, Inc." was an organization formed to attack the Rugg books about the time that much unfavorable publicity against Mr. Rugg was arising. This group circulated a booklet entitled "Undermining Our Republic" but agreed to remain quiescent if facts presented to it by the Defense Commission were found to be correct.

The Hatch Act. The Defense Commission began a vigorous campaign to amend the Hatch Act, which had been passed in 1939 to prevent "pernicious political activities." This act prohibited any employee paid from Federal funds from using his influence to affect an election or nomination or taking any active part in a political campaign. At the time when the law was enacted Congress did not intend that it should be applied to teachers or in any way impair their civic rights. Legal interpretations, however, included teachers under the Act.

Thirty-one states cooperated with the Defense Commission in getting a chairman appointed to amend the Hatch Act by adding the Brown Amendment, Section 21 of which stated: "Nothing in Sections 2, 9, or 12 of this Act shall be deemed to prohibit or to make unlawful the doing of any act by any officer or employee of any educational, religious, or eleemosynary, philanthropic, or cultural institution, establishment, or agency."¹¹

¹⁰See Defense Bulletin No. 2.

¹¹Ibid., p. 9.

The above amendment, S 1025, was changed in wording and passed the Senate as S 2471 on June 22, 1942. The bill was held up in the House and did not finally pass until October 6. On October 24 President Roosevelt signed it. The full significance to the profession of the enactment of the Brown Amendment was expressed as follows by the Commission secretary:

It means that the Congress of the United States now gives full recognition to the political freedom of the teaching profession; it means that teachers charged with the responsibility of training youth for effective citizenship have the full rights of citizenship themselves; it means that teachers may now take an active part in keeping the needs and problems of the schools before the voters of the communities and states; and finally, it means that teachers may enter wholeheartedly into campaigns to elect public officials favorable to the support of the public schools.¹²

The Problem of Teacher Shortage. One of the important problems worked on by the Defense Commission during the early years of its existence was how to keep teachers in the schools. Because of the relatively low salaries paid teachers in comparison with those paid in industry, thousands of teachers left the profession to enter defense jobs which paid in one week what it had taken them a month to earn before. This war-time phenomenon was also reflected in the enrollments in teachers' colleges. In 1942 there were 34 per cent fewer students preparing to enter the teaching profession than there were in 1940-41. The Commission anticipated that only 50,000 newly trained teachers would be available to fill the 80,000 to 100,000 vacancies expected in the school year 1943-44.

¹²Defense Bulletin No. 5, p. 11.

Accompanying the teacher shortage were problems of lower standards of teacher preparation, overcrowded classes, and the elimination of essential courses.

To overcome the teacher shortage the Commission set forth a six-point program:

1. Adequate salaries with cost-of-living adjustments.
2. Elimination of bans on married women and non-local residents.
3. Assurance of tenure to qualified teachers as well as the same freedom enjoyed by other professions.
4. Nation-wide teacher placement bureau operating through the United States Employment Service.
5. Program of recruitment of qualified students to enter teachers' colleges.
6. Financial assistance to schools by the Federal Government in order to prevent a serious breakdown of educational services.¹³

Teachers were the forgotten men and women during this period. Their salaries increased 7 per cent from 1939 to 1942 while food costs jumped 35 per cent during approximately the same time. Factory workers' wages increased 59 per cent in the same interval.

Educational-Lay Conferences. In order to emphasize the importance of better public education for all the American people, the Commission held a series of joint conferences with the Committee on Educational Cooperation of the National Association of Manufacturers.

An article by Donald DuShane in the January 1943 issue of the Journal of the National Education Association stated that fourteen regional conferences of educators had been held in various cities of the country. The general pattern followed was an orientation breakfast

¹³Press Release, August 21, 1942.

for officials and discussion leaders, a luncheon, a two-hour period for discussion groups, and a summation session. The breakdown of the participants was as follows:

<u>Educators</u>	<u>Per cent</u>
Superintendents	25
Classroom teachers	14
College faculty	12
Principals	9
Officers of state teachers groups	7
College presidents	5
Officials of state education departments	5
Board of education members	1
Not otherwise classified	22
 <u>Industrialists</u>	 <u>Per cent</u>
Presidents of companies	38
Vice presidents and chairman of boards of directors	16
Secretaries, treasurers, and comptrollers	11
Branch managers and plant superintendents	8
Personnel, industrial relations, or public relations directors	6
Educational directors	1
Not otherwise classified	22 14

The conferences indicated that the representatives of the National Association of Manufacturers were genuinely concerned with problems of public education. The National Association of Manufacturers had already gone on record in favor of adequate financial support for schools. Above everything else, industrialists and educators found themselves to be in agreement on fundamental educational principles. That the Commission felt that these conferences were

¹⁴Journal of the National Education Association. Reprint, January 1943.

valuable is indicated by Alonzo F. Myers' report as chairman of the Commission on June 28, 1943:

Resulting from these conferences there has been a notable change in attitude toward education and its adequate financial support on the part of the nation's business and industrial leaders. . . . If adequate funds are made available to the Defense Commission we plan greatly to extend our program of cooperation and conferences with all important lay groups in the United States. It is our conviction that this kind of activity will pay huge dividends in the form of better understanding of education, its problems and its needs, and will lay a sound basis for support for the adequate financing of public education.¹⁵

Dr. DuShane felt that since public education concerns all the people, the conferences should be expanded to include labor groups, ministers, farmers, and women's organizations. Because the regular budget did not provide sufficient funds to carry on an extended program of lay-educational conferences, the Commission made a request for War and Peace Fund money. On October 18, 1943, the N. E. A. Executive Committee granted \$25,000 from this fund for organizing these conferences so that a fuller understanding and appreciation of the war and postwar role of the public schools might be had by all groups in American life.

Other Activities. In addition to the activities already discussed the Defense Commission sponsored or participated in numerous other ones.

Early in 1942 the Commission wrote to the President of the United States suggesting that legislation be introduced in Congress which would provide for the continuance of the education of honorably

¹⁵Addresses and Proceedings of the Eighty-first Annual Meeting. National Education Association, Washington, D. C., 1943, Vol. 81, pp. 331-332.

discharged servicemen and women. The President's message to Congress on October 27, 1943, included this recommendation. The Thomas Bill, S 1509, was introduced and finally was passed.

In 1941 the Commission pioneered in advocating an International Education Office. Suggestions to this effect were sent to Sumner Welles, Under-Secretary of State, who welcomed the cooperation of the Defense Commission in building educational support for the idea. This was one of the first major efforts that led eventually to UNESCO.

The Commission lent its support to the campaign for federal aid to education by taking on the responsibility, at the request of the Executive Committee in February 1943, for getting support for S 637 and H R 2649 in twenty-four northern and eastern states. With the establishment, December 15, 1943, of the N. E. A. Division of Legislative and Federal Relations this responsibility came to an end.

During the war period the problem of child labor became acute. Even leaders such as Harry Hopkins made statements in favor of children leaving school to do defense work. The Commission strongly opposed illegal employment of children and weakening of child labor laws. In his report, The Defense Commission in Its Third Year, Dr. DuShane said:

Notwithstanding the present position of the War Manpower Commission, the Defense Commission remains unalterably opposed to any move to enlist the services of school age children for war work while there are still men and women available who have not assumed their responsibilities for national war service.¹⁶

¹⁶ The Defense Commission in Its Third Year. (Typewritten copy, p. 7)

Juvenile delinquency was attacked from the point of view that competently-staffed schools are one of the best means to combat crime by youth.

Summary. As will be seen by a quick review of the topics just covered, the period which has been discussed under The Defense Commission in Operation was characterized to a degree by problems relating to complications resulting from the war effort. Nevertheless, public education faces problems of attacks on schools and textbooks, of low salaries, of teacher shortages, of juvenile delinquency in times of peace as well as in times of war. It could hardly be considered an overstatement to say that the war aggravated the problems relating to public education. But the Commission had been set up because of the very acuteness of many of these problems, and it exercised real leadership in coming to grips with them and in overcoming many of them.

THE PROGRAM CONTINUES TO GROW

While the basic aims of the Commission have remained the same as they were at the time the Commission was organized, there has been a continual growth in the demand for its services. Along with this growth has come the need for additional staff members until today there are ten: an executive secretary, an associate secretary, a legal counsel, an assistant secretary, a field secretary, and five secretarial assistants.

Again it has been necessary to select some of the major activities rather than attempt to give a complete account of everything. These selections include attacks on education, educational-lay conferences, universal military training, other activities, followed by a summary. They will be taken up in that order.

Attacks on Education. Late in 1945 Schipper Associates brought out a news release stating that business men were becoming increasingly concerned about the critical attitude of teachers and textbooks with reference to free enterprise. The article warned business men that they must make certain that the business leaders of tomorrow have sound American viewpoints. The Defense Commission wrote for details but received no answer. Dr. DuShane concluded that charges of this kind have, upon investigation, very little substance in them.¹⁷

On January 29, 1946, the Commission secretary wrote to J. Edgar Hoover concerning an editorial appearing in a Wisconsin newspaper

¹⁷Defense Bulletin No. 14, pp. 6-7.

quoting him from a speech he had just delivered in such fashion as to make the reader believe that he had attacked public education. Mr. Hoover wrote back denying that he had made the statement attributed to him. He also expressed faith in the public schools.

The September 1946 issue of the Bulletin contains a section entitled "Let's Keep the Witch Hunters Out of the Schools." A general round-up of attacking organizations was made. In August of that year Congressman Dondero of Michigan wrote an article attacking educators as communizing influences endangering the American system of free enterprise. A challenging letter from the Commission secretary exposed his fallacious and illogical thinking. At this time Aaron Sargent began his "witch hunt" in California against Building America and stated his intention of bringing about a Congressional investigation of the National Education Association. As a matter of fact, Building America was sponsored by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, an independent organization affiliated with the N. E. A. Congressman Ralph Gwinn in the same year announced that he would try to get an investigation of the United States Office of Education if the Republicans gained control of the House. The same bulletin mentions General Fries who had been busy making false accusations against the N. E. A. He claimed that the N. E. A. was run by "Reds" and declared that the investigations made by it were aimed to control teachers and make local patrons dissatisfied. He also accused the N. E. A. of trying to wrest control of education from the local boards. The fact that he made this accusation just after the Defense Commission had completed its investigation of the Chicago schools is an indication of his source of inspiration. This prompted undoubtedly the editorial by Waldrop in

the Washington Times-Herald, a newspaper with Chicago connections. In an article entitled "Red Rats in the Schools," Mr. Waldrop remarked that the N. E. A. "failed to police the academic integrity of its own membership" and wound up his comments with the following colorful remark:

Lift the veil, gentlemen, and see what you find. There are Red rats in the schools. Shoo them out.¹⁸

A conference with Mr. Waldrop revealed that his remarks were based on no specific information.

Defense Bulletin No. 19, December 1946, in a section entitled "Red Baiting in the Schools," described further attacks by groups and individuals. The National Federation of Republican Clubs, Ernie Adamson, Upton Close, George Washington Robnett, and Henry Lieferant uttered in print the same old cry: Communist textbooks, un-Americanism in the schools, the swing to the left in American education, teachers poisoning the minds of young Americans against democracy.¹⁹ Mr. John E. Rankin, a member of the House Committee on Un-American Activities, had an article in the New York Times, December 26, 1946, questioning the loyalty of teachers and stating that his committee would make an investigation of subversive influences in the schools and colleges and enlist the help of patriotic organizations to drive out "pink professors." On February 13, 1947, Rankin introduced an Un-American Activities bill in Congress which labeled as an un-American activity the teaching of Communist views in public or private schools, colleges, or universities. The question arose as to whether or not a social studies teacher could discuss Russia and Communism.

¹⁸Defense Bulletin No. 18, p. 7.

¹⁹Defense Bulletin No. 19, pp. 15-17.

Beginning in 1948 witch hunts and Red-baiting became quite common after the announcement by the Un-American Activities Committee that it would begin holding hearings on education. Educators announced that they did not fear such hearings because over 99 per cent of the educators in the country were loyal Americans.

Action began in the District of Columbia with the O'Konaki Bill which provided for a board of censorship for the Washington schools. Superintendent Corning vigorously opposed it. Attempts were also made to require six years' study of United States history; to ban textbooks and library books written by Rugg, Adams, and Krueger; to revise drastically "Building Citizenship" by Ray O. Hughes. Hearings were planned by the House District Subcommittee to get testimony from Washington teachers about subversives in the school system. Franklin T. Miles, author of the Miller Bill which provided for the additional years of study of United States history mentioned above, accused the N. E. A. of issuing unpatriotic pamphlets.

The attention of the Commission was directed to a letter written by the National Council for American Education on November 2, 1948, and sent to mayors throughout the country. The letter suggested that the mayor read the enclosed brochure "How Red Are the Schools?" and organize a local commission (with no teachers serving on it) to investigate the activities of the schools. The enclosed pamphlet made such charges as the following: "Most of the organizations of teachers are completely controlled by radical propagandists."²⁰ The activities

²⁰Defense Bulletin No. 28, January 1949, p. 3.

of the National Council for American Education were exposed in an article by Frederick Moltman in the New York World Telegram, August 25, 1948, under the title "Zoll, Hate-Monger, Promotes New Hackett." This organization, definitely of the "front" type, has been criticized by many leaders, but is still active. In 1939 Zoll was denounced as a strong anti-Semite. Before the war he was indicted for extortion, but the case was dropped because of insufficient proof of guilt beyond a reasonable doubt. The National Council for American Education listed many well-known people among its supporters. When they discovered the nature of the group they had joined, many of them immediately withdrew their names. The organization continues to spread false propaganda dangerous to the welfare of the public schools.

The September 1949 issue of The Labor Digest, an Indianapolis monthly newspaper, carried an editorial entitled "The Teacher's Problem." It accused the N. E. A. of being a left-wing organization serving "the collectivist plotting of economic planners of the Fair Deal." The editor continued with the statement that the Roosevelt administration had given educators high salaried jobs and made them "set-ups for the flattery of left-wing doctrinaires infesting the capital." Then came this thrust: "Many teachers are all out for federal aid to education solely because it means more money available for salaries. The N. E. A. is serving them with zeal, if not with complete honesty." An investigation into this attack revealed that The Labor Digest is on the blacklist of both the C.I.O. and the A.F. of L. It has been vicious in its attacks against labor despite its name, which serves merely as a cloak to hide its identity.

A close friend of George Washington Robnett, who has been mentioned previously, is Edward A. Rumely, present director of Fighters for Freedom, a subsidiary organization of the Committee for Constitutional Government. A convicted agent of Germany during World War I, Mr. Rumely strongly opposes federal aid to education, using such phrases as "vicious circle of statism" and "danger of the socialized state" in his speeches. The Committee for Constitutional Government is an organization strongly opposed to the New Deal, Fair Deal, collectivism and socialism.

During the autumn of 1949 the Houston, Texas, school board voted to ban Magruder's American Government. The objection centered on one paragraph which referred to the United States as a capitalistic society which does not have pure capitalism. It explained postal systems and progressive taxes as bits of socialism and cited public education and old-age assistance as examples of communism. "Communism" was used in the book in its non-ideological meaning. The ban was finally removed at the request of an influential citizen. The Commission watched this situation closely.

Of the many pamphlets put out by the Employers' Association of Chicago the one entitled "How Red Is the Little Red Schoolhouse?" is a sample of propaganda which can do irreparable damage to the schools if placed in the hands of misinformed and gullible individuals. Liberally sprinkled with red, the symbol of Communist teachings, the brochure pictures an uncouth, fanatical-appearing Russian soldier injecting a needle labeled "Organized Communist Propaganda" into the little red schoolhouse. On the following page is a sly-looking teacher winking his eye at a group of children in the classroom who are smiling at the

words decency, honor, and sincerity written on the blackboard. Above the head of the instructor are the words he is supposed to be thinking-- "corny ideas." The Commission used its influence to get this pamphlet withdrawn.²¹

The attacks described in this section are an indication that public education is still vulnerable and that classroom teachers, especially social studies teachers, must keep informed. Educators need to work with interested groups and community organizations in order to come to some agreements regarding procedures for removing or banning textbooks. A noteworthy contribution in this area is the committee report written for and approved by the American Legion, Department of Michigan, which sets forth policies and provides a questionnaire and a checklist. The philosophy of this document goes contrary to that of misguided citizens who would restrict teacher and pupil thinking to certain indisputable areas. Another prospective good influence in the direction of combating attacks against education, educational publications, and educators is the newly organized National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools.²²

A final word should be said about the efforts of such organizations as the Sons of the American Revolution who endeavor to instigate government investigations into textbooks and professional teachers' organizations. The Communist scare has resulted in renewed efforts to set up legal investigating committees to search out disloyal public

²¹Address: 75 East Wacker Drive, Chicago, Illinois

²²Address: 2 West 45th Street, New York, New York

servants. Recent examples are the Ober law in Maryland and the Feinberg law in New York. Instead of protecting democracy these laws may endanger it by stifling free thought. The long-run effect may be to discourage young people from entering the teaching profession.

Educational-Lay Conferences. A series of conferences on Postwar Problems and Education were planned in 1944. A good statement of the purpose of these came from Dr. Dushane in the first conference held at Raleigh, North Carolina, Tuesday, November 28, 1944.

The educators of America want the schools to do their full share in solving the problems of the post-war era. They need the help of leaders in business, agriculture, labor, and other fields to be able to recognize and make their full contributions to the welfare of the nation in the crucial period ahead.²⁵

In his keynote address he referred to a study made by the Defense Commission showing that a high level of production and consumption depends on the degree of education of the great masses of the American people.

The conference at Nashville, Tennessee, on Friday, October 8, 1944, dealt with a seven-point series of problems as to what could be done through education to create full employment, to maintain a high level of national income, to prevent waste and promote the further development of natural resources of the nation, to improve health, to produce wholesome youth and family life, to promote inter-group understanding and good-will, reduce intolerance, and to contribute to the goal of intelligent participation on the part of all citizens in the affairs of government. The same problems with the addition of these two--

²⁵The News and Observer, Raleigh, North Carolina, Wednesday, November 29, 1944.

establishing a just and lasting peace, and planning a peacetime program to insure adequate military preparedness in the future--were used in the conference held in Columbia, South Carolina, on June 18, 1945.

Conferences of the same pattern were held at Charleston, West Virginia; Atlanta, Georgia; Helena, Montana; Boise, Idaho; San Francisco, California; and Los Angeles, California.

At the Salt Lake City conference, August 8, 1945, Dr. Richard B. Kennan, the present executive secretary of the Commission who was then the associate secretary, commented on the Harvard report, General Education in a Free Society, which had stirred up controversy with the view that high schools and most universities had forgot about turning out educated men and women--that they had knowledge of some technical trade to help them earn a living but were ignorant of the basic principles of science, the history of the race, and arts of expression. He pointed out that some kind of balance in point of view would probably result, for today young people require definite skills in order to earn a living.

At Denver Dr. Kennan stressed the danger to the nation of a low level of production, pointing out that the country has enough qualified voters with less than a fifth grade education to control a national election. This fact was especially significant for Colorado because five hundred schools closed in that state that autumn and it was estimated that 7500 children would be without schools.

The conference at Portland, Oregon, on September 21, 1945, apparently stimulated considerable thinking. An editorial in the Eugene Register-Guard, September 25, 1945, stated that the challenge for meetings of the kind held in Portland came from a statement in the United Nations Charter: "Education has a big job to do." The editor

announced his intention to reprint each day one of the seven problems as presented to the conference in "the hope that many service clubs, granges, labor unions, business organizations will save copy and instruct the program chairman to work up a meeting where all the members can 'take a whack'."

At the Columbus, Ohio, conference on October 12, 1945, Donald DuShane criticized deficit spending on the part of Congress and said that in finding a solution to unemployment other than deficit spending education would have to play a part. He predicted that prosperity would last until 1956, when the real test of democracy will come.

Defense Bulletin No. 11 contains a quotation from The Nashville Tennessean, December 5, 1945, which is particularly indicative of the significance of these conferences:

In electing to remove education from its cloistered ways, these educators are abandoning the staple for the difficult. Such a course constitutes the hope for the continuation and strengthening of our democratic life, and they are to be commended in seeking this new orientation for the school.²⁴

At the close of this series of conferences on Postwar Problems and Education, the Defense Commission sent out a questionnaire to determine their value. Of 301 questionnaires sent out, 91 replies were received and 7 were returned undelivered.

The question, "Did you find the conference to be interesting and worthwhile at the time?" was answered as follows:

Defense Bulletin No. 11, p. 4.

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>
Laymen	35	2
Educators	38	1
Unknown	13	

Results of the second question, "Have you noticed any continuing benefits?" were as follows:

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>
Laymen	13	15
Educators	27	14
Unknown	4	5

The third question, "Do you know of any similar conferences in your community or state?" brought forth these results:

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>
Laymen	2	31
Educators	13	25
Unknown	3	8

"Do you believe there would be value in holding similar conferences in the future? If so, at what intervals? Annually ____ Every other year ____ More frequently ____?" Results were as follows:

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Annual</u>	<u>Every other year</u>	<u>More</u>
Laymen	31	2	28	1	1
Educators	31		21	3	1
Unknown	13		8	2	
Totals	75	2	51	6	2

"Should future conferences be (A) on the state level ____ (B) on the regional level ____ (C) on a strictly local level ____? Forty-two replied "on the state level"; forty checked the regional level; and fourteen selected the local level.

"What topics do you consider of greatest importance for school people and other community leaders to discuss together now?" An opportunity was provided to list five topics. For convenience in analyzing the topics mentioned by participants the writer has

classified them into these areas: economic, military, educational, governmental, scientific, and social. Here are the results:

Economic	19
Military	5
Educational	71
Governmental	17
Scientific	2
Social	18

Since the greater portion of the conferences was represented by educators, the greater frequency of educational topics listed above is not surprising. Below is a list of topics compiled from those sent in by New Jersey conferees:

Teacher shortage
Tolerance
Foreign relations
Vocational education in local junior
and senior high schools
Teachers colleges should have definite
courses based on working with lay public
The re-evaluation of the school's part
in modern society
Labor management relations
Education for peace
Vocational training
Race prejudices
International cooperation
Juvenile delinquency
Peace—How parents can develop an attitude
for it
Citizenship—What are its responsibilities
Health—How to develop a healthy attitude
toward health
Significance of modern forces—aviation,
atomic energy

The final question also elicited a variety of responses—"Are there any procedures, other than the holding of conferences of school and lay leaders, that you suggest we might use to help strengthen the contribution of the schools to our national welfare?" Here are a few selected, pertinent comments:

Greater publicity for program
 Specific problems should be attacked
 instead of general discussions
 Put less emphasis on leaders and more on
 reasoning
 More consultation before conference
 Keep pressure on federal aid
 "For Defense of Democracy" is a defensive
 expression. Choose an aggressive title
 for the Commission: "For the Advancement
 of Democracy."
 Follow up conference by having school and
 lay leaders work on committee to investi-
 gate topics discussed further and report
 back.
 Publication of the findings of such con-
 ferences
 Understanding of employer and employee
 relations
 We might do a better job with labor groups.²⁵

The Commission still believes that these lay-educational conferences are valuable in building understanding of and support for public education. On January 28, 1950, the Arizona Defense Commission, the Arizona Education Association, and the N. E. A. Defense Commission jointly sponsored a regional conference which was attended by lay and educational groups from California, Colorado, New Mexico, and Arizona. Each of seven discussion groups was assigned two case studies from a list of fourteen and was responsible for coming forth with answers to problems presented. Groups had recorders who reported the findings, which were then mimeographed and sent to each of the participants. Defense Commission files were used as a basis for writing many of the cases, which ranged from cases of unfair dismissal practices to problems of racial segregation.

²⁵The results of the questionnaire were compiled in October 1946.

With greater attention to the principles of group dynamics so that more emphasis is placed on individual participation and less on keynote addresses, which are often unrelated, these conferences will become more valuable. Conferees come for a purpose, and attempts must be made to set up those types of activities which will best answer the questions and problems facing those who attend. It goes almost without saying that lay participation should be greater than it has been and that problems must not be too professional for non-educators to handle.²⁶

Universal Military Training. Before this topic had become a matter of legislation in Congress, the Defense Commission had adopted a statement on it at the Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, meeting, July 3, 1944. The statement reads as follows:

At this time, before the conclusion of the war and the determination of plans for peace and postwar relations, many influential groups and individuals are planning and working for the immediate adoption of postwar universal military training of all American boys at seventeen or eighteen years of age.

Such universal military training may be found to be necessary by an unsatisfactory peace settlement, but no determination of policy of such importance should be made until the necessity for it is determined by world events and those now in military service have had an opportunity to express their opinions on the matter.

To adopt compulsory military training now would be equivalent to serving notice upon the world that our country does not expect a great and lasting peace and that we are preparing for a third world war.

One year of military training for all youth is of less importance as a military safeguard than twelve years of training for all of our youth in well-organized, competently-staffed schools. If only a part of the vast expenditure

²⁶"Planning a Lay-Education Conference" - an unpublished pamphlet.

required by the proposed compulsory military training were used for the improvement of our present educational program, it would be of greater value from a military standpoint and would be of far greater social and economic worth.²⁷

On November 28, 1944, Commission Chairman Alonzo F. Myers spoke on the program American Forum of the Air in opposition to compulsory military training in peace time. He pointed out that military arguments for physical fitness, discipline, citizenship, and manners were all for worthy objectives, but that they could better be realized through an adequately supported educational program. A better use of the \$3,000,000,000 per year necessary to finance UMT was suggested: \$1,000,000,000 could be used to maintain a high level of efficiency for the army, navy, and air corps; \$1,000,000,000 for a national health program; \$1,000,000,000 to assure equality of educational opportunity to all American youth.

Hearings on the May Bill, which provided for one year of compulsory military training, began in November 1945. Donald DuShane testified against it before the House Military Affairs Committee. The significant point he made was that an extensive program for social betterment could be carried on in the United States with \$3,000,000,000 a year. The list which follows is taken verbatim from his statement:

1. Construct a ten-room modern school building in every county in the United States each year.
2. Construct a \$50,000 library in every county in the United States each year.
3. Construct annually a \$150,000 hospital in each county.
4. Employ ten full-time school and public health doctors and ten full-time school and public health nurses in every county in the country.
5. Purchase ten new modern school busses in each county in the United States.
6. Maintain one psychiatric and behavior clinic in every county in the United States.
7. Provide ten full-time recreation and juvenile guidance workers in every county in the United States.

²⁷Defense Bulletin No. 10, October 30, 1944, pp. 4-5.

8. Bring all schools of the country up to a reasonable standard of efficiency.
9. Provide free education for the three million children under 18 who are not now attending school.
10. Meet the payroll of one junior college with ten instructors in every county in the United States.
11. Provide all the expenses of a three-year postgraduate course for ten thousand selected students each year.
12. Pay the full maintenance and tuition at college or technical school for one year of the 900,000 boys who would be conscripted under the May Bill.
13. Breat a three quarter million dollar trade and technical school in each Congressional district each year.²⁸

This would leave an unexpended balance of \$15,300,000 annually.

In studying public polls on UMF in 1945 the Commission found that, although majority opinion favored such training, whenever people were presented facts or given an alternative to compulsory military training they invariably opposed it and favored regular education.

In the spring of 1946 the Commission reported that progress had been made in defeating efforts to get the May Bill passed. At that time it appeared likely that the draft would be extended for a year. The Commission urged teachers to object to attempts to include young men 18 to 20 years of age in the draft. It stated also that, because of the teacher shortage, teachers and students in teacher-training institutions should be exempt.

Defense Bulletin No. 17 reported victory in the Commission's campaign against drafting teen-agers. Although the draft was extended, the bill was amended to exclude 18 and 19 year-olds and became law. This did not end the fight for UMF, however.

²⁸Defense Bulletin No. 14, December 1945, pp. 2-3.

At the Buffalo Convention in 1946 the N. E. A. came forth with a declaration against compulsory military training, pointing out its ultimate danger to the basic concepts of democracy. The Convention urged strong support of the United Nations Organization in order to insure a reduction in armaments later on.

Because of the objections of educators and others the Army in 1947 brought out a modified plan--six months' active training plus the equivalent of six months in the National Guard, ROTC, or reserve service. The action of Budget Director Webb in refusing to approve funds for federal aid to education until UMT had been set up served as a warning to educators that no stone would be left unturned by the opposition to get UMT passed.

In 1947 the Army also put on a publicity campaign aimed to get UMT into operation. Pamphlets were made available to other groups supporting UMT to use in advertising it (the Army is limited in this type of activity).

On October 23, 1947, a meeting was held in Washington to organize the National Security Committee to back UMT. The House Committee on Expenditures in HR 1073, entitled "Investigation of Participation of Federal Officials of the War Department in Publicity and Propaganda, As It Relates to Universal Military Training," accused the War Department of exceeding their governmental authority by engaging in propaganda to influence legislation and using the people's money to do it.

