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PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate
School of The Ohio State University

By

Powell Elford Toth

* * * * *

The Ohio State University
1967

Approved by

[Signature]
Adviser
School of Education
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of inspiration throughout the writer's graduate program; without her support this undertaking would not have materialized.
VITA

April 30, 1934  Born - Dayton, Ohio
1956  B.S., Miami University, Oxford, Ohio
1956-1962  Teacher and Coach, Vandalia, Ohio
1961  M.Ed., Miami University, Oxford, Ohio
1962-1964  Director of Guidance, Vandalia, Ohio
1964-1965  Assistant Instructor, Department of Education, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio
1965-1966  Research Associate, Bureau of Research and Field Service, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio
1966-1967  Research Associate, The Center for Vocational and Technical Education, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio

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Studies in Educational Administration. Professors Walter Hack, Hugh Laughlin, Roy Larmee and Fred Staub

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Studies in Secondary Education. Professors Kelly Duncan, Jack Frymier and Jack Hough

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This study is centered within a crucial problem of education—societal change. Societal change, as it relates to professional personnel administration, is of concern to educational administrators today. Societal forces, impinging upon professional personnel administration, should hold significant import for educators. This is given credence in setting the problem and the rationale for the study.

Background of the Problem

The word "change" has been used so much in our society that, perhaps, its meaning has become blurred. We almost take for granted that change will take place and many people, including some educators, feel little can be done to influence the nature of change. This may be due, in part, to the rapidity with which we are observing change today.

Societal change

The pace of change in general, and particularly the rate at which the world is becoming a single, though highly disordered, system, gives a kind of urgency to the notion that crisis is the ordinary state of affairs (26.,1). It is, at times, difficult to believe that change can be planned and order found in this chaotic dilemma we refer to
as contemporary society. Man is advancing so rapidly that new knowledge and technology confront him before he has fully understood past achievements (29,7).

Moore lists the peculiar features of contemporary change as a set of generalizations:

1. For any given society or culture rapid change occurs frequently or "constantly."

2. Changes are neither temporally nor spatially isolated—that is changes occur in sequential chains rather than as "temporary" crises followed by quiet periods of reconstruction, and the consequences tend to reverberate through entire regions or virtually the entire world.

3. Thus, since contemporary change is probable "everywhere" and its consequences may be significant "everywhere," it has a dual basis.

4. The proportion of contemporary change that is either planned or issues from the secondary consequences of deliberate innovations is much higher than in former times.

5. Accordingly, the range of material technology and social strategies is expanding rapidly and its net effect is additive or cumulative despite the relatively rapid obsolescence of some procedures.

6. The normal occurrence of change affects a wider range of individual experience and functional aspects of societies in the modern world—not because such societies are in all respects more "integrated" but because virtually no feature of life is exempt from the expectation or normality of change (26.2).

The breadth, scope and intensity of societal change is reflected in all social institutions, e.g., the family, church groups, business and industrial groups, government and political groups, and education and school groups.
Lieberman states, "We are at the threshold of a revolution in education, a revolution which will alter drastically every important aspect of education as a social institution and as a profession" (21.,1-2).

What does this mean to professional educators? Do societal forces have implications which cast a shadow on future educational planning? How can educators profit from the implications societal changes hold for ensuing policy development? What role does the educational administrator play in identifying significant societal changes and their effects on school programs? These are but a few questions facing educators today.

Campbell and Sroufe indicate in a recent paper that, "For education, change is the imperative of the age. One cannot readily bring to mind a time in our history when the technical, social, political, and economic forces have had such import for change in education" (6.,1). It is necessary for educators to plan for change. Otherwise, as often is the case, change will evolve without the benefit of preplanning.

Miller states, "The major implications for education of prospective changes in society should be a continuing concern of boards of education, superintendents of schools and staff members. Changes do not just happen. The causes are present today and more will emerge in the future" (27.,1). In further assessing the educators' responsibilities Miller
continues, "Pressures develop. Expression is given to these pressures. Schools and the school system feel these pressures almost as soon as they happen. Therefore, participation in the interpretation of changes is the inevitable responsibility of educators everywhere" (27:1).

Societal change has significance for educational policy development. Campbell, Corbally and Ramseyer in their text Introduction to Educational Administration describe the process by which policy evolves. In their description they indicate that the embryonic substance for educational policy is in what they term "basic forces" (5:240-247). They make the forceful statement that "Policies for education begin with the basic movements in society" (5:241).

These basic forces, or societal changes, relate to all phases of educational administration. Since the school serves society, and society through the board of education is charged with the development of local policy, societal change has its influence on the local administrator through the local board of education.

Professional personnel administration

Nowhere is the influence of societal change any more important to local administration of schools than in the administration of the professional personnel program. Many specialists in the area of personnel administration, such as Castetter, regard the quality of professional personnel as
"the most crucial single element" of the educational process. Castetter asserts that:

It is generally conceded that the success of any human endeavor is closely related to the quality of personnel who perform the tasks necessary to the achievement of purpose, as well as to the conditions which affect their physical and mental well-being. This assumption is as applicable to school systems as it is to any organization of human effort. The extent to which public education succeeds will depend, to a large extent, upon the quality of personnel engaged in the educational process, and upon the effectiveness upon which they discharge individual and group responsibilities (7,4).

Thus, it becomes imperative for administrators to select, develop and maintain the best possible professional personnel. To do this they must be able to determine, with a certain degree of acumen, some of the societal changes that are taking place and the possible effect these changes will hold for professional personnel administration. This is pointed out by Castetter when he states, "That the forces of social change have affected the ability of educational institutions to provide satisfactory staffing is hardly a novel observation. The fact that the continuing personnel dilemma adds up to a major social crisis, however, is less well understood" (7,17). Further evidence of the dilemma facing the administrator of professional personnel is pointed out by Fawcett in a recent paper. "A major revolution in the preparation, assignment, and administration of both professional and classified personnel in public schools
by 1980 may be anticipated on the basis of prospective changes in society and in the economy" (11.,196).

To ameliorate the problems identified through viewing and analyzing societal changes, flexibility should be achieved when personnel policies are being developed. A major concern of educational governances should be to develop and maintain personnel policies and practices that will free educational personnel to make appropriate responses to societal change (27.,201).

In order to profit from implications ascertained from a careful study of societal changes, the administrator must have an understanding of what constitutes professional personnel administration. Fawcett says, "Personnel administration is that staff function of organizational management that is designed to secure, develop and retain the skills, attitudes, and knowledge essential for the accomplishment of the goals of the organization" (11.,196). Castetter proposes that:

Personnel administration has been defined in a variety of ways. In the narrowest sense it has meant the establishment of procedures for the employment and payment of personnel. A broader and more recent concept views it as one of the major functions in the general context of administrative responsibility. It means arranging conditions which will make possible greater self-direction by personnel in the performance of their work. It means an abiding administrative concern about people in the organization who are responsible for providing children and youth with educational opportunities of the highest possible quality (7.,27).
In an effort to determine the implications societal change has for professional personnel administration, the researcher has tentatively selected four areas from the literature in the field. Those areas are. (1) professional personnel selection, (2) professional personnel development, (3) professional personnel welfare, and (4) professional personnel evaluation. These areas, that have been selected from a review of the literature, will be discussed in more detail.

Selection

According to Chandler and Petty, "Teacher selection is the cornerstone of the staff personnel program. There seems to be general agreement among educators that, because of the close relationship between the quality of the instructional staff and the degree of success of the educational enterprise, the teacher selection program is the most important single responsibility of the school executive" (8.,115). This would indicate to the administrator that the selection of personnel for a teaching vacancy should follow a well-developed plan. Also, the administrator should make every effort to secure the best possible personnel available for the position. This means that factors influencing the supply of personnel is of the utmost importance to the administrator.

In general, several factors are influential in securing adequate professional personnel; e.g., the general
shortage of teachers, the desirability of the community as a place to work, general certification requirements and population mobility are just a few. The teacher shortage is due to a number of factors. Campbell, Corbally and Ramseyer list some of these as follows:

1. Expanded school services.
2. Great increase in school enrollments.
3. Low birth rates in 1930's, providing fewer college students in the 1950's.
4. Continued competition in labor market for highly trained people.
5. Expanded occupational opportunities for women (5.,108).

This, then, makes the implications drawn from societal changes very important for future planning of professional personnel programs.

Development

The very nature of our changing society dictates the necessity for continued development of professional personnel. With the advances that are made daily it is impossible to provide an adequate educational program for the children who will meet an ever-changing society if the professional personnel do not develop as methods and knowledge change. This would indicate to the administrator that a sound program for in-service development of professional personnel should be formed.
For the purpose of this study, development will pertain to those efforts made to improve professional personnel performance during the entire period of their employment. For the purpose of the study, professional personnel will be those personnel that must be certified to legally discharge their duties.

The purpose of professional personnel development according to Castetter is considered to be: (1) improvement of total staff competency, (2) improvement of the educational program, and (3) improvement of the competency of the individual staff member (7.,248-249). Often, in-service training programs are not designed to meet the needs of the staff, the teacher or improve the educational program. VanZwoll asks the question, "Can it be organized to meet teacher needs?" (41.,92).

It would appear that needs should be derived from the implications societal changes imply for the development of professional personnel. These programs should be designed to meet long-range as well as immediate needs. For example, should we wait until assessment is forced upon us before we plan for it?

Welfare

Welfare deals with that dimension of a social system Getzels and Guba refer to as the idographic dimension (13., 423-41). The idigraphic, or personal, dimension of
organization, as well as the nomothetic, or institutional dimension, must be satisfied if organizational goals are to be met. Campbell, Corbally and Ramseyer point out that, "It may help, however, to recognize that at times even unpopular assignments have to be made if the total program is to be served. At the same time it should be clear that people tend to be more productive if at least part of the time they are doing those things they enjoy and for which they have competence" (5,202).

As society changes, requirements for a position may also change. It is the responsibility of the person in charge of the personnel program to be cognizant of such changes in nomothetic and idiographic factors. As society changes the educational institutions that serve society will also change. Goals of public education change as society changes; they change as research provides more data concerning their content; they change as the capabilities of students and teachers change (27,203).

Provisions should be made for the alleviation of conflict that often arises between the idiographic and nomothetic dimensions of the educational system. Communication between subordinate and superordinate should be in both directions and channels between the two should be clear. This would mean an established procedure for professional personnel to discuss problems with administrators.
The development of professional negotiations at the Denver Convention in July, 1962, by the National Education Association is evidence that there was, and all indication points toward its continued existence, a felt need on the part of the professional personnel in this country for a mechanism to deal with conflicts between personal and organizational goals (30,1). It might be significant to note that the American Association of School Administrators and the National School Boards Association took a position on grievance procedures well after this societal change had manifested itself among the teachers on the national level.

Evaluation

One could easily make the assertion that there will be evaluation in the educational system. Whether professional personnel are evaluated according to valid criteria or not is a different proposition. People and their actions are constantly being evaluated by others. This is true in education.

An evaluation program cannot be justified per se. The major objective of any plan designed to appraise the work of teachers and other personnel should be that of improving performance (5,111). By improving performance, upgraded instruction which provides children with a better education is more likely to take place.
Evaluation of the professional personnel serves other needs of the institution as well as the individual. Appraisal helps the board of education and administration to determine, for example, whether the personnel recruitment program is attracting competent staff for the school program, whether the selection process is contributing to expected staff quality, and whether the program of in-service education is helping to improve both personnel and program (7.,279).