²⁹Defense Bulletin No. 22, November 1947, p. 8.

By the end of that year the House Armed Services Committee had already approved UMT, and the Senate committee of the same name had indicated that the Tome Bill would pass.

Hearings were held in the Senate on UMT in 1948. Although no action was taken, the President strongly supported UMT in his State of the Union Message. Indications that he would press for passage of it in the 81st Congress were evident. The Defense Commission answered the proponents of UMT with a pamphlet: "Let's Put First Things First To Make America Strong."

The fight for conscripting youth goes on, but the opposition to UMT is now centered in the National Council Against Conscription. A recent publication by this Council gives a complete survey of the problem of military training in schools and colleges and exposes the dangers of further inroads of militarism in education.⁵⁰

Other Activities. Although it only indirectly concerns the work of the Defense Commission, mention should be made of the program of the N. E. A. Citizenship Committee. The present secretary of the Commission was the originator of this program conducted jointly with the United States Department of Justice. He directed the first four conferences. The assistant secretary of the Defense Commission now serves as the N. E. A. headquarters contact for this committee. So important has its program become, her services are almost fully devoted to its work.

⁵⁰Militarism in Education. National Council Against Conscription, 1015 - 18th Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C. This booklet sells for 25¢.

The present Committee, set up in 1944, succeeded two prior committees which had functioned in recognizing new voters and in encouraging the celebration of National Citizenship Day. The purposes of the Citizenship Committee are:

1. To formulate national policies for encouraging effective state and local association citizenship programs.
2. To emphasize the importance of effectively inducting new voters into privileges and responsibilities of active citizenship.
3. To encourage interest, cooperation, and participation of other groups working along similar lines.
4. To publicize effective programs of citizenship education wherever they may be found.³¹

On May 22-24, 1950, the Fifth National Conference on Citizenship was held with over 1,000 delegates representing 400 national organizations in attendance. The N. E. A. and the United States Department of Justice co-sponsor this annual conference. The theme chosen for the conference is used as a guide for the discussion of such topics as intelligent voting, what can be done to get out the vote, and the application of the principles of democracy to the structure and objectives of organizations. In 1947 the theme was "The Responsible American Citizen: His Job in Politics; His Job in the World Today; His Job in the Community." In 1950 the theme chosen was "Citizens in Action." As an added feature of the 1950 Conference, President Truman received participants at a reception in the Rose Garden of the White House.

Staff members of the Defense Commission took part in the pre-planning for these conferences and also in the conference discussions.

³¹N. E. A. Handbook. 1949-50, p. 314.

Reports of the annual conferences are published. That this work is becoming increasingly important is evidenced in the recommendations of the Committee: a full-time staff; the development of regional, state, and local conferences; setting up a clearinghouse of citizenship materials in the N. E. A.³²

During the summer of 1949 the assistant secretary compiled the results of a questionnaire study of what state associations do in the areas of investigating undemocratic practices and defending teachers when they are unjustly treated. Defense Bulletin No. 31, January 1950, gives a summary of the findings. Twenty-five states and Hawaii have a committee or commission which defends teachers. Two of the leading states are Indiana and Arizona, which have defense commissions patterned after the N.E.A. Defense Commission. The Indiana Defense Commission, established in 1936, was a forerunner of the National Commission and had as one of its strong members Dr. DuShane, first executive-secretary of the N. E. A. Defense Commission. Arizona's Defense Commission, established in 1946, has been very active in investigations and has published two reports.

Close cooperation with the Tenure Committee, which investigates cases in which an individual has been dismissed or unjustly treated, has been possible because the associate secretary of the Defense Commission serves as its full-time headquarters contact. Since 1919 tenure problems have been served by some committee. In 1944 the Committee on Academic Freedom was merged with the Tenure Committee

³²N. E. A. Handbook, loc. cit.

to become the Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom. The Tenure Committee operates in a way which parallels that of the Defense Commission--it investigates and publishes reports, for example. If situations involve a group of persons under attack, they are turned over to the Defense Commission.

The Commission also acts as the investigating agency for the Committee on Professional Ethics.

The Commission participates in the Civil Liberties Clearing House, an organization made up of several national organizations interested in civil rights and liberties. Groups come together to arrive at mutual understandings and to unite on a voluntary basis to make resolutions and urge the passage of legislation. The Commission staff members have found the area of academic freedom of particular value from the point of view of interest in participation and collaboration. The Commission has participated in the three National Citizens' Conferences on Civil Liberties held in Washington, D. C.

Summary. In this section The Program Continues To Grow the period has been mostly the postwar years, and it has been marked by an intensification of the problems faced in the earlier years.

A renewed wave of attacks on education have come from "front," "interest," and "pressure" groups, some with ultra-conservative policies and others with motives concealed by the name of the organization. Local school boards have been frightened by the "cold war" and have assumed the responsibility for banning books without the help of professionally-trained schoolmen. The Communist scare has brought in a number of laws which are endangering the rights of teachers. Efforts are being made at the present time to pool the resources of

many groups dealing with educational materials so that common agreements may be reached and classroom teachers protected from thought-control methods, which threaten our democratic way of life.

Lay-educational conferences brought together business men, labor representatives, farmers, professional men, and others to study problems facing this country and to suggest what education should do in helping solve them. These conferences are a continuing necessity, for there are signs even yet that educators as a group are too far apart from other community groups. Good public relations programs should do much to correct this isolation, and the lay-educational conference is one important arm of school public relations which national and state education associations are well equipped to develop.

The fight against compulsory military training so far has been a successful one and an indication of what educators working through their national organization can accomplish. With the growing pressure of demands from a large number of interest groups for federal funds and a considerable de-emphasis on huge military forces, there appears to be little likelihood of a \$3,000,000,000 appropriation being made by Congress (or even a \$1,000,000,000 appropriation) at a time when balancing the current budget is a problem. The passage of such legislation depends, of course, on the international situation.

CHAPTER III

PHILOSOPHY AND PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING THE PROGRAM OF THE DEFENSE COMMISSION

WHAT IS DEMOCRACY?

It is almost a platitude to say that there is no satisfactory definition of democracy. Several years ago the writer had the experience of taking a course which involved research into definitions of democracy. Many good definitions were found but no one definition which was all-inclusive. The tendency in recent years has been to break up the term into specific statements.¹

A good illustration of the limitations of a general definition can be had by making a critical examination of it. Here is a recent one which appeared in the New York Times Magazine:

Democracy is that way of living which requires of each of its practitioners daily evidence of his respect for the rights of all other men all over the world, and enriches him in return with the certainty that the full flowering of the human personality is the fundamental meaning of life.²

To one who had been educated in a totalitarian state and who wanted to know what the American concept of democracy is, this definition would not suffice. What are "the rights of all other men all over the world"? They must be specifically stated if he is to comprehend what is meant. It is doubtful that he would understand the relationship between democracy and the "full flowering of the human personality" without further explanation. It is, of course, easy to criticize adversely, but this illustration will serve to demonstrate the need for several specific terms.

¹William F. Russell and Thomas H. Briggs, The Meaning of Democracy. Macmillan Company, New York: 1941, p. 203.

²Richard Barron, New York Times Magazine, September 25, 1949.

Semantics has done much to set forth the concept of a specific idea behind a word, an idea which flashes the same meaning in several minds when the word is uttered or read. To use Stuart Chase's expression, people are victims of verbalism and employ many "blah" words, among which is the word democracy. It is difficult to use it and be certain that the other person to whom it is addressed has the same referent.³

Democracy may be broken down into such categories as political democracy--the obligation to vote and to keep informed; economic democracy--the right to eat, to work, to make money; social democracy--the right to be free from notions of superiority in cases of race, religion, and nationality; religious democracy--the right to worship as one sees fit.

Still the explanation does not suffice, for a further elaboration employing even more specific terms must be used. A very constructive piece of work was done in this area by members of the faculty of Columbia University. They drew up a creed containing sixty statements. The framework of the democratic principles pertaining to the work of the Defense Commission will be based on these, not because they are to be regarded as the sine qua non or the best statement yet made, but because they are a solid foundation on which to build.

From this book a very good general statement which is applicable to the need for and justification of an organization to protect educators from unfair practices is this one:

³See Stuart Chase, The Tyranny of Words. Harcourt Brace, New York: 1938.

In a sense democracy is a society for the prevention of cruelty to men, women, and children.⁴

Cruelty, of course, does not necessarily refer to physical misdeeds; the teacher whose position is terminated without warning and explanation is cruelly treated.

Another definition which is particularly apropos is this:

Like religion, democracy can be successful only if it is really understood and if it develops in its adherents such a convinced faith in its superiority that they are willing to live it, even at the temporary sacrifice of their own comforts and privileges.⁵

Here is one which underlies the whole purpose of a professional organization in a democracy:

No one can be truly happy or permanently prosperous unless others around him are prosperous and happy too.⁶

To present a complete list of the sixty principles of the creed will not be necessary in order to get a picture of the democratic guiding principles which are the basis for the work of the Defense Commission. The following have been selected for inclusion here:

Democracy extends into every realm of human association.

Democracy respects the personality of every individual, whatever his origin or present status.

Democracy insures to all a sense of security.

Democracy protects every individual against exploitation by special privilege or power.

Democracy believes in the improvability of all men.

⁴Russell and Briggs, op. cit., p. 38.

⁵Ibid., p. VII.

⁶Ibid., p. VIII.

Democracy has for its social aim the maximum development of each individual.

Democracy provides an opportunity for each and every individual to make the best of such natural gifts as he has and encourages him to do so.

Democracy assumes that adults are capable of being influenced by reason.

Democracy assumes that all persons have equal rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.

Democracy guarantees that rights and opportunities accorded one shall be accorded to all.

Democracy insures standards of living in which every individual can retain his own self-respect and unabashed make his peculiar contribution to the society in which he lives.

Democracy recognizes a desire on the part of people to govern themselves and a willingness to assume responsibility for doing so.

Democracy has faith that an individual grows best and most by actively and intelligently exercising his right to share in making decisions on public policy.

Democracy attempts a general diffusion among the people of the ideals, knowledge, standards of conduct, and spirit of fair play which promote a sense of equality.

Democracy permits the unhampered expression of everyone's opinions on public policy.

Democracy encourages constant reappraisal of things as they are and stimulates a hope that leads to action for their betterment in the future.

Democracy recognizes and protects the right of individuals to associate themselves for the promotion of their own interests in any ways that are not incompatible with general welfare.

Democracy maintains human rights to be more important than property rights.⁷

⁷Ibid., pp. 206-211.

It would be possible to list violations of each of the items above as they relate to the rights of teachers based on democratic educational principles. For example, there have been many situations where teachers have been afraid to express themselves on public policy. The Grand Prairie report of the Defense Commission is an illustration of what can and does happen to teachers who exercise their civil rights in these communities where teachers are restricted. A negative approach, however, is not the best one to use when attempting to present constructive principles which will gain acceptance as teachers bind themselves professionally to demand that they be put in operation. Before presenting some suggested principles, it will be necessary to establish principles of basic human rights. These human rights are foundation stones for the sixty principles of the Columbia creed.

HUMAN RIGHTS

During and immediately following World War II leaders of many nations were particularly concerned with drawing up statements on human rights. The work of our founding fathers in the 1780's is now commemorated because they took the principles of human rights evolving from the French philosophers of that period and applied them to build the framework for the United States Government. In the years to come, the efforts of world leaders of the 1940's will undoubtedly be commemorated because these men applied principles of human rights to the framework of the United Nations. So far as the United States is concerned, many of the human rights documents of this period are products of the thinking which grew out of the depression years of the 30's--the "forgotten man" concept and the "freedom from want" idea are examples. The Four Freedoms are products of an age in which science has opened the way for taking care

of all human needs. Furthermore, science is showing the way to solve major problems in medicine, health, social relations, and so on--in other words, the basic human rights may be practiced in real life by all groups.

These basic human rights must be applied, as they have now evolved, to the teaching profession along with their applications to all aspects of American living. That the teaching profession has a long hard path ahead in gaining acceptance of certain rights is only too obvious in view of past experiences and present practices. Donald DuShane wrote a few years ago:

Responsibility for better teaching conditions rests with each community. Parents, citizens, taxpayers, school-board members must insist that teachers get a square deal, that we no longer threaten or punish the teacher who speaks out against vested interests, that we no longer underpay or undermine the morale of those upon whom the very existence of our democracy depends. We must make teaching a career with income, tenure, and public status that will attract our most gifted young people--and more men. We must re-examine the personnel policies of our schools to make sure that they will hold the competent teachers we already have. "As the teacher is, so is the child; as the child is, so is tomorrow."⁸

The following documents have been selected for discussion:

The Declaration of Independence
The Bill of Rights (U. S. Constitution)
Bill of Human Rights
Bogota Conference (1948)
Preamble to the Charter of UNESCO
Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UNO)
"A New Bill of Rights"⁹

Donald DuShane, "Cracking the Whip over Teachers." (Unpublished manuscript)

9A. R. Mead and Others, Some Documents Concerned with Human Rights. Bureau of Educational Research, College of Education, University of Florida: April 1949, Bulletin 55.

The Declaration of Independence. Perhaps the crux of this document so far as human rights are concerned is this much quoted statement:

We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness.¹⁰

The Bill of Rights. These rights are, of course, basic to our whole democratic pattern of living in the United States. They were added to the Constitution as the first ten amendments mainly because the states would not ratify the Constitution until these principles, fought so hard for in the American Revolution, were included. Of particular importance in connection with the rights of teachers is Article I, which provides for separation of church and state: "Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, peaceably to assemble"

Article VI sets forth principles of trial by jury which are applicable to all cases of accusations: the jury must be impartial, and the accused is "to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense."¹¹

Bill of Human Rights. During World War II and the years following it, there have been several documents summarizing human rights

¹⁰Ibid., p. 10.

¹¹Ibid., p. 12.

which are applicable to human beings everywhere. The Bill of Human Rights of the Commission To Study the Organization of Peace (1946) contains rights which are especially applicable to teachers:

Every person has the right to freedom of conscience and belief and freedom of religious association, teaching, practice, and worship.

Every person has the right to form and hold opinions and to receive opinions and information made available from any source.

Every person has the right to freedom of expression through all means of communication including speech, press, radio, and art.

Every person has the right to assemble peaceably with others.

Every person has the right to form with others associations of a political, economic, religious, social, educational, cultural, scientific, or any other character for purposes not inconsistent with these articles.

Every person has the right, individually or with others, to petition appropriate national and international agencies for redress of grievances.

Every person has the right, in his capacity as citizen, to take part in the government of his State.¹²

Bagota Conference Charter (1948). In Chapter VII entitled Social Standards, this charter states under Article 29:

All human beings, without distinction as to race, nationality, sex, creed or social condition, have the right to attain material well-being and spiritual growth under circumstances of liberty, dignity, equality of opportunity and economic security

Work is right and a social duty; it shall not be considered as an article of commerce; it demands respect for

¹²Ibid., p. 22

freedom of association and for the dignity of the worker, and it is to be performed under conditions that ensure life, health, and a decent standard of living, both during the working years and during old age, or when any circumstance deprives the individual of the possibility of working.¹³

Preamble to the Charter of UNO. The term human rights is mentioned several times in the Charter of the United Nations. In the Preamble, however, it is mentioned only once:

We The People of The United Nations Determined to reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human persons, in the equal rights of men and women and of nations large and small¹⁴

Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UNO). The text of this Declaration was passed and proclaimed by the General Assembly of the United Nations on December 10, 1948. Here are some excerpts appropriate for the teaching profession:

All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood.

No one shall be subjected to arbitrary interference with his privacy, family, home or correspondence, nor to attacks upon his honor and reputation. Everyone has the right to the protection of the law against such interference or attacks.

Everyone has the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion; this includes freedom to change his religion or belief, and freedom, either alone or in community with others and in public or private, to manifest his religion or belief in teaching, practice, worship and observance.

Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression; this right includes freedom to hold opinions

¹³Ibid., p. 35.

¹⁴Ibid., p. 25.

without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers.

Everyone has the right to freedom of peaceful assembly and association. No one may be compelled to belong to an association.

Everyone has the right to take part in the government of his country, directly or through freely chosen representatives.

Everyone, without any discrimination, has the right to equal pay for equal work.

Everyone who works has the right to just and favorable remuneration insuring for himself and his family an existence worthy of human dignity, and supplemented, if necessary, by other means of social protection.

Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial and religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.¹⁵

A New Bill of Rights. This document was developed in 1942 by the National Resources Planning Board. The list below, taken from it, is concisely stated with details left out in some items.

1. The right to work.
2. The right to fair pay.
3. The right to adequate food, clothing, shelter, and medical care.
4. The right to security, with freedom from fear of old age, want, dependency, sickness, unemployment, and accident.
5. The right to live in a system of free enterprise, free from compulsory labor, irresponsible private power, arbitrary public authority and unregulated monopolies.
6. The right to come and go, to speak or be silent, free from spying of secret political police.

¹⁵Ibid., p. 41

7. The right to equality before the law, with equal access to justice in fact.
8. The right to education, for work, for citizenship, and for personal growth and happiness.
9. The right to rest, recreation, and adventure.¹⁶

Since these documents represent the careful thinking of many leaders, it will not be necessary to cull from them certain statements to build a summary. In a sense each of the documents is a summary which can be used to formulate statements of rights of professional groups, industrial organizations, and labor unions. From the above, however, a group can get a basis on which to build the rights of its organization. The next section takes up the rights of teachers in the public schools of America. It is these rights which the Defense Commission has the obligation to defend--"The Defense Commission is the profession's bulwark against unjust attack."¹⁷

¹⁶Ibid., pp. 16-18.

¹⁷See brochure National Commission for the Defense of Democracy - What Is It?

THE RIGHTS OF TEACHERS

The writer has been unable to find any statement of the rights of teachers in the literature of Education. Many codes of ethics have been written, but they can hardly be considered rights; instead they set standards of professional conduct by indicating what teachers should and should not do in their professional capacities.

The following statement, drawn up by a subcommittee of the Defense Commission, came as a suggestion from Dr. William C. Carr of the Educational Policies Commission. Many countries have charters for teachers, but the United States has no official one at the present time. Here is a proposed one:

A Charter for Teachers

We, the Teachers of America, having assumed the duty of helping the youth of America secure the education through which to make their future safe while living in harmony with peoples throughout the world, know the heavy responsibility which is ours. The Teaching Profession has an important contribution to make to the welfare of the world both present and future.

Bearing this truth in mind, we believe that in banding together professionally we can enlarge our vision and at the same time promote programs for the development of the child, betterment of the school system as a whole, the advancement of Teacher welfare, and the improvement of the community. From such concerted action we believe will come a more dynamic profession and, subsequently, high standards of education.

Therefore, we believe the following rights should be reaffirmed in the minds of all Teachers:

1. The right to teach the truths of democratic living.
2. The right to equality of treatment regardless of color, religious belief, or social or economic status.
3. The right of qualified Teachers, having equivalent training and experience, to receive equal pay regardless of sex or Teaching assignment.

Keeping these rights in mind, we as Teachers of "all the children of all the people" zealously pledge ourselves to guide into the realm of tolerance and fair-mindedness the thinking of the young citizens who come within the sphere of our influence. We count it one of our supreme duties to teach them to think clearly, to plan carefully, and to act wisely, ever evaluating the effect of that action on their relations with God, country, and their fellowmen.¹⁸

In a preliminary form this Charter for Teachers specified seven rights. Because these are more explicit for the purpose of this chapter, they are listed below.

1. The right of qualified teachers with equivalent training and experience to receive equal pay regardless of sex or teaching level.
2. The right of non-discrimination because of race, belief, or social, economic, or marital status.
3. The right to live normal lives in a community unhampered by bigotry evolving from ignorance or prejudice.
4. The right to job security which guarantees that we shall not be the pawns of politicians nor the puppets of prejudice.
5. The right to economic security sufficient to guarantee an adequate standard of living.
6. The right to discuss and teach issues that may be controversial.
7. The right to express ourselves on matters which affect ourselves, our profession, public education, and the children we teach.¹⁹

To supplement the list above the following guiding principles are suggested. These together with the rights of the Charter constitute a statement of the rights of teachers (here the word teacher applies to all professionally trained staff members) which the Defense Commission undertakes to defend.

¹⁸ Journal of the National Education Association. National Education Association, Washington, D. C.: 39:526, October 1950.

¹⁹ Unpublished manuscript.

1. Capable teachers are important to the success of all schools.
2. The personality of every teacher must be respected.
3. Every teacher needs to have a feeling of security in his position.
4. Every teacher is capable of improving himself in his present position.
5. Every teacher should actively share in formulating school policies.
6. Every teacher should have the best available equipment to assist him in his work.
7. Every teacher should have good environmental conditions in which to work.
8. Every teacher should be treated as an intelligent person.
9. A teacher should never be coerced to do anything.
10. Every teacher should be given access to all records and other data necessary for carrying out school policies.
11. Every teacher should have the right to express his sincere opinion without fear of retaliation.
12. Every teacher has the right and the obligation to support community legislation designed to protect the public schools as an institution fundamental to American democracy.
13. Every teacher, in doing his duty as a citizen, has the right to participate in public election campaigns.
14. Every teacher is entitled to be fully informed about any teaching weaknesses, to be given time to correct them, and to be given supervisory help in so doing.
15. Every teacher is entitled to receive a salary sufficiently adequate to maintain his self-respect in the community.
16. If a teacher is to employ democratic practices in the classroom, he must receive democratic treatment from the administrative staff.
17. School administration exists for the purpose of facilitating the teaching process; it is both "servant" and leader.

SUMMARY

Democracy, to have meaning, must be specifically defined. As a basis for setting forth the rights of teachers, certain ones of sixty statements in the Columbia University creed were selected. Along with the concept of democracy go the fundamental human rights, which have been restated and increased in number in printed pamphlets during the

1940's. Many of these are particularly applicable to the teaching profession. From them a Creed for Teachers has been derived in which certain rights of teachers are reemphasized. A list of guiding principles based on the democratic concept and on fundamental human rights points the way for the Defense Commission as the protector of the rights of teachers and as the profession's bulwark against unjust attack.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF CASES INVESTIGATED

Of the several functions of the Defense Commission one of the most significant for the profession is undoubtedly the investigatory one, which has become more and more time-consuming as each year passes. The demands for help from all quarters of the United States far exceed the ability of the present staff to meet them. For this reason the Commission gives greater weight in selecting cases for investigation to those which appear to have highest potentialities for the welfare of the profession. The results of important cases are generally published, for they can have a far-reaching influence in helping to correct such undesirable practices as dismissals without warning, intimidation of local teachers' associations, and totalitarian administrative procedures.

CONDUCTING THE INVESTIGATION

Since investigations of local school situations, especially by outside organizations without legal authority, must be carried on impartially and discreetly, the N. E. A. drew up procedures for conducting them. The following were adopted by the N. E. A. Executive Committee on September 19, 1942:

A. Objectives

1. Development of public understanding and support.
2. Permanent correction of conditions which cause unjust treatment.
3. Assistance to the individuals found to be unjustly treated.
4. Prevention of farther unjust treatment of employees.

B. Basic Rules

1. Except in cases of marked importance to the teaching profession, investigation should be made wherever possible at the request, with the consent, or in consultation with the state education association or the local N. E. A. association involved.
2. In deciding which cases to investigate first, consideration should be given to those in which the discharged teachers are members of the N. E. A.
3. Public opinion is often the deciding factor in settling cases; therefore, every effort must be made in the conducting of investigations to win public approval by the dignity, unity, fairness, and regard for the public interest by the committee.
4. Care should be taken to avoid the investigation of cases in which the teachers involved are unworthy of support or in which the merits of the case are not clear.
5. Partiality or bias or pre-judgment should be guarded against.
6. Before any case is investigated, a preliminary inquiry should be made to determine its probable merits and the possibilities of bettering conditions. In making this inquiry, the employing officials should be consulted as well as the teachers involved.
7. The investigation should be judicial, thorough and professional. The report should be based on facts. The recommendations of the committee should ordinarily be submitted to the employing officials for their information before the release of the report. In any case, the report should be submitted to the parties involved before or at the time the report is released to the public.

C. Preliminary Inquiry

1. An impartial preliminary inquiry should be made, without publicity, to ascertain the probable facts. Care should be exercised to prevent the appearance of bias or of pre-judging the case.
2. If the inquiry indicates definite unjust treatment of the teachers involved and if the teachers are worthy of professional support, then, if circumstances justify it, a determined but confidential effort should be made to negotiate a just settlement.

3. If a settlement cannot be obtained promptly and it appears that an investigation has a reasonable chance of accomplishing one or more of our objectives, then, with the consent of either the state education association or the local N. E. A. affiliated association, a formal investigation should be planned in accordance with the information at hand. In cases of marked importance to the teaching profession, an investigation may be made without the request of either the state or local affiliated association.

D. The Investigation

1. The investigation should consist of (a) gathering the facts, (b) evaluating the facts, (c) formulating and issuing the report.
 - (a) Although factual material and signed statements must be obtained and records must be investigated, yet the most vital and difficult part of the investigation is the gathering of oral evidence in the community where the injustice occurred. This part of the investigation (the hearing) should be conducted by three or more members of the investigating committee. The chairman of the committee should be in charge or in the absence of the chairman, an acting chairman should be designated. Before starting the hearings, the committee should agree upon the procedure and the functions of each member. Care must be exercised to conduct the hearing judicially. A careful record of the hearings should be kept. The objective of the hearings should be to obtain reliable and full information. Individual members of the committee should not discuss the case privately nor make individual investigations without the knowledge and consent of the committee. The chairman should be responsible for interviews with the press or press releases or statements to the individuals involved. A sufficient time should be spent in a community to secure full information and to avoid the appearance of haste or superficiality. All parties involved in the case should be given the opportunity to be heard individually and without the presence of auditors from the opposition. Efforts should be made to secure the opinions and cooperation of local editors, leaders of civic organizations, and other leading citizens. The views of leading members of the teaching profession should be obtained in a manner that will not injure them.

- (b) After the investigations the committee should weigh the facts, draw careful conclusions, and formulate specific recommendations. Differences of opinion should be reconciled inside the committee if possible, but should not be made public except after notice to the committee and only through a minority report filed with the chairman and released by him at the time of the issuance of the committee report.
- (c) After the report has been formulated, it should be submitted to all members of the committee for approval before release. The report should be released by the chairman at such time and in such manner as will best aid in the solution of the case. The report should be judicial and based on evidence. In every case copies of the report should be submitted to the employers and employees involved, either prior to public release or at the same time.

Where preliminary inquiry is made in person by fewer than three members of the committee, any publicity should be given with great caution and should even then be made as the personal reaction, based on evidence, of the individual and not of the committee.

E. Local and Immediate Needs

Local and immediate needs can never be met by any set of rules. The ultimate procedure must depend on the study and judgment of the particular committee in charge of the investigation.¹

Without in any way minimizing the need for rules, it should be pointed out that they must serve only as guides in so far as the Defense Commission investigations are concerned. Each Defense Commission case is a case in itself, and the approach used must be appropriate to the situation faced. The Defense Commission must operate on sound professional principles and cannot afford to make serious mistakes. In some situations it is advisable not to make an investigation. Possibly the

¹Unpublished Statement.

evidence is of the hearsay variety and the facts are difficult to secure. Perhaps certain local partisan views are so interwoven into the case that the risk of probing into the issues may exceed, in the judgment of the Commission, the benefits to be derived for the local school system, its teachers, or the profession.

There is danger in becoming involved in too many small cases, which could be solved satisfactorily at the local or state level. Building professional prestige involves selecting those cases for full investigation which will strengthen the teaching profession in the eyes of the public. In the final analysis it is public opinion which is responsible for public school policies. And on the national level the Defense Commission must be concerned with that public opinion which carries across state lines. This is another way of saying that, although the case was investigated in "x" state, it should bring out educational principles which have an important bearing in "x," "y," and "z" states.

The work of the Commission in investigations has both preventive and curative phases. The preventive phase can be compared to medical practices--treat cancer in the early stages and a life is saved. Call in the Commission when a problem begins to threaten to become a conflagration and the danger may be minimized. This, of course, is talking in terms of ideal practices. But obviously the task for the Commission is much easier to handle before the explosion than after the fragments of undesirable publicity have done their damage. Fast thinking and action by local teachers' organizations may avoid much unpleasantness. Keeping situations under control is often a matter of good timing, and professional organizations or committees closest geographically may be in a better position to operate in preventing an outburst than is the

N. E. A. Defense Commission. The curative phase can be and often is taken care of locally or by the state association, but sometimes political and other factors make it desirable for the Defense Commission to exercise leadership for the good of the whole profession and enter the case without state and local association approval.

Procedures by which the Defense Commission becomes involved in cases vary. Sometimes local teachers as individuals appeal to the Commission directly. Sometimes the appeal comes from the local teachers' association. Sometimes the local appeal goes to the state association and the latter asks the N. E. A. to investigate. Appeals may come from non-educators who are rankled because of some injustice done. The school board may invite the Commission to make a fair and impartial investigation. Once the Commission receives the appeal, a staff member writes for complete details and requests data to be presented in chronological order and the names of principals involved to be listed. Letters may be forwarded to board presidents, superintendents, directors, local association presidents, or others who appear to be responsible for the action taken against the complainants. These letters sometimes have to be firm as well as tactful and impartial. An example follows:

Mr. Henry C. Jones, Superintendent
X County Schools
Jonastown, _____

Dear Mr. Jones:

The Defense Commission of the National Education Association has recently received a letter requesting an investigation of the facts leading to the termination of the contracts of several of the Y High School teachers. The letter indicates that the teachers whose contracts were not renewed have been given no satisfactory explanation for the termination.

In view of the fact that the teachers had, for the most part, served in X County for several years, it would certainly appear that, in the absence of a tenure law and in accord with good professional practices, they should receive some explanation.

The Defense Commission in no way tries to defend teachers who have been released because of incompetence, immorality, or other good reasons. It does, however, believe that any teacher who is released is entitled to know the reason and to have been given an opportunity to correct any teaching deficiencies before final action was taken.

We will appreciate an explanation from you of the reasons for the action taken.

Sincerely yours,

Upon receipt of the answer to the letter above, the Commission staff member may then decide to visit the community to ascertain the probable facts and determine whether the teachers involved deserve help.² Perhaps some kind of settlement may be arranged if the teacher appellants seem to have been unjustly treated. If no settlement can be reached through the efforts of the staff member, he will present a report of the situation to the full Commission at one of its three yearly meetings or, if an investigation should be made at once, get the approval of the executive secretary of the Commission and the Commission chairman. As a matter of practice, when time is of the essence, the Commission secretary has full authority to act.

It is not always possible to bring a case to a satisfactory conclusion at the close of an investigation. It must be remembered that the

²It is assumed in this case that the investigation has come through the regular channels--the local association has appealed to the state association and the state to the N. E. A. Defense Commission.

Commission does not have any legal authority and that its decisions are therefore not binding. Then again, a controversy which has embroiled a community is not likely to be cured quickly. Just as social changes come slowly, so do curative measures. It may take a period of years to correct a difficult local situation.

The remainder of this chapter has been divided into two sections, the first discussing unpublished investigations which have attracted some attention and the second section reviewing the published reports of investigations.

UNPUBLISHED DEFENSE INVESTIGATIONS

The cases to be discussed in this section have been listed largely from the thirty-odd issues of the Defense Bulletin and from information supplied by members of the Defense Commission. Unfortunately records of some of the earlier cases were not kept and so the cases presented here do not represent by any means the total number of preliminary inquiries and investigations. There are enough to get some idea of problems faced.

In the presentation which follows the cases have been classified by number according to the type described below:

1. Cases in which a board of education has acted undemocratically.
2. Cases in which a superintendent has acted undemocratically.
3. Cases in which both the superintendent and the board have acted undemocratically.
4. Cases in which an administrative officer other than the superintendent has acted undemocratically.
5. Cases in which a group of teachers have acted undemocratically.
6. Cases in which the public has usurped the powers of the board.
7. Other cases.

It should be pointed out that some of the cases involve one individual and that these today come under the jurisdiction of the Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom rather than the Defense Commission, for a gentleman's agreement has been reached to the effect that the Committee works on cases involving one person and the Commission on cases concerning groups of people.³ This section includes all cases investigated by the Defense Commission, however.

Under Comment is given background facts but not necessarily the solution. Note that cases are kept under advisement sometimes for a period of time. Commission staff members sometimes revisit communities to see what is being done to improve a "sore spot." Merely because it is not possible to say "The case has been successfully closed" does not imply that the inquiry or investigation did not have value. If it did no more than restrain an undemocratic superintendent, board, supervisor, or teacher group, it would have great value. Watchdogs can be of great service to humanity; the Defense Commission serves as the watchdog of the teaching profession.

³Dismissal cases are now referred to the Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom.

UNPUBLISHED DEFENSE CASES

<u>Name of Community</u>	<u>Classification</u>	<u>Year</u>	<u>Comment</u>
Kenosha, Wisconsin	1	1942	Difficulty with school board which discharged several principals and also tried to prevent the local teachers' association from soliciting N. E. A. memberships. Defense Commission representative met with the Kenosha Education Association and the Wisconsin Education Association and representatives. Public opinion was aroused and voters elected a new school board.
Omaha, Nebraska	7	1942	Omaha Teachers Forum, affiliated with the N. E. A., was opposed by taxpayers' organizations when they attempted to get increased tax levy for school support. Defense Commission representative helped plan the campaign. The election resulted in a victory for better schools for Omaha.
Davenport, Iowa	1	1943	Preliminary inquiry made. Local board refused to re-employ superintendent who had served the community for seven years. No statement of reasons for the board's action was given to him. No justifiable cause was found.

UNPUBLISHED DEFENSE CASES

<u>Name of Community</u>	<u>Classification</u>	<u>Year</u>	<u>Comment</u>
Moline, Illinois	1	1945	The superintendent, an N. E. A. member, was discharged. No statement of reasons, and no hearing were given him. Preliminary inquiry indicated that there was no reasonable justification for the action. The spirit and intent of the Illinois Tenure law was violated.
Muskogee, Oklahoma ⁴	1	1945	Kate Frank, a local teacher, was discharged presumably because of her activities as president of the local classroom teachers' association. A fund was set up by the N. E. A. to help her continue her professional activities. Involved in the issue was the question of the rights of teachers to maintain an active, independent classroom teachers' association and to participate in political activities of the community. Two other teachers were not reappointed. One member of the board who was a local political boss said that political reprisal was the reason for the action. This case resulted in a complete victory for Miss Frank, who regained her position.

⁴This case is included here because it was jointly carried on by the Tenure Committee and the Defense Commission. It was printed, but it is a case which is not typical of the investigations reported in the section following this one.

UNPUBLISHED DEFENSE CASES

<u>Name of Community</u>	<u>Classification</u>	<u>Year</u>	<u>Comment</u>
Hot Springs, Arkansas	6	1943	This investigation was made at the request of the Arkansas Education Association. Difficulty centered in alleged political interference in schools. Superintendent Bratcher was discharged for no good reason. Teacher morale low---teachers were told how to vote in elections. Case was dropped.
Syracuse, New York	1, 7	1944	Request for investigation came from the Syracuse Teachers Association, an N. E. A. affiliate. The Commission inquired into the failure of the school board to reappoint Superintendent G. Carl Alverson. Dr. Alverson was given no reasons and just a few weeks' notice. Evidence indicated Mayor and other politicians were active in Dr. Alverson's dismissal because of his opposition to political interference with operation of schools. Dr. Alverson was not given a hearing.

UNPUBLISHED DEFENSE CASES

<u>Name of Community</u>	<u>Classification</u>	<u>Year</u>	<u>Comment</u>
Holman Case, Arizona	7	1944	Arizona Defense Commission, with the approval of the N. E. A. Defense Commission brought suit in connection with the dismissal of Miss Bertha Holman. Challenged was the clause in teachers' contracts providing for cancellation of contract in case of marriage. The school district lost and removed the questionable provision and issued check for Miss Holman's back pay.
Otero Case, Valencia County, New Mexico	1, 7	1945	Mr. Otero, a teacher in the Valencia County schools refused to contribute \$75 and 2 per cent monthly deductions from his pay check to the activities of local politicians. They forced his dismissal and succeeded in obtaining a District Court order favorable to them. With the help of the New Mexico Education Association and the N. E. A., Otero appealed his case to the Supreme Court of New Mexico and won. This was the first instance of the N. E. A.'s participation in a court case in behalf of one of its members. A brief "amicus curiae" was filed.

UNPUBLISHED DEFENSE CASES

<u>Name of Community</u>	<u>Classification</u>	<u>Year</u>	<u>Comment</u>
Shorewood, Wisconsin	1	1944	Dr. Grant Rehn, high school principal, and Homer S. Hemenway, superintendent, were asked to resign despite fact that both were high caliber schoolmen with community support. These cases were turned over to the Tenure Committee, but the Defense Commission investigated when Laura Keller, principal of the Atwater School, resigned in protest against a board ruling which prohibited teachers from engaging in political activities. She accepted a position in another school even though there was every chance of having her restored to her former position. Later two school board members who forced resignations were defeated for re-election to the board.
Las Vegas, New Mexico	1	1946	Five teachers reported to schools in which they had taught the previous year only to find that they had been transferred to other schools 18 to 53 miles away. Reason appeared to be that their political creeds were different from those of new school board members. The teachers sued for breach of contract but none of them received employment in schools that year.

UNPUBLISHED DEFENSE CASES

<u>Name of Community</u>	<u>Classification</u>	<u>Year</u>	<u>Comment</u>
Valley Stream, New York	1	1946	Mrs. Susan Edwards was dismissed after eight years of satisfactory service and no reason was given. The Tenure Committee conducted the preliminary inquiry and the Defense Commission was requested to help also. The Tenure Committee issued a public statement indicating that Mrs. Edwards had a right to have a hearing. She was to have gone on tenure the following autumn as a result of a new law just passed. The board granted Mrs. Edwards' right to a hearing on these conditions: that she ask no questions nor speak in her own defense. The Defense Commission advised her not to appear unless she were allowed to answer charges. She didn't appear. The outcome: Mrs. Edwards took a position in another city.
Cardiner, Maine	7	1947	A school principal was threatened with a law suit by a parent who stated that it was her intention to drive him out of town. The Defense Commission and the Maine Teachers' Association promised support. The disgruntled party took no action but packed up and left town.

UNPUBLISHED DEFENSE CASES

<u>Name of Community</u>	<u>Classification</u>	<u>Year</u>	<u>Comment</u>
Monessen, Pennsylvania	3	1947	The Defense Commission and the Pennsylvania State Education Association were invited to investigate alleged unfair practices in the Monessen schools. A survey was recommended. The visit to Monessen, at first a secret, became public knowledge. Therefore, a statement was issued saying that both groups intended to keep in touch with developments with the possibility of a detailed investigation later. In 1948 the school board adopted a liberal set of regulations for sick leave and other absences. The local association was active, and a committee to evaluate the high school had been appointed.
Lebanon, New Hampshire	3, 5	1947	Mistakes were made by both teachers and the administration. The board refused to deal with a special interest group but agreed to deal with leaders of a newly formed teachers' association. In a statement issued by officers of the local teachers' association, the teachers threatened to resign unless the superintendent was discharged. Teachers, however, signed contracts. The superintendent

UNPUBLISHED DEFENSE CASES

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<u>Name of Community</u>	<u>Classification</u>	<u>Year</u>	<u>Comment</u>
Lebanon, New Hampshire (continued)			issued a statement which was unjustly aimed at a Canadian-born woman, referring to her as an alien and saying, "What happens to democracy when aliens lead a crusade against constituted authority?" The State Superintendent tried to settle the quarrel, but the crisis was not cleared too satisfactorily.
Cambridge, Ohio	1	1947	Mr. Morgan, president of a recently formed local teachers' association, was dismissed with no satisfactory reason. He was accused of insubordination, but no written charges against him were made. His status was never questioned until he began active work in the association for better salaries and teacher welfare. The local association tried to get a hearing but a quorum of the board failed to appear. Mr. Morgan sued to be restored to his position on grounds of a technicality---the board meeting at which the decision to discharge him was reached was held without due notice required by law. He won his case in the lower court. The board appealed, but nothing further was heard from Mr. Morgan, and the assumption is that he was restored to his former position without further trouble. Question arose regarding his tenure

UNPUBLISHED DEFENSE CASES

<u>Name of Community</u>	<u>Classification</u>	<u>Year</u>	<u>Comment</u>
Cambridge, Ohio (continued)			status, for he had failed to secure a certificate which would have entitled him to tenure before his dismissal took place. The Defense Commission took the stand that a teacher of such long acceptable service should be given reasons and a chance to appear before the board.
Natchez, Mississippi	1	1947	Two teachers who had drafted a petition for increased salaries were dismissed. The Commission protested strongly.
Pampa, Texas	1	1947	Two teachers, active in trying to get a raise in salaries, were dismissed. One immediately secured another position. The second teacher, demanding a reason, was told that the board did not like her attitude. The Commission issued a strong protest.

UNPUBLISHED DEFENSE CASES

<u>Name of Community</u>	<u>Classification</u>	<u>Year</u>	<u>Comment</u>
Buffalo, New York	2	1948	<p>Problem in this city arose in connection with the virtual suspension of a Miss Dushane at first for "un-American activity" and then, cleared of that charge, for incompetency. Principal Costello and Superintendent Bapst brought the latter charge against her. As a result she was forced to take a "sick-leave." A local attorney worked on the case and had her restored to the school system along with her back pay. Charges against Superintendent Bapst were later made by the Buffalo Public Education Association, which accused him of bringing politics into the school system in making appointments, etc. The Defense Commission recommended a survey of the Buffalo schools by an outside group.</p>

While it might be interesting to summarize the classification of cases to find out which types occurred most frequently, in all fairness there are too few cases from which to draw a significant conclusion. Purely for the sake of curiosity, the reader may note that the first and seventh classifications had the highest frequency of occurrence. Perhaps school boards could be expected to top the list in view of the existence of weak leadership which often appears in situations requiring investigations.

PUBLISHED DEFENSE INVESTIGATIONS

The published investigations discussed in this section are six in number and will be described in chronological order beginning with the New York report issued in February 1944. It will not be possible within the scope of one chapter (nor would it be worthwhile) to give full details. The interested reader may secure copies of the reports of investigations by writing to the Commission at N. E. A. Headquarters. Behind the writing of each report are hundreds of letters, statements, and newspaper clippings--all of which play a part in gaining a complete picture of the local controversy and steps taken to solve it.

What the reader should be particularly concerned with is the reaffirmation of the principles and practices set up by the profession and the development and application of principles which further strengthen teaching and the rights of teachers as citizens of the United States. In reference to the latter statement educators are only too well aware of the restrictions unfairly imposed upon teachers in many of the communities of this country. Little effort by the profession as a whole had been made prior to the establishment of the N. E. A. Tenure

Committee and the N. E. A. Defense Commission to fight for the professional rights of teachers.

Interference with the Independence of the New York City Board of Education (February 1944). In July 1943, the Defense Commission received requests from the Kindergarten-6B Teachers Association and the New York City High School Teachers Association to investigate Mayor LaGuardia's "interference with and dictation to the Board of Education of the City of New York in its administration of the schools."⁵

Specific cases were presented as examples of the Mayor's interference. Mr. Theodore Fred Kuper was discharged by abolishing his position despite protests of the action by Superintendent Wade. The investigating committee believed that the Mayor took this step because Mr. Kuper was close to Board Member Marshall who was out of favor with the Mayor, because Mr. Kuper advocated a board of education financially independent, and because Mr. Kuper was believed by the Mayor to have opposed the "Supply Bill" favored by LaGuardia. (This bill would have placed all school purchasing under the city Purchase Department.)

Injustice was done by the Mayor in the case of Miss Truda T. Weil. He directed the Budget Director not to pay her salary even after she had been fully approved by the Board of Education. Political reasons appeared to dictate this action by the Mayor, but he finally relented when, according to the investigating committee's opinion, it appeared that Miss Weil would win her suit for salary.

⁵Report of an Investigation: Interferences with the Independence of the New York City Board of Education, National Education Association, Washington, D. C., February 1944, p. 5.

In the case of Mr. Mark Starr the Mayor appeared to be using a subterfuge in refusing to appoint him to the newly created position of Director of Adult Education. Despite protests Mr. Starr was not appointed.

The cases of Mulry, Brennan, and Wilhousky were further examples of mayoral interference. Their salaries were ordered withheld and were restored only when the Mayor was made to realize that he would lose the suit the three men had brought against him.

The Moffatt Bill was introduced by LaGuardia to transfer from the New York Board of Education to the Mayor and the Board of Estimate full control over the salaries and appointments of administrative employees of the Board of Education. The bill was never voted on.

Despite a statement by Mayor LaGuardia in 1941 that permanent employees of the teaching staff would not be dismissed, he reversed this position in 1942 and stated that 399 teachers would be released in 1943. He influenced the Bureau of the Budget to reduce the Board of Education budget by over \$3,000,000. The plan to discharge 399 teachers failed, but 40 permanent employees were dismissed despite more than sufficient funds to pay their salaries.

A summary of the findings was presented on page 30:

The Mayor has dealt with the Board of Education as a city department in numerous instances, only a few of which need to be cited:

1. The striking out of the salary of the law secretary from the budget;
2. Withholding the salaries of Miss Weil, Miss Brennan, Mr. Axtell, and Mr. Mulry;
3. Prohibiting the Board from making personal service appointments without a certificate from the Budget Director;
4. Prohibiting the installation of new telephones;

5. Forbidding the granting of sabbatical leaves to clerks, library assistants and laboratory assistants;
6. Ordering that ten attendance officer vacancies not be filled in 1942-43.⁶

The investigating committee recommended that legislation be passed by the State of New York granting increased state aid to New York City schools and giving fiscal independence to the New York City Board of Education. The citizens of New York, in the absence of such legislation, should oppose moves on the part of the Board of Education to surrender to the will of the city administration.

Certain Personnel Practices in the Chicago Public Schools (May 1945).

This investigation, which began in November 1944 and ended in May 1945, came at the request of numerous civic and educational organizations, culminating in one from the N. E. A. Executive Committee after that group had made a study of the number of complaints. Attempts were made to get the cooperation of the Chicago Superintendent, Dr. William H. Johnson, and also the Board of Education in conducting the inquiry, but all records of the Chicago schools which were not published were withheld and the members of the investigating committee were barred from visiting the schools. This action by the Superintendent and the Board caused much criticism publicly and the former's attitude became even more defensive when he refused to meet the committee in a conference.

Since this report is a lengthy one, sixty-six pages in all, and covers many individual cases, each one of which would justify a separate investigation, only a brief summary of the undemocratic practices will

⁶Ibid., p. 30.

be given here.

Evidence was presented to the committee that Dr. Johnson maintained a spy system in the Chicago Teachers College, forbade criticism of the public schools in its classes, played favorites in making teaching appointments, and secured teaching certificates for students who were doing falling work. When Dr. John De Boer, an instructor at the College, openly attacked the Superintendent for substituting a course of study not approved by the faculty for the accepted progressive course of study already approved by accrediting agencies, he was transferred to a junior college.

Further accounts of unjustifiable transfers on the part of the Superintendent and the Board were presented in the report. In one case a highly competent college instructor was demoted to teaching the third grade in an elementary school. Along with the demotion went a sizable reduction in salary. The reason for the action appeared to be the failure of this outstanding teacher to be subservient to the McCahey-Johnson machine. (President of the Board was James B. McCahey.)

Despite an Illinois law that a school officer may not sell his own books or books in which he has a financial interest to his own school system, Dr. Johnson adopted a long list of books carrying his name as author or co-author. They covered a number of fields in which Dr. Johnson had not taught. In the investigating committee's opinion Dr. Johnson violated the code of ethics of the teaching profession. Because of this alleged misdeedmanor and others, Dr. Johnson was invited to appear before the N. E. A. Ethics Committee and state his case. He failed to do so and was removed from membership in the National Education Association.

The committee found evidence that Board meetings were carried on by such undemocratic methods as passing motions and reports in one group, allowing no time for discussion, and giving no opportunity for a citizen to get information. Evidence of dishonesty, political influence, and other unfair practices (eleven in all) were presented.

Under "General Findings" the committee mentioned the low morale among teachers which had been caused by injurious personnel practices, the bad reputation of the Chicago school system, the responsibility of Superintendent Johnson, the Board president and the Board members, and Mayor Edward J. Kelly for the conditions which had brought about the low position which the Chicago schools reached.

A series of recommendations were made: the selection of a competent superintendent who should serve as executive officer of the Board of Education, restriction of the duties of the Board president to leadership in the policy-making function, open conduct of the business of the Board, correction of injustices to individual teachers, elimination of dishonest employees, a thorough investigation by the Governor of Illinois or the Legislature of the operation and management of the Chicago schools during the Johnson regime, and correction of a number of defects in the Otis law.⁷

This report by the N. E. A. Defense Commission was an important factor in arousing public indignation in Chicago and thereby cleaning up a bad situation. Forty high schools were placed on a year's probation by the North Central Accrediting Association. Mayor Kelly

⁷Report of an Investigation: Certain Personnel Practices in the Chicago Public Schools. National Education Association, Washington, D. C., February 1944, p. 5.

tried to ignore the school situation, but was finally forced to appoint a Mayor's Committee on the Public Schools.

Magazine editorials such as the article by Melburn P. Akers in The Nation stirred up public opinion so greatly that finally the Johnson-McCahey machine and Ed Kelly were put out of power by indignant citizens.⁸

In describing the conclusion of the Chicago case in his report at the Buffalo Convention, Dr. Alonzo Myers, Chairman of the Commission, said:

The great victory for education that has been won in Chicago disclosed to many persons, including the Chicago political machine, the real strength of a united teaching profession whose reports could not be bought off or scared off. It also disclosed the importance of facts in discrediting rottenness and corruption. Perhaps most important of all, it disclosed that people can be counted on to act decisively once the true nature of the situation is disclosed to them. That is exactly what the people of Chicago have been doing ever since our report was issued. Our Commission is the investigating committee; it is the people of Chicago that are engaged right now in cleaning up that rottenness.⁹

McCook, Nebraska--An Example of Some Effects of Undemocratic School Administration in a Small Community (March 1947). When the McCook School Board dismissed three teachers without cause, the latter appealed to the Defense Commission for help. With the cooperation of the Nebraska State Education Association and later at the request of the McCook School Board, the investigation began.

That the community was aroused was evidenced by a student strike, mass meetings, and petitions protesting the action of the Board and demanding the resignation of Superintendent Leonard A. Larson. Four

⁸Defense Bulletin No. 17, pp. 2-3, quoted from The Nation, April 13, 1946.

⁹Addresses and Proceedings of the National Education Association, Vol. 83 and 84, 1945-46, pp. 180-181.

teachers, sympathetic to the dismissed teachers and indignant at the Board's action, submitted their resignations.

Each of the teachers dismissed had had a good record in the community and was highly regarded by students and parents. In each case the Superintendent gave no statement of dissatisfaction, afforded no opportunity for a hearing before the Board, and violated fair practices in dealing with teachers.

The report charged Superintendent Larson with neglect of duty, unprofessional and unethical conduct, unjust treatment of teachers, unreasonable treatment of students, careless handling of emergency situations, and failure to follow good administrative procedures.¹⁰

Among the eleven charges against the School Board were unjust dismissal of teachers, showing contempt for public opinion as indicated by their treatment of the Citizens Committee and petitions from citizens, frustrating public attempts to improve the school situation, and keeping the public ignorant of school affairs.¹¹

Recommendations were as follows:

1. Strengthen school board membership.
2. Employ an efficient superintendent of schools.
3. Organize a strong local teachers' association.
4. Reappoint dismissed teachers.
5. Develop better school public relations.
6. Seek better teacher tenure provisions.
7. Improve the supervision of the elementary schools.
8. Put democracy to work.¹²

¹⁰McCook Report, p. 22.

¹¹Ibid., p. 24.

¹²Ibid., pp. 25-27.

Before the investigating committee completed its task, Superintendent Larson had resigned.

North College Hill, Ohio--An Example of Some Effects of Board of Education Interference with Sound Administration of Public Education (November 1947). When Dr. William A. Cook, Superintendent of Schools of North College Hill, Ohio, was dismissed by the local school board, the Ohio Education Association appealed to the N. E. A. for an investigation of the situation.

A preliminary inquiry revealed that this dismissal had aroused the community to a fever heat--high school pupils were on strike, the local teachers' association condemned the board's action, and 28 of the 29 teachers had submitted their resignations to take effect at the close of the school year. A taxpayer's action had been brought against the board, and no compromise with the board appeared likely.

The crux of the controversy was Dr. Cook's refusal to nominate for reinstatement a principal who had been demoted for cause by a previous board and also his unwillingness to turn over all teacher applications for the board to review before he made his nominations. Dr. Cook carefully checked the Ohio laws when his authority as a superintendent was challenged, and there was little question concerning the intent of the law. A man with less courage might have surrendered to the North College Hill Board, but Dr. Cook refused to turn over his legal right to recommend candidates. As a result he was charged by the Board with insubordination.

The background situation was very much complicated by sectarian issues, largely because a Catholic elementary school had been incorporated into the public school system. This arrangement, which had been in effect some years before Dr. Cook had become superintendent, was voted in

again by the new Catholic majority Board elected in November 1945. The superintendent cooperated with this plan subject to certain conditions which were fulfilled.

A real crisis was reached when the three man Catholic majority of the Board refused to reinstate Dr. Cook as superintendent. At one Board meeting with the public present, two of the adamant members were injured. The situation was not solved, however, until the National Education Association and the Ohio Education Association issued a joint statement disclosing that the North College Hill school system was "one in which no professional teacher could carry on his work successfully or happily."

Teachers were asked in this statement not to accept a position in the North College Hill school system "as long as it remained under the domination of the present Board of Education majority," and administrators were urged to "give preference to applications for positions to the teachers from North College Hill who have set such a fine example of high professional conduct."

Under this pressure the Board of Education finally resigned, the schools coming under the jurisdiction of the Probate Court which promptly renewed Dr. Cook's contract for another three years.

The North College Hill case is a good illustration of the principle that school boards must be responsible to the electorate, and it points up what may happen to a community if incompetent, narrow-minded persons are elected to an office which carries great responsibility.

In terms of its significance to the profession it is not an overstatement to say that, of all the cases investigated by the Commission, the North College Hill Case has had the most far-reaching results and attracted the most attention. This report was rated second by Pathfinder

Magazine in its list of the ten most important accomplishments in education in 1947.

Chandler, Arizona--An Example of the Need for Fair Dismissal Procedures (October 1948). Shortly after five teachers of the Chandler school system were notified on March 8, 1948, that their contracts would not be renewed for the following year, the Arizona Defense Commission and the Arizona Education Association appealed to the N. E. A. Defense Commission to make an investigation.

The controversy came about through the efforts of the newly organized Chandler Classroom Teachers Association to negotiate a salary schedule. When the Board amended a proposed schedule by the teachers, the latter rejected it. The Board then said that negotiations were at an end and that all teachers wishing to be considered for re-election must so indicate by 5 p.m. on March 24. This action, regarded by teachers as an ultimatum, led to a public meeting. The superintendent regarded some of the remarks made by teachers as "personal, vindictive attacks against the Board." (Page 11) The community became divided on the school issue and the lines of division became even sharper with the fall election of 1947 when Mr. Rowe's term as president of the Board expired. An opposing candidate was sponsored by a citizens' group which the Salary Committee Chairman and four other teachers joined, but Mr. Rowe was returned to office by a substantial majority.

On March 8 the five teachers, four of whom denied taking any active part in the election, received notice without warning or explanation that their contracts for the next school year would not be renewed. A wave of fear swept over local teachers and attendance at the Classroom Teachers Association meetings dropped markedly. When a vote was taken

for the new salary schedule set up for 1948-49, teachers did not respond--an atmosphere of submission appeared to prevail.

There was no chance of healing the breach, for the Board refused to reconsider its action and the five teachers were determined not to return under any circumstances. Conferences with the Superintendent and Board President Rowe indicated that they should have had fairer methods of dealing with personnel. This precipitate action was justified by the Board on the grounds of community disunity.

The real issue raised by the investigators in this case was the violation of good school administrative procedures--while the Board's action in the absence of a tenure law was legal, its methods and procedures were unfair and unjust to the teachers concerned.

The Classroom Teachers Association made some real contributions in securing increased salaries. Its leadership failed to develop a spirit of unity, however. The report concluded with a recommendation for a statewide tenure law. Today Arizona has a tenure law, and it is generally conceded by Arizona teachers that the Chandler report paved the way for this necessary legislation.

Grand Prairie, Texas--A Case Involving the Civil Rights of Teachers and the Ethical Responsibilities of Boards of Education (September 1949). In April 1949, the Board of Trustees of Grand Prairie, Texas, refused to renew the contracts of five experienced teachers who had had many years of service in that school system.

An investigation by the Defense Commission at the request of the Texas State Teachers Association was conducted in May. The Board, which had on a previous occasion attempted to prevent teachers from taking part in school trustee elections, had rescinded this action when a storm of

protest descended upon it from educational leaders all over Texas.

The refusal of the Board to renew the contracts of the five teachers went counter to the recommendations of the superintendent. No reason for the Board's action was given, nor could any statement for the action taken be had from it. A cross section of the people in Grand Prairie declared that the Board had taken the step because the teachers concerned had participated in a school board election. Many citizens felt that the action taken was an attempt by the Board to break up the newly organized local teachers' association.

As in the Chandler case, the absence of a state tenure law left competent, professional teachers open to the whims of a local school board, which exercised its powers legally but with little concern for the rights of teachers. In Grand Prairie the civil rights of teachers as citizens was the principle at stake.