Some of the basic features of the personnel evaluation program should include:

1. Clear personnel policies and procedures
2. An outline of position expectations
3. Consist with general education policies and procedures
4. A variety of data
5. Provisions for self-development
6. Administrative decisions

This, then is the background to the problem. The impact of societal change is felt by all social institutions, the schools notwithstanding. No part of the educational institution is more affected by societal change than professional personnel administration. It is imperative that professional personnel programs reflect societal change; otherwise, the schools will not provide the students with the education that will be necessary to compete in an ever-changing society.
Statement of the Problem

In this study the writer investigates the implications societal changes have for selected areas of professional personnel administration.

The societal changes are gleaned from seven of eight "background papers" prepared for the Conference on theEmerging Role of State Education Departments with Implications for Vocational Education held in Columbus, Ohio, February 27, 1967, through March 2, 1967. These papers were compiled by recognized scholars in the fields of economics, political science, sociology, demography, and education.

The areas of professional personnel administration, which included selection, development, welfare and evaluation, were gleaned from the literature in the field of personnel administration.

Definition of Terms

Transitional statement: A statement gleaned from the background papers to facilitate the development of proposition statements.

Proposition: A statement which is capable of being believed, doubted or disbelieved.

Implication: A statement based on and forthcoming from a proposition, or propositions, holding relevance in this study, for a specific area of professional personnel administration.

Professional personnel: All personnel employed by a school district who must hold a valid certificate from the state department of education to be legally employed.
Objectives

To accomplish the primary purpose of the study, which is to investigate the implications societal changes have for selected areas of professional personnel administration, the following specific study objectives were established:

1. To identify, from the "background papers," significant societal changes impinging upon professional personnel administration.
2. To determine from the societal changes, general propositions pertaining to professional personnel administration.
3. To identify implications for professional personnel administration from the propositions.
4. To summarize, by making statements which flow from the identification of societal changes, the determining of general propositions, the implications for professional personnel administration.

Assumptions of the Study

Certain assumptions are necessary to conduct the study. They are:

1. The school operates in an ever-changing social milieu from which it cannot divorce itself.
2. These societal changes have implication for the administration of professional personnel.
3. If the school is to meet the needs of society the professional personnel program should be administered in view of the societal changes impinging upon it.
4. Societal changes may be identified as general propositions.
5. If planned change in the professional personnel program is to evolve, implications should be gleaned from the propositions.
6. There is a logic to be found through the deliberative research approach where an authoritative paper dealing with societal change can be searched for propositions which will have implications for professional personnel administration.

Limitations of the Study

The study is limited to the societal changes as included in the seven "background papers." This feature will limit the significant societal changes, but it would be impossible in a study of this magnitude to undertake more than a limited number of societal changes for examination.

Further limitation results from the selection of the limited number of areas of professional personnel administration. This selection is justified by the practical need for limiting the scope of the study. The areas selected represent those appearing to be most prevalent in the
professional administration field. No attempt has been made to place a value on the importance of the areas selected as opposed to other possible areas in the field.

A deliberative study is restricted to the ability of the researcher to analyze the material under surveillance. Although this restriction is not unique to the deliberative method, it is a realistic limitation placed on the study. However, through design and careful planning such a study can be productive.

Finally, the very nature of societal change is a limiting factor. As society changes the implications for professional personnel administration will also change. However, it is a feature of this study to point out the necessity of observing the nature of change, which this limitation does indicate.

Significance of the Study

The study provides a concrete illustration of how societal changes relate to professional personnel administration. It provides an example of how specific societal changes can be analyzed and proposition statements developed. It further indicates how a proposition can be used to develop implications which relate to selected areas of professional personnel administration.

A clear understanding of the dynamics of professional personnel administration is necessary. We cannot deal with
professional personnel without fully considering the implications of our changing society. Mute evidence to this statement lies in the increased pressure professional personnel are applying for representation by a bargaining agent with boards of education. We are at the threshold of a revolution in education, a revolution which will alter drastically every important aspect of education as a social institution and as a profession (27,1). To adequately deal with the problems in professional personnel administration, it would be desirable to ascertain their origin.

This study should provide implications which may be helpful for professional personnel administration. Those societal changes that are presently taking place have implications for the planning of future professional personnel programs, in the selected areas; they also have training implications. This should be significant in that Fawcett predicts, "A major revolution in the preparation, assignment, and administration of both professional and classified personnel in public schools by 1980 may be anticipated on the basis of prospective changes in society and in the economy" (27,202). This writer is of the opinion that as rapidly as our society is changing it will become increasingly significant for future, as well as present, administrators to know how to identify societal changes and their implications for education.
It is the writer's intent to draw attention to the role sociological data can play in assisting administrators. The role supporting disciplines can play in the preparation of educational administrators has been identified. This is indicated by the inclusion of a minor field in some one of the social sciences in the programs of doctoral candidates majoring in educational administration in many institutions.

Finally, the writer is hopeful this study will stimulate further research in the areas of social change and professional personnel administration. This study may be significant in that it will provide impetus for additional research in educational administration which finds its bearing in societal data. It is of import for the preparation of administrators that societal changes and ensuing ramifications for education be explicated further.

**Plan of the Study**

The first chapter of the study has described the background of the problem, stated the problem and intent of the study, and provided a statement of the study's significance to the field of educational administration.

The second chapter will describe the procedures used by the researcher in this study. It will discuss (1) the use of seven papers outlining societal changes, (2) the development of proposition statements and (3) the development of implications for professional personnel administration derived from the propositions.
The third chapter will present societal changes as gleaned from the seven "background papers." With sociological data as a base, proposition statements will be drawn in a transitory move from data to implications.

The fourth chapter will develop implications for professional personnel administration. Stemming from the propositions outlined in chapter three, the writer will draw implications for selected areas in professional personnel administration.

The fifth, and final chapter, will present a summary of societal change and needed research for professional personnel administration in light of the societal forces identified in the study.
CHAPTER II

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Key to the Design

This study is an investigation of the implications societal changes have for selected areas of professional personnel administration. From an assessment of societal changes propositions shall be stated, with reference to professional personnel administration. Implications for professional personnel administration will be drawn from the propositions.

Once the problem was outlined the researcher deemed it appropriate to employ the deliberative method of research in attempting to resolve the stated problem. According to McGrath, Jelinek and Wochner:

"Deliberative" implies a philosophical or reflective thinking approach. The nature and quality of the thought process probably determines the effectiveness of deliberative research more than any other factor. Many kinds of educational problems can be attacked logically in no other manner. In many instances, facts derived from sound measuring instruments cannot be procured (40, 76).

Those societal changes selected for use in this study were taken from "background papers" developed for the Conference on the Emerging Role of State Departments of Education with Implications for Vocational Education held in
Columbus, Ohio, from February 27, 1967, through March 2, 1967. This conference was part of an ongoing leadership development project and was sponsored by the Center for Vocational and Technical Education with the cooperation of the University Council for Educational Administration.

The first activity of the project was the selection of an advisory commission. This commission was comprised of the following men: Donald Anderson, Associate Professor of Education, The Ohio State University; Roald Campbell, Dean of the Graduate School of Education, The University of Chicago; Jack Culbertson, Executive Director University Council for Educational Administration; Gerald James, President Rockingham Community College, Wentworth, North Carolina; Roy Larmee, Professor of Education, The Ohio State University; Leon Minear, Superintendent, State of Oregon; Truman Peirce, Dean, School of Education, Auburn University; Dick C. Rice, Project Director, The Center for Vocational and Technical Education, The Ohio State University; James A. Sensenbaugh, Superintendent, State of Maryland; Byrl Shoemaker, Director of Vocational Education, State of Ohio; Wesley Smith, Director of Vocational Education, State of California; Robert E. Taylor, Director, The Center for Vocational and Technical Education, The Ohio State University; Ralph C. Wenrich, Chairman, Department of Vocational and Practical Arts, University of Michigan.
With the assistance of the advisory commission, a conference was planned to conceptualize the emerging role of state education departments and to identify implications for divisions of vocational education. This was accomplished by selecting participants who had the background and experience to provide maximum inputs to the conference. The participants consisted for the most part of Chief State School Officers, State Directors of Vocational Education, Professors of Vocational Education, Professors of Educational Administration, and Deans of Education. Their conference role was to provide background information on the emerging role of the state education department with specific implications for vocational divisions in light of the societal forces impinging upon education.

To facilitate accomplishment of their task the participants were furnished with eight background papers prior to the conference. These "background papers" were prepared by scholars in their respective fields and they were selected by The Center and U.C.E.A. personnel involved with this project. The "background papers" dealt with societal forces impinging upon the state education departments in general and more specifically divisions of vocational education. The topics were selected by the project staff and the advisory commission. Participants were given a charge to read and raise questions concerning the papers before the conference. They brought their questions to the conference,
and at that time the authors of the papers gave a short updating of their papers and answered questions from the group. The ensuing discussion was designed to provide input in the form of additional social forces to those outlined in the papers and to provide feedback to the authors of the papers.

There were eight "background papers" prepared for the conference. Eight scholars in the fields of economics, political science, sociology, demography and education were selected for this task. However, only seven of the eight papers were used in connection with this study.

It was the opinion of this researcher to restrict the study to seven "background papers" and omit the paper prepared by Ewald B. Nyquist, Deputy Commissioner of Education, New York State Department of Education, on "Emergent Functions of State Departments of Education" due to the nature of the "charge" given Nyquist. His paper was to deal more directly with organization within the state department. It relied more on reorganization and less with forces causing change.

The "charge" to the remaining seven authors was more related to identifying societal changes. These changes were in the area of their specialties. They were given the task, in addition to identifying societal changes, of showing some needed adaptations state education departments must make to
meet the emergent functions identified. The authors and titles of the seven "background papers" used in this study are as follows:

1. Philip M. Hauser, Chairman and Professor of Sociology, University of Chicago, "The Changing Characteristics of the General Population: Implications for Education"

2. Robert Hess, Urban Child Center, University of Chicago, "Obtaining Optimal Educational Opportunity for Disadvantaged Groups"

3. Leonard Lecht, Director, National Goals Project, National Planning Association, "The Changing Occupational Structure with Implications for Education"

4. Eugene McLoone, Professor of Economics, George Washington University, "Changing Characteristics of Student Populations with Implications for State Education Departments"

5. Nicholas Masters, Professor of Political Science, Pennsylvania State University, "The Expanding Federal Role with Implications for State Educational Departments"

6. Francis Ianni, Director of the Division of Educational Instruction and Programs, Teachers College, Columbia University, "Emerging Organizational Structures for Facilitating Educational Change"
Identification of Societal Changes

Found in the seven 'background papers' were societal changes with implications for education. The first task at hand was developing a structure in which societal changes, found in the "background papers," could be logically placed.

The papers themselves were divided into seven categories. This structure allowed for overlap and did present a situation in which combining papers into areas would aid in the study's design by condensing the areas. A review of sociological literature revealed an organizational structure within which the seven papers would logically fall. The papers appeared to best fit areas pertaining to social institutions and the human aggregate. Five areas were finally decided upon after consulting several texts and seeking the advice of several colleagues. These categories were identified by the researcher as: (1) population, (2) minority groups, (3) resource structures, (4) politics and (5) governments.

Population was further divided into general population and student population. This allowed changes relating to broad social masses to be separated from those more pointedly relating to the group directly involved with the educational institution. In the minority group section the societal
changes were directly involved with the disadvantaged. The character of the disadvantaged groups identified related most directly to the inter-city, racial-ethnic problem facing society. The resource structures examined contain both educational change structures as well as occupational structures. Forces were identified which brought about changes in both of these crucial areas of society. Also, politics, and the societal changes it has brought about, were examined.

Societal changes affecting politics were also part of this section. Finally, government structures and their ensuing societal changes were listed. This investigation centered around changing relationships among the three levels of government--federal, state and local.

These societal changes were gleaned from the papers by a careful and exacting reading and cataloging of each paper for the identified changes under the appropriate area. This was done by color coding the five areas. As the researcher carefully read the papers to identify societal changes, those deemed to be significant and relevant to professional personnel administration were underlined with pencil. The next reading entailed the coordination of identified societal changes with the appropriate area in the study structure. This was accomplished by going over the underlined societal changes with the color of the area in which it was destined to be placed. Subsequent readings
allowed the researcher to group like color-coded societal changes. This allowed for an organization of the coded changes within the area for which they were assigned. These areas were then checked by colleagues. They suggested no changes.

**Developing propositions**

From the societal changes outlined in the five areas, proposition statements were developed. The first step in this process involved the close examination of each area of change for transitional statements that could be drawn from the outlined societal changes. These statements were very helpful in the transitional stage of moving from the specific changes to specific propositions.

After the transitional statements were developed under each of the five areas the next step involved the development of proposition statements. The researcher explicited numerous proposition statements from the data. From this list there was a further refinement and selection of those propositions which had direct relevance for professional personnel administration. These are the propositions that are found at the conclusion of each social institution and human aggregate area in Chapter III.
Professional Personnel Administration

The propositions are a step in the logical scheme developed to draw implications for professional personnel administration from the societal changes found in the "background papers." As in the case of development of propositions, a structure was developed for the areas of professional personnel administration in which implications were drawn. This was done to facilitate the transition from propositions to implications with a maximum amount of value from the data available.

The areas of professional personnel administration designated for use in this study were selected from the literature in the field of educational personnel administration. These areas were (1) selection, (2) development, (3) welfare and (4) evaluation. Thus, implications for professional personnel administration are restricted to these areas.

In the selection area sources of personnel supply, collection of data on personnel, evaluation of personnel data, outlining job responsibilities and interim orientation are identified functions of this area of professional personnel administration. Development, another area of professional administration, has its listed functions as dimension and scope of personnel development and programs for in-service development of personnel. General welfare benefits
and procedures for decisions on welfare constitute the designated function of the welfare area of professional personnel administration. Finally, evaluation has as its functions certification, program elements, hiring practices and reward systems.

**Developing Implications**

Significant implications were then drawn. These implications were in reference to one or more of the four areas of professional personnel administration.

These implications were developed by the researcher through a process of checking propositions against the four areas of professional personnel administration. Not all propositions held relevance for each area, according to this researcher's judgment. All judgments were based on the list of existing propositions, which as earlier indicated, is not intended to be an exhaustive list.

The identified implications are what the researcher feels are of significant importance for administrators of professional personnel. Again, these implications are limited in that this is not intended to be an exhaustive list by design. Only those implications relating to the selected areas of professional personnel administration from the list of propositions and deemed significant were included.
The final step in the study was the development of a summary chapter. This entailed the summarizing of societal changes facing contemporary educators, propositions which hold significant import and implications for professional personnel administration.
CHAPTER III

SOCIETAL CHANGE

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to identify societal change as evidenced in the background papers identified in chapter two. The chapter consists of a compilation of selected societal changes found in seven of the "background papers." The societal changes are categorized in the areas of (1) population (2) minority groups (3) resource structures (4) politics and (5) government.

To facilitate transition in moving from specific society changes to the implications these changes have for specific areas of professional personnel administration, transitional statements were gleaned from the discussion of each of the five social areas. These transitional statements are presented at the end of each section throughout the chapter. From these transitional statements, propositions, which hold specific relevance for professional personnel administration, were drawn. The propositions are based on the societal changes outlined in the social areas and flow from the transitional statements which proceed them. The propositions are limited to those which the researcher deem relevant to professional personnel administration. These
propositions follow the transitional statements at the end of each social area throughout this chapter.

**Population**

Prime among the relevant factors which affect all facets of education is population. The number of persons in various age structures, the changing characteristics of the central-city, urban, suburban and rural populations, population trends and projections of general population are all significant and have import when planning educational policy. It is also of extreme import, when planning for educational policy, to have an understanding of trends and projections of student population, as well as insight into some of the factors affecting student population, i.e., educational attainment, enrollments and age structure.

Population is examined in the background papers developed for the conference in a paper by Philip M. Hauser and Martin Taitel which dealt with general population characteristics. The paper prepared by Eugene McLoone dealt more specifically with student population. The analysis will be divided into the population areas of general and student with appropriate subheadings.

**General Population**

The Federal Government, through the Bureau of the Census, collects information concerning the population of the United States once every decade. These data are classified
into various categories. One of these categories created for the 1960 Census by the Division of Statistical Standards of the Bureau of the Budget, which is a division of the Federal Government, was the term now used for areas called metropolitan. Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area is now used to designate, for statistical and analytical purposes, metropolitan areas which follow arbitrary boundaries set by the Bureau. These total metropolitan areas will be referred to as SMSA's hereafter. The definition for an SMSA in 1960 was one or more central cities of 50,000 or more persons, the balance of the county or counties containing such a city or cities, and such contiguous counties as, by certain criteria, and "essentially metropolitan in character and are socially and economically integrated with the central city" (36.,xxxix-xxx).  

According to a 1965 estimate of the total population for the United States, the population of the country continues to grow. According to an estimate by the Bureau of the Census, the population of the United States as of July 1, 1965, was 193.8 million. This represents a steady increase in total population over the past two decades.  

A 42.5 million growth in population since 1950 for the fifty states indicates the explosiveness with which the population has increased. This alone indicates the ever-increasing demand for physical facilities many school
administrators face. However, the complexity of the problem is more clearly revealed when more specific areas, such as SMSA's, are examined.

During the decade from 1950 to 1960, 84 percent was accounted for by the 212 areas defined as SMSA's in 1960. The explosive growth of these SMSA's is reflected in the 26.4 percent growth within these areas as contrasted with 7.2 growth outside the 212 areas during the decade from 1950 to 1960.

It is of even greater significance for educators to look at various areas of population concentration. The need to inspect the patterns of central city, suburban, urban, rural and farm is obvious. The more educators know about specific areas within the population complex, the greater the likelihood planning will be facilitated. Each area has its own unique characteristics. The central-city with its high density of population is no exception.

Central-city

The growth reflected in the SMSA's does not give a true indication of what is taking place in the center ring of the SMSA which will be referred to as the central-city. Over-all, 4.9 million or over 86 percent of the central-city population increase was from annexations (15,23). Most of these annexations, or additions to the central ring, took place among cities of less than one million. What little
increase that took place in the central-city of cities with
more than a million people was due mostly to annexation.
Little or no growth took place in the central-cities of
SMSA's because these areas of the cities were filled.

Due to lack of new and recent dwelling units, many run­
down and neglected facilities are prevalent. This only com­
plicates the problems of the central-city. Hauser and Taitel
indicate that:

Persons of the lowest income, education and oc­
cupational status, usually the newcomers to the
urban environment, tended to occupy the less desir­
able residences toward the center of the city.
Persons of higher income, education and social
status tended to locate toward peripheries of the
metropolis. Agencies and institutions of all
sorts tended to reflect, and are attuned to, the
characteristics of the people contained in the
areas in which they are located (15.,24).

As the central-city filled and there was no room for
growth the suburban areas began to grow rapidly. The rapid
expansion in the suburban areas and little or no growth in
central-cities has continued. Hauser states, "For the first
time, the population of central-cities dropped below 50 per­
cent of the total metropolitan population; in 1965, it is
estimated to have been about 48 percent of the total; in
1960, it was 51.4 percent" (15.,26).

The suburban areas are now enjoying the rapid growth
and building the central-city once experienced. This may
not always be the case. The fate of the central-city may
one day befall the suburban area. With increased efforts on
behalf of the governments, private business and individuals, replacement and innovation is taking place in the central-city. As this development takes place it is possible that people will leave suburban areas for central-city living, leaving the suburban area to decay and become future slums.

Although this is not a development that is likely to take place within the next decade or two, educators must consider the ramifications such circumstances would hold for planning. If the suburban areas were to follow the pattern of the central-city of the past two decades, there will be additional changes in store for the central-city as a result of the suburban decay. A possibility is forwarded by Hauser and Taitel that:

It is also possible that, in the decades to come, an emergent pattern of residence within the metropolitan area may become the model one. There is increasing evidence that, in accordance with the family cycle, the family is tending toward a corresponding use of the metropolitan area. As children come, their families tend to move to the outlying suburban area in order to place them in surroundings of green lawns and open spaces. As the last youngster departs for college or gets married to start his own family, the parents show a tendency to move back to a rebuilt or renovated inner zone of the metropolitan area (15.29).

This indicates considerable action taking place in urban areas in the future. Changes will take place in the outer (suburban) ring surrounding urban areas, or that area within the corporate limits of the city. Likewise, changes will take place within the inner (central-city) ring of urban areas.
Urban

More cities increased in size during the fifties than decreased in size. This was the case up to the 1960 Census. The urban growth is not without cause. Basic forces in our society influencing population distribution, e.g., economic, political, social and technological, have caused the population to concentrate in urban centers. The reason for this concentration of population in urban areas has been for efficient consumption and production.

Although cities continue to grow this is not uniformly true among cities in all size categories. Recently, the largest cities not only showed a lack of growth, but actually showed a decline in population. This is indicated in the 1960 Census which showed losses in a large number of cities. During the decade from 1950 to 1960, of the 257 central-cities in the 212 SMSA's, as designated in the 1960 Census, 70 lost while 187 gained population (36., Table 33).

This trend in a declining population for the larger cities should not be misconstrued. The trend is not away from city living, but away from the largest cities. People, in ever-increasing numbers are settling in urban centers.

Projections to 1980 for all metropolitan areas, based upon a continuation of past trends, . . . show an increase of about 45 million in the metropolitan population between 1965 and 1980 on the "same class" basis. Such an increase would represent a number equal to about 95 percent of the projected increase of 47.3 million in total population, and
would result in more than 70 percent of the population being in metropolitan areas in 1980 (15.,28).

As the larger cities decline in population, the population of urban centers as a total aggregate is on the increase. This is due to the increase in the population of the intermediate-size cities. This shift in population concentration has taken place since 1950. Since 1950 the intermediate-size city has increased in relative importance, when compared to the total population of the United States. This is pointed out by Hauser who states, "They contained less than 20 percent of the total population in 1950, but almost 26 percent of the total population in 1960, and accounted for all the net increase in relative importance of urban territory" (15.,33). During the same period slight increases were noted in smaller cities and slight decreases were registered by larger cities.