The foreword of the Grand Prairie report states this principle in language which caught the attention of the press and educational leaders everywhere:

In a totalitarian state, the complete control of a teacher's mind, as of the mind of every other subject-slave, is a number-one objective of government. In the United States, where the first duty of every teacher in the public educational system, from the nursery class to the university graduate school, is the development of free, intelligent, honorable, and courageous citizenship, and where every teacher is his own chief instrument of instruction by virtue of his own character and example, it is unthinkable that a schoolboard should seek to exercise political thought-control over the members of its professional staff.

The Board took no action to restore the dismissed teachers to their former positions, nor did it follow any of the recommendations presented. It is hoped, however, that the report, which has been widely circulated in Texas as well as elsewhere, will lead to a statewide

tenure law.

CONCLUSIONS

Investigations involve working in many local situations. By the time the Commission's services are requested, the explosion has generally taken place with all the accompanying factors of bitterness, rival factions, heartbreak, legal action, etc. Under such conditions the Commission cannot expect that a happy solution will immediately follow an investigation.

What then is accomplished? In the first place, a clean bill of "professional health" can be given to teachers unjustly dismissed. The Commission can point to the fact that these teachers have sacrificed their personal welfare for the sake of the profession and can recommend that they be given prior consideration in filling vacancies. In the second place, professional principles are reasserted. Thirdly, violations of fair practices are exposed. School boards, responsible to the community, do not welcome unfavorable publicity. If they are inclined to overstep their responsibilities, the fact that the teaching profession has a commission which will enter into the local situation if conditions warrant such action, is a deterrent, a potential threat in their minds. Finally, protection given to teachers in one community is protection rendered to teachers everywhere. No professionally-minded teacher, who is alert, can afford to have the attitude, "It can't happen here," for it most certainly can. Many people, including some teachers, ridicule the idea of teaching as a profession. At the present time there may be some basis for their arguments, so far as practices go. But when teachers everywhere become strong in defense of their professional rights and act as one in condemning undemocratic practices against their

fellow-educators, they will be a profession in every sense of the word. Furthermore, it is up to teacher groups to govern their own members if they are to be referred to as a profession, this being the counterpart to the idea expressed in the previous sentence.

On the preventive side the reports of investigations can have value. Teachers in local situations which begin to take on an ominous appearance may learn much from the mistakes made by others. In an article entitled "Before the Conflagration Starts," Lucile Willson lists the advice of those who have worked for decades with teacher groups:

Get together.
Keep an objective point of view.
Don't expect to win everything in one year, so
don't be afraid to take some gains and to compromise.
Study cases that may have application for yours.
Learn all the applied psychology you can.
If you feel you must have outside help, seek it
progressively from your local association, your
state association, your national association.¹⁵

It will be a good day when local teachers' associations, seeing the dark spot on the local educational horizon growing larger, will take immediate steps. Why not call for assistance from state and national associations before minor difficulties become serious problems?

¹⁵Lucile Willson, "Before the Conflagration Starts," Journal of the National Education Association, Washington, D. C., 39: 808, March 1949.

CHAPTER V

OBSTACLES TO HARMONIOUS RELATIONSHIPS AMONG TEACHERS, SUPERINTENDENTS, BOARDS OF EDUCATION, PRINCIPALS AND OTHER ADMINISTRATORS

A questionnaire seeking the considered opinions of presidents of local teachers' associations affiliated with the National Education Association was sent out on May 1, 1950, to the leaders of the 3513 groups listed in the N. E. A. files. (See Appendix I for questionnaire and accompanying letter.) Since the nature of this research is necessarily of the opinion variety, it was important to secure the most carefully weighed opinions. For this reason teacher leaders--who in all likelihood have worked for a considerable time in their respective communities, who command the respect of their colleagues, who are in a favorable position to see and comprehend the forces which sometimes cause tensions among teachers and administrators--were selected as the persons most likely to give accurate information.

Of the 3515 questionnaires sent, 1238 were returned. The latter figure represents 35 per cent of the total number sent out. Undoubtedly the nature of the questionnaire had some bearing upon the fact that fewer than 50 per cent returns were received. Despite the statement in the questionnaire indicating that no signature was necessary and that names of places and individuals could be omitted, the element of fear probably caused many recipients to refrain from filling it out. Through checking postal marks on envelopes, it was found that every state in the nation as well as Hawaii and Alaska was represented among the returns.

The purpose in sending the questionnaire was to secure information regarding the obstacles to harmonious relationships among teachers,

administrators, and boards of education. Questions relating to size of community, sources of tensions, type of school board, complaints, critical local situations, teacher morale, and the extent to which board meetings are open to teachers and to the public were included. Since one important phase of the Defense Commission's program is to prevent undemocratic situations from developing, the interrelationship of the factors above should be helpful in locating "sore" spots. From these "sore" spots the Commission should be able to shape its program more effectively in guiding teacher groups to steer clear of pitfalls and to build harmonious relationships among staff members.

It should be pointed out that the results must be interpreted (1) as opinions and (2) as probable causes. One cannot emphasize too strongly that the results must be understood in the light of opinions, and opinions are not facts.

Results of the questionnaire have been classified into six class sizes of population ranging from communities below 2500 people to those with 500,000 and over. This chapter presents tables covering all those classifications of types of communities in one combined total. To get the breakdown of the total for each of the classifications--cities, counties, and "all other types"--please refer to the correspondingly numbered tables in Appendix II.

The three-fold categories used in the questionnaire--cities, counties, and "all other types"--have been found by the Research Division of the National Education Association to be most practicable in gathering data of this kind because of the many diverse types of administrative units in the United States. Suppose, for example, that one of the categories had been "town." Groups in New England would understand the

term as it applied to a school district, but in the Middle West the word would have to be "township" to convey any meaning. Because this questionnaire was sent to every state and territory of the United States, it was necessary to use the simple classification described above.

Table I presents the total number of cities, counties, and "all other types" reporting. Note that the greatest number of returns came from communities having a population range of from 5000 to 24,999. In cities and counties a large number of returns came from places having a population range between 25,000 and 99,999. In "all other types," however, the 2500 - 4999 range had the second highest number of returns. Note that cities had nearly three times the number of returns which counties and "all other types" had.

The following sections present an analysis of the tables and diagrams included therein. After each table is analyzed in broad terms, a general conclusion is drawn.

CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS

Elected and Appointed Boards as a Factor. Table II is an answer to the question "Do elected boards have more critical local situations than appointed boards do?" Fifty-five out of 194 appointed boards in communities having that type of board reported critical local situations. Two hundred and eighty-three out of 1031 elected board communities indicated critical local situations. In Table II-A percentages are given, showing that for all practical interpretive purposes there are just as many crises in communities with appointed boards as in communities with elected boards (28% and 27% respectively). If cities, counties, and

TABLE I
NUMBER OF CITIES, COUNTIES, AND "ALL OTHER TYPES"
OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS OF DIFFERENT CLASS SIZES
OF POPULATION

CLASS SIZE OF POPULATION	CITIES	COUNTIES	ALL OTHER TYPES	TOTAL
1. BELOW 2,500	37	48	37	122
2. BETWEEN 2,500-4,999	53	31	58	142
3. BETWEEN 5,000-24,999	313	99	117	529
4. BETWEEN 25,000-99,999	218	63	23	304
5. BET. 100,000-499,999	70	16	6	92
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	31	2	1	34
7. UNCLASSIFIED	3	6	6	15
8. TOTAL	725	265	248	1,238

TABLE II

NUMBER OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS IN SCHOOL SYSTEMS
WITH APPOINTED BOARDS AND WITH ELECTED BOARDS

CITIES, COUNTIES, AND "ALL OTHER TYPES"	NUMBER OF APPOINTED BOARDS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS	NUMBER OF ELECTED BOARDS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS
1. BELOW 2,500	16	6	106	23
2. BETWEEN 2,500 - 4,999	16	4	124	35
3. BETWEEN 5,000 - 24,999	68	15	456	115
4. BETWEEN 25,000 - 99,999	60	20	240	73
5. BETWEEN 100,000 - 499,999	19	5	71	23
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	12	4	22	10
7. UNCLASSIFIED	3	1	12	4
8. TOTAL	194	55	1,031	283

TABLE II-A

(PERCENTAGES)

CITIES, COUNTIES, AND "ALL OTHER TYPES"	NUMBER OF APPOINTED BOARDS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS	NUMBER OF ELECTED BOARDS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS
1. BELOW 2,500	1.00	.38	1.00	.22
2. BETWEEN 2,500 - 4,999	1.00	.25	1.00	.28
3. BETWEEN 5,000 - 24,999	1.00	.22	1.00	.25
4. BETWEEN 25,000 - 99,999	1.00	.33	1.00	.30
5. BETWEEN 100,000 - 499,999	1.00	.26	1.00	.32
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	1.00	.33	1.00	.45
7. UNCLASSIFIED	1.00	.33	1.00	.33
8. TOTAL	1.00	.28	1.00	.27

"all other types" are considered separately, there appears to be a somewhat different interpretation. In cities, 33 out of 113 appointed boards, or 29%, indicated critical situations; 157 out of 606 elected boards, or 26%, reported local crises. In counties 23% of the appointed and 31% of the elected boards reported critical situations. In "all other types" 50% of the appointed and 28% of the elected boards had critical situations. (Note, however, that only 12 appointed boards were listed in "all other types.")

Conclusion: To reiterate the idea expressed above, one may safely conclude from these tables that, whether a board be appointed or elected, the number of critical local situations appears to be the same for all communities; that while there are differences among cities, counties, and "all other types," the differences in the cases of cities and counties are small. In "all other types" the elected board appears to have a definite advantage over the appointed board.

Size of School Boards as a Factor. Table III gives an answer to the question "Does the size of the school board appear to have any relationship to the number of critical local situations?" Twenty-six out of 108 communities having boards with fewer than five members (24%) reported critical local situations; 270 out of 963 communities with boards having from five to seven members (28%) reported local crises; 54 out of 161 communities with boards larger than seven members (34%) indicated local crises. As one may observe from Table III-A, there is considerable variation in the percentages for the different class-sizes of population. The range in communities having boards with fewer than five members is from 21% to 36%; in communities having boards of from five to seven members it is from 25% to 44%; in communities having boards of more than seven members it is from 27% to 50%.

TABLE III

NUMBER OF CASES OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS IN
SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN RELATION TO SIZE OF SCHOOL BOARDS

CITIES, COUNTIES, AND "ALL OTHER TYPES"	FEWER THAN 5 MEMBERS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL SITUATIONS	FROM 5 TO 7 MEMBERS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL SITUATIONS	MORE THAN 7 MEMBERS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL SITUATIONS
1. BELOW 2,500	33	7	82	21	6	
2. BETWEEN 2,500 - 4,999	19	4	109	29	14	6
3. BETWEEN 5,000 - 24,999	44	11	433	108	49	13
4. BETWEEN 25,000 - 99,999	11	4	235	81	56	18
5. BETWEEN 100,000 - 499,999			75	20	17	9
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	1		16	7	17	7
7. UNCLASSIFIED			13	4	2	1
8. TOTAL	108	26	963	270	161	54

TABLE III-A

(PERCENTAGES)

CITIES, COUNTIES, AND "ALL OTHER TYPES"	FEWER THAN 5 MEMBERS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL SITUATIONS	FROM 5 TO 7 MEMBERS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL SITUATIONS	MORE THAN 7 MEMBERS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL SITUATIONS
1. BELOW 2,500	1.00	.21	1.00	.26	1.00	
2. BETWEEN 2,500 - 4,999	1.00	.21	1.00	.27	1.00	.43
3. BETWEEN 5,000 - 24,999	1.00	.25	1.00	.25	1.00	.27
4. BETWEEN 25,000 - 99,999	1.00	.36	1.00	.34	1.00	.32
5. BETWEEN 100,000 - 499,999	1.00		1.00	.27	1.00	.43
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	1.00		1.00	.44	1.00	.41
7. UNCLASSIFIED	1.00		1.00	.31	1.00	.50
8. TOTAL	1.00	.24	1.00	.29	1.00	.34

If cities, counties, and "all other types" are considered separately, the percentages in the three class-sizes do not follow the general trend indicated in Table III. Cities, considered alone, show the least number of critical local situations (27%) in communities with boards having from five to seven members. Counties and "all other types," each taken separately, show the least number of local crises in communities with fewer than five members (19% and 17% respectively).

Conclusion: Taking all communities together, results indicate that there are more local crises in communities with boards having from five to seven members than in those with boards of fewer than five members. Moreover, there are a greater number of critical situations in communities with boards of more than seven members than in places having boards of from five to seven members. Cities, however, which outnumber counties and "all other types" three to one, have the least number of local crises when boards have from five to seven members.

Tenure and Non-Tenure as Factors. Do school systems having

tenure have fewer local critical situations than those having continuing contracts? Fewer than those having no tenure? Fewer than those having some other arrangement?

Table IV presents actual figures and Table IV-A gives the same figures in percentages. Six hundred and twenty-three tenure communities reported 183 critical situations, or 29%; 252 communities with provisions for the continuing contract had 56 local crises, or 22%; 380 non-tenure communities reported 92 crises, or 29%; and 21 communities having some "other arrangement" indicated 8 critical situations, or 38%.

TABLE IV
NUMBER OF CASES OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS IN
SCHOOL SYSTEMS HAVING, RESPECTIVELY, TENURE, CON-
TINUING CONTRACTS, NO TENURE, AND "OTHER ARRANGEMENT"

CITIES, COUNTIES, AND "ALL OTHER TYPES"	TENURE	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	CONTINU- ING CONTRACTS	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	NO TENURE	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	OTHER ARRANGE- MENT	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	NO RESPONSE
1. BELOW 2,500	35	9	31	4	52	14	2	1	2
BETWEEN									
2. 2,500 - 4,999	54	11	30	7	54	19	2	1	2
BETWEEN									
3. 5,000 - 24,999	276	75	101	26	130	29	8	4	14
BETWEEN									
4. 25,000 - 99,999	164	56	68	14	63	21	8	2	1
BETWEEN									
5. 100,000 - 499,999	60	20	14	4	14	3	1		3
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	25	10	6	1	3	3			
7. UNCLASSIFIED	9	2	2		4	3			
8. TOTAL	623	183	252	56	320	92	21	8	22

TABLE IV-A
NUMBER OF CASES OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS IN
SCHOOL SYSTEMS HAVING, RESPECTIVELY, TENURE, CON-
TINUING CONTRACTS, NO TENURE, AND "OTHER ARRANGEMENT"

CITIES, COUNTIES, AND "ALL OTHER TYPES"	TENURE	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	CONTINU- ING CONTRACTS	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	NO TENURE	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	OTHER ARRANGE- MENT	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	NO RESPONSE
1. BELOW 2,500	1.00	.26	1.00	.13	1.00	.27	1.00	.50	
2. BETWEEN 2,500 - 4,999	1.00	.20	1.00	.23	1.00	.35	1.00	.50	
3. BETWEEN 5,000 - 24,999	1.00	.27	1.00	.26	1.00	.22	1.00	.50	
4. BETWEEN 25,000 - 99,999	1.00	.34	1.00	.21	1.00	.33	1.00	.25	
5. BETWEEN 100,000 - 499,999	1.00	.33	1.00	.28	1.00	.21			
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	1.00	.40	1.00	.17	1.00	1.00			
7. UNCLASSIFIED	1.00	.22	1.00		1.00	.75			
8. TOTAL	1.00	.29	1.00	.22	1.00	.29	1.00	.38	

If the 623 tenure communities are added to the 252 continuing contract communities, it will be noted that together they have 87% of the local crises in comparison to 89% for the non-tenure systems.

If the figures for cities, counties, and "all other types" are examined separately, the tenure systems appear to have fewer critical situations than non-tenure ones in cities and "all other types." In counties the reverse is true, the non-tenure systems reporting 25% local crises while the tenure systems had 30%.

Conclusion: In general, there is not a sufficient percentage difference in systems having tenure and no tenure in regard to critical local situations to indicate that tenure systems have fewer local crises than do non-tenure systems. Systems with continuing contracts definitely report fewer local crises than do tenure and non-tenure communities. A reasonably safe conclusion is that critical local situations are problems which appear in communities despite the existence of tenure laws. An important item to take into account is the fact that many school systems without tenure have virtually established it through the development of excellent codes of fair employment practices. It should not be concluded that the figures justify those educationists who oppose tenure legislation. But to those who work in the area of defending teachers and correcting local crises the results should indicate that merely getting a tenure law passed is no guarantee that local crises will be cut down in number or eliminated altogether.

OPEN BOARD MEETINGS

The Public and Board of Education Meetings. Is education closer to the people with elected boards than with appointed boards? Table V shows a comparison of the extent to which board meetings are open to the public with appointed boards and with elected boards. Fifty-four out of 194 appointed boards, or 28%, indicated always, but 450 out of 1031 elected boards, or 44%, stated the same. This is a significant percentage difference in favor of elected boards.¹ Eighty-one out of 194 appointed boards, or 42%, in comparison to 371 out of 1031 elected boards, or 36%, indicated sometimes. In the never column, however, 25% of the appointed boards were listed, whereas only 16% of the elected boards were so listed.

Note also the variations in percentages among the different class-sizes of population. Communities in the 5000 - 24,999 group and in the 25,000 - 99,999 class-size, which are the most numerous, show a distinct advantage for the elected board.

An examination of cities, counties, and "all other types" separately indicates that the elected board is definitely more open to the public than is the appointed board.

Conclusion: There can be little doubt that in all types and class-sizes of communities the elected board meetings are more frequently open to the public than are the appointed board meetings.

Teachers and Board of Education Meetings. A comparison of the extent to which teachers attend board meetings when boards are appointed

¹See Appendix III.

TABLE V
COMPARISON OF EXTENT TO WHICH BOARD MEETINGS
ARE OPEN TO THE PUBLIC WITH APPOINTED BOARDS
AND WITH ELECTED BOARDS

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A. APPOINTED BOARDS

CITIES, COUNTIES AND "ALL OTHER TYPES"	NUMBER OF APPOINTED BOARDS	ALWAYS	SOMETIMES	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. BELOW 2,500	16	5	7	3	1
BETWEEN					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	16	5	9	2	
BETWEEN					
3. 5,000-24,999	68	13	20	24	3
BETWEEN					
4. 25,000-99,999	60	17	26	14	3
BETWEEN					
5. 100,000-499,999	19	8	6	2	3
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	12	6	5	1	
7. UNCLASSIFIED	3			2	1
8. TOTAL	194	54	81	43	11

B. ELECTED BOARDS

CITIES, COUNTIES, AND "ALL OTHER TYPES"	NUMBER OF ELECTED BOARDS	ALWAYS	SOMETIMES	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. BELOW 2,500	106	38	37	24	7
BETWEEN					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	124	45	38	36	5
BETWEEN					
3. 5,000-24,999	456	189	171	75	21
BETWEEN					
4. 25,000-99,999	240	122	88	22	8
BETWEEN					
5. 100,000-499,999	71	40	23	5	3
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	22	12	10		
7. UNCLASSIFIED	12	4	4	4	
8. TOTAL	1,031	450	371	166	44

TABLE V-A
COMPARISON OF EXTENT TO WHICH BOARD MEETINGS
ARE OPEN TO THE PUBLIC WITH APPOINTED BOARDS
AND WITH ELECTED BOARDS

A. APPOINTED BOARDS
(PERCENTAGES)

CITIES, COUNTIES AND "ALL OTHER TYPES"	NUMBER OF APPOINTED BOARDS	ALWAYS	SOMETIMES	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. BELOW 2,500	1.00	.31	.44	.19	.06
BETWEEN					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	1.00	.31	.56	.13	
BETWEEN					
3. 5,000-24,999	1.00	.19	.41	.35	.04
BETWEEN					
4. 25,000-99,999	1.00	.28	.43	.23	.05
BETWEEN					
5. 100,000-499,999	1.00	.42	.32	.11	.16
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	1.00	.50	.42	.08	
7. UNCLASSIFIED	1.00			.67	.33
8. TOTAL	1.00	.28	.42	.25	.06

B. ELECTED BOARDS
(PERCENTAGES)

CITIES, COUNTIES AND "ALL OTHER TYPES"	NUMBER OF ELECTED BOARDS	ALWAYS	SOMETIMES	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. BELOW 2,500	1.00	.36	.35	.23	.07
BETWEEN					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	1.00	.36	.31	.29	.04
BETWEEN					
3. 5,000-24,999	1.00	.41	.38	.16	.05
BETWEEN					
4. 25,000-99,999	1.00	.51	.37	.09	.03
BETWEEN					
5. 100,000-499,999	1.00	.56	.32	.07	.04
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	1.00	.55	.45		
7. UNCLASSIFIED	1.00	.33	.33	.33	
8. TOTAL	1.00	.44	.36	.16	.04

and when they are elected is presented in Tables VI and VI-A. These results are comparable to those of Tables V and V-A. Thirteen per cent of the elected boards indicate that teachers regularly attend board meetings whereas only 9% of the appointed boards so indicate. Only 34% of the elected boards stated never whereas 40% of the appointed boards indicated never. In counties, however, the appointed boards were open regularly in 3% of the cases, but elected boards were open in but 2% of the cases. Otherwise the advantage is entirely with the elected board.

Conclusion: Board meetings are more open to teachers when boards are elected than when they are appointed.

MORALE

The use of a rating scale for measuring morale will always be open to criticism for this reason--morale is an intangible something which, though vitally important, is difficult to define. The scale used in this study conceives of morale in terms of voluntary cooperation. Some insight into morale may be had by studying the famous Hawthorne experiment made by the Western Electric Company. George D. Halsey, referring to the results of the Hawthorne experiment, said:

Some interesting discoveries were made, but the most startling of all these was not that some certain combination of physical working conditions is the best for a sustained maximum of production. It was that all these things, and even the amount of pay received, are less important--much less important--than are the worker's emotional reactions--how he FEELS about his work, his associates, his superiors, and the organization for which he works²

²George D. Halsey, "Handbook of Personnel Management," p. 1.

TABLE VI
COMPARISON OF EXTENT TO WHICH TEACHERS ATTEND BOARD MEETINGS WHEN BOARDS
ARE APPOINTED AND WHEN THEY ARE ELECTED

A. APPOINTED BOARDS

CITIES, COUNTIES, AND "ALL OTHER TYPES"	NUMBER OF APPOINTED BOARDS	REGULARLY	SELDOM	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	16		8	8	
Between					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	16		10	6	
Between					
3. 5,000 - 24,999	68	2	33	33	
Between					
4. 25,000-99,999	60	9	32	19	
Between					
5. 100,000-499,999	19	3	8	7	1
6. 500,000 and above	12	3	7	2	
7. Unclassified	3		1	2	
8. Total	194	17	99	77	1

B. ELECTED BOARDS

CITIES, COUNTIES AND "ALL OTHER TYPES"	NUMBER OF ELECTED BOARDS	REGULARLY	SELDOM	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	106	5	53	48	
Between					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	124	5	62	57	
Between					
3. 5,000-24,999	456	35	253	165	3
Between					
4. 25,000-99,999	240	42	135	62	1
Between					
5. 100,000-499,999	71	34	27	9	1
6. 500,000 and over	22	16	6		
7. Unclassified	12		4	8	
8. Total	1,031	137	540	349	5

COMPARISON OF EXTENT TO WHICH TEACHERS ATTEND BOARD MEETINGS WHEN BOARDS
ARE APPOINTED AND WHEN THEY ARE ELECTED

A. APPOINTED BOARDS
(PERCENTAGES)

CITIES, COUNTIES, AND ALL OTHER TYPES	NUMBER OF APPOINTED BOARDS	REGULARLY	SELDOM	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	1.00		.50	.50	
Between					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	1.00		.63	.38	
Between					
3. 5,000 - 24,999	1.00	.03	.49	.49	
Between					
4. 25,000-99,999	1.00	.15	.53	.32	
Between					
5. 100,000-499,999	1.00	.16	.42	.37	.05
6. 500,000 and above	1.00	.25	.58	.17	
7. Unclassified	1.00		.33	.67	
8. Total	1.00	.09	.51	.40	.01

B. ELECTED BOARDS

(PERCENTAGES)

CITIES, COUNTIES, AND ALL OTHER TYPES	NUMBER OF ELECTED BOARDS	REGULARLY	SELDOM	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	1.00	.05	.50	.45	
Between					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	1.00	.04	.50	.46	
Between					
3. 5,000-24,999	1.00	.08	.55	.36	.01
Between					
4. 25,000-99,999	1.00	.18	.56	.26	.00
Between					
5. 100,000-499,999	1.00	.48	.38	.13	.01
6. 500,000 and over	1.00	.73	.27		
7. Unclassified	1.00		.33	.67	
8. Total	1.00	.13	.52	.34	.00

Obviously teachers are not factory workers, but what is said above is probably identifiable with something more fundamental than occupation or profession. It concerns basic human tendencies and reactions in general. That is why it is possible to have high teacher morale despite undemocratic administrative conditions. Vice versa, morale may be low even if excellent working conditions are prevalent in the school system. A close examination of some of the returns from local presidents indicated that these paradoxical situations do exist.

Presidents of local associations were asked to rate the morale of the educational staff according to the following scale:

1. Unusually high
2. High
3. Fair
4. Low
5. Extremely low

The five items above were defined as follows:

- | | |
|-------------------------|---|
| Unusually high morale - | exceptionally high professional attitude - teachers initiate improvement programs - very friendly social atmosphere in and out of school among teachers - high degree of voluntary cooperation - absence of friction between teaching and administrative staff - high degree of voluntary loyalty to the school system. |
| High morale - | healthy professional attitude - teachers participate well in improvement programs - friendly social atmosphere in and out of school among teachers - some degree of voluntary cooperation - very small amount of friction between teaching and administrative staff - substantial majority of staff loyal to the school system. |

Fair morale

- professional attitude high for some but low for others - some participation in improvement programs - social atmosphere characterized by a mixture of friendly and unfriendly attitudes - cooperation seldom voluntary but can be gained with some effort - some friction between teaching and administrative staff but no open hostility - staff in general loyal to school system.

Low morale

- professional attitude on the whole absent - very little participation in improvement programs - friendly social atmosphere lacking - involuntary cooperation - considerable friction between teaching and administrative staff with fear and hostility common - little respect for school system on part of staff.

Extremely low morale

- contempt for education as a profession - no participation in improvement programs - hostile social atmosphere - no cooperation beyond what is absolutely necessary - open friction between teaching and administrative staff - contempt for the school system - constant fear of reprisals on part of staff members - much unfavorable publicity.

Morale among Teachers. Tables VII and VII-A give the figures and percentages, and an examination of the tables for cities, for counties, and for "all other types" reveals results comparable to Table VI.

Eleven per cent of the returns indicated Very high; 47%, High; 38%, Fair; 4%, Low; and 1%, Extremely low. These figures show that, for the country as a whole, 95% of the teachers have a morale Fair or better; 58% of the teachers have a morale High or better. There appears to be very little variation except in communities with populations 500,000 and above. There only 32% indicated High, but 9% indicated Low and 6%, Extremely low.

Conclusions: The morale in general among teachers in the United States is fair or better. There is only a small percentage of

TABLE VII

MORALE RATINGS ASSIGNED BY PRESIDENTS OF LOCAL AFFILIATED ASSOCIATIONS

CITIES, COUNTIES AND "ALL OTHER TYPES"	TOTAL	UNUSUALLY HIGH	HIGH	FAIR	LOW	EXTREMELY LOW	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	122	19	56	41	4	1	1
Between							
2. 2,500-4,999	142	16	63	54	6	1	2
Between							
3. 5,000-24,999	529	55	243	205	17	6	3
Between							
4. 25,000-99,999	304	35	147	104	14	3	1
Between							
5. 100,000-499,999	92	8	48	27	5	2	2
Between							
6. 500,000 and above	34	3	11	13	3	2	2
7. Unclassified	15	2	8	5			
8. Total	1,238	138	576	449	49	15	11

TABLE VII - A
(PERCENTAGES)

CITIES, COUNTIES AND "ALL OTHER TYPES"	TOTAL	UNUSUALLY HIGH	HIGH	FAIR	LOW	EXTREMELY LOW	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	1.00	.16	.46	.34	.03	.01	.01
Between							
2. 2,500-4,999	1.00	.11	.44	.38	.04	.01	.01
Between							
3. 5,000-24,999	1.00	.10	.46	.39	.03	.01	.01
Between							
4. 25,000-99,999	1.00	.12	.48	.34	.05	.01	.00
Between							
5. 100,000-499,999	1.00	.09	.52	.29	.05	.02	.02
Between							
6. 500,000 and above	1.00	.09	.32	.38	.09	.06	.06
7. Unclassified	1.00	.13	.53	.33			
8. Total	1.00	.11	.46	.36	.04	.01	.01

communities where it is low. It should be recognized that morale does not necessarily have any bearing upon the presence or absence of undemocratic practices in a community.