The past decade has also revealed an exodus from the inner (central-city) ring to the outer (suburban) ring of the metropolitan complex.

Suburban

The suburban area, although a part of the metropolitan complex, is a more definitive area on the outer rim of the urban complex. It is the area which people with young children have exited to in an effort to acquire the space
and openness the central-city can no longer afford them. Because of the problems facing city dwellers and the improved modes of transportation, the suburban fringe has enjoyed very rapid and continuous growth in the past few decades.

With the development and wide use of 20th-century transportation and communication technology, since 1920, suburbia has outpaced the central cities. Well over two-fifths of the metropolitan population, in 1950, was in suburbia; by 1960, the figure had risen to nearly half. In their paper Hauser and Taitel indicate, 'Suburban increases of 19 million persons between 1950 and 1960 represent at least 70 percent of the total change in metropolitan population (on the 'same class' basis)' (15.,22).

Suburbs have been growing more rapidly than central-cities, because of the impact of 20th-century technology and the relatively fixed boundaries. The advancing technology gave rise to activities of business and industry which caused people to desire housing within the metropolitan complex. Despite annexations, the boundaries of central-cities remained relatively fixed while technology was developing. Therefore, to live in the metropolitan complex for the most part meant living in the suburbs, or settling for older, less-desirable housing in the central-city.

As the advancing technology provided the impetus for industrial complexes which enhanced metropolitan living, it also provided the vehicle for changing rural and farm life.
Rural and farm population

With the increasing demand for industrial workers, the farmer was not always in a position to resist the higher wages, shorter hours and the greater financial security the industrial life offered. This led the farmer and farm worker to seek work and housing in the metropolitan complex. This contributed to the decline in rural population. During the fifties, rural population actually declined; all of the over-all population increase of 28 million and the 400,000 decline in rural territory was absorbed in urban territory (43). This shift in population also saw a change in the primary occupational interests of those persons staying on the farm. This change was observed as a shift from rural-farm classification to rural non-farm. Farm population decreased from about 30 million in 1940 to about 23 million in 1950, to about 16 million in 1960 and then to about 12 million in 1965 (38).

The effect of the technological revolution can be more directly related to the decline in rural population. The actual benefits accrued by farmers as a direct result of better technology in operation influenced rural population to a great extent. This is reiterated by Hauser and Taitel:

Within rural territory there has been a major decline of persons living on farms who are directly dependent upon agricultural production for their livelihood. To some extent the decline in farm population may be the result of the
development of "town" residence and "farm" work. In the main, however, the decline in rural-farm population reflects the increased mechanization and productivity of American agriculture. Acreage under cultivation throughout the entire period of decline of farm population has changed little, whereas productivity per acre has continued to increase greatly (15,.34).

In projecting farm population into the future, further decline may be expected. This is due to mechanization developments and productivity increases. By 1980, the farm population is likely to be fewer than 10 million persons (15.,35). This would indicate an increased interest in metropolitan living.

By 1980, between 75 and 80 percent of our population may live in urban territory, which would place almost as many persons in urban territory in 1980 as there are in the entire United States today. This figure contrasts with about 64 percent in 1950 and almost 70 percent in 1960. Even so, it leaves room for a modest increase in rural population within the projected total increase (15.,34-5).

Age structure

Perhaps the most important single characteristic of a person is age (15.,41). This characteristic is constantly changing. As the person changes in age, his activities and demands change. These activities are in a constant state of change for each individual from birth through retirement to death; each stage brings its own distinctive activities and demands.

The age structure of the United States has varied significantly through the 19th and 20th-centuries. Aging
of an individual differs from that of a total population. Individuals only grow older from the time of their birth. Total population may become older or younger, over a period of time. The explosive birth rates of the late forties and the fifties decreased the median age for the first time in the history of the United States, from 30.2 years in 1950 to 29.5 years in 1960, and then 27.2 in 1965 (15.42). There was a great variation in the percent of change from 1950-1965 among the specific age groups which was even more significant than the decline in median age. This is evidenced by an increase of 70 percent in the number of children 10 and 11 years of age. This is contrasted by a decrease of almost 9 percent in the number of 25 to 29 years of age during the 1950 to 1965 period.

The discrepancies in the growth rates of the various age groups is due largely to fluctuation in birth rates. During the depression years, for example, birth rates were at an all time low. This had a direct bearing on the decline in the 25 to 34 year old between 1950 to 1965. Conversely, the "baby boom:" following World War II resulted in a rapid expansion in the population "under 20" during 1950 to 1965.

Those persons 35 years of age and over registered an over-all increase of 28.1 percent, while those 65 years of age and over increased 35 percent during the last decade and
one-half, allowing the latter group to account for 9.4 percent of the population in 1965 (15.,43). These figures reflect an "aging" trend of the population in the past decade.

The decade of the fifties was, in a unique way, the decade of the elementary school child. The number of youngsters 5 to 13 years of age increased by 45 percent, as contrasted with less than 9 percent during the forties. To a lesser extent, it was also a decade for the high school group, which increased by 35 percent. For this group—those 14 to 17 years of age—the first-half of the sixties has been its half-decade. From 1960 to 1965, they increased in number by 24 percent in contrast to about 10.8 percent for the elementary school children. To this boom in numbers, perhaps, should be attributed a substantial share of the problems of our teenagers.

Curiously enough, it was also a boom decade and one-half for our senior citizen group so that both ends of our age structure increased more rapidly than the intermediate sector. Those 18 to 65 years of age, who include almost all of the working population of the country, increased by only 14 percent. As already noted some young adult groups actually declined in numbers (15.,44).

There is a wide variation among age groups in the projected rates of growth in the United States. Between 1965 and 1980, the population 65 years of age and over will increase by some 5 million persons or by 27 percent (15.,44). The group 35 to 64 years of age will only increase about 8 percent. The group 18 to 34 years of age will show an explosive 57 percent increase. This could signal a warning of a swamping of college and university facilities, a rise in unemployment while jobs also increase, and a large increase in the number of births (15.,45).
The projection of births for 1962 to 1966 do not reveal the explosive expansion which is indicative of the previous group. An increase of almost 17 percent is projected (1965 to 1980) for the group 14 to 17 years of age. During the preceding 15-year period this same group showed a 67 percent growth.

The group 5 to 13 years of age is projected to increase only 11 percent as contrasted to the 61 percent increasing in the preceding 15-year period. This slight increase would indicate that our schools and markets, in the coming decade, will not experience an impact similar to the postwar baby boom (15,46).

Societal change is evident in the changes taking place in student population. Therefore, it is imperative to identify the nature of student population as well as social factors influencing the milieu in which they must live. These social factors will influence a social institution—the school—which is directly charged with imparting knowledge to our youth.

Student Population

In order to adequately prepare for the education of youth it is imperative to project student population into the future. This is a difficult undertaking due to the numerous factors that influence student population. As hazardous a task as projecting is, it is necessary.
A projection is one tool for making better decisions under conditions of uncertainty (25.,1). There are several types of projections that are useful, according to McLoone.

The mere continuation of past trends indicates likely direction and magnitudes of no policies are changed. A target projection indicates the magnitude of a task if most desirable policies from one or more standpoints are undertaken. A comparison of a trend projection with a target projection indicates the steps that are necessary to achieve the desired end. It should be clearly understood that a projection is not an educated guess nor the prediction of the future. Rather a projection is an estimate of the future magnitude under assumed conditions (25.,1).

There are many factors, when making student projections, which influence both the projections and the assumptions the projections are based upon.

Influencing factors

The once traditional path for students to take in pursuit of a formal education was through elementary, high school, college and finally on to graduate school. This formal route, although not the only way to attain an education, was the predominant one in a vast majority of cases. However, this trend is not disappearing, but the paths open to students in pursuit of an education are far more in number in recent years. This variety, while excellent for the students and something educators should strive to attain, is a factor which makes projecting student population more difficult.
There are many questions which indicate the nature of some factors bearing on school enrollments. Since the enactment of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 many new questions are being brought out. The supplementary educational center is an example of the kinds of new programs bringing new questions to education. An example of new kinds of questions would be how many supplementary centers will there be and what type of student will they serve. Then there are the questions of the role of the public school in adult education and extensions of the traditional school program, the use of education as a tool in the war on poverty, the relation of public schools to the Job Corps centers, the relation of public schools to education by business and the relation of public schools to education by profit-making schools. These questions bear on school size and enrollment in that they deal with factors substituting or complementing public schooling (25.,8).

These changes in our schools are reflected in their changing purposes. The purposes of education are being expanded and revised; greater impetus is being given to curriculum revision; new techniques are coming from research on learning and teaching; and the range of decisions, their context, and possible alternatives are changing (25.,9). All levels of education are experiencing great change.
Education has become a good thing for purposes other than education itself. The professions, as an example, are moving more toward specialization leaving the generalist in education on the fringe of decision making. There is a change taking place in the framework of decisions. Business, industry, government and the students themselves are pressuring educators to change. All this points to the educational institution's becoming the focal institution in society for these changes.

It has been the policy in the past to leave the purpose of education up to educators. Now almost every group in society has some end that education should serve (25., 11). As education is given a more important role in our society, more people have a vested interest in the outcomes. Therefore, more pressure is being placed on educators to please various interest groups.

New industries are joining together to specialize in products for education. Additional groups are operating educational enterprises for a profit, e.g., Job Corps Centers and system planning companies. There seems to be a growing interest in making education a greater capital investment. The products provided by the new educational industries differ from the traditional educational supplies. Other than costing more money in providing more elaborate equipment, the new supplies are providing materials and equipment which remove decisions from educators (25., 12-13).
These outside influences are having an effect on the nature of decisions being made. Also they are having an effect on the way in which decisions are formulated. The framework for educational decisions is changing as a result of the educational industry, the new uses of education and the structure in which these elements are placed (25., 13-14). McLoone concludes that:

Many groups other than educators are deciding who can decide. The future of the educational enterprise is at stake in the outcome of the process. This context is best seen with an eye to the programming, planning, budgeting system (PPBS), which may well define the rules of the game for future government decisions and may well decide who decides (25., 14).

As the Federal Government spends increasing amounts of money on education more examples of increased interest in how the money is used and what return we are getting for the dollars, are becoming more evident. One example by contrast, would be the difference between the necessity for evaluation requirements in the 1958 National Defense Education Act, in which money was sent to the schools with little formal opportunity to register the outcomes of the programs. This lack of formal evaluation has changed somewhat in the intervening five years between the NDEA and the Vocational Educational Act of 1963. In the Vocational Educational Act evaluation is a very clear aspect of the bill. This trend toward a greater awareness on the part of the Federal Government of
yield for the dollar spent can be witnessed in PPBS, alluded to earlier.

**Enrollments**

As society changes these changes are reflected in fluctuations in student enrollment. These changes in enrollments reveal the dynamic nature of society. This dynamic nature is indicated in some of the changes observed over past years. As the American income level has increased, greater educational opportunities have been offered to and accepted by our younger citizens (15.,47).

Since the beginning of this century there has been an increase in school enrollment rates. By the first of this decade a practical maximum, in the age categories normally found in grades one through seven, had been reached. Even as early as 1910, roughly 86 percent (and probably more) of the youngsters 7 to 13 years of age were enrolled in school: by 1950, the enrollment rate was approaching 99 percent, and by 1960, almost every one of them was enrolled (over 99.5 percent) (15.,47). The enrollment rates for six year olds is not far behind the 7 to 13 group. Even more than two-thirds of our 5-year olds are not enrolled, after a dramatic rise since 1940 when the rate of roughly 18 percent differed little from that of 1910 (15.,47).

Finally, it may be noted that the Bureau of the Census has recently started to collect information on the school enrollment of 3 and 4-year olds;
this indicates that what used to be relatively rare may have started on the road to becoming commonplace. For the 3 to 5-year olds, the enrollment rise represents a change in our cultural pattern during the past half century or so. Kindergarten is widely recognized as a standard beginning grade for public schools. There is a growing willingness to register precocious children who have not yet reached their 5th birthday. Nursery schools are becoming phenomena of the middle-income as well as upper-income groups, and are now being urged for low income and poverty groups (15,48).

There are indications that full exposure to schooling for these children in the traditional elementary years, will come. However, there are other problems facing educators. There is indication that in small pockets where discrimination and poverty exist maximum enrollment is not achieved. Furthermore, the quality of schooling is far below reasonable standards in a number of places and especially in city slums and poverty-stricken rural areas.

We have not achieved 100 percent exposure to a high school education for those 14 to 17 years of age. For those 16 to 17 years of age the school enrollment rate is still less than 88 percent. There is a discrepancy in enrollment rates between white and Negro children 16 and 17 years of age. In non-metropolitan areas, 85 percent of white children in this age group are enrolled in school with 78 percent of Negro children in similar areas and ages enrolled. In metropolitan areas the discrepancy is not as wide, with 90 percent of white children and 87 percent of Negro children 16 and 17 years of age enrolled (15,48-49).
The changing age structure is quite visible in the trend which established itself in the fifties and early sixties. There was tremendous pressure on kindergarten and elementary school facilities due to a 64 percent increase in enrollment for 1950 to 1965. The developments that were taking place in the kindergartens and elementary schools were not completely unlike those which were taking place in high school enrollments during the same period of time. High school enrollments almost doubled, from 1950 to 1965, going from 6.7 million to 13 million. While school enrollments in kindergarten through senior high school were on the increase the enrollments in colleges, during the fifties and early sixties, also were climbing. During the first half of the sixties the enrollment in colleges and professional schools increased almost 60 percent.

Since 1940, the educational attainment for the "average" person 25 years of age and over in the United States has been rising. At that point the median years of schooling had just risen to a little more than an elementary school education. By 1950, median years of schooling had risen to 9.3; by 1960, to 10.6; and, by 1965, it is estimated, to a level approaching a high school education (15., 52).

Part of the rise in our educational level has been the reduction of the proportion of persons with little or no schooling. In 1940, about 13.6 percent of the population 25 years of age and
over had fewer than 5 years of schooling, a level below that of functional illiteracy. In 1950, 11.1 percent were still in the group. By 1965, however, the proportion of functionally illiterate had declined to about 7.1 percent (15.52).

This trend in increasing numbers of schooling years completed is reflected in the increasing number of persons graduating from high school in recent years. In the adult population 25 years of age and over— all well beyond the age at which completion of our mass education high school program is typically scheduled—the number of high school graduates increased by about 17 million persons, from 29.2 (conterminous U.S. only) to 46.6 (all U.S.) or by almost 60 percent during the decade and one-half from 1960 to 1965 (15.53).

Projections

Projections reflect past trends and possible changes that are likely to take place. It is obvious that many factors affecting the projection of student populations cannot be anticipated. However, a projection provides educators with a means to plan for future development based upon the best available data.

During the sixties and seventies, the pressure on the grade schools will all but disappear. Between 1965 and 1980, enrollment may increase by over 4 million or by only 12 percent. This is approximately an average of 1 percent per annum, an easily managed rate. The major problems, therefore, will not be those of rapidly achieving net increases in total quantities of facilities and personnel. Rather, emphasis will be upon the
relocation, improvement and replacement of physical facilities, upon the improvement of personnel and upon the innovation and development of materials and techniques (15.,50).

The high school will continue to feel the pressure of expansion as the elementary students responsible for its recent explosive expansion move upward. Unlike the elementary schools, however, the high schools still have a few years of rather rapid enrollment increases (about 13 percent between 1965 and 1970) before relief arrives in the form of little or no enrollment increase (15.,50).

A very rapid expansion is forecast for college enrollments.

A very large further increase of almost 3.5 million or 61 percent in enrollment is projected by 1980. However, current college enrollments have been swelled by the Selective Service policy of student deferments. Should this policy be modified, the enrollment expansion may be slowed though the longer-term trend will continue up at a rapid rate. Offsetting this, and also perhaps underestimated by the projections is the growing recognition of the need and the growing demand for community colleges (15.,51).

As more and more students stay in school to attain a higher education, the educational attainment level of the population will correspondingly rise. Indications are that by 1970 the "average" American 25 years of age and over may have achieved a high school education; and, by 1980, we will see 12.2 years as the median years of schooling. An even higher level of education will be attained by those 25 to 29 years of age (15.,52).
There is evidence in past trends to indicate an increase in the number of graduates, both college and high school. All indications point to an increase in the level of educational attainment in the coming decade. The college graduate group is expected to increase by about 81 percent and the high school graduate group by about 60 percent (15., 53-54).

Transitional Statements on Population

The transitional statements from the section on population are as follows:

General population

1. From April, 1950 to July, 1965, the population of the United States has grown 28.1 percent.

2. The greater the demand for facilities the more likely there will be monies for personnel.

3. Population growth has been the greatest in the SMSA's.

Central-City

4. Most of the central-city growth, 86 percent, is due to annexation.

5. The central-cities that are growing in number are also growing in physical size.

6. Most growth is taking place in cities with less than one million population.
7. The inner core of the cities are not growing at a rapid rate.

8. Low income persons tend to gravitate toward the inner core of the center-city.

9. Persons of the lowest educational status tend to settle in the inner core of the city.

10. Persons of the lowest occupational status tend to settle in the inner core of the city.

11. Persons of higher education tend to live toward the edge of the metropolis.

12. Persons of higher income live closer to the fringe of the central-city.

13. Higher social status persons tend to locate closer to the fringe of the city.

14. Agencies and institutions of all sorts tended to reflect and are attuned to, the characteristics of the people contained in the areas in which they are located.

15. In 1965 the population of the central-city dropped below 50 percent of the metropolitan area for the first time.

16. There is evidence that the people that moved from the inner-city to raise their children in the more open spaces of the suburban area are moving back to the metropolitan areas as their children leave home.

17. It is possible that as the inner cities are renovated the suburban ring may die and decay.
Urban

18. The population has become increasingly concentrated in urban and metropolitan areas.

19. The 1960 Census revealed that eleven of the twelve largest cities in the United States had shown a loss of population in the past decade.

20. The trend is toward metropolitan living.

21. By 1980 it is projected that 70 percent of the population will be living in metropolitan places.

22. Between 1965 and 1980 it is projected that 95 percent of the population growth of the United States will take place in metropolitan places.

23. In the past decade the intermediate size cities has shown the greatest increase.

Rural and Farm

24. The farm population is declining.

25. There are fewer people in rural places farming for a living.

26. Farming is being revolutionized by technology.

27. Productivity per acre has continued to increase greatly.

28. The manner in which farming is conducted will continue to change.

29. Fewer than 10 million will be in the farm population in the 1980's.
30. By 1980 there will be more population in urban places than in the entire United States today.

Age structure

31. From 1950 to 1960 the median age of the United States fell from 30.2 years to 29.5 years, then to 27.2 years in 1965.

32. During the period from 1950 to 1965 children 10 and 11 years of age increased 70 percent.

33. During the period from 1950 to 1965 persons 25 to 29 years of age decreased by almost 9 percent.

34. Those persons born during the depression years will be in short supply.

35. During the decade of the fifties those in the 5 to 13 years of age groups grew 45 percent.

36. From 1960 to 1965 the 14 to 17 year olds has increased 24 percent.

37. Between 1965 and 1980 the population 65 years of age and over will increase by some 5 million persons or by 27 percent.

38. From 1965 to 1980 the 14 to 17 year olds will increase only 17 percent as compared to the 64 percent increase during the preceding 15 years.

39. From 1965 to 1980 the groups 5 to 13 years of age will increase 11 percent as contrasted with the 61 percent increase during the preceding 15 year period.
40. The schools will not feel the impact of children
the next 15 years similar to that of the past 15 years.

Student population

41. Supplementary educational centers will increase
in numbers.

42. Education will be extended at both ends; pre-
school grades being added as well as grades beyond the
present 12th year.

43. As technological advances make more and more jobs
obsolete adult retraining will become more prevalent.

44. Increased expansion of education for those in our
society who are poverty ridden will take place.

45. There will be an increase in the degree of par-
ticipation of business in the field of education and the
production of materials for education.

46. There will be an increasing demand for speciali-
ization in all professional fields, including education.

47. More groups in society will become interested in
educational policy.

48. More policy decisions will be made by persons
outside the educational profession of education.

49. New structures for decision-making are evolving.

50. There will be greater demands for system planning.

51. There will be greater demands for evaluation and
measurements of in-puts and out-puts of federal, state and
local monies spent for education.
52. Greater emphasis will be placed on the ability of education to solve man's social problems.

53. Continued emphasis will be placed on education's ability to provide new knowledge.

54. The educational requirements for entering the educational profession will increase.

55. There will be a greater demand for teachers beyond the high school level.

56. There will be a greater demand for educators in the educational industry.

57. Advanced technology will change the job content of the teacher.

58. The concept of occupations and professions will continue to change.

Enrollments

59. The enrollment rates of 7 to 13 years of age will not vary significantly in the next decade.

60. The enrollment rates of 3 to 5 years of age will increase steadily over the next decade.

61. Those central-city nonwhite students 14 to 17 years of age will continue to lag behind the white metropolitan student, in enrollment rate.

62. The enrollment press will remain on the institutions of higher learning, during the next decade.
63. The educational attainment of those persons 25 years of age and over will continue to rise during the coming decade.

Projections

64. The enrollment press on the elementary grades (normally one through six), will not be as great in the coming decade.

65. The high schools (normally grades 7 through 12), will continue to feel the upward press of the elementary school children of the explosive years, for a few years yet.

66. A very large enrollment swell is projected for college enrollments.

67. The number of students graduating from college will continue to increase in the coming decade.

Propositions on Population

The population propositions are as follows:

1. That with the decrease in demand for facilities more monies will be diverted to personnel;

2. That the greatest problems facing educators in the next decade will be associated with the metropolitan schools.

The societal forces reflected in the changing population trends have very significant import for educators and educational planners. Many of the changes found in the population were reflected in the changing composition of
groups of people in our society. Therefore, it seems necessary to identify some of the groups having significant impact upon educational institutions, thus influencing professional personnel administration.

One such area in which societal groups have significant influence on education may be minority groups. Those groups would be those who are part of our culture yet are not often allowed full participation in all aspects of society. These are the groups of people who are increasingly making their demands felt in the large society of which they are often not always full participants.

**Minority Groups**

Those minority groups under investigation will be so designated by the nature of their racial and ethnic composition and of their cultural disadvantage. In many instances these groups are one and the same. Those racial and ethnic minorities are often culturally disadvantaged.