Morale in Relation to Elected and Appointed Boards. Is teacher morale higher with elected boards than with appointed boards? Tables VIII and VIII-A indicate results comparable to those in Tables VII and VII-A. There is little variation in percentages between elected and appointed boards. Eleven per cent of the elected boards were Unusually high in comparison to 10% of the appointed boards. Forty-nine per cent of the appointed boards were High; 46% of the elected boards were High. Thirty-six per cent of the elected boards and 35% of the appointed boards were Fair. If total percentages of the columns fair and above are considered, 94% of appointed boards and 93% of the elected boards fall into that category.

Conclusions: Teacher morale is about the same when boards are appointed as when they are elected. Therefore, one cannot conclude that morale among teachers is higher under the appointed board than under the elected one, or vice versa.

TABLE VIII
MORALE RATINGS - APPOINTED BOARDS

115

Cities, Counties All Other Types	Total	UNUSUALLY HIGH	HIGH	FAIR	LOW	EXTREMELY LOW	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	16	1	6	7	2		
Between 2. 2,500-4,999	16	1	6	8			1
Between 3. 5,000-24,999	68	6	35	23	2	1	1
Between 4. 25,000-99,999	60	9	29	21		1	
Between 5. 100,000-499,999	19	1	11	6		1	
6. 500,000 and above	12	1	5	3	1	1	1
7. Unclassified	3		3				
8. Total	194	19	95	68	5	4	3

MORALE RATINGS - ELECTED BOARDS

Cities, Counties All Other Types	Total	UNUSUALLY HIGH	HIGH	FAIR	LOW	EXTREMELY LOW	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	106	18	50	34	2	1	1
Between 2. 2,500-4,999	124	15	56	45	6	1	1
Between 3. 5,000-24,999	456	49	206	179	15	5	2
Between 4. 25,000-99,999	240	25	115	83	14	2	1
Between 5. 100,000-499,999	71	7	36	20	5	1	2
6. 500,000 and above	22	2	6	10	2	1	1
7. Unclassified	12	2	5	5			
8. Total	1,031	118	474	376	44	11	8

MORALE RATINGS - APPOINTED BOARDS

(PERCENTAGES)

Cities, Counties All Other Types	Total	UNUSUALLY HIGH	HIGH	FAIR	LOW	EXTREMELY LOW	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	1.00	.06	.38	.44	.12		
Between 2. 2,500-4,999	1.00	.06	.38	.50			.06
Between 3. 5,000-24,999	1.00	.09	.51	.34	.03	.01	.01
Between 4. 25,000-99,999	1.00	.15	.48	.35		.02	
Between 5. 100,000-499,999	1.00	.06	.58	.31		.06	
6. 500,000 and above	1.00	.08	.42	.25	.08	.03	.03
7. Unclassified	1.00		1.00				
8. Total	1.00	.10	.49	.35	.03	.02	.01

MORALE RATINGS - ELECTED BOARDS

(PERCENTAGES)

Cities, Counties All Other Types	Total	UNUSUALLY HIGH	HIGH	FAIR	LOW	EXTREMELY LOW	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	1.00	.17	.47	.32	.02	.01	.01
Between 2. 2,500-4,999	1.00	.12	.45	.36	.05	.01	.01
Between 3. 5,000-24,999	1.00	.11	.45	.39	.03	.01	.01
Between 4. 25,000-99,999	1.00	.10	.48	.35	.06	.01	.00
Between 5. 100,000-499,999	1.00	.10	.50	.28	.07	.01	.03
6. 500,000 and above	1.00	.09	.27	.45	.09	.05	.05
7. Unclassified	1.00	.16	.42	.42			
8. Total	1.00	.11	.46	.36	.04	.01	.01

TEACHER ORGANIZATION PROBLEMS

Problems Due to the Existence of Two or More Professional Organizations. Table IX in Column A presents the number of school systems having two or more teachers' organizations. Column B presents the number of cases in which the presence of two or more teachers' organizations has caused difficulties. Sixty-seven out of 256 cities with two or more professional organizations report difficulties because the independence of one or more teachers' organizations from one another interferes with the harmonious relationship between the teachers and the administration. Percentagewise, as one might expect, there are more systems with two or more professional organizations in cities than in counties or "all other types." Counties reported 11 cases out of 70; "all other types" reported 4 cases out of 30.

Conclusions: The independence of two or more teachers' organizations from one another is a factor in interfering with the harmonious relationship between teachers and administration. But it is a factor of greater importance in cities than in counties, and of greater importance in counties than in "all other types."

Appeals from Superintendents. Table X presents the number of cases in which superintendents have appealed for assistance from the local teachers' association in combatting undemocratic policies or practices on the part of the local board of education. It will be noted that very few instances are shown, with about half of those occurring in communities having a population range between 5000 - 24,999.

Conclusion: Superintendents very rarely seek assistance from a local teachers' organization in combatting undemocratic policies or practices of the local board of education.

TABLE IX

A. NUMBER OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS HAVING TWO OR MORE TEACHERS ORGANIZATIONS 118

B. NUMBER OF CASES IN WHICH THE PRESENCE OF TWO OR MORE TEACHERS ORGANIZATIONS
HAS CAUSED DIFFICULTIES

CLASS SIZE OF POPULATION	CITIES	CITIES	COUNTIES	COUNTIES	ALL OTHER TYPES	ALL OTHER TYPES
1. Below 2,500	3	3	11	2	1	
Between	6	1	3	1	6	
2. 2,500 - 4,999						
Between	45	10	22	2	12	3
3. 5,000 - 24,999						
Between	113	23	22	4	7	1
4. 25,000 - 99,999						
Between	57	18	8	2		
5. 100,000 - 499,999						
Between	30	12	1		1	
6. 500,000 and above						
Between	2		3		3	
7. Unclassified						
8. Total	256	67	70	11	30	4

TABLE X

NUMBER OF CASES IN WHICH SUPERINTENDENT HAS APPEALED FOR ASSISTANCE
FROM THE LOCAL TEACHERS ASSOCIATION IN COMBATTING UNDEMOCRATIC POLICIES
OR PRACTICES OF THE LOCAL BOARD OF EDUCATION

CLASS SIZE OF POPULATION	CITIES	CITIES	COUNTIES	COUNTIES	ALL OTHER TYPES	ALL OTHER TYPES
1. Below 2,500			2		2	
Between						
2. 2,500 - 4,999	2				2	
Between						
3. 5,000 - 24,999	8		2		5	
Between						
4. 25,000 - 99,999	3					
Between						
5. 100,000 - 499,999	5					
Between						
6. 500,000 and above	1				1	
7. Unclassified						
8. Total	19		4		10	

COMPLAINTS

What proportion of complaints, rumors, protests, unfavorable comments from teachers involve, respectively, superintendents, boards of education, and principals and other administrators?

Out of 1238 school systems, 558 reported complaints involving the superintendent; 473 reported complaints involving the board of education; and 552 reported complaints involving principals and other administrators. (See Table XI.) Note that 299 systems out of 1238 reported complaints against all three groups. That approximates about one fourth of all communities. Over 40% (485) of the school systems had no complaints against any of the three groups under consideration.

Conclusions: In general, in approximately 40% of the school systems complaints are directed at superintendents, at boards of education, at principals and other administrators or a combination of them. This alone shows that, despite the 40% of the systems which reported no difficulties at all, the problem of harmonious relationships among staff personnel and boards of education is a very serious one. The figure is far higher than it ought to be, even if conditions cannot be expected to be ideal.

Table XII presents the proportions of the total number of complaints against superintendents, boards of education, and principals and other administrators that were estimated to be undemocratic (July 1, 1948 up to May 1950). In all three administrative classifications the bulk of the cases falls into the category "less than half of them." Percentage-wise the figures (Table XII-A) are .43 for superintendents, .52 for boards of education, and .47 for principals and other administrators. Note that None of them has only 18%, 11%, and 11% for each of the three administrative groups.

TABLE XI
NUMBER OF COMPLAINTS INVOLVING SUPERINTENDENTS, BOARDS OF EDUCATION, PRINCIPALS AND OTHER ADMINISTRATORS IN CITIES, COUNTIES, AND "ALL OTHER TYPES" OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS

CITIES, COUNTIES AND "ALL OTHER TYPES"	NUMBER OF COMMUNITIES	COMPLAINTS INVOLVING SUPERIN- TENDENT (11 A)	COMPLAINTS INVOLVING BOARD OF EDUCATION (11 B)	COMPLAINTS INVOLVING PRINCIPALS AND OTHER ADMINIS- TRATORS (11 C)	NUMBER OF CASES IN WHICH ALL THREE (11A, 11B, AND 11C) WERE CHECKED <u>YES</u>	NUMBER OF CASES IN WHICH NO COMPLAINTS WERE INDICATED
1. Below 2,500	122	42	42	35	21	64
2. Between 2,500 - 4,999	142	69	49	59	31	52
3. Between 5,000 - 24,999	529	234	197	229	116	212
4. Between 25,000 - 99,999	304	143	126	190	91	113
5. Between 100,000 - 499,999	92	50	43	58	31	23
6. 500,000 and above	34	15	13	16	7	12
7. Unclassified	15	5	3	5	2	9
8. Total	1,238	558	473	552	299	485

TABLE XII

ESTIMATE OF PROPORTION OF TOTAL NUMBER OF COMPLAINTS THAT ARE
EXAMPLES OF UNDEMOCRATIC AND UNPROFESSIONAL PRACTICES ON THE
PART OF SUPERINTENDENTS, BOARDS OF EDUCATION, PRINCIPALS AND
OTHER ADMINISTRATORS

PROPORTION	1. BY SUPERINTEN- DENTS	2. BY BOARDS OF EDUCATION	3. BY PRINCIPALS AND OTHER ADMINISTRA- TORS	BY ALL THREE GROUPS (TOTAL OF 1,2, and 3)
ALL OF THEM	59	51	55	165
MORE THAN HALF OF THEM	92	64	95	251
ABOUT HALF OF THEM	66	61	86	213
LESS THAN HALF OF THEM	238	244	262	744
NONE OF THEM	99	51	62	212
TOTALS	554	471	560	1,585

TABLE XII-A

ESTIMATE OF PROPORTION OF TOTAL NUMBER OF COMPLAINTS THAT ARE EXAMPLES
OF UNDEMOCRATIC AND UNPROFESSIONAL PRACTICES ON THE PART OF SUPERINTEN-
DENTS, BOARDS OF EDUCATION, PRINCIPALS AND OTHER ADMINISTRATORS

(PERCENTAGES)

PROPORTION	1. BY SUPERINTEN- DENTS	2. BY BOARDS OF EDUCATION	3. BY PRINCIPALS AND OTHER ADMINISTRATORS	BY ALL THREE GROUPS (TOTAL OF 1, 2, 3)
ALL OF THEM	.11	.11	.10	.10
MORE THAN HALF OF THEM	.17	.14	.17	.16
ABOUT HALF OF THEM	.10	.13	.15	.13
LESS THAN HALF OF THEM	.43	.52	.47	.47
NONE OF THEM	.18	.11	.11	.13
TOTAL	.99	1.01	1.00	.99

Conclusion: In the opinions of presidents of local teachers' associations about 59% of the total complaints fall into the categories About half of them, More than half of them, and All of them as examples of undemocratic and unprofessional practices on the part of superintendents, boards of education, principals and other administrators. As a general conclusion, there are too many undemocratic and unprofessional practices on the part of administrators and boards of education still in use in school systems. This is, again, the opinion of teacher leaders.

Complaints Involving Superintendents. To simplify analysis, the tables in the following sections on complaints are arranged in numerical order with the numbers at the left corresponding to the numbers of the examples of undemocratic and unprofessional practices.

Diagram I gives an analysis of the complaints which revealed that the superintendent was at fault. Below is the list of undemocratic practices applicable to Diagram I:

The superintendent

1. discharged a teacher without giving a reason for doing so
2. interfered with the activities and functions of the local teachers' association
3. criticized teachers in front of a group of teachers
4. tried to enforce a policy which the majority of teachers strongly opposed
5. demoted a teacher for personal reasons
6. threatened a teacher with loss of position
7. used fear as a weapon to control teachers
8. criticized teachers in public
9. allowed himself to be dominated by the local board in carrying out undemocratic policies
10. tried to get rid of teachers in the upper salary brackets
11. refused to allow teachers to participate in determining school policies
12. used one or more teachers to "spy" on other teachers
13. practiced "encroachment" instead of supervision
14. Other reasons

APPENDIX I
ANALYSIS OF COMPLAINTS REVEALING
THAT SUPERINTENDENT WAS AT FAULT

1	99	
2	99	
3	103	
4		198
5	56	
6	69	
7	115	
8	62	
9	108	
10	37	
11		183
12	76	
13	47	
	111	

Figures in the bars are the actual number of total complaints for these items. Numbers 4 and 11 have the largest totals, while numbers 5, 6, 8, 10, 12, and 13 are small in comparison to the remainder of the figures.

Conclusion: Teacher leaders have indicated that the chief complaints against superintendents in which they appeared to be at fault are: (1) they tried to enforce a policy which the majority of teachers strongly opposed, and (2) they refused to allow teachers to participate in determining school policies.

Diagram II presents complaints which revealed that the superintendent was right and teachers mistaken or not justified. The following criteria were used:

One or more teachers

1. criticized the superintendent without a good and sufficient reason
2. disliked the superintendent for personal reasons
3. misinterpreted something the superintendent said or wrote
4. misinterpreted something the superintendent did
5. deliberately falsified statements or acts of the superintendent
6. attempted to stir up a group of teachers against him
7. turned local newspapers against him
8. went directly to the board without his knowledge
9. turned individual members of the board against him
10. Other reasons

The diagram shows that the first four items have the largest totals.

Conclusion: In cases in which the superintendent was right and teachers were wrong, the greatest faults of teachers were unreasoning criticisms, expressions of personal dislikes, and misinterpretations of statements and actions on the part of superintendents.

Diagram III gives complaints which revealed that both the superintendent and the teachers were at fault. The following list was used:

DIAGRAM III
COMPLAINTS REVEALING THAT BOTH SUPERINTENDENT
AND TEACHERS WERE AT FAULT

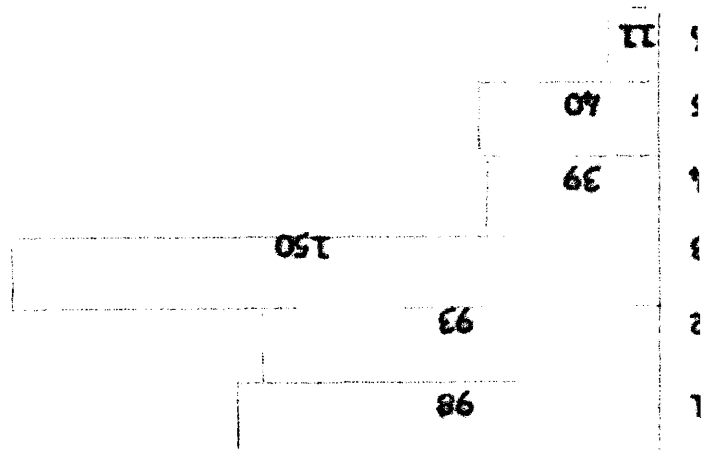
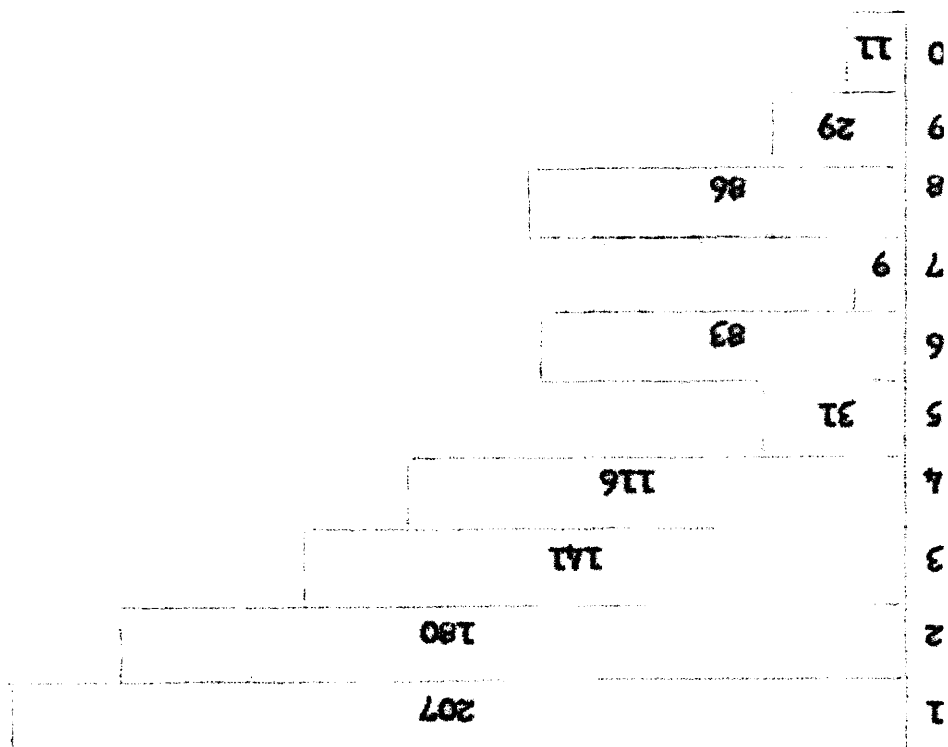


DIAGRAM II
COMPLAINTS REVEALING THAT SUPERINTENDENT
WAS RIGHT AND TEACHERS MISTAKEN



Both the superintendent and one or more teachers

1. misinterpreted what the other said or wrote
3. misinterpreted what the other did
3. acted too hastily upon insufficient information
4. deliberately used retaliatory tactics against one another
5. refused to hear what the other had to say
6. Other reasons

Conclusion: Results show that the greatest fault is number 3-- both superintendent and one or more teachers acted too hastily upon insufficient information. Other serious faults were misinterpretations of statements and acts on the part of both groups.

Complaints Involving Boards of Education. Diagram IV gives an analysis of complaints which reveal that the board of education was at fault. The list follows:

The board of education

1. dismissed a teacher without giving him an explanation or hearing
2. adopted policies which were not in the best interests of the local schools
3. lowered salaries for no good reasons
4. threatened teachers with loss of positions
5. "punished" teachers for local teachers' association activities
6. tried to carry on the functions of the superintendent as well as its own functions
7. made statements designed to instil fear in teachers
8. publicly criticized, as individual board members, the superintendent, or teachers, or methods of instruction, or curricula
9. Other reasons

The two items which stand out above the others are 2 and 6.

Conclusion: The chief examples of undemocratic practices on the part of boards of education are in order: (1) adopting policies not in the best interests of schools, (2) attempting to carry on the functions of the superintendent, (3) criticizing as individuals school personnel or curricula, and (4) dismissing teachers without an explanation or a

DIAGRAM IV
ANALYSIS OF COMPLAINTS REVEALING THAT
BOARD OF EDUCATION WAS AT FAULT

98

164

18

34

23

158

67

106

116

hearing. (Since "Other reasons" includes a collection of undemocratic practices, it was not listed with the examples above.)

Diagram V shows the complaints revealing that the board was right and the teachers mistaken. The checklist follows:

One or more teachers

1. criticized the board for no good or sufficient reason
2. opposed the board as a group for personal or political reasons
3. tried to line up community groups or individuals against reasonable board policies
4. misinterpreted board policies
5. misinterpreted statements made by the board
6. tried to turn the superintendent against the board
7. unfairly stirred up a group of teachers against the board
8. unjustly criticized individual board members
9. turned local newspapers against the board
10. Other reasons

Items 1, 4, and 8 were the chief complaints.

Conclusion: In those situations in which teachers were wrong and the board right, teachers chiefly erred in (1) criticizing the board for no good reason, (2) misinterpreting board policies, and (3) unjustly criticizing individual board members.

In Diagram VI are the results of the complaints in which both the board of education and one or more teachers were mistaken. The following items were listed for checking purposes:

Both board of education and one or more teachers

1. misinterpreted what the other said or wrote
2. misinterpreted what the other did
3. acted too hastily upon insufficient information
4. deliberately used retaliatory tactics against one another
5. refused to hear what the other had to say
6. Other reasons

DIAGRAM V
COMPLAINTS REVEALING THAT BOARD OF EDUCATION
WAS RIGHT AND THE TEACHERS MISTAKEN

1	79
2	56
3	27
4	79
5	44
6	5
7	20
8	65
9	1
10	7

DIAGRAM VI
COMPLAINTS REVEALING THAT BOTH BOARD OF
EDUCATION AND TEACHERS WERE MISTAKEN

1	59
2	47
3	104
4	20
5	24
6	8

Conclusion: The chief faults are, in order, (1) the board and one or more teachers acted too hastily upon insufficient information, (2) both groups misinterpreted what the other said or wrote, and (3) they misinterpreted what the other did.

Complaints Involving Principals and Other Administrative Officers.

Diagram VII presents the complaints which revealed that principals and other administrative officers were at fault.

From the list which follows, the tenth item and the third were first and second respectively as the chief examples of undemocratic practices.

The principal or other administrative officer

1. criticized one or more teachers in front of a larger group of teachers
2. interfered with the functioning of the local teachers' association
3. tried to enforce his own rules which the majority of teachers under his supervision strongly opposed
4. threatened one or more teachers with loss of position
5. used fear as a weapon to control teachers
6. used one or more teachers to "spy" on other teachers
7. deliberately overloaded with duties teachers he disliked personally
8. practiced "snoopervision" instead of supervision
9. criticized one or more teachers in front of community groups or individual citizens
10. failed to provide for democratic participation of teachers in determining school policies
11. forced one or more teachers to teach subjects they hadn't taught before and for which they had no preparation
12. took the part of pupils against the teacher every time
13. used sarcasm and other negative devices
14. Other reasons

Conclusion: Failure to provide for democratic participation of teachers in determining school policies and administrative attempts to enforce rules which the majority of teachers opposed are the chief examples of undemocratic practices on the part of principals and other

DIAGRAM VII
ANALYSIS OF COMPLAINTS REVEALING THAT PRINCIPAL
OR OTHER ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICER WAS AT FAULT

1		159
2	70	
3		257
4	54	
5		112
6	82	
7	95	
8	104	
9	63	
10		289
11		125
12	52	
13		138
14	92	

administrators. Other examples which were frequently checked by teacher leaders were items 1, 13, and 11 in the list above.

Complaints revealing that principals and other administrators were right and teachers mistaken or not justified are recorded in Diagram VIII. The list of complaints checked was as follows:

One or more teachers

1. criticized the principal or other administrative officer without good or sufficient reason
2. disliked the principal or other administrative officer for personal reasons
3. misinterpreted something the principal or other administrative officer said or wrote
4. misinterpreted something the principal or other administrative officer did
5. attempted to stir up school patrons against the principal or other administrative officer
6. deliberately falsified statements or acts of the principal or other administrative officer
7. attempted to stir up a group of teachers against him
8. turned individual members of the board against him
9. turned local newspapers against him
10. Other reasons

The first four items in the list above were most frequently checked.

Conclusion: In those complaint cases in which principals and other administrators were right and teachers mistaken or unjustified, the greatest errors on the part of teachers were unreasoning criticisms, personal dislikes, and misinterpretation of statements and acts.

Diagram IX gives the complaints which revealed that both the principals (or other administrative officers) and teachers were at fault. The following list of complaints was used for checking purposes:

Both principal (or other administrative officer) and one or more teachers

1. misinterpreted what the other said or wrote
2. misinterpreted what the other did
3. acted too hastily upon insufficient information

DIAGRAM VIII
COMPLAINTS REVEALING THAT PRINCIPALS AND OTHER
ADMINISTRATORS WERE RIGHT AND TEACHERS MISTAKEN

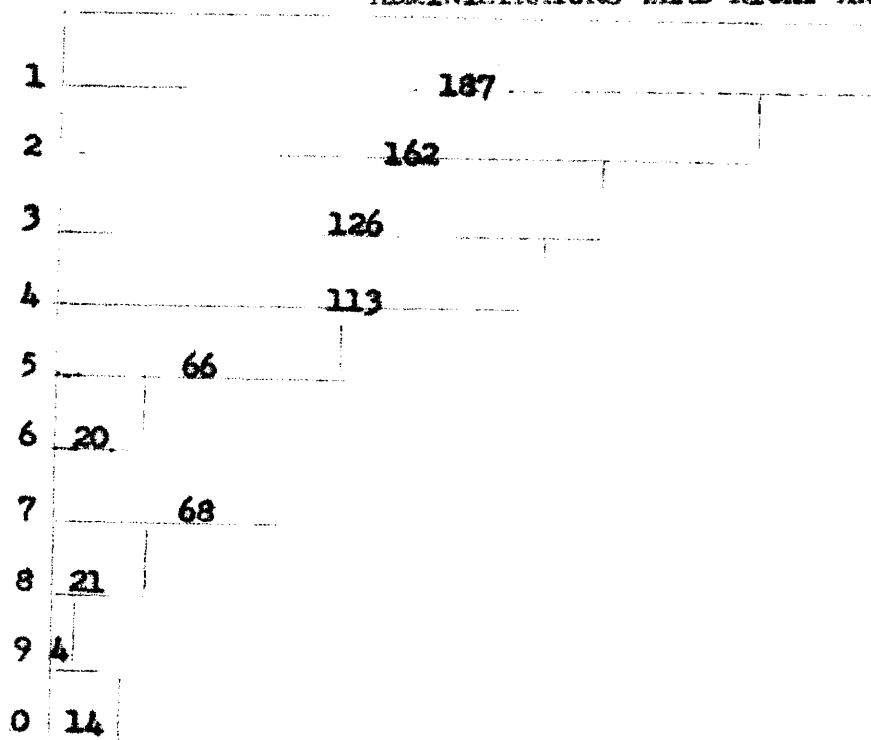
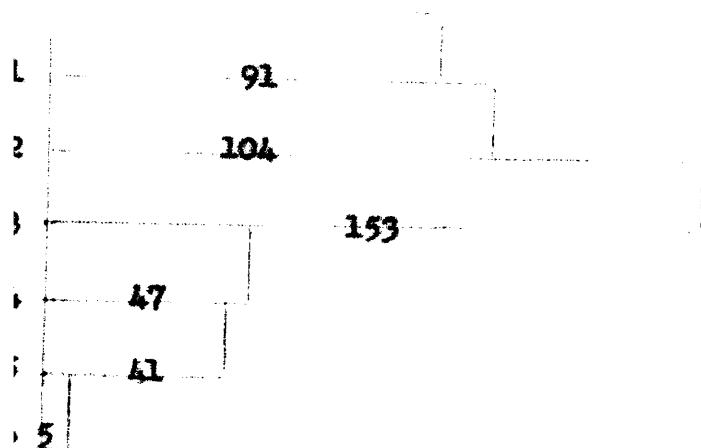


DIAGRAM IX
COMPLAINTS REVEALING THAT BOTH PRINCIPALS (OR OTHER
ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICER) AND TEACHERS WERE AT FAULT



4. deliberately used retaliatory tactics against one another
5. refused to hear what the other had to say
6. Other reasons

Note from the diagram that items 3, 2, and 1 in that order were most frequently checked.

Conclusion: Of the complaints which revealed that both the principal (or other administrative officer) and the teachers were at fault, the greatest number of difficulties arose because both groups (1) acted too hastily upon insufficient information, (2) misinterpreted what the other did, and (3) misinterpreted what the other said or wrote.

COMMENTS

Provisions for general comments at the close of the questionnaire were made use of in 247 returns. A variety of types of comments came in, the classification of which appears in Table XIII.

Below are a few samples of responses received:

I feel that a survey of this kind is important now, but nothing will ever help the increasingly more prevalent abuses until teachers themselves refuse to resign "at the drop of a hat."

Most of our trouble seems to come from a myth that the administration is only to bedevil teachers and results in personality conflicts. Lack of strong professional ethics has prevented the two groups from meeting and thrashing out their problems.

We perform many activities because of their usefulness to the school and the community. Our greatest problem is to have some small voice in a democratic determination of policy and program.

When the superintendent wishes to establish new policies, the teachers are forced to accept them without the privilege of discussion. The teachers are told to support his policies if they expect support from him.

TABLE XIII
CLASSIFICATION OF GENERAL COMMENTS

STATEMENT	FREQUENCY OF OCCURRENCE
1. Criticism of a teacher or group of teachers - Statements, Actions, Attitudes	25
2. Criticism of Board Members, collectively or individually; of Board statements or policies; of Board acts	26
3. Criticism of the Superintendent - his statements, actions, attitudes	48
4. Criticism of the Principal - his statements, actions, attitudes	15
5. Criticism of one aspect of the school pro- gram, policies, administration, etc. - such as salaries, teacher load, inade- quate supervision	17
6. Favorable Comments - Description of local association activities, cooperation with administrative leaders on the part of teachers; ways of overcoming difficulties, etc.	76
7. Other negative comments on education as a whole (Comments which do not fall into the categories above)	7
8. Examples of outside political forces and influences bearing upon the administra- tion, teachers, board of education, or school program	5
9. Comments of a neutral nature - such as explanations of reasons for making a certain rating for morale, reasons for answering certain sections of the questionnaire as person filling it out did, etc.	28

The superintendent has stated publicly that he will work for the repeal of the state tenure law as he believes that "teachers work the hardest when they feel insecure."

There has been a large turnover of teachers after one, two, and even three years of probation. No reasons are ever given, no attempts made to help the teachers to do better work. Quoting the supervising principal - "You can't change the leopard's spots."

There never will be a free, friendly, candid relationship among the teachers toward each other, or toward the superintendent, as long as the Merit System is in force.

It has been my observation from experience that in practically every case of unharmonious relationships, an unethical, emotionally unstable, ill-trained or misfit teacher has supplied "inside" information to potential trouble-makers, supplying enough half-truths and distorted information to start a landslide of hellishness. Janitors are also frequently guilty. We must make more of an effort to get a higher type of person into the profession.

When teachers realize that teaching is a cooperative business with the administration, schools and education will be the better for it.

This month after an election of new board members, who were more or less antagonistic to the superintendent, the board offered the superintendent a contract for the year 1950-51 containing 14 stipulations which no superintendent could possibly accept without lowering his professional standards and obligations and becoming a mere tool of the board.

I have a strong personal conviction that better communication among principals and teachers, teachers and superintendents, teachers and school committees, the schools and the public is essential in the prevention of friction and undemocratic situations.

When the Taxpayers' League was petitioning the resignation of the Superintendent, the teachers publicly came to the support of his educational program, despite the fact that they were very angry with him over salaries and undemocratic procedures. He was being attacked for the wrong things, we felt.

Our - - - Public School Teachers Association has an advisory committee which meets with the administration for the study of school problems. During the 4 years this committee has been in existence, the administration and the Board of Education have gladly accepted every recommendation of the committee.

Most of their problems [as stated in the questionnaire] from my observation . . . are due to lack of understanding brought about by lack of information on the part of all groups concerned.

We are a small, poor, rural county in Many teachers are poorly prepared; some have only a high school education. Our leadership is strong, aggressive and progressive besides being thoroughly professional and 100% American. The leadership is rapidly remarking the professional attitudes of poor teachers. This I firmly believe.

SUMMARY

Results of the questionnaire study show that critical local situations in school systems happen to the same extent in systems with elected boards as in those with appointed boards. In general, the smaller the school board, the less likely there are to be critical situations. In cities, however, communities with boards having from five to seven members have fewer local crises than communities with the smaller or the larger type of board. Crises appear to happen just as often in school systems with tenure as in those without it.

Board meetings are more open to the public and to teachers when boards are elected than when they are appointed.

Morale among teachers in the United States is generally high. Results indicate that teacher morale is about the same in systems with appointed boards as in those with elected boards.

The independence of two or more teachers' organizations from one another, a problem mainly in cities, is a factor in interfering with the harmonious relationship between teachers and the administration. Superintendents rarely appeal to a local teachers' association for assistance when they are under attack from the board of education or the public.

Complaints involving superintendents, boards of education, principals and other administrators are sufficiently numerous to indicate that the problem of harmonious relationships among staff personnel and boards of education is a serious one. Complaints against superintendents are directed chiefly at dictatorial administrative practices. Boards of education have erred chiefly in adopting policies not in the interests of schools, in trying to take over the functions of the superintendent, in criticising personnel, and in dismissing teachers without an explanation or a hearing. Principals and other administrators, like superintendents, are accused mainly of undemocratic administrative practices-- chief example is the failure to provide for democratic participation of teachers in determining school policies. In those cases in which teachers were wrong and administrators and board members were right, unreasoning criticisms, personal dislikes, and misinterpretations of words and acts were the commonest faults. Situations in which administrative groups and boards of education on the one hand and teachers on the other were both at fault arose largely because of hasty acting upon insufficient information and misinterpretations of statements and acts on the part of both groups.

Comments varied. A large number of them were favorable ones with and without constructive suggestions. Quite a sizable number of them were critical of dictatorial practices by superintendents and board members. As a whole, the comments verify the types of criticisms indicated in the questionnaire.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In Chapter I it was stated that the purpose of this study is to evaluate the program of the National Commission for the Defense of Democracy through Education. A summary of the functions of the Commission, the democratic principles underlying these functions, the types of investigations made, and the results of the questionnaire study will be presented in this chapter.

Following the summary, conclusions evolving from this study will be drawn.

SUMMARY

Functions. In Chapter II the functions as stated at the time the Commission was established were, in brief, to (1) bring to the public a better understanding of the importance of education to all, (2) defend the cause of education against unjust attacks, (3) investigate charges involving teachers, schools, educational methods and procedures, and (4) work for educational conditions essential for democracy. The many reports of investigations carried on by the Commission together with its activities in meeting attacks are evidence of accomplishments in this area. These were discussed in some detail in Chapters II and IV.

Underlying Principles. The rights of teachers evolve from basic human rights as stated in such historical documents as the Bill of Rights and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Teachers' rights are basic rights translated into professional teaching practices. For example, freedom of speech, a basic right for all citizens in a democracy, becomes for the classroom teacher the right to discuss and teach issues

that may be controversial or the right to teach the truths of democratic living. These are the rights which the Defense Commission has defended since its establishment. In the New York City and Chicago reports, for example, one principle defended was the right of teachers to job security which guarantees that teachers will not be the pawns of politicians. In the McCook case teachers were defended from undemocratic administrative procedures. In the Grand Prairie case the civil rights of teachers were at stake and the Commission report upheld the right of teachers to participate as individuals in elections.

The Questionnaire. Since investigations involve obstacles to harmonious relationships among teachers, administrators, and boards of education, it was necessary to discover the relative importance of these obstacles, their relation to elected and appointed boards, to teacher morale, and to critical local situations.

It is essential to re-emphasize that the results of the questionnaire are concerned with opinions. Such results must not be treated as facts. Nevertheless, it is important to realize that, in dealing with intangible human relationships, the best opinions expressing what teacher leaders throughout the United States believe are democratic or undemocratic procedures are more nearly objective than are a few isolated judgments.

As a measuring instrument the questionnaire has some limitations which must be taken into account. For example, the use of the term critical situation necessarily leaves the determination of what is critical up to each person who fills out the questionnaire. In filling out the entire middle section of the questionnaire, teacher leaders had to use their judgment as to what constitutes the "complaint." Much of

what the local president checked was undoubtedly colored by his attitude toward school superintendents, boards of education, and principals and other administrators. These human elements cannot be counteracted to any degree in this type of questionnaire other than by selecting the best type of teacher leader to make as objective a judgment as possible.

The list which follows is a general summary of the conclusions described in Chapter V. Here they are:

1. Approximately the same percentage of critical local situations occurs when boards of education are appointed as when they are elected.
2. The greater the number of members on a board of education, the greater is the number of critical local situations.
3. Approximately the same percentage of critical local situations occurs with school systems having tenure as with school systems not having tenure.
4. Board meetings are open to a greater degree to the public when boards are elected than when they are appointed.
5. Board meetings are open to a greater degree to teachers when boards are elected than when they are appointed.
6. Teacher morale throughout the country is generally good. It is a factor which should not cause great concern for the teaching profession as a whole.
7. Teacher morale shows no appreciable difference whether boards are elected or appointed.
8. The existence of two or more teachers' organizations in a community has not been an important factor in causing frictions between teachers and administrators.
9. Superintendents rarely appeal for assistance from the local teachers' association.
10. A significant proportion of the complaints against superintendents, boards, principals and other administrators are regarded by teacher leaders as resulting from undemocratic and unprofessional practices.
11. Most of the complaints against superintendents, principals and other administrators indicate that the following undemocratic practices are most frequent:
 - a. Refusal to allow teachers to participate in determining school policies.
 - b. Enforcing policies which the majority of teachers oppose.

12. The questionnaire results indicate that boards of education err most frequently in the following:

- a. Adopting policies not in the best interests of the schools.
- b. Attempting to carry on the functions of the superintendent as well as their own.

13. The results further indicate that teacher groups err most frequently in complaining against administrators and boards in these areas:

- a. Criticizing for no good reason.
- b. Expressing personal dislikes.
- c. Misinterpreting what is said or done.

14. The results also show that administrators, boards and teacher groups too frequently take action without securing sufficient information.

CONCLUSIONS

Interpretation of Questionnaire Results. It is possible to elaborate on the foregoing results to indicate some of the difficulties involved.

It is hardly surprising that superintendents rarely appeal for assistance from local teachers' associations. Much of this failure to seek assistance is undoubtedly due to the wall of separation which frequently exists between administrative and teaching staffs. Then again, the superintendent, as the leader responsible for carrying out the local board's policies, can only submit his resignation if he feels that the board cannot be persuaded to set forth policies concerned with the welfare of the entire community. Getting the support of the local teachers' association under such conditions will probably not close the gap existing between the board and himself.

Results showing that school systems with tenure have just as many local crises as those without tenure need not cause alarm to the supporters of tenure legislation. Forward-looking superintendents and

boards of education in communities without tenure really have a tenure system in operation when they employ fair educational practices in dealing with personnel. Legal tenure, of course, will protect teaching personnel in such systems from changes brought about by elections or appointments of board members unsympathetic toward fair employment practices.

To draw some general conclusions, it might be said that the items with reference to elected or appointed boards suggest that difficulties resulting from human relationships are not closely related to administrative structure or to legal protection. This conclusion leads further to the following suggestion: to get at the heart of the crises which arise in teacher-administrator-board relationships, more attention should be directed to the behavior patterns of individuals. More attention, in other words, should be given to discovering why teachers act as they do. While teachers must learn to understand children, so must administrators, boards of education, and teachers learn to understand one another.

Teacher morale may be described as generally good in school systems throughout the country. Despite this, teacher leaders report a great many undemocratic and unprofessional practices. Since morale may be high even though teaching conditions in a community are poor, or the opposite may be true, the questionnaire results suggest that teacher morale has no close relationship to the presence or absence of undemocratic practices. (Many individuals checked high or unusually high for morale while checking at the same time a great number of undemocratic practices in the complaint columns.)

The gap which in many cases exists between administrative and teaching staffs indicates the need for developing common understandings and for further development of the participation of teachers in areas of administrative planning which concern the entire school program.

The complaints, analyzed generally, reveal that many administrators still regard themselves as generals sending down orders for teachers to carry out. As is commonly recognized, the position of superintendent is a "key" position. Much work must be done to professionalize still further the position which carries the most responsibility in the school system. Trained social engineers are needed to direct a school program which is expanding into all aspects of community living.

The complaints also indicate that a stronger concept of professional ethics must be inculcated into teachers. Results show that teachers criticize without a good and sufficient reason. Couple with this the well-known tendency for teachers to gossip. In a questionnaire study reported to the Committee on Ethics of the N. E. A. in 1929, "Gossiping about and criticizing other teachers" (here the word teacher applies to administrators as well) ranked first in the list of unethical practices.¹

Misinterpretation, a very general fault, is undoubtedly due to a considerable extent to verbal difficulties, to misunderstandings resulting from the fact that teachers frequently play little part in determining policies and therefore cannot interpret action taken, to administrative theories completely out of touch with a teaching-

¹Committee on Ethics, National Education Association, Report of Committee on Ethics of the Profession. Washington, D. C.: July 1, 1929 (out of print).

learning situation in the classroom. Further applications of semantic principles and practices are needed in teaching and administrative relationships.

To conclude: Frictions appear to be nurtured in the minds of men. This idea, while neither new nor startling, does point to a solution for many of the school crises and minor conflicts which are more prevalent than they should be. Study the personalities involved before drawing conclusions as to causes. Sometimes the personalities will be group ones, for antagonisms are oftentimes group generated. Making group dynamics a part of teacher training would undoubtedly help eliminate frictions, for teachers as well as others have to learn how to work effectively in groups and with groups.

The Human Factor. The preceding discussion has led up to the importance of the human factor in finding solutions to conflicts. Much attention has been devoted in recent issues of educational periodicals to human relationship factors as they relate to teachers and administrators. The following quotations show the trend toward the human equation in educational thinking:

One of the important things which professional associations can do is to "work toward closing the breach between teachers and administrators instead of widening it." Few gains will be made in real democracy through name-calling, pitched battles over "rights," or endless jockeying for prestige and power. These are just as fatal to effective group endeavor as an administrator's "tilted nose, condescending attitude, and dictatorial snort."²

²Department of Classroom Teachers and Research Division, National Education Association, Democracy in School Administration. Discussion Pamphlet No. 12, Washington, D. C.: December 1948, p. 19.

Sometimes the wise administrator who subscribes to a program of child study and individuation of guidance and instruction forgets the fact that grown-ups need the same basic kind of program as do children.³

. . . . very probably democracy permeates the teacher-pupil relationship only in so far as this same spirit exists between the administrator and the teacher.⁴

Recognition, sense of achievement, encouragement, companionship, security, interest in one's work--factors that spell the difference between drudgery and liking one's work can be summed up as good human relations.⁵

When things go wrong in a school system, institution or its departments, the thing for the administrator not to do is to work a few more hours a week. The thing to do is set up the mechanism through which the staff from top to bottom can themselves set things right.⁶

It is a mistake to assume that all that is wanted by teachers is an increase in salary The gratification which comes as a result of commendation by a superior for good work often means more than cash.⁷

Demonstration of a sincere interest in the personal welfare of teachers does much to improve their attitude toward administration.⁸

The trend toward greater understanding of human factors by both administrators and teachers is encouraging. At this point attention should be called to a practice, little used now, of having a representative of the teachers' association attend all school board meetings.

³William M. Lamers, "Pass the Stone Hammer, Please." American School Board Journal, Vol. 119, December 1949, p. 22.

⁴L. E. Leipold and Joseph W. Yarbrough, "What 1600 School People Think about Teacher Morale." American School Board Journal, Vol. 119, No. 6, December 1949, p. 30.

⁵Educator's Washington Dispatch, Washington, D. C., Thursday, November 10, 1949.

⁶Ibid., December 8, 1949.

⁷Matt B. Burbank, "Do Teachers Hate Superintendents?" American School Board Journal, Vol. 120, No. 4, April 1950, p. 29.

⁸Ibid., p. 30.

Surely if teachers are professional persons they should be entitled to be present at board meetings to discuss policies which are going to affect their interests and those of the children they teach. The above is meant to apply only to representation, not to the continual presence of a teacher delegation in board meetings. Those teacher leaders who reported the use of techniques to bring teachers and board members together on a friendly social basis indicated that support for board policies and support of teachers by the board had improved cooperation throughout the school system.

A device which is aiding greatly in improving teacher-administrator relationships is the sociodrama, more popularly known as role-playing. It has been and is now being used in industry to solve manager-employee relations. How does it operate in education? The teacher who plays the part of administrator gains a clearer understanding of the superintendent's dual role in being obligated to carry out board policies even if he disapproves of them while at the same time being in the position of guardian of the welfare of the teachers on his staff. The principal or superintendent in the role of teacher gets an opportunity to refresh his memory of the days when he was a classroom instructor. He may learn how it feels to have a new program handed down without his being consulted in any way.

Recommendations for the Defense Commission. In view of the results of the questionnaire study and the problems discussed in the earlier chapters, the following recommendations for strengthening the program of the Defense Commission are presented:

1. Further study of human relationships as they affect teacher-administrator-board of education activities must be made. Courses in group dynamics in teachers' colleges and similar programs on an in-service basis need to be encouraged.
2. The Commission should support programs leading to a greater professionalization of the superintendency.
3. Programs to strengthen local teachers' associations should be encouraged. For example, making greater use of the advisory members to the N. E. A. Defense Commission would encourage leadership at the local level so far as Defense Commission activities within the state are concerned.
4. The Defense Commission should promulgate a model code of fair employment practices from which local adaptations might be made. This code would be even more effective if it could be worked out jointly with the National School Board Association or at least accepted by the latter organization.
5. The Commission should support programs to train new school board members for their responsibilities.
6. Further Democracy Through Education conferences are vital instruments for getting support for public education and for educating the public to its responsibilities as citizens to see that fair educational practices are in operation in the community.
7. Deliberate, forthright steps should be taken to challenge untrue statements and false propaganda which are increasingly becoming a part of the stock in trade of the enemies of public education. The point has been reached where the profession can no longer sit back and ignore the charges being made. An open fight must be waged against those forces who employ subterfuge and innuendo in misinterpreting school programs and accusing teachers and the teaching profession of being Communistic, socialistic, or un-American.

CHAPTER VII

POSSIBLE FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS

Making predictions of real value depends upon taking into account the trends shown in the Commission's work during its brief history. The very fact that the work of the Commission has been of a pioneering kind makes the task of prognosticating the Commission's future program more difficult than it would be if educational associations had had years of experience in the type of service rendered by the N. E. A. Defense Commission.

THE LONG VIEW

The long view, looking years ahead, should envisage the day when education is more widely accepted as a profession than it is today. One of the obligations of a real profession is to govern its own membership rather than to rely on lawyers, court cases and outside assistance. Educators should try to develop programs which will minimize local conflagrations with all the trappings of unpleasant publicity, printed reports and bitter feelings. The damage done may require years of "healing" time. It should be obvious that if some means could be found for entering a situation which was heading toward an outburst of bitter feelings involving teachers, superintendents, school boards and local citizens who had reached the "breaking" stage, it might be possible to stave off the impending crisis or at least mitigate it considerably.

What could be done? One possibility, which now appears remote, is the personnel survey. Those school systems in which tensions appear to be coming might invite the Defense Commission to survey the personnel and locate sources of difficulties. This could be done by asking such

questions as the following:

Are salaries adequate?
 Is the supervision you are receiving helpful?
 Is the teacher load too heavy?
 Do you have opportunities to participate in planning?
 Do you feel that you have been given opportunities to
 grow professionally?
 Do you feel that you receive fair treatment from those
 in authority?

Teachers would be consulted individually and would be free to say what they wanted to say without fear of being quoted.

Some may answer that the machinery now exists to get such information. The superintendent may say, "My door is always open," but avenues of communication between administration and teaching staff are extremely difficult to keep open, no matter how enlightened or democratic the superintendent may be. He may have advisory and administrative councils and other devices to establish rapport. He may truthfully refer to himself as a "teacher" and reject hierarchical relationships. Despite all those approaches a certain amount of grumbling, criticism and uncooperative behavior is likely to appear. A democratic superintendent will know that something is wrong and will want to correct it, but he cannot always know what his individual staff members are thinking. Furthermore, he should realize that because of his position he is not the person to be able to get at the root of the difficulty. In a large school system his administrative obligations oftentimes remove him several steps away from classroom teachers. This alone is a factor that may set the stage for misunderstanding and distress.

The teacher as an individual is different from this same teacher in a group. If he is beset by frustrations as an individual, he may not confide these feelings to other teachers. The defense mechanisms

he sets up may be working toward undermining school policies unless he is given some kind of outlet. He needs guidance just as all people require it at times. If the teacher is self-contained, the superintendent cannot know how he really feels about the program.

What is needed, then, is a touching of minds--minds free to express themselves. Personnel surveys carried on by a disinterested organization, the N. E. A. Defense Commission, could get a true picture of how the staff thinks and feels. Rather than concentrate on what program is now being carried on, the wise administrator should realize that the crucial factor in the success of a program is the collective attitudes of the staff toward it. He frequently needs outside help to get a true picture of these attitudes. The very nature of his position precludes the possibility of a superintendent doing a survey himself.

Let us suppose that some of the following results are obtained:

75% of the teachers feel that the supervision is good.
 30% say salaries are adequate; 65% say they are too low.
 17% say the teacher load is satisfactory.
 12% say that morale is high.
 16% say that they participate in planning.

Then this should indicate that the majority of the teachers feel that, outside of supervision, this particular school system is not a satisfactory one in which to work in the respects listed above. This information plus many pointed comments should be taken down by the investigators and discussed with the superintendent. Suggestions for ways to improve the situation should be given. The Commission should follow up on the situation until at least the danger of a flare-up has subsided.

For the Defense Commission to initiate the personnel survey today would probably be a waste of time. Superintendents and local groups are not ready for it. The feeling persists that outsiders should mind their own business and not come meddling into local affairs. This, of course, is an attitude which is not consistent with the idea of professional cooperation. As more attention is paid, however, to human relations among staff members, the time may come when the personnel survey as suggested above will be considered just as important as the present general school survey.

THE SHORT VIEW

What about the immediate future?

The Democracy Through Education Conference has proved itself to be an instrument of great value in building understanding of and support for public education by citizen groups. Furthermore, it has great value in training for good citizenship by striving to eliminate political chicanery and unfair practices from local school situations. More of these conferences are necessary and should be given financial support by the National Education Association.

The Commission will have to give increasing attention to attacks directed by "front" groups at the public schools. At this writing the war on the minds of men shows every indication of continuing for years to come.¹ "Super-patriotic" groups fronting for certain selfish

¹James Bryant Conant, "Freedom and the University." Journal of the National Education Association, Vol. 39, No. 8, November 1950, p. 581.

interests, mostly interested in lower taxes, will undoubtedly hammer away at collectivism, statism, socialism and Communism, supposedly existing in the schools. Their real purpose in some instances will be to cut down the enriched curriculum--expressions such as "frills and fads," "failure to teach the 3 R's," and "the lack of moral and spiritual values" will fill the air. Public education faces a twofold task of doing a better job of instruction and following a public relations program which will counteract the unfounded criticisms, misguided propaganda and innuendoes fired forth by the fear mongers and hate racketeers under the guise of patriotism and religion.

The Commission's part will be to expose the activities of the sowers of distrust in the Defense Bulletin; to continue the Off Record Conferences concerning Attacks on Education, Educators and Educational Publications; to work with other national organizations in exposing these extremists; to get material into the hands of classroom teachers which will help them meet attacks against textbooks and against the school program. In other words, the "defense" aspect of the Commission's program may become the major part of its work.

Another program which falls in line with the work of the Commission is the development of human relations among school staff members. This, as has already been indicated, must go beyond mere mechanical devices to gain more participation by teachers in administrative planning. Conferences employing oral planning techniques and written studies of case problems involving semantic principles for corrective purposes would be helpful for all staff members.

The short look ahead pictures increased activity in Defense Commission work at the state and local levels. The N. E. A. Defense

Commission staff should promote, and keep active, defense commissions on the state level so that some of the heavy responsibilities now carried by the National Commission may be lightened. The national picture with respect to attacks alone will undoubtedly require active groups on the state level to counteract these influences attempting to undermine the support of public education. With strong defense commissions in each state the National Commission's role would be that of collecting information about what was happening in each state. The result would then be a better interpretation of the situation nationally so that a consistent unified policy in dealing with attacks could be carried out.

This unified policy would result in clarifying positions which professional associations should take with regard to unfair dismissal practices in both tenure and non-tenure states, in reaching agreements regarding procedures to follow. For example, while professional organizations are often helpless to prevent a board of education from discharging a teacher unfairly, the strength of the entire profession can be placed behind the unjustly discharged teacher. Much more could be done than now is done to help this teacher. She might be given a statement indicating that she has a clean bill of professional health. Armed with this and a statement requesting that she be given preference of consideration in applying for positions for which she is qualified, she would certainly know the value of professional solidarity.

Although professional strength cannot always be demonstrated directly and openly in dealing with malpractices, it can be used indirectly. This unified indirect strength is now beginning to show its potentialities with the establishment of the Donald Dushane Memorial Defense Fund to assist teachers who have been unjustly dismissed.

The teaching profession at the present time is not fully conscious of the potentialities of this fund. With a few good cases in which teachers are supported financially from the Fund, the necessity for this Fund will be apparent. From then on the Donald DuShane Memorial Defense Fund will "sell" itself.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX I

1201 SIXTEENTH STREET, NORTHWEST, WASHINGTON 6, D. C.

May 1, 1950

Dear President:

When you fill out the enclosed questionnaire, you will be helping the NEA Defense Commission help educators discover more effective ways to eliminate undemocratic practices and elements of friction in local school situations. As you probably know, the Defense Commission, the profession's bulwark against unjust attack, works constantly for educational conditions essential to democracy.

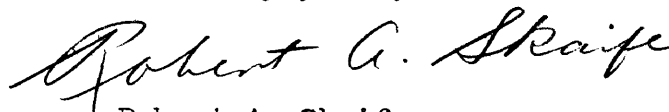
This questionnaire, which is being sent to presidents of all local associations affiliated with the National Education Association, is helpful to the National Commission for the Defense of Democracy through Education in exploring an area in education which has remained relatively untouched.

The results will be used in two ways: (1) to aid the Defense Commission in evaluating its program and in developing the preventive phase of its work, and (2) to serve as basic information for a section of a doctoral field study which relates to the activities of the Commission.

Your cooperation in assisting with the project is greatly appreciated. A summary of findings resulting from this questionnaire study will be made available to each local teachers' association.

The services of the Commission are available at all times to local associations requesting them.

Sincerely yours,



Robert A. Skaife
Field Secretary

RICHARD B. KENNAN, Secretary

CYRUS C. PERRY, Legal Counsel

VIRGINIA KINNAIRD, Associate Secretary

Assistant Secretary

ROBERT A. SKAIFE, Field Secretary

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES 164
1201 SIXTEENTH STREET NORTHWEST, WASHINGTON 6. D. C.

April, 1950

Presidents of local teachers associations:

We are requesting your help in making a study of the obstacles to harmonious relationships among teachers, administrators, and boards of education. While the Defense Commission has as one of its objectives the defense of teachers and administrators against unfair dismissals and undemocratic practices, it is vitally interested also in trying to prevent undemocratic situations from developing.

If you will kindly fill out the blanks in the following questionnaire, you will be rendering an invaluable assistance to the Commission. In return for filling out the blanks and forwarding this questionnaire to us, we are planning to send a summary of the results to all local presidents.

It is not necessary for you to give the name of your community or your own name, for they will not be referred to in the study.

The accuracy with which you express your opinion will mean a great deal in interpreting the results.

Since this is an opinion type of questionnaire, results will be interpreted accordingly. This is not an attempt to direct criticisms against superintendents, school boards, principals, or teachers. Our interest is only in opinions as to what you think are obstacles to harmonious relationships.

In answering will you please take into account all kinds of complaints, rumors, protests, and unfavorable comments which you have heard directly or indirectly. Although we do not want to receive merely petty gossip, we hope you will take in account trivial and unworthy complaints if they seem to have some bearing on harmonious relationships.

N. B. This questionnaire is intended to cover only the period of time since July 1, 1948. Please do not take into consideration anything which preceded July 1, 1948, unless the situation occurring since July 1, 1948, had its roots in the period before that time.

Directions: Please check (☒) the appropriate blank. Add a comment in the space provided whenever necessary or desirable.

1. The school system served by your local teachers association is:

(Check one) ☐ 1. A city
 ☐ 2. A county or parish
 ☐ 3. All other types

2. The population served by the local school system is:

(Check one) ☐ 1. Below 2,500
 ☐ 2. Between 2,500 and 4,999
 ☐ 3. Between 5,000 and 24,999
 ☐ 4. Between 25,000 and 99,999
 ☐ 5. Between 100,000 and 499,999
 ☐ 6. Above 500,000

3. Is the local school board:

(Check one) ☐ 1. Elected?
 ☐ 2. Appointed?
 ☐ 3. Other arrangement (Please explain)

4. The school board has:

(Check one) ☐ 1. Fewer than five members
 ☐ 2. From five to seven members
 ☐ 3. More than seven members

5. Teachers attend board meetings:

(Check one) _____ 1. Regularly
_____ 2. Seldom
_____ 3. Never

6. Is the official business of the school board transacted at meetings open to the public?

(Check one) _____ 1. Always
_____ 2. Sometimes
_____ 3. Never

7. Do teachers in your local system have:

(Check one) _____ 1. Tenure
_____ 2. "continuing contracts"
_____ 3. No tenure protection
_____ 4. _____ (Fill in, if necessary)

8. Is yours the only teachers organization in your school system?

(Check one) Yes _____
No _____

If not, what other teachers organizations are there? (Please list)

Does the independence of these organizations from one another interfere with the harmonious relationship between teachers and administration?

(Check one) Yes _____
No _____

If so, in what ways?

9. Have there been any critical situations during the two year period in the local school system in which the school board or superintendent or teacher groups, or a combination of them, have been under attack publicly?

(Check one) Yes _____
No _____

Comment:

What do you think was the cause? (Answer this question if you answered "yes" above)

What individual or group initiated the attack?

10. Has the superintendent at any time since July 1, 1948, appealed for the assistance of the local teachers association in combatting undemocratic policies or practices of the local board of education?

(Check one)

Yes _____
No _____

Comment:

11. Have you heard any complaints, rumors, protests, unfavorable comments from teachers:

a. Against the superintendent?