**Racial and Ethnic Composition**

The United States is comprised of many racial and ethnic groups. This composition of various racial and ethnic groups is not a recent phenomena with this country.

The racial and ethnic composition of this country has been a homogeneous one throughout history, beginning with the influx of Pilgrims merging with the native Indians. A major
increase in the Negro population took place during eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries and was followed by a wave of immigration of various European stocks during the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. About 43 million immigrants came to the United States between 1820 and 1964 (37). Irish and German immigrants came to this country in mid-nineteenth century. Toward the end of the nineteenth century large numbers of Scandinavian immigrants came into the country. The sources of immigration during the twentieth century shifted from northern and western to southern and eastern Europe (15.,37).

The Nature of the Composition

Most of the opportunities in the new homeland of the immigrants lay in the industrial complexes of the country. Therefore, it is not difficult to ascertain the rapidity with which the foreign population located itself within the large cities of the United States.

There are indications that foreign immigration will remain fairly constant. This is due in large part to the immigration exclusion acts of the 1920's as well as the more recent ones.

Nonwhite population

The decline and leveling off of immigration has had significant import for native population composition. This
is reflected in the growth of the nonwhite population, about 95 percent Negro, in recent years from 10.2 percent of the total in 1930, 11.4 percent in 1960. Hauser and Taitel project a nonwhite population of 13 percent of the total by 1980, with a large portion residing within the central-cities of the larger SMSA's (15.39-40).

Of great influence to the changing nonwhite composition, and of significance to policy makers, is their migratory patterns. Since World War I there has been a steady increase in the flow of Negroes from the South to the North. This is evidenced by the fact 89 percent of Negroes were in the South in 1910 and by 1960 the Negro population had declined to less than 60 percent. This trend is to continue, according to Hauser and Taitel, and as early as 1970 there may be as many Negroes in the North and West as in the South.

The nonwhite migratory trend has been to urban places, both North and South. Only 27 percent of the Negro population lived in urban places (places of 2,500 inhabitants or more) in 1910. In 1960 (the latest date for which data are available), in the South 58 percent of the Negroes lived in urban places and in the North and West 95 percent lived in urban places. Quite revealing is the fact that the 24 largest SMSA's, which included our 24 largest cities, contain 38 percent of the Negro population.

Within the SMSA's the Negro population is concentrating in the central-city. In the 24 SMSA's within the 24 largest
populations 83 percent of all Negroes in those SMSA's held residence in the central-city. As the Negro moved to the central-city the white population moved out. This left a very high concentration of Negroes in relatively small areas of the city.

The nonwhite community, although in a state of flux, is indicating a pattern very similar to those previously established by immigrant groups. They move from concentrated sections of urban places to the suburban fringes. Hauser and Taitel indicate that:

There is evidence that in some respects the pathway followed by the immigrant groups in acquiring a place to live and economic and social status in the community is being followed by the Negro. The limited evidence that is available indicates that the Negro is climbing the social and economic ladder as measured by education, occupation and income. The evidence also indicates that he is moving outward from the inner zones of the city, which constituted his port of entry and, in fact, is beginning to knock at the door of the suburb. The most important respect in which Negro accommodation to his new environment differs from that of the immigrant is to be seen thus far in the continuation of the pattern of segregated residence. Although the time span involved is still a brief one the evidence indicates increased rather than decreased segregation of the Negro within the cities (15.,39-40).

The expansion, relocation and acculturation of minority groups has created major problems for educators. However, it is significant that educators are just beginning to visualize the magnitude of the problem inherent in the unique cultural environment created by the high concentrations of
nonwhite populations in the limited confines of central-city environments.

Disadvantaged

For the first time in American history, large-scale resources at all levels of political and academic life are being oriented toward the crisis created by social inequality in education (16.,2). However, this explosive problem has been with us for a long time.

The reasons for the recent attention and increased interest to this long-standing problem are many. We live in a wealthy society with suburban values and we profess to be free, yet in our central-cities we have the explosive combination of crowded living conditions, semi-literacy, poverty and racial discrimination. There has been a decrease in the jobs which can be filled by semi-literate adults. Also, the education deprivation of Negroes has received more attention in recent years. The Negro, as a political power in America, has shown increasing effectiveness. Because of these deep-rooted problems there are increasing demands for action from educational institutions, as well as other societal institutions, to help ameliorate their problems (16.,2-3).
The nature of the disadvantaged

In education, disadvantaged has come to mean many things. Often times disadvantaged are referred to as "poor," "underprivileged," "deprived," "lower-class" or many similar and equally ambiguous names. In a more accurate usage, however, disadvantage may refer to any condition which prevents an individual from being educated to the maximum of his genetic potential (16.,4).

Compensatory education programs

One of the basic problems that must be faced when programs for disadvantaged are being constructed is that these programs must provide for children of different ability levels. Knowing when a disadvantaged child is working to his level of ability poses real problems that educators must solve.

A factor hindering the educational development of the disadvantaged is the wide gulf between the quality of education offered in urban centers as opposed to that which is offered in suburban areas. For the most part the new facilities are found in the rapidly expanding suburban areas as contrasted to the older facilities found in the urban centers. Normally, the superior curricula, better materials and teaching aids are found in suburban schools and not as often seen in urban schools. This accounts, in part, for the present gap in ability and educational achievement
between middle and working class children. It is likely that this gap will widen rather than decrease.

Highlighting the possibility of the gap widening between suburban and urban educational opportunities is the adoption, or possible adoption, by suburban schools of that which seems to benefit the urban youth. One can foresee the increased interest such programs as pre-school activities initiated in Operation Head Start have received by many suburban communities. Also, organizational structures based on regional lines, growing from early education, are receiving much attention outside urban areas (16.,6-7).

Funding, although at a high rate from the Federal Government, comes from many sources to help sustain disadvantaged programs. Many of the original programs for the disadvantaged begin with the help coming from private sources, i.e., foundations, charitable agencies, churches and private funds. These sources still account for many of the disadvantaged programs today. Often times government agencies have cooperated in the use of private funds. Only in recent years has the Federal Government dominated the field in providing programs for the disadvantaged.

There have been many volunteers working in these programs over the years. Hess feels the number could, and would be even greater if it were not for the unwelcome attitude they receive from school systems.
The total involvement of volunteers would be even greater if they were not explicitly forbidden or discouraged by school systems. These efforts obviously show individual concern but perhaps more important, they express indirectly some feeling of dissatisfaction with the accomplishments of the educational system of this country. The effects of this mass volunteer participation are impossible to assess, though individual case histories are impressive. Possibly the most substantial effect is a more active involvement by volunteers in the total educational activities of the community. Hopefully, these volunteer programs will stimulate school systems toward more innovation and imagination in dealing with underprivileged pupils and their families (16.,8-9).

With the many agencies there is a need to coordinate these many efforts, which are lacking at this time. Hess indicates that,

It is possible for a single family in the slums to be engaged in exchanges of one sort or another with a private social agency, a city or state welfare program, a social work project supported by federal funds, a state controlled manpower re-training program, the Job Corps, Operation Head Start, a private tutoring program, a public health program, a public housing agency, a University based research project, and a literacy program (this is not an exhaustive list) with little or no coordination or communication among the schools, churches, universities, welfare agencies and other groups who are attempting to effect change of some sort in the lives of the family members (16.,9).

Adding to the problem of overlapping is the virtual lack of theory or philosophy upon which programs are based. This may be due in part to the rapidity with which programs have been developed. Hess stresses that, "The arguments of Allison Davis that the child has been socialized into a different culture and that his disadvantage reflects the social
structure of the society in which he lives seem to have been largely ignored" (16.,10).

It appears, at this time, too early to accurately assess the total effects of compensatory programs. Some reports hail the progress of the programs while others bemoan their limited accomplishments. Although it is understandable that a great deal of progress can be made, it is also obvious that we are a long way from our goal. There are learnings that will not show positive effects until later. Hess reacting to the problems of educating the disadvantaged states, "there can be no retreat from the position that the nation has taken—that the educational level of disadvantaged groups must be raised as quickly as possible" (16.,10).

In haste, however, caution must be taken not to adopt programs just to have something in action. Moving from increased pressure of the growing political power of the Negro in this country, is often typical of compensatory programs. This is manifested, according to Hess, in "The salience of Negroes in compensatory programs (and the relatively low involvement of other minority groups, particularly American Indians) is one evidence of the increasing importance of Negroes as a political force in the United States" (16., 10-11).

In their struggle for equal opportunity it is always possible that the Negro children may carry some resentment
to white institutions. By the nature of the struggle and the side effect of power one could logically expect some animosity from some Negroes toward white institutions, which represent white authority. Without entering into the value question of who is right or who is wrong, too much open hostility to the institution and its representatives can only have adverse effects on the teaching-learning process. Regardless of the reason no justification can prevent this situation from causing a situation which hinders all efforts to ameliorate the inequities facing the disadvantaged youth.

**Educability**

It has already been suggested that a comprehensive program for obtaining optimal education for disadvantaged groups should be based on a conceptual and theoretical orientation that takes into account the nature of social and cultural disadvantage and the effects of disadvantage upon the academic abilities of the children involved (16, 11-12).

As it is used here, educability refers to a mingling of orientations, skills and motivations that prepare the child to learn in a formal instructive setting—usually the school. It includes at least these aspects: motivation to achieve and to learn in a classroom or other group setting; cognitive skills such as language, concept formation, reading, etc.; and acceptance of the role of pupil, expressed in an understanding and acceptance of the purpose of the school; a degree of cooperation with the teacher and other school authorities, and a willingness to adapt in group situations. The concept of optimal education is obviously closely involved with the concept
of educability. Educability is seen as a prior condition, a preparation which normally precedes formal school experience in which the young child is oriented toward the school and toward learning (16.,12).

In the social context in which the disadvantaged child exists many social institutions have direct influence on him. Among these institutions are the school, the family, and the community. To have effective compensatory programs the various social institutions must function together.

The mother must accept the values and behavior of the school if the school is going to make an impact in its effort to impart knowledge to the student. The other members of the child's family and the community must likewise accept the same values and behavior of the school. One of the problems which faces teachers and children in areas of disadvantaged youths is a basic conflict in value. This makes the efforts of the school unacceptable to the child, his family and the community if these values differ too drastically from theirs. This emphasized the need for full participation of all three societal institutions—the home, the school and the community—if real and lasting change in behavior is to take place.

It is relevant in this context to think of education as a socializing experience in which the child is taught the values, skills, beliefs, and knowledge of the adult society (16.,14). This socializing begins in the family and is
carried on in the community by the school. As the child moves to the school the family must relinquish authority to the school.

This is not the normal pattern the socially disadvantaged child assumes. He is raised in an atmosphere clouded with discrimination or prejudice; therefore, he is basically distrustful and often resents school and adapts to an environment he perceives as hostile. The job of the school is one of resocialization as well as socialization, according to Hess (14-15). He stresses the need to recognize that the experiences and learning he has had are different in kind from the mainstream of social and cultural experience in this country.