Yes _____ (Please continue to question 12)
No _____

b. Against the board of education?

Yes _____ (Please continue to question 13)
No _____

c. Against principals or other administrative officers?

Yes _____ (Please continue to question 14)
No _____

If you answered "yes" in question 11a, please answer question 12.

12. Of the total number of complaints, rumors, protests, unfavorable comments from teachers against the superintendent which you have heard, how many would you say were examples of undemocratic and unprofessional practices on the part of the superintendent?

(Check one)

- _____ 1. All of them
_____ 2. More than half of them
_____ 3. About half of them
_____ 4. Less than half of them
_____ 5. None of them

_____ A. Of the complaints which revealed that the superintendent was at fault, check as many of the following as you think apply:

The superintendent

- _____ 1. discharged a teacher without giving a reason for doing so
_____ 2. interfered with the activities and functions of the local teachers association
_____ 3. criticized teacher(s) in front of a group of teachers
_____ 4. tried to enforce a policy which the majority of teachers strongly opposed
_____ 5. demoted a teacher for personal reasons
_____ 6. threatened a teacher with loss of position
_____ 7. used fear as a weapon to control teachers
_____ 8. criticized teachers in public
_____ 9. allowed himself to be dominated by the local board in carrying out undemocratic policies
_____ 10. tried to get rid of teachers in the upper salary brackets
_____ 11. refused to allow teachers to participate in determining school policies
_____ 12. used one or more teachers to "spy" on other teachers
_____ 13. practiced "snoopervision" instead of supervision
_____ 14. other reason(s): (Please explain)

- _____ B. Of the complaints which revealed that the superintendent was right and the teachers mistaken or not justified, check as many of the following as you think apply:

One or more teachers

- _____ 1. criticized the superintendent without a good and sufficient reason
- _____ 2. disliked the superintendent for personal reasons
- _____ 3. misinterpreted something the superintendent said or wrote
- _____ 4. misinterpreted something the superintendent did
- _____ 5. deliberately falsified statements or acts of the superintendent
- _____ 6. attempted to stir up a group of teachers against him
- _____ 7. turned local newspapers against him
- _____ 8. went directly to the board without his knowledge
- _____ 9. turned individual members of the board against him
- _____ 10. Other reason (s): (Please explain)

- _____ C. Of the complaints which revealed that both the superintendent and the teacher (s) were at fault, check as many of the following as apply:

Both the superintendent and one or more teachers

- _____ 1. misinterpreted what the other said or wrote
- _____ 2. misinterpreted what the other did
- _____ 3. acted too hastily upon insufficient information
- _____ 4. deliberately used retaliatory tactics against one another
- _____ 5. refused to hear what the other had to say
- _____ 6. Other reason (s): (Please explain)

If you answered "yes" in question 11b, please answer question 13.

13. Of the total number of complaints, rumors, protests, unfavorable comments from teachers against the local board of education, how many would you say were examples of undemocratic policies or acts by the board?

- (Check one)
- _____ 1. All of them
 - _____ 2. More than half of them
 - _____ 3. About half of them
 - _____ 4. Less than half of them
 - _____ 5. None of them

- _____ A. Of the complaints which revealed that the board of education was at fault, check as many of the following as you think apply:

The board of education

- _____ 1. dismissed a teacher without giving him an explanation or hearing
- _____ 2. adopted policies which were not in the best interests of the local schools (Explain under 9)
- _____ 3. lowered salaries for no good reasons
- _____ 4. threatened teachers with loss of positions
- _____ 5. "punished" teachers for local teachers' association activities
- _____ 6. tried to carry on the functions of the superintendent as well as its own functions
- _____ 7. made statements designed to instil fear in teachers
- _____ 8. publicly criticized, as individual board members, the superintendent, or teachers, or methods of instruction, or curricula
- _____ 9. Other reason (s): (Please explain)

- _____ B. Of the complaints which revealed that the board of education was right and the teachers mistaken or not justified, check as many of the following as you think apply:

One or more teachers

- _____ 1. criticized the board for no good or sufficient reason
- _____ 2. opposed the board as a group for personal or political reasons
- _____ 3. tried to line up community groups or individuals against reasonable board policies
- _____ 4. misinterpreted board policies
- _____ 5. misinterpreted statements made by the board
- _____ 6. tried to turn the superintendent against the board
- _____ 7. unfairly stirred up a group of teachers against the board
- _____ 8. unjustly criticized individual board members
- _____ 9. turned local newspapers against the board
- _____ 10. Other reason (s): (Please explain)

- _____ C. Of the complaints which revealed that both the board of education and the teachers were at fault, check as many of the following as apply:

Both board of education and one or more teachers

- _____ 1. misinterpreted what the other said or wrote
- _____ 2. misinterpreted what the other did
- _____ 3. acted too hastily upon insufficient information
- _____ 4. deliberately used retaliatory tactics against one another
- _____ 5. refused to hear what the other had to say
- _____ 6. Other reason (s): (Please explain)

If you answered "yes" in question 11c, please answer question 14.

14. Of the total number of complaints, rumors, protests, unfavorable comments from teachers against principals or other administrative officers, how many would you say were examples of undemocratic and unprofessional practices on the part of principals and other administrative officers?

- (Check one)
- _____ 1. All of them
 - _____ 2. More than half of them
 - _____ 3. About half of them
 - _____ 4. Less than half of them
 - _____ 5. None of them

- _____ A. Of the complaints which revealed that the principals or other administrative officers were at fault, check as many of the following as you think apply:

The principal or other administrative officer

- _____ 1. criticized one or more teachers in front of a larger group of teachers
- _____ 2. interfered with the functioning of the local teachers' association
- _____ 3. tried to enforce his own rules which the majority of teachers under his supervision strongly opposed

- ☐ 4. threatened one or more teachers with loss of position
- ☐ 5. used fear as a weapon to control teachers
- ☐ 6. used one or more teachers to "spy" on other teachers
- ☐ 7. deliberately overloaded with duties teachers he disliked personally
- ☐ 8. practiced "snoopervision" instead of supervision
- ☐ 9. criticized one or more teachers in front of community groups or individual citizens
- ☐ 10. failed to provide for democratic participation of teachers in determining school policies
- ☐ 11. forced one or more teachers to teach subjects they hadn't taught before and for which they had no preparation
- ☐ 12. took the part of pupils against the teacher every time
- ☐ 13. used sarcasm and other negative devices
- ☐ 14. Other reason (s): (Please explain)

☐ B. Of the complaints which revealed that the principals or other administrative officers were right and the teachers mistaken or not justified, check as many of the following as you think apply:

One or more teachers

- ☐ 1. criticized the principal or other administrative officer without good or sufficient reason
- ☐ 2. disliked the principal or other administrative officer for personal reasons
- ☐ 3. misinterpreted something the principal or other administrative officer said or wrote
- ☐ 4. misinterpreted something the principal or other administrative officer did
- ☐ 5. attempted to stir up school patrons against the principal or other administrative officer
- ☐ 6. deliberately falsified statements or acts of the principal or other administrative officer
- ☐ 7. attempted to stir up a group of teachers against him
- ☐ 8. turned individual members of the board against him
- ☐ 9. turned local newspapers against him
- ☐ 10. Other reason (s): (Please explain)

☐ C. Of the complaints which revealed that both the principal (or other administrative officer) and the teachers were at fault, check as many of the following as apply:

Both principal (or other administrative officer) and one or more teachers

- ☐ 1. misinterpreted what the other said or wrote
- ☐ 2. misinterpreted what the other did
- ☐ 3. acted too hastily upon insufficient information
- ☐ 4. deliberately used retaliatory tactics against one another
- ☐ 5. refused to hear what the other had to say
- ☐ 6. Other reason (s): (Please explain)

15. Morale:

Would you rate the morale of the educational staff in your community:

- (Check one) _____ 1. unusually high
_____ 2. high
_____ 3. fair
_____ 4. low
_____ 5. extremely low

- Unusually high morale - exceptionally high professional attitude - teachers initiate improvement programs - very friendly social atmosphere in and out of school among teachers - high degree of voluntary cooperation - absence of friction between teaching and administrative staff - high degree of voluntary loyalty to the school system.
- High morale - healthy professional attitude - teachers participate well in improvement programs - friendly social atmosphere in and out of school among teachers - some degree of voluntary cooperation - very small amount of friction between teaching and administrative staff - substantial majority of staff loyal to the school system.
- Fair morale - professional attitude high for some but low for others - some participation in improvement programs - social atmosphere characterized by a mixture of friendly and unfriendly attitudes - cooperation seldom voluntary but can be gained with some effort - some friction between teaching and administrative staff but no open hostility - staff in general loyal to school system.
- Low morale - professional attitude on the whole absent - very little participation in improvement programs - friendly social atmosphere lacking - involuntary cooperation - considerable friction between teaching and administrative staff with fear and hostility common - little respect for school system on part of staff.
- Extremely low morale - contempt for education as a profession - no participation in improvement programs - hostile social atmosphere - no cooperation beyond what is absolutely necessary - open friction between teaching and administrative staff - contempt for the school system - constant fear of reprisals on part of staff members - much unfavorable publicity.

16. General comments

(Please feel free to indicate anything you believe is pertinent which has not been covered by items 1 through 15)

Will you please return this questionnaire just as soon as practicable to:

Mr. Robert A. Skaife, Field Secretary
National Commission for the Defense of
Democracy through Education
National Education Association
1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W.
Washington 6, D. C.

A self-addressed envelope is enclosed for your convenience.
Your cooperation is deeply appreciated.

APPENDIX II

TABLE II

NUMBER OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS IN SCHOOL SYSTEMS
WITH APPOINTED BOARDS AND WITH ELECTED BOARDS

CITIES	NUMBER OF APPOINTED BOARDS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS	NUMBER OF ELECTED BOARDS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS
1. BELOW 2,500	4	2	33	4
2. BETWEEN 2,500 - 4,999	4	1	48	13
3. BETWEEN 5,000 - 24,999	33	7	273	59
4. BETWEEN 25,000 - 99,999	44	16	171	53
5. BETWEEN 100,000 - 499,999	13	4	57	17
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	9	3	22	10
7. UNCLASSIFIED	1		2	1
8. TOTAL	113	33	606	157

TABLE II-A

(PERCENTAGES)

CITIES	NUMBER OF APPOINTED BOARDS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS	NUMBER OF ELECTED BOARDS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS
1. BELOW 2,500	1.00	.50	1.00	.12
2. BETWEEN 2,500 - 4,999	1.00	.25	1.00	.27
3. BETWEEN 5,000 - 24,999	1.00	.18	1.00	.31
4. BETWEEN 25,000 - 99,999	1.00	.36	1.00	.31
5. BETWEEN 100,000 - 499,999	1.00	.31	1.00	.30
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	1.00	.33	1.00	.45
7. UNCLASSIFIED	1.00		1.00	.50
8. TOTAL	1.00	.29	1.00	.26

TABLE II

NUMBER OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS IN SCHOOL SYSTEMS
WITH APPOINTED BOARDS AND WITH ELECTED BOARDS

COUNTIES	NUMBER OF APPOINTED BOARDS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS	NUMBER OF ELECTED BOARDS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS
1. BELOW 2,500	10	3	38	11
2. BETWEEN 2,500 - 4,999	11	3	20	7
3. BETWEEN 5,000 - 24,999	27	7	69	22
4. BETWEEN 25,000 - 99,999	15	3	46	13
5. BETWEEN 100,000 - 499,999	3		11	5
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	2			
7. UNCLASSIFIED	1		5	1
8. TOTAL	69	16	189	59

TABLE II-A

(PERCENTAGES)

COUNTIES	NUMBER OF APPOINTED BOARDS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS	NUMBER OF ELECTED BOARDS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS
1. BELOW 2,500	1.00	.30	1.00	.29
2. BETWEEN 2,500 - 4,999	1.00	.27	1.00	.35
3. BETWEEN 5,000 - 24,999	1.00	.26	1.00	.32
4. BETWEEN 25,000 - 99,999	1.00	.20	1.00	.28
5. BETWEEN 100,000 - 499,999	1.00		1.00	.45
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	1.00			
7. UNCLASSIFIED	1.00		1.00	.20
8. TOTAL	1.00	.23	1.00	.31

NUMBER OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS IN SCHOOL SYSTEMS
WITH APPOINTED BOARDS AND WITH ELECTED BOARDS

ALL OTHER TYPES	NUMBER OF APPOINTED BOARDS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS	NUMBER OF ELECTED BOARDS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS
1. BELOW 2,500	2	1	35	8
BETWEEN				
2. 2,500 - 4,999	1		56	15
BETWEEN				
3. 5,000 - 24,999	3	1	113	34
BETWEEN				
4. 25,000 - 99,999	1	1	22	7
BETWEEN				
5. 100,000 - 499,999	3	1	2	
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	1	1		
7. UNCLASSIFIED	1	1	5	2
8. TOTAL	12	6	233	66

TABLE II-A

(PERCENTAGES)

ALL OTHER TYPES	NUMBER OF APPOINTED BOARDS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS	NUMBER OF ELECTED BOARDS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS
1. BELOW 2,500	1.00	.50	1.00	.23
BETWEEN				
2. 2,500 - 4,999	1.00		1.00	.27
BETWEEN				
3. 5,000 - 24,999	1.00	.33	1.00	.30
BETWEEN				
4. 25,000 - 99,999	1.00	1.00	1.00	.32
BETWEEN				
5. 100,000 - 499,999	1.00	.33	1.00	
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	1.00	1.00		
7. UNCLASSIFIED	1.00	1.00	1.00	.40
8. TOTAL	1.00	.50	1.00	.28

TABLE III

NUMBER OF CASES OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS IN
SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN RELATION TO SIZE OF SCHOOL BOARDS

CITIES	FEWER THAN 5 MEMBERS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL SITUATIONS	FROM 5 TO 7 MEMBERS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL SITUATIONS	MORE THAN 7 MEMBERS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL SITUATIONS
1. BELOW 2,500	8	2	28	3		
2. BETWEEN 2,500 - 4,999	5	1	45	12	3	1
3. BETWEEN 5,000 - 24,999	29	9	257	52	25	5
4. BETWEEN 25,000 - 99,999	9	4	163	61	44	13
5. BETWEEN 100,000 - 499,999			57	15	13	7
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE			15	7	16	6
7. UNCLASSIFIED			3	1		
8. TOTAL	51	16	568	151	101	32

TABLE III-A

(PERCENTAGES)

CITIES	FEWER THAN 5 MEMBERS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL SITUATIONS	FROM 5 TO 7 MEMBERS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL SITUATIONS	MORE THAN 7 MEMBERS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL SITUATIONS
1. BELOW 2,500	1.00	.40	1.00	.11	1.00	
2. BETWEEN 2,500 - 4,999	1.00	.20	1.00	.26	1.00	.33
3. BETWEEN 5,000 - 24,999	1.00	.31	1.00	.20	1.00	.20
4. BETWEEN 25,000 - 99,999	1.00	.44	1.00	.37	1.00	.30
5. BETWEEN 100,000 - 499,999	1.00		1.00	.26	1.00	.54
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	1.00		1.00	.47	1.00	.38
7. UNCLASSIFIED	1.00		1.00	.33	1.00	
8. TOTAL	1.00	.31	1.00	.27	1.00	.32

NUMBER OF CASES OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS IN
SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN RELATION TO SIZE OF SCHOOL BOARDS

COUNTRIES	FEWER THAN 5 MEMBERS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL SITUATIONS	FROM 5 TO 7 MEMBERS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL SITUATIONS	MORE THAN 7 MEMBERS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL SITUATIONS
1. BELOW 2,500	9	2	35	12	4	
2. BETWEEN 2,500 - 4,999	6	2	24	8	1	
3. BETWEEN 5,000 - 24,999	9	1	83	27	6	2
4. BETWEEN 25,000 - 99,999	2		53	15	8	2
5. BETWEEN 100,000 - 499,999			14	5	2	1
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	1		1			
7. UNCLASSIFIED			6	1		
8. TOTAL	27	5	216	68	21	5

TABLE III-A

(PERCENTAGES)

COUNTRIES	FEWER THAN 5 MEMBERS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL SITUATIONS	FROM 5 TO 7 MEMBERS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL SITUATIONS	MORE THAN 7 MEMBERS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL SITUATIONS
1. BELOW 2,500	1.00	.22	1.00	.34	1.00	
2. BETWEEN 2,500 - 4,999	1.00	.33	1.00	.33	1.00	
3. BETWEEN 5,000 - 24,999	1.00	.11	1.00	.33	1.00	.33
4. BETWEEN 25,000 - 99,999	1.00		1.00	.28	1.00	.25
5. BETWEEN 100,000 - 499,999	1.00		1.00	.36	1.00	.50
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	1.00		1.00		1.00	
7. UNCLASSIFIED	1.00		1.00	.17	1.00	
8. TOTAL	1.00	.19	1.00	.31	1.00	.24

NUMBER OF CASES OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS IN
SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN RELATION TO SIZE OF SCHOOL BOARDS

ALL OTHER TYPES	FEWER THAN 5 MEMBERS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL SITUATIONS	FROM 5 TO 7 MEMBERS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL SITUATIONS	MORE THAN 7 MEMBERS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL SITUATIONS
1. BELOW 2,500	16	3	19	6	2	
2. BETWEEN 2,500 - 4,999	8	1	40	9	10	5
3. BETWEEN 5,000 - 24,999	6	1	93	29	18	6
4. BETWEEN 25,000 - 99,999			19	5	4	3
5. BETWEEN 100,000 - 499,999			4		2	1
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE					1	1
7. UNCLASSIFIED			4	2	2	1
8. TOTAL	30	5	179	51	39	17

TABLE III-A

(PERCENTAGES)

ALL OTHER TYPES	FEWER THAN 5 MEMBERS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL SITUATIONS	FROM 5 TO 7 MEMBERS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL SITUATIONS	MORE THAN 7 MEMBERS	NUMBER OF CRITICAL SITUATIONS
1. BELOW 2,500	1.00	.19	1.00	.32	1.00	
2. BETWEEN 2,500 - 4,999	1.00	.12	1.00	.23	1.00	.50
3. BETWEEN 5,000 - 24,999	1.00	.17	1.00	.31	1.00	.33
4. BETWEEN 25,000 - 99,999	1.00		1.00	.26	1.00	.75
5. BETWEEN 100,000 - 499,999	1.00		1.00		1.00	.50
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	1.00		1.00		1.00	1.00
7. UNCLASSIFIED	1.00		1.00	.50	1.00	.50
8. TOTAL	1.00	.17	1.00	.28	1.00	.44

TABLE IV
NUMBER OF CASES OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS IN
SCHOOL SYSTEMS HAVING, RESPECTIVELY, TENURE, CON-
TINUING CONTRACTS, NO TENURE, AND "OTHER ARRANGEMENT"

CITIES	TENURE	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	CONTINU- ING CONTRACTS	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	NO TENURE	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	OTHER ARRANGE- MENT	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	NO RESPONSE
1. BELOW 2,500	4	1	12	1	20	4			1
BETWEEN									
2. 2,500 - 4,999	13	1	17	5	22	7	1	1	
BETWEEN									
3. 5,000 - 24,999	159	35	69	13	71	17	4	3	10
BETWEEN									
4. 25,000 - 99,999	114	40	51	10	44	17	8	2	1
BETWEEN									
5. 100,000 - 499,999	46	15	11	3	9	2	1		3
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	22	9	6	1	3	3			
7. UNCLASSIFIED	2				1	1			
8. TOTAL	360	101	166	33	170	51	14	6	15

NUMBER OF CASES OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS IN
SCHOOL SYSTEMS HAVING, RESPECTIVELY, TENURE, CON-
TINUING CONTRACTS, NO TENURE, AND "OTHER ARRANGEMENT"

COUNTIES	TENURE	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	CONTINU- ING CONTRACTS	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	NO TENURE	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	OTHER ARRANGE- MENT	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	NO RESPONSE
1. BELOW 2,500	12	2	12	3	21	7	2	1	1
BETWEEN									
2. 2,500 - 4,999	11	3	1		17	6			2
BETWEEN									
3. 5,000 - 24,999	20	11	20	9	47	10	2		2
BETWEEN									
4. 25,000 - 99,999	34	9	12	4	17	3			
BETWEEN									
5. 100,000 - 499,999	11	5	2	1	3				
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	2								
7. UNCLASSIFIED	2		2		2	1			
8. TOTAL	100	30	49	17	107	27	4	1	5

NUMBER OF CASES OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS IN
SCHOOL SYSTEMS HAVING, RESPECTIVELY, TENURE, CON-
TINUING CONTRACTS, NO TENURE, AND "OTHER ARRANGEMENT"

ALL OTHER TYPES	TENURE	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	CONTINU- ING CONTRACTS	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	NO TENURE	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	OTHER ARRANGE- MENT	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	NO RESPONSE
1. BELOW 2,500	19	6	7		11	3			
BETWEEN									
2. 2,500 - 4,999	30	7	12	2	15	6	1		
BETWEEN									
3. 5,000 - 24,999	89	29	12	4	12	2	2	1	2
BETWEEN									
4. 25,000 - 99,999	16	7	5		2	1			
BETWEEN									
5. 100,000 - 499,999	3		1		2	1			
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	1	1							
7. UNCLASSIFIED	5	2			1	1			
8. TOTAL	163	52	37	6	43	14	3	1	2

TABLE IV-1
NUMBER OF CASES OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS IN
SCHOOL SYSTEMS HAVING, RESPECTIVELY, TENURE, CON-
TINUING CONTRACTS, NO TENURE, AND "OTHER ARRANGEMENT"

(PERCENTAGES)

CITIES	TENURE	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	CONTINU- ING CONTRACTS	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	NO TENURE	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	OTHER ARRANGE- MENT	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	NO RESPONSE
1. BELOW 2,500	1.00	.25	1.00	.08	1.00	.20			
2. BETWEEN 2,500 - 4,999	1.00	.08	1.00	.29	1.00	.32	1.00	1.00	
3. BETWEEN 5,000 - 24,999	1.00	.22	1.00	.19	1.00	.24	1.00	.75	
4. BETWEEN 25,000 - 99,999	1.00	.35	1.00	.20	1.00	.39	1.00	.25	
5. BETWEEN 100,000 - 499,999	1.00	.33	1.00	.27	1.00	.22	1.00		
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	1.00	.41	1.00	.17	1.00	1.00			
7. UNCLASSIFIED	1.00				1.00	1.00			
8. TOTAL	1.00	.28	1.00	.20	1.00	.30	1.00	.43	

TABLE IV-A
NUMBER OF CASES OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS IN
SCHOOL SYSTEMS HAVING, RESPECTIVELY, TENURE, CON-
TINUING CONTRACTS, NO TENURE, AND "OTHER ARRANGEMENT"

(PERCENTAGES)

COUNTIES	TENURE	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	CONTINU- ING CONTRACTS	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	NO TENURE	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	OTHER ARRANGE- MENT	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	NO RESPONSE
1. BELOW 2,500	1.00	.17	1.00	.25	1.00	.33	1.00	.50	
2. BETWEEN 2,500 - 4,999	1.00	.27	1.00		1.00	.35			
3. BETWEEN 5,000 - 24,999	1.00	.39	1.00	.45	1.00	.21	1.00		
4. BETWEEN 25,000 - 99,999	1.00	.26	1.00	.33	1.00	.18			
5. BETWEEN 100,000 - 499,999	1.00	.45	1.00	.50	1.00				
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	1.00				1.00				
7. UNCLASSIFIED	1.00		1.00		1.00	.50			
8. TOTAL	1.00	.30	1.00	.35	1.00	.25	1.00	.25	

TABLE IV-A
NUMBER OF CASES OF CRITICAL LOCAL SITUATIONS IN
SCHOOL SYSTEMS HAVING, RESPECTIVELY, TENURE, CON-
TINUING CONTRACTS, NO TENURE, AND "OTHER ARRANGEMENT"

(PERCENTAGES)

ALL OTHER TYPES	TENURE	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	CONTINU- ING CONTRACTS	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	NO TENURE	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	OTHER ARRANGE- MENT	CRITICAL SITUA- TIONS	NO RESPONSE
1. BELOW 2,500	1.00	.32	1.00		1.00	.27			
BETWEEN									
2. 2,500 - 4,999	1.00	.23	1.00	.17	1.00	.40	1.00		
BETWEEN									
3. 5,000 - 24,999	1.00	.33	1.00	.33	1.00	.17	1.00	.50	
BETWEEN									
4. 25,000 - 99,999	1.00	.44	1.00		1.00	.50			
BETWEEN									
5. 100,000 - 499,999	1.00		1.00		1.00	.50			
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	1.00	1.00		.					
7. UNCLASSIFIED	1.00	.40	1.00		1.00	1.00			
8. TOTAL	1.00	.32	1.00	.16	1.00	.33	1.00	.33	

TABLE V

COMPARISON OF EXTENT TO WHICH BOARD MEETINGS
ARE OPEN TO THE PUBLIC WITH APPOINTED BOARDS
AND WITH ELECTED BOARDS

178

A. APPOINTED BOARDS

CITIES	NUMBER OF APPOINTED BOARDS	ALWAYS	SOMETIMES	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. BELOW 2,500	4	1	1	2	
2. 2,500 - 4,999 BETWEEN	4	2	2		
3. 5,000-24,999 BETWEEN	38	5	15	16	2
4. 25,000-99,999 BETWEEN	44	13	21	8	2
5. 100,000-499,999 BETWEEN	13	7	2	2	2
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	9	6	3		
7. UNCLASSIFIED	1				1
8. TOTAL	113	34	44	28	7

B. ELECTED BOARDS

CITIES	NUMBER OF ELECTED BOARDS	ALWAYS	SOMETIMES	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. BELOW 2,500	33	16	9	6	2
2. 2,500 - 4,999 BETWEEN	48	20	13	14	1
3. 5,000-24,999 BETWEEN	273	115	100	43	15
4. 25,000-99,999 BETWEEN	171	91	59	15	6
5. 100,000-499,999 BETWEEN	57	32	18	4	3
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	22	12	10		
7. UNCLASSIFIED	2		1	1	
8. TOTAL	606	286	210	83	27

TABLE V
COMPARISON OF EXTENT TO WHICH BOARD MEETINGS
ARE OPEN TO THE PUBLIC WITH APPOINTED BOARDS
AND WITH ELECTED BOARDS

179

A. APPOINTED BOARDS

COUNTIES	NUMBER OF APPOINTED BOARDS	ALWAYS	SOMETIMES	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. BELOW 2,500	10	3	5	1	1
BETWEEN					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	11	2	7	2	
BETWEEN					
3. 5,000-24,999	27	8	12	6	1
BETWEEN					
4. 25,000-99,999	15	4	5	5	1
BETWEEN					
5. 100,000-499,999	3	1	2		
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	2		1	1	
7. UNCLASSIFIED	1			1	
8. TOTAL	69	16	32	16	3

B. ELECTED BOARDS

COUNTIES	NUMBER OF ELECTED BOARDS	ALWAYS	SOMETIMES	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. BELOW 2,500	38	9	12	10	
BETWEEN					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	20	5	3	6	1
BETWEEN					
3. 5,000-24,999	70	27	23	15	
BETWEEN					
4. 25,000-99,999	47	20	18	7	2
BETWEEN					
5. 100,000-499,999	12	7	5		
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE					
7. UNCLASSIFIED	5	3	2		
8. TOTAL	192	71	60	38	3

TABLE V
COMPARISON OF EXTENT TO WHICH BOARD MEETINGS
ARE OPEN TO THE PUBLIC WITH APPOINTED BOARDS
AND WITH ELECTED BOARDS

180

A. APPOINTED BOARDS

ALL OTHER TYPES	NUMBER OF APPOINTED BOARDS	ALWAYS	SOMETIMES	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. BELOW 2,500	2	1	1		
BETWEEN					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	1	1			
BETWEEN					
3. 5,000-24,999	3		1	2	
BETWEEN					
4. 25,000-99,999	1			1	
BETWEEN					
5. 100,000-499,999	3		2		1
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	1		1		
7. UNCLASSIFIED	1			1	
8. TOTAL	12	2	5	4	1

B. ELECTED BOARDS

ALL OTHER TYPES	NUMBER OF ELECTED BOARDS	ALWAYS	SOMETIMES	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. BELOW 2,500	35	13	9	8	5
BETWEEN					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	56	20	17	16	3
BETWEEN					
3. 5,000-24,999	113	47	43	17	6
BETWEEN					
4. 25,000-99,999	22	11	11		
BETWEEN					
5. 100,000-499,999	2	1		1	
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE					
7. UNCLASSIFIED	5	1	1	3	
8. TOTAL	233	93	81	45	14

TABLE V-A

COMPARISON OF EXTENT TO WHICH BOARD MEETINGS
ARE OPEN TO THE PUBLIC WITH APPOINTED BOARDS
AND WITH ELECTED BOARDS

181

A. APPOINTED BOARDS

(PERCENTAGES)

CITIES	NUMBER OF APPOINTED BOARDS	ALWAYS	SOMETIMES	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. BELOW 2,500	1.00	.25	.25	.50	
BETWEEN					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	1.00	.50	.50		
BETWEEN					
3. 5,000-24,999	1.00	.13	.39	.42	.06
BETWEEN					
4. 25,000-99,999	1.00	.30	.48	.18	.04
BETWEEN					
5. 100,000-499,999	1.00	.54	.15	.15	.15
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	1.00	.67	.33		
7. UNCLASSIFIED	1.00				1.00
8. TOTAL	1.00	.30	.39	.25	.06

B. ELECTED BOARDS

(PERCENTAGES)

CITIES	NUMBER OF ELECTED BOARDS	ALWAYS	SOMETIMES	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. BELOW 2,500	1.00	.48	.27	.18	.07
BETWEEN					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	1.00	.41	.27	.29	.03
BETWEEN					
3. 5,000-24,999	1.00	.42	.37	.16	.05
BETWEEN					
4. 25,000-99,999	1.00	.53	.35	.09	.03
BETWEEN					
5. 100,000-499,999	1.00	.56	.32	.07	.05
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	1.00	.55	.45		
7. UNCLASSIFIED	1.00				
8. TOTAL	1.00	.47	.35	.14	.04

TABLE V-A
COMPARISON OF EXTENT TO WHICH BOARD MEETINGS
ARE OPEN TO THE PUBLIC WITH APPOINTED BOARDS
AND WITH ELECTED BOARDS

182

A. APPOINTED BOARDS

(PERCENTAGES)

COUNTIES	NUMBER OF APPOINTED BOARDS	ALWAYS	SOMETIMES	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. BELOW 2,500	1.00	.30	.50	.10	.10
2. BETWEEN 2,500 - 4,999	1.00	.18	.64	.18	
3. BETWEEN 5,000-24,999	1.00	.30	.44	.22	.04
4. BETWEEN 25,000-99,999	1.00	.27	.33	.33	.07
5. BETWEEN 100,000-499,999	1.00	.33	.67		
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	1.00		.50	.50	
7. UNCLASSIFIED	1.00			1.00	
8. TOTAL	1.00	.26	.46	.23	.04

B. ELECTED BOARDS

(PERCENTAGES)

COUNTIES	NUMBER OF ELECTED BOARDS	ALWAYS	SOMETIMES	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. BELOW 2,500	1.00	.24	.50	.26	
2. BETWEEN 2,500 - 4,999	1.00	.25	.40	.30	.05
3. BETWEEN 5,000-24,999	1.00	.39	.40	.21	
4. BETWEEN 25,000-99,999	1.00	.43	.38	.15	.04
5. BETWEEN 100,000-499,999	1.00	.58	.42		
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	1.00				
7. UNCLASSIFIED	1.00	.60	.40		
8. TOTAL	1.00	.37	.42	.20	.01

TABLE V-A
COMPARISON OF EXTENT TO WHICH BOARD MEETINGS
ARE OPEN TO THE PUBLIC WITH APPOINTED BOARDS
AND WITH ELECTED BOARDS

183

A. APPOINTED BOARDS

(PERCENTAGES)

ALL OTHER TYPES	NUMBER OF APPOINTED BOARDS	ALWAYS	SOMETIMES	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. BELOW 2,500	1.00	.50	.50		
BETWEEN					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	1.00	1.00			
BETWEEN					
3. 5,000-24,999	1.00		.33	.67	
BETWEEN					
4. 25,000-99,999	1.00			1.00	
BETWEEN					
5. 100,000-499,999	1.00		.67		.33
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	1.00		1.00		
7. UNCLASSIFIED	1.00			1.00	
8. TOTAL	1.00	.16	.42	.33	.09

B. ELECTED BOARDS

(PERCENTAGES)

ALL OTHER TYPES	NUMBER OF ELECTED BOARDS	ALWAYS	SOMETIMES	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. BELOW 2,500	1.00	.39	.25	.22	.14
BETWEEN					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	1.00	.36	.30	.29	.05
BETWEEN					
3. 5,000-24,999	1.00	.42	.38	.15	.05
BETWEEN					
4. 25,000-99,999	1.00	.50	.50		
BETWEEN					
5. 100,000-499,999	1.00	.50		.50	
6. 500,000 AND ABOVE	1.00				
7. UNCLASSIFIED	1.00	.20	.20	.60	
8. TOTAL	1.00	.40	.35	.19	.06

TABLE VI

COMPARISON OF EXTENT TO WHICH TEACHERS ATTEND BOARD MEETINGS WHEN BOARDS
ARE APPOINTED AND WHEN THEY ARE ELECTED

184

A. APPOINTED BOARDS

CITIES	NUMBER OF APPOINTED BOARDS	REGULARLY	SELDOM	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	4		2	2	
Between					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	4		3	1	
Between					
3. 5,000 - 24,999	38	1	19	18	
Between					
4. 25,000-99,999	44	8	25	11	
Between					
5. 100,000-499,999	13	3	7	2	1
Between					
6. 500,000 and above	9	3	5	1	
Between					
7. Unclassified	1			1	
8. Total	113	15	61	36	1

B. ELECTED BOARDS

CITIES	NUMBER OF ELECTED BOARDS	REGULARLY	SELDOM	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	33	3	15	15	
Between					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	48	1	25	22	
Between					
3. 5,000-24,999	273	19	146	106	2
Between					
4. 25,000-99,999	171	35	95	41	
Between					
5. 100,000-499,999	57	32	18	6	1
Between					
6. 500,000 and over	22	16	6		
Between					
7. Unclassified	2		1	1	
8. Total	606	106	306	191	3

TABLE VI

COMPARISON OF EXTENT TO WHICH TEACHERS ATTEND BOARD MEETINGS WHEN BOARDS¹⁸⁵
ARE APPOINTED AND WHEN THEY ARE ELECTED

A. APPOINTED BOARDS

COUNTIES	NUMBER OF APPOINTED BOARDS	REGULARLY	SELDOM	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	10		5	5	
Between					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	11		7	4	
Between					
3. 5,000 - 24,999	27	1	13	13	
Between					
4. 25,000-99,999	15	1	7	7	
Between					
5. 100,000-499,999	3		1	2	
6. 500,000 and above	2		1	1	
7. Unclassified	1		1		
8. Total	69	2	35	32	

B. ELECTED BOARDS

COUNTIES	NUMBER OF ELECTED BOARDS	REGULARLY	SELDOM	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	38		21	17	
Between					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	20		10	10	
Between					
3. 5,000-24,999	70	3	38	29	
Between					
4. 25,000-99,999	47		31	15	1
Between					
5. 100,000-499,999	12	1	9	2	
6. 500,000 and over					
7. Unclassified	5		2	3	
8. Total	192	4	111	76	1

COMPARISON OF EXTENT TO WHICH TEACHERS ATTEND BOARD MEETINGS WHEN BOARDS
ARE APPOINTED AND WHEN THEY ARE ELECTED

A. APPOINTED BOARDS

ALL OTHER TYPES	NUMBER OF APPOINTED BOARDS	REGULARLY	SELDOM	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	2		1	1	
Between					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	1			1	
Between					
3. 5,000 - 24,999	3		1	2	
Between					
4. 25,000-99,999	1			1	
Between					
5. 100,000-499,999	3			3	
6. 500,000 and above	1		1		
7. Unclassified	1			1	
8. Total	12		3	9	

B. ELECTED BOARDS

ALL OTHER TYPES	NUMBER OF ELECTED BOARDS	REGULARLY	SELDOM	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	35	2	17	16	
Between					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	56	4	27	25	
Between					
3. 5,000-24,999	113	13	69	30	1
Between					
4. 25,000-99,999	22	7	9	6	
Between					
5. 100,000-499,999	2	1		1	
6. 500,000 and over					
7. Unclassified	5		1	4	
8. Total	233	27	123	82	1

COMPARISON OF EXTENT TO WHICH TEACHERS ATTEND BOARD MEETINGS WHEN BOARDS
ARE APPOINTED AND WHEN THEY ARE ELECTED

A. APPOINTED BOARDS

(PERCENTAGES)

CITIES	NUMBER OF APPOINTED BOARDS	REGULARLY	SELDOM	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	1.00		.50	.50	
Between					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	1.00		.75	.25	
Between					
3. 5,000 - 24,999	1.00	.03	.50	.47	
Between					
4. 25,000-99,999	1.00	.18	.57	.25	
Between					
5. 100,000-499,999	1.00	.23	.54	.15	.08
6. 500,000 and above	1.00	.33	.56	.11	
7. Unclassified	1.00			1.00	
8. Total	1.00	.13	.54	.32	.01

B. ELECTED BOARDS

(PERCENTAGES)

CITIES	NUMBER OF ELECTED BOARDS	REGULARLY	SELDOM	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	1.00	.09	.45	.45	
Between					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	1.00	.02	.52	.46	
Between					
3. 5,000-24,999	1.00	.07	.53	.39	.01
Between					
4. 25,000-99,999	1.00	.20	.56	.24	
Between					
5. 100,000-499,999		.56	.32	.11	.01
6. 500,000 and over	1.00	.73	.27		
7. Unclassified	1.00		.50	.50	
8. Total	1.00	.17	.50	.32	.00

COMPARISON OF EXTENT TO WHICH TEACHERS ATTEND BOARD MEETINGS WHEN BOARDS
ARE APPOINTED AND WHEN THEY ARE ELECTED

A. APPOINTED BOARDS

(PERCENTAGES)

COUNTIES	NUMBER OF APPOINTED BOARDS	REGULARLY	SELDOM	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	1.00		.50	.50	
Between					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	1.00		.64	.36	
Between					
3. 5,000 - 24,999	1.00	.04	.48	.48	
Between					
4. 25,000-99,999	1.00	.06	.47	.47	
Between					
5. 100,000-499,999	1.00		.33	.67	
6. 500,000 and above	1.00		.50	.50	
7. Unclassified	1.00		1.00		
8. Total		.03	.51	.46	

B. ELECTED BOARDS

(PERCENTAGES)

COUNTIES	NUMBER OF ELECTED BOARDS	REGULARLY	SELDOM	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	1.00		.55	.45	
Between					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	1.00		.50	.50	
Between					
3. 5,000-24,999	1.00	.05	.54	.41	
Between					
4. 25,000-99,999	1.00		.66	.32	.02
Between					
5. 100,000-499,999	1.00	.08	.75	.17	
6. 500,000 and over					
7. Unclassified	1.00		.40	.60	
8. Total	1.00	.02	.58	.40	.01

COMPARISON OF EXTENT TO WHICH TEACHERS ATTEND BOARD MEETINGS WHEN BOARDS
ARE APPOINTED AND WHEN THEY ARE ELECTED

A. APPOINTED BOARDS
(PERCENTAGES)

ALL OTHER TYPES	NUMBER OF APPOINTED BOARDS	REGULARLY	SELDOM	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	1.00		.50	.50	
Between					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	1.00			1.00	
Between					
3. 5,000 - 24,999	1.00		.33	.67	
Between					
4. 25,000-99,999	1.00			1.00	
Between					
5. 100,000-499,999	1.00			1.00	
6. 500,000 and above	1.00		1.00		
7. Unclassified	1.00			1.00	
8. Total	1.00		.25	.75	

B. ELECTED BOARDS
(PERCENTAGES)

ALL OTHER TYPES	NUMBER OF ELECTED BOARDS	REGULARLY	SELDOM	NEVER	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	1.00	.06	.49	.45	
Between					
2. 2,500 - 4,999	1.00	.07	.48	.45	
Between					
3. 5,000-24,999	1.00	.12	.61	.27	.00
Between					
4. 25,000-99,999	1.00	.32	.41	.27	
Between					
5. 100,000-499,999	1.00	.50		.50	
6. 500,000 and over					
7. Unclassified	1.00		.20	.80	
8. Total	1.00	.12	.53	.35	.00

TABLE VII

MORALE RATINGS ASSIGNED BY PRESIDENTS OF LOCAL AFFILIATED ASSOCIATIONS

CITIES	TOTAL	UNUSUALLY HIGH	HIGH	FAIR	LOW	EXTREMELY LOW	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	37	7	19	9	2		
Between							
2. 2,500-4,999	53	5	25	18	3		2
Between							
3. 5,000-24,999	313	32	145	123	10	1	2
Between							
4. 25,000-99,999	218	23	111	69	11	3	1
Between							
5. 100,000-499,999	70	6	34	22	4	2	2
Between							
6. 500,000 and above	31	3	10	12	3	2	1
7. Unclassified	3						
8. Total	725	76	346	254	33	8	8

TABLE VII - A
(PERCENTAGES)

CITIES	TOTAL	UNUSUALLY HIGH	HIGH	FAIR	LOW	EXTREMELY LOW	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	1.00	.19	.51	.24	.06		
Between							
2. 2,500-4,999	1.00	.09	.47	.34	.06		.04
Between							
3. 5,000-24,999	1.00	.10	.46	.39	.03	.00	.01
Between							
4. 25,000-99,999	1.00	.11	.51	.32	.05	.01	.00
Between							
5. 100,000-499,999	1.00	.09	.49	.31	.06	.03	.03
Between							
6. 500,000 and above	1.00	.10	.32	.39	.10	.06	.03
7. Unclassified	1.00		.67	.33			
8. Total	1.00	.10	.48	.35	.05	.01	.01

TABLE VII

MORALE RATINGS ASSIGNED BY PRESIDENTS OF LOCAL AFFILIATED ASSOCIATIONS

COUNTIES	TOTAL	UNUSUALLY HIGH	HIGH	FAIR	LOW	EXTREMELY LOW	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	48	6	19	20	2	1	
Between							
2. 2,500-4,999	31	5	13	12	1		
Between							
3. 5,000-24,999	99	8	40	43	5	2	1
Between							
4. 25,000-99,999	63	5	31	24	3		
Between							
5. 100,000-499,999	16	1	11	3	1		
Between							
6. 500,000 and above	2		1	1			
7. Unclassified	6	1	3	2			
8. Total	265	26	118	105	12	3	1

TABLE VII - A
(PERCENTAGES)

COUNTIES	TOTAL	UNUSUALLY HIGH	HIGH	FAIR	LOW	EXTREMELY LOW	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	1.00	.12	.40	.42	.04	.01	
Between							
2. 2,500-4,999	1.00	.16	.42	.39	.03		
Between							
3. 5,000-24,999	1.00	.08	.40	.43	.05	.02	.01
Between							
4. 25,000-99,999	1.00	.08	.50	.38	.04		
Between							
5. 100,000-499,999	1.00	.06	.69	.18	.06		
Between							
6. 500,000 and above	1.00		.50	.50			
7. Unclassified	1.00	.17	.50	.33			
8. Total	1.00	.10	.45	.40	.05	.01	.00

TABLE VII

MORALE RATINGS ASSIGNED BY PRESIDENTS OF LOCAL AFFILIATED ASSOCIATIONS

ALL OTHER TYPES	TOTAL	UNUSUALLY HIGH	HIGH	FAIR	LOW	EXTREMELY LOW	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	37	6	18	12			1
Between							
2. 2,500-4,999	58	6	25	24	2	1	
Between							
3. 5,000-24,999	117	15	58	39	2	3	
Between							
4. 25,000-99,999	23	7	5	11			
Between							
5. 100,000-499,999	6	1	3	2			
Between							
6. 500,000 and above	1						1
7. Unclassified	6	1	3	2			
8. Total	248	36	112	90	4	4	2

TABLE VII - A
(PERCENTAGES)

ALL OTHER TYPES	TOTAL	UNUSUALLY HIGH	HIGH	FAIR	LOW	EXTREMELY LOW	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	1.00	.16	.49	.33			.01
Between							
2. 2,500-4,999	1.00	.10	.43	.41	.04	.02	
Between							
3. 5,000-24,999	1.00	.13	.50	.33	.01	.03	
Between							
4. 25,000-99,999	1.00	.30	.22	.48			
Between							
5. 100,000-499,999	1.00	.17	.50	.33			1.00
Between							
6. 500,000 and above	1.00						
7. Unclassified	1.00	.17	.50	.33			
8. Total	1.00	.15	.45	.36	.02	.02	.00

TABLE VIII
MORALE RATINGS - APPOINTED BOARDS

CITIES	TOTAL	UNUSUALLY HIGH	HIGH	FAIR	LOW	EXTREMELY LOW	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	4		3		1		
Between 2. 2,500-4,999	4		1	2			1
Between 3. 5,000-24,999	36	5	21	10	1		1
Between 4. 25,000-99,999	44	8	20	15		1	
Between 5. 100,000-499,999	13		7	5		1	
6. 500,000 and above	9	1	4	2	1	1	
7. Unclassified	1		1				
8. Total	113	14	57	34	3	3	2

MORALE RATINGS - ELECTED BOARDS

CITIES	TOTAL	UNUSUALLY HIGH	HIGH	FAIR	LOW	EXTREMELY LOW	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	33	7	16	9	1		
Between 2. 2,500-4,999	48	5	24	15	3		1
Between 3. 5,000-24,999	273	27	122	113	9	1	1
Between 4. 25,000-99,999	171	15	88	54	11	2	1
Between 5. 100,000-499,999	57	6	27	17	4	1	2
6. 500,000 and above	22	2	6	10	2	1	1
7. Unclassified	2		1	1			
8. Total	606	62	284	219	30	5	6

COUNTRIES	TOTAL	UNUSUALLY HIGH	HIGH	FAIR	LOW	EXTREMELY LOW	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	10	1	2	6	1		
Between							
2. 2,500-4,999	11	1	4	6			
Between							
3. 5,000-24,999	27	1	13	11	1	1	
Between							
4. 25,000-99,999	15	1	9	5			
Between							
5. 100,000-499,999	3		3				
6. 500,000 and above	2		1	1			
7. Unclassified	1		1				
8. Total	69	4	33	29	2	1	

MORALE RATINGS - ELECTED BOARDS

COUNTRIES	TOTAL	UNUSUALLY HIGH	HIGH	FAIR	LOW	EXTREMELY LOW	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	38	5	17	14	1	1	
Between							
2. 2,500-4,999	20	4	9	6	1		
Between							
3. 5,000-24,999	70	7	27	30	4	1	1
Between							
4. 25,000-99,999	47	3	22	19	3		
Between							
5. 100,000-499,999	12	1	8	2	1		
6. 500,000 and above							
7. Unclassified	5	1	2	2			
8. Total	192	21	85	73	10	2	1

TABLE VIII
MORALE RATINGS - APPOINTED BOARDS

195

ALL OTHER TYPES	TOTAL	UNUSUALLY HIGH	HIGH	FAIR	LOW	EXTREMELY LOW	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	2		1	1			
Between 2. 2,500-4,999	1		1				
Between 3. 5,000-24,999	3		1	2			
Between 4. 25,000-99,999	1			1			
Between 5. 100,000-499,999	3	1	1	1			
6. 500,000 and above	1						1
7. Unclassified	1		1				
8. Total	12	1	5	5			1

MORALE RATINGS - ELECTED BOARDS

ALL OTHER TYPES	TOTAL	UNUSUALLY HIGH	HIGH	FAIR	LOW	EXTREMELY LOW	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	35	6	17	11			1
Between 2. 2,500-4,999	56	6	23	24	2	1	
Between 3. 5,000-24,999	113	15	57	36	2	3	
Between 4. 25,000-99,999	22	7	5	10			
Between 5. 100,000-499,999	2		1	1			
6. 500,000 and above							
7. Unclassified	5	1	2	2			
8. Total	233	35	105	84	4	4	1

TABLE VIII-A
MORALE RATINGS - APPOINTED BOARDS

196

(PERCENTAGES)

CITIES	TOTAL	UNUSUALLY HIGH	HIGH	FAIR	LOW	EXTREMELY LOW	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	1.00		.75		.25		
Between 2. 2,500-4,999	1.00		.25	.50			.25
Between 3. 5,000-24,999	1.00	.13	.55	.26	.03		.03
Between 4. 25,000-99,999	1.00	.18	.46	.34		.02	
Between 5. 100,000-499,999	1.00		.54	.38		.03	
6. 500,000 and above	1.00	.11	.45	.22	.11	.11	
7. Unclassified	1.00		1.00				
8. Total	1.00	.13	.51	.31	.03	.03	.02

MORALE RATINGS - ELECTED BOARDS

(PERCENTAGES)

CITIES	TOTAL	UNUSUALLY HIGH	HIGH	FAIR	LOW	EXTREMELY LOW	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	1.00	.21	.48	.27	.03		
Between 2. 2,500-4,999	1.00	.10	.50	.30	.06		.03
Between 3. 5,000-24,999	1.00	.10	.45	.45	.03	.00	.00
Between 4. 25,000-99,999	1.00	.09	.51	.32	.06	.01	.01
Between 5. 100,000-499,999	1.00	.11	.47	.30	.07	.02	.04
6. 500,000 and above	1.00	.09	.27	.45	.09	.04	.04
7. Unclassified	1.00		.50	.50			
8. Total	1.00	.10	.47	.36	.05	.01	.01

TABLE VIII-A
MORALE RATINGS - APPOINTED BOARDS

197

(PERCENTAGES)

COUNTIES	TOTAL	UNUSUALLY HIGH	HIGH	FAIR	LOW	EXTREMELY LOW	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	1.00	.10	.20	.60	.10		
2. Between 2,500-4,999	1.00	.09	.44	.67			
3. Between 5,000-24,999	1.00	.04	.43	.41	.04	.04	
4. Between 25,000-99,999	1.00	.07	.60	.33			
5. Between 100,000-499,999	1.00		1.00				
6. 500,000 and above	1.00		.50	.50			
7. Unclassified	1.00		1.00				
8. Total	1.00	.06	.48	.42	.03	.01	

MORALE RATINGS - ELECTED BOARDS

(PERCENTAGES)

COUNTIES	TOTAL	UNUSUALLY HIGH	HIGH	FAIR	LOW	EXTREMELY LOW	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	1.00	.13	.45	.27	.02	.02	
2. Between 2,500-4,999	1.00	.20	.45	.30	.05		
3. Between 5,000-24,999	1.00	.10	.39	.43	.06	.01	.01
4. Between 25,000-99,999	1.00	.06	.47	.40	.06		
5. Between 100,000-499,999	1.00	.03	.67	.17	.03		
6. 500,000 and above	1.00						
7. Unclassified	1.00	.20	.40	.40			
8. Total	1.00	.11	.44	.38	.05	.01	.01

TABLE VIII-A
MORALE RATINGS - APPOINTED BOARDS

198

(PERCENTAGES)

ALL OTHER TYPES	TOTAL	UNUSUALLY HIGH	HIGH	FAIR	LOW	EXTREMELY LOW	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	1.00		.50	.50			
Between 2. 2,500-4,999	1.00		1.00				
Between 3. 5,000-24,999	1.00		.33	.67			
Between 4. 25,000-99,999	1.00			1.00			
Between 5. 100,000-499,999	1.00	.33	.33	.33			
6. 500,000 and above	1.00						1.00
7. Unclassified	1.00		1.00				
8. Total	1.00	.08	.42	.42			.08

MORALE RATINGS - ELECTED BOARDS

(PERCENTAGES)

ALL OTHER TYPES	TOTAL	UNUSUALLY HIGH	HIGH	FAIR	LOW	EXTREMELY LOW	NO RESPONSE
1. Below 2,500	1.00	.17	.49	.31			.03
Between 2. 2,500-4,999	1.00	.11	.41	.43	.04	.02	
Between 3. 5,000-24,999	1.00	.13	.50	.32	.02	.03	
Between 4. 25,000-99,999	1.00	.32	.23	.45			
Between 5. 100,000-499,999	1.00		.50	.50			
6. 500,000 and above							
7. Unclassified	1.00	.20	.40	.40			
8. Total	1.00	.15	.45	.36	.02	.02	.00

TABLE XI
NUMBER OF COMPLAINTS INVOLVING SUPERINTENDENTS, BOARDS OF EDUCATION, PRINCIPALS AND OTHER ADMINISTRATORS IN CITIES

CITIES	NUMBER OF CITIES	COMPLAINTS INVOLVING SUPERINTENDENTS 11A	COMPLAINTS INVOLVING BOARDS OF EDUCATION 11B	COMPLAINTS INVOLVING PRINCIPALS AND OTHER ADMINIS- TRATORS 11C	NUMBER OF CASES CHECKING <u>YES</u> TO ALL THREE (11A, 11B, 11C)	NUMBER OF CASES - NO COM- PLAINTS
1. Below 2,500	37	14	8	13	6	21
2. Between 2,500 - 4,999	53	29	18	22	12	17
3. Between 5,000 - 24,999	313	139	111	135	67	130
4. Between 25,000 - 99,999	218	110	98	112	72	76
5. Between 100,000 - 499,999	70	38	35	48	24	15
6. Between 500,000 and above	31	15	13	15	7	10
7. Unclassified	3	1	1	1	1	2
8. Total	725	346	284	346	189	271

TABLE XI
NUMBER OF COMPLAINTS INVOLVING SUPERINTENDENTS, BOARDS OF EDUCATION, AND PRINCIPALS AND OTHER ADMINISTRATORS IN SIX CLASSIFICATIONS OF COUNTIES

COUNTIES	NUMBER OF COUNTIES	COMPLAINTS INVOLVING SUPERIN- TENDENTS 11A	COMPLAINTS INVOLVING BOARDS OF EDUCATION 11B	COMPLAINTS INVOLVING PRINCIPALS AND OTHER ADMINIS- TRATORS 11C	NUMBER CASES CHECKING <u>YES</u> TO ALL THREE (11A, 11B, 11C)	NUMBER OF CASES - NO COM- PLAINTS
1. Below 2,500	48	20	25	17	13	19
2. Between 2,500 - 4,999	31	16	13	14	9	12
3. Between 5,000 - 24,999	99	42	37	38	20	42
4. Between 25,000 - 99,999	63	21	17	23	10	31
5. Between 100,000 - 499,999	16	9	6	7	6	6
6. 500,000 and above	2			1		1
7. Unclassified	6	1	2	2	1	4
8. Total	265	109	100	102	59	115

TABLE XI
NUMBER OF COMPLAINTS INVOLVING SUPERINTENDENTS, BOARDS OF EDUCATION, PRINCIPALS AND OTHER ADMINISTRATORS IN CLASSIFICATION "ALL OTHER TYPES"

ALL OTHER TYPES	TOTAL NUMBER "ALL OTHER TYPES"	COMPLAINTS INVOLVING SUPERINTEN- DENTS 11A	COMPLAINTS INVOLVING BOARDS OF EDUCATION 11B	COMPLAINTS INVOLVING PRINCIPALS AND OTHER ADMINIS- TRATORS 11C	NUMBER OF CASES CHECK- ING <u>YES</u> TO ALL THREE (11A, 11B, 11C)	NUMBER OF CASES - NO COM- PLAINTS
1. Below 2,500	37	8	9	5	2	24
2. Between 2,500 - 4,999	58	24	18	23	10	23
3. Between 5,000 - 24,999	117	53	49	56	29	40
4. Between 25,000 - 99,999	23	12	11	15	9	6
5. Between 100,000 - 499,999	6	3	2	3	1	2
6. 500,000 and above	1					1
7. Unclassified	6	3		2		3
8. Total	248	103	89	104	51	99

APPENDIX III

APPENDIX III

STANDARD ERROR OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN
PERCENTAGE TOTALS IN TABLES IN
CHAPTER V

TABLE	P ₁	P ₂	$\sqrt{D_p}$	$\frac{D}{\sqrt{D_p}}$	Changes in 100 That Difference Is Greater Than Zero ²
II - II-A	.28	.27	.035	.29	100 ⁶²
III - III-A	.24	.28	.044	.91	82
	.28	.34	.04	1.5	93
IV - IV-A	.29	.22	.032	2.19	99
V - V-A	.28	.44	.063	2.22	99
	.42	.36	.06	1.00	84
	.25	.16	.069	1.3	90
	.06	.04	.077	.27	61
VI - VI-A	.09	.13	.022	1.78	96
	.51	.52	.038	.26	60
	.40	.34	.037	1.6	94
VII - VII-A	.11	.46	.033	10.6	100
	.46	.36	.03	3.33	100
VIII - VIII-A	.10	.11	.025	.40	65
	.49	.46	.039	.74	77
	.35	.36	.037	.27	61
	.03	.04	.014	.71	76
	.02	.01	.01	1.00	84

The formula used for the figures above is

$$\sqrt{D_p} = \sqrt{\frac{P_1 q_1}{N_1} + \frac{P_2 q_2}{N_2}} \quad \text{in which } p_1 \text{ and } p_2 \text{ are the percentages}$$

compared. $q_1 = 1 - P_1$. $q_2 = 1 - P_2$. N_1 = number of cases for p_1 and
 N_2 = number of cases for p_2 .¹

¹Henry E. Garrett, Statistics in Psychology and Education. Longmans, Green and Company, New York: 1937, pp. 227-228.

²Ibid., p. 213. See Table 34.