The child learns from the adults in his environment and in this way he is able to develop ways of sorting and ordering information. He also develops a manner in which he can cope with stimulus to order information, throughout his life. This process is of significant import as Hess indicates:

Many of the disparities in cognitive and scholastic performance that appear among different cultural and socio-economic groups in the United States can be understood in terms of the differences in the types of information processing strategies that are learned in early experience in the home. Perhaps more fundamental is the view that the position the family holds in the social structure of the community determines to a degree the techniques children will be taught to use in dealing with the informational environment. Perhaps the most important element is the range
and number of alternatives for thought and action that are available in the community to the family and its members. The degree to which alternatives for thought are available is related to the family's position in the community. A family in a ghetto has few choices to make with respect to residence, occupation, condition of housing and on the many choices that are available through adequate income. Life consists of a struggle against the environment, of wrestling and seeking for basic commodities rather than an array of choices from which rational and thoughtful selection can be made. Families in these circumstances are not likely to encourage their children to regard life as consisting of a wide range of behavioral options among which they must learn to discriminate (16., 15-16).

Hess and Shipman, in a recent work, indicate "... that working class mothers tend to stress obedience and are less sensitive to the affective and emotional aspects of the early school experience" (16., 22). Reporting his study Hess stated:

Middle class mothers are more concerned with the meaning of the new experience to the child and with giving him ways of thinking about it that will help him master the new situation. They are less concerned that he display good behavior. This attitude is consistent with the work of Kohn (1959) on disciplinary techniques and attitudes of parents from different social classes (16., 22-23).

The behavior pattern learned in the home is exemplified in overt action expressed in school behavior. Studies indicate discrepancies in behavior between working class and middle class children and the orientation they receive at home in preparation for school. Hess further concluded:

In short, children from working class homes are taught to attend to the norms, rules and
authority figures of the social systems in which they live rather than to inquire, challenge and take an assertive, initiatory stance. This orientation expresses the level of prestige and power of the families in the community. Feelings of futility and alienation on the part of parents are carried into the classrooms as attitudes of apathy and passivity (16., 24).

Hess found that communication problems varied between middle class and working class mothers. More significant possibly, is the finding that within the working class groups the mother's tendency to teach the child strategies for problem solving was associated with the child's success on mental tasks he was asked to perform in which the mother was not involved (16., 25). One type of mother provides so little information or provides it in such disorganized fashion that the child is essentially placed into a frustration tolerance situation in which he has little confidence in his own ability or his mother to help him achieve (16., 25). Finally, Hess indicated:

The effect of cultural disadvantage thus results in a significant degree from the attitudes toward authority and rules, toward learning and one's own capabilities and from the feelings of alienation and powerlessness that disadvantaged adults experience and feel in their day-to-day lives. The consequences for children are evident in the preschool period and have taken toll before they enter the school. The first grade or kindergarten teacher is faced with a problem which is basically different than that confronting a teacher in a middle class school. Her first task to teach the child to learn is to use reasoning rather than rules in coping with the school system and the material in the classroom. This is an orientation to which he is typically not
accustomed and her task is not easy. In addition, she has to compete with the home and community (including the peer group) in her efforts to orient the child to new learning procedures (16., 25-26).

Transitional Statements
on Minority Groups

The transitional statements from the section on minority groups are as follows:

Racial and ethnic composition

1. Throughout the history of the United States, its population has been relatively heterogeneous in its racial and ethnic composition.

The nature of the composition

2. The United States is one of the more heterogeneous nations in the world.

3. Foreign immigration will remain fairly constant.

Nonwhite population

4. The nonwhite continued to grow, percentage-wise, at a faster rate in past years than the white population.

5. On a percentage basis the nonwhite will continue to gain on the white population in the United States.

6. A larger percentage, which will continue to grow, will reside in the cities within the larger SMSA's.

7. The Negro population will continue its migratory pattern from the South to the North and West.
8. During the coming decade the Negroes in the North and West will outnumber those in the South.

9. The Negro in the South will continue to become inhabitants of the urban places.

10. As the Negro moves to the inter-city the white population moves out.

11. Evidence indicates increased rather than decreased segregation of the Negro in the cities.

12. The impact of the expansion, relocation and acculturation of the Negro population has been and will continue to be a major one.

Disadvantaged

13. Crowded urban living conditions, semi-literacy, poverty and racial descrimination in a society that is obviously wealthy, is suburban in its values and which professes to be free, goes together to create the world of the disadvantaged.

14. There are fewer jobs, in our society, for those semi-literate adults.

15. Increased attention is being focused on the educational deprivation of American Negroes.

16. The effectiveness of Negroes as a political power in the United States is increasing.
17. The dominant feature of the new look in compensatory education is the demand for action.

18. Increasing amounts are being allotted to compensatory education by private, state and federal sources.

19. Disadvantage may refer to any condition which prevents an individual from being educated to the maximum of his genetic potential.

Compensatory education programs

20. Environmental conditions are a handicap which hinder the child in working to the peak of his ability.

21. At present teachers cannot accurately measure when the disadvantaged child has reached a level which reflects his natural ability.

22. The introduction of new facilities, superior curricula, better materials and teaching aids has been more rapid and concentrated in the middle class neighborhoods than in the slums and rural areas.

23. New math, foreign language, and other courses which orient the child toward superior education are rarely part of the programs for disadvantaged children.

24. There are a large number of volunteers working the disadvantaged programs.

25. There is a need to coordinate the efforts of the many social agencies trying to assess the disadvantaged groups.
26. There must be better communication among the many groups assessing the disadvantaged.

27. There is little theory based on an understanding of the experiences of the disadvantaged child, his problems and resources.

28. The nation has taken a position that the educational level of disadvantaged groups must be raised as quickly as possible.

29. Because of the urgency with which compensatory education programs are being developed, many are accepted with too little critical review.

30. In the struggle for equal opportunity there is evidence that children may become aligned against the white institutions and develop antagonism against the school and the educational system.

31. The development of educability clearly assumes an acceptance of the behavior and values of the school by the community, by the child's family, especially the mother.

32. In the disadvantaged group, the expectations of the teacher for social and academic performance are often not shared by the family.

33. Mothers of disadvantaged children have a different orientation to those things which promote learning in children.
34. The central difficulty is the difference in emphasis and of misunderstanding about the role of the pupil.

35. There needs to be improved communications concerning pupil expectations by both home and school.

36. The disadvantaged child comes to school not only deficient in language skills and in ability to discriminate auditory and visual input but with a pattern of behavior which is not readily adaptable to the school.

37. The school must serve as a re-socializing as well as a socializing unit.

38. The experiences and learning the disadvantaged child has had are different in kind from the mainstream of social and cultural experience in this country.

39. A family in a ghetto has few choices to make with respect to residence, occupation, condition of housing and on the many choices that are available through adequate income.

40. Working class mothers tend to stress obedience and are less sensitive to the affective and emotional aspects of the early school experience.

41. Middle class mothers are more concerned with the meaning of the new experience to the child and with giving him ways of thinking about it that will help him master the new situation.
42. Children from working class homes are taught to attend to the norms, rules and authority figures of the social systems in which they live rather than to inquire, challenge and take an assertive, initiatory stance.

43. Feelings of futility and alienation on the part of parents are carried into the classrooms as attitudes of apathy and passivity.

44. Communication problems vary between middle class and working class mothers and their children.

45. There must be an escape route from the disadvantaged circumstances of early childhood.

Propositions on Minority Groups

The propositions which hold relevance for professional personnel administration from the minority groups section are as follows:

1. That educators must join with other agencies if true gains are to be achieved in helping the culturally disadvantaged;

2. That problems facing educators in urban centers in the coming decade will not end with students in the twelfth year of schooling;

3. That education of youngsters in general will begin at an age earlier than five years;

4. That segregation of the Negro in cities will increase rather than decrease;
5. That the effectiveness of Negroes as a political power in the United States will increase:

6. That increased financial resources will not continue to be poured in compensatory education without tangible evidence of results:

7. That renewed efforts must be made to retain and secure additional volunteers working in disadvantaged programs.

The problems facing the disadvantaged cannot be solved by any one institution in society working in disharmony with other agencies. This has been well established to this point. It is also evident at this juncture that resources outside the school and the narrow confines of the ghettos in which disadvantaged families reside must be brought into play if the complex problem we face is to be solved. If values and behaviors of families are going to be altered we must provide means by which to alter them. For the most part this means job opportunities, opportunities to rise above the economic level at which they presently reside. We must also provide innovative programs and organizational structures in which the child is brought to a full realization of his abilities.

This cannot be done unless changes take place in some basic resource structures in our society. These structures, namely educational organizations and occupational structures,
must enhance, not inhibit, the growth of the individual if educators hope to realize a goal of solving the problems facing disadvantaged groups.

Resource Structures

This section of the study deals with changing structures in our society. The changing structure of education, in the form of educational organization change and the changing occupational structure of the United States, are discussed, as they affect education.

These structural changes have great import for educational planning. The emergence of educational laboratories which are the direct result of one piece of Federal Legislation will unquestionably hold great significance for educators. This is true for the everchanging occupational structure. If education is to provide the manpower necessary to fulfill the demands of a fast-changing society it must know the nature of the changes taking place in the occupational structure of the country both now and with reasonable accuracy for the future.

The nature and direction of educational change structures are discussed in the paper prepared by Francis A. J. Ianni entitled, "Emerging Organizational Structures for Facilitating Educational Change with Implications for State Education Departments." Leonard A. Lecht in his paper entitled, "The Changing Occupational Structure with Implication
Emergent Educational Change Structures

Change has, and continues to be, the subject of much investigation. Large quantities of information have been gathered concerning the diffusion or spread of innovation within behavioral, social and cultural systems. In his paper Ianni summarizes some of the similar conclusions found on the subject of diffusion. Generally, six crucial focal points are identified in the systematic study of diffusion:

1. The conditions within the system which lead to innovation

2. The innovation itself and its origin within or without the system

3. The mode and conditions of communicating the innovation among the elements of the system

4. The organizational analysis of the system in which the innovation is to be diffused

5. The process of behavioral or operational modification, and by which the innovation is adopted with or without modification, and

6. The fate of the innovation and the process by which it becomes itself obsolete (18,1-2).

Gradually, over the past decade, the field of educational research and development has come to appreciate the importance of studying the process by which the new technologies of education—both hard and software—can be diffused
throughout the educational system (19.,2). Although there have been many studies in the past concerning diffusion and innovation, the educational community and the public have not been ready to accept them. Today, however, we are faced with new educational and social imperatives which demand rather than suggest that the diffusion of the results of the new intellectual and technical revolutions be made readily and speedily available to the schools (18.,2). Attempts are now being made, for example, to create new models of organizational structures for the study and conduct of educational research, development and diffusion by involving major elements of the educational system in the process of creating and disseminating knowledge (18.,3).

**Change vehicles**

The vehicle to facilitate educational change can be structural in nature, although this structure does not necessarily mean it is physical in nature. Organizational structures and communicative networks are often the prime structural vehicles within which educational change is facilitated.

The impetus to change existing structures to facilitate educational change can be traced to the growing concern for quality as well as equality in education. This can be visualized in the national concern which caused the formulation of the Physical Science Study Committee in 1956. This concern to facilitate educational change resulted in a struc-
ture which provided a complete one-year physics course in a
manner quite unique at the time. Soon to follow the initial
effort were such groups as the School Mathematics Study
Group and the Biological Science Curriculum Study.

The new structure initiated by Gerald Zacharias and
the PSSC group provided for a total curriculum revision
process. It involved teachers and classrooms as well as
scientists and laboratories and with continuous trial, feed-
back and revision. This structure provided for many special-
ized talents to be used. Also, the teachers were an active
participant and were thoroughly informed of all aspects of
the program. This, for the most part, was done through
actual training of teachers in the use of the materials.

The first of the national curriculum revision pro-
grams were privately financed, but by 1962 the Office of
Education began to sponsor curriculum development projects.
This was handled under the Cooperative Research Act. Grow-
ing from this modest beginning in educational research and
innovation the government broadened its scope to involve
universities, state education departments and local schools
in a program of research, development and dissemination.
From this there developed the structures to facilitate edu-
cational change known as the Research and Development Center
and the Regional Educational Laboratory (18,4-6).

The idea of continuous programs of research, develop-
ment and dissemination gave rise to the Research and
Development Center program in 1963. It seems reasonable to believe that such centers could reduce substantially the lag between research and practice by making new ideas available to the schools. However, Ianni indicates their limitations.

As significant a step toward new organizations for educational innovation as these Centers represented, they could not and should not have been expected to meet the most immediate needs of the nation's schools. Primarily research oriented and usually based in a single institution they answered the need for creative new ideas but not for the translation of these ideas into materials and techniques or for the diffusion of either ideas or practices to the schools. To meet these more pressing needs, we developed and proposed to the Congress as part of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, a new instrumentality for creating and diffusing innovative programs—educational laboratories of comparable size and scope to the best in science or agriculture. The name Regional Educational Laboratory was finally settled on to express their experimental nature and to underline their relationship to the existing educational institutions in a region of the country. The laboratory program was specifically designed to focus the educational, scientific, cultural and other resources of all parts of the nation on immediate development, dissemination and training in educational innovation. The Congress authorized this program under Title IV of P.L. 89-10 and appropriated $100 million over five years for constructing labs and $45 million for setting up the new program in fiscal year 1966 (18.7-8).

"We hoped," Ianni indicates, "that laboratories would be concerned with a wide spectrum of activities including basic and applied research, curriculum development and evaluation, demonstration projects, staffing and operating laboratory schools, clearinghouse operation for research and curriculum materials, and a variety of training and other dissemination
activities" (18.,10). This was to provide education with a vehicle for carrying out continuous programs from research planning through diffusion of an innovation. In this context Ianni states:

Research was still to be an important function of labs but new emphasis was to be placed on engineering research results into forms to be used in classrooms, for continuous testing of these forms, for training teachers in their use and for making them available to school systems. To introduce educational innovation into a particular region of the country a laboratory was to draw not only on its own research and development activities, but also on that done by other laboratories, by research and development centers, and by other organizations and agencies active in similar activities (18.,11).

Laboratories were conceived as a working partner with the local school system. It was to cooperate and coordinate in programs with state departments of education, colleges, universities, teacher education programs and local school systems. "Each laboratory was to be associated in some way with 'real' school systems and with operating public schools," according to Ianni (18.,11). He elaborates this point:

We envisioned associations with schools taking on a variety of forms. Newly constructed or converted experimental schools would allow for continuous programs of research, development and evaluation in the classroom, and demonstration schools or classrooms would be used for exemplary programs developed at the laboratory. An association with a laboratory would allow any school or district to field test and evaluate techniques and materials already developed, or merely to share the services provided by laboratories (18.,11-13).
It was also planned that the new structures, the laboratories, were designed to work cooperatively with a variety of groups. Among them are included professional and regional associations, community civic and services organizations, libraries and museums, private foundations, institutes and business and industry.

Specialized personnel will be necessary to staff the laboratories. To head the operation it will be necessary to find a research-oriented person who is trained in administration. A person who is willing to facilitate the research process through the administration of its activities and not through participation in research. There will be a need for supportive personnel also. These personnel may include such persons as artists, programmers, editors and statistical experts.

Curriculum development was envisioned as an end in itself and also as a stimulus and support for teacher growth by stimulating new ways of teaching, new theories of instruction and new content. By involving institutions of teacher education in lab activities, prospective teachers could be made aware of the process of innovation from the very beginning of their training. In-service teachers could be involved in the innovative process through experimental schools and also through cooperating local schools and demonstration centers. One important curriculum activity planned for the laboratories was the development of new materials for preparing teachers and for teachers of teachers (18, 13-14).

As laboratories develop new roles will evolve. The dissemination of innovative activity, which should be within
the realm of the laboratories activities, creates a need for the training of dissemination specialists. Educational technology would be his specialty, and diffusion of innovations would be his role. His responsibility would encompass evaluating the new programs as well as diffusing them into local systems.

The development of models and model programs would facilitate the alleviation of apprehension on the part of some decision-makers to adopt particular innovations. However, these means of dissemination would necessarily supersede the use of the printed word.

The Office of Education has seen fit to transmit printed materials pertaining to research and development activities to the extent of developing Educational Research Information Centers. These centers are located in various areas of the United States. Each center has a responsibility for the collection, storage, retrieval and dissemination in the educational area it is to serve.

The need for creating and training a new variety of dissemination specialists was also foreseen. A specialist in education technology, his role would be that of diffusion agent in seeing innovations into practice. More than a copy of the county agent in agriculture, he would also be involved in evaluating new programs.

Exemplary programs and model demonstrations were viewed as other important links in the diffusion process. These activities were to be means by which educational decision-makers as well as educational practitioners could observe
the usefulness and, if you will, even the efficiency of a particular innovation.

The much maligned but still potent means of dissemination through the printed word was not declared obsolete for it was recognized that newsletters, monographs and sample curriculum guides perform a vital function, if properly used and directed toward prepared, receptive audiences. Finally an information storage and retrieval system linking each lab was considered essential, although the mechanics of such a system were not specified. The network of information centers was to be coordinated with the Office of Education's own Educational Research Information Center (18.,14-15).

Diffusion research in anthropology and more recently in business suggests that "divisibility" or the degree to which an innovation can have a "trial run" before it is massively installed, has an important effect on the rate of acceptance of the innovation (18.,17). This gives an opportunity for teachers, principals, superintendents and other users to try out various innovations either in demonstration schools or through other methods of simulation in laboratories.

A principle from diffusion research which is of some importance in education is that things are more easily diffused than ideas or, as anthropologists put it more elegantly, a cultural system is more resistant to borrowing customs and beliefs than tools and machines (18.,18). Over two hundred million dollars, of the roughly one billion dollars made available to the schools to date under Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act for educational
improvement of disadvantaged youngsters has gone for new electronic hardware.

Diffusion of educational innovations through an organization must be consistent with diffusion research. Research in diffusion of innovations indicates that which contradicts the core values of a culture has very little chance of acceptance. The values of the local establishment are very important. The value the local educators put on an innovation is most important to its success. This may account for the fact that change generated from within a system is usually more readily accepted than change imposed from the outside. To illustrate this point Ianni states, "Consider, if you will, for just a moment the success of a program where the Episcopalians and the Catholics confer and then announce to the Southern Baptists their plan for the reform of the Baptist church" (18.,18-20).

This principle has yet another application in education and that is the increasing tendency to prescribe new programs to produce social change through education in the culture of poverty (18.,20). Ianni paraphrases some of Everett Roger's research pertaining to innovation which he did not cover as follows:

(1) An innovation has a relative advantage to the degree that it is perceived as superior to the ideas it supersedes. Thus a new idea won't make it unless it is judged superior to what is already being done.
(2) Complexity he describes as the degree to which an innovation is relatively difficult to understand and to use. The classic example here, of course, is the unrefined educational report which the school superintendent characterizes as taking what everybody already knows and putting it in language nobody can understand.

(3) Communicability is the degree to which the results of an innovation are easily observed and communicated to others (18.,21).

Indications are that boards of education have difficulty communicating the true wishes of the community in relation to the kind of educational programs communities want; "rarely do board members have enough information to weigh the relative merits of expenditures on one type of schooling or innovations as opposed to another" (18.,22).

The adoption process, or the process which an innovation follows from its discovery by an individual or an organization to its actual use by the person or group, is the focus of much of the diffusion. "Now the implication here," Ianni inserts, "is not that labs and other agencies should concentrate only on innovations that are concrete, specific and dramatic, but that they should be aware that they may have to employ special techniques to ensure the adoption of the 'quieter' less demonstrable innovations" (18.,22-23).

Again, Everett Rogers lists the five stages an innovation follows in the adoption process:

(1) In the awareness state the individual is, as the name implies, aware of the innovation, but he is not motivated to seek any other
information about it. Impersonal communications, which do not involve a direct face-to-face exchange, are generally best able to generate the type of awareness required for this stage.

(2) In the interest stage the individual actively seeks additional information about an innovation. It would seem to be extremely important in education, for example, to ensure not only that information is presented in such a way as to answer clearly the kinds of questions the individual might be expected to have.

(3) In the evaluation stage the individual does not physically test the innovation but rather mentally weighs the innovation in terms of his present and anticipated future situation.

(4) In the trial stage the individual tests the innovation on a probationary basis. Generally personal experimentation seems to be necessary before innovation is adopted.

(5) In the adoption stage, the individual decides to continue use of the innovation (18.,23-24).

The nature of the innovation and the stage it is in often indicates the manner in which it is diffused. This can be done in one of many ways. Through a change agent, i.e., the county extension agricultural agent, would be an example of passing information personally from one person to other persons. Other techniques would include mass media, demonstration programs, the trial-participant technique to name a few of the more common forms. Often times the critical factor is timing of the adoption. The how, when and to whom information should be presented during the adoption process needs to be looked at closely.
The superintendent seems to be a key figure in the adoption process. However, Ianni and many other educators feel the teacher must accept and understand the innovation because she is the only one putting it directly to use (18, 24-25).

Teachers also play many roles within various subsystems of the school. A department chairman may be the head of a unit in name only. Informal leadership is not always congruent with formal status within an organizational system. However, the importance of this informal, or "opinion leaders," leadership is well documented. It often is that entry is gained through opinion leaders at the various levels.

Thus far ways have been considered in which individuals in a system are affected by various techniques of diffusion, the implication being that the organizational structure designed to promote educational change might incorporate promising techniques. This is difficult to predict because of the nature of control educators exercise over the system.

"Because it is not a monolithic, single-headquartered organization," Ianni states, "education dances to the tune of thousands of fiddlers and there is no organizational structure within which there are free and open channels of communication and nothing approaching the self-inspection system
of other bureaucracies (18., 28). This does not necessarily dictate the nature of future educational systems.

In education, as is readily observable in tracing the historical development of any highly innovative bureaucracy elsewhere, what is most critically needed is some clear institutionalized means of insuring that research, development and evaluation are clearly articulated with policy making at every level of government and the results of research and evaluation are available in formulating and executing education (18., 28-29). By providing administrators with insight into innovation and the innovation and diffusion processes, the laboratory may perform a meaningful task.

The Center and the Laboratory models are representative federally-initiated and supported models.

The model which does run counter to the Center and Laboratory models is the new Compact of Education proposed by James B. Conant and assembled principally by North Carolina's ex-governor Terry Sanford. The principal aim of the compact is to bring together individuals with "practical experience in state education, to undertake research studies of mutual interest and to serve as a buffer between the Federal government and the local community. This model does differ from the 'creative Federalism' which permeates the labs in that it does not see the Federal government as a partner to those activities but rather positions itself as a potential middleman (18., 30).

The need for a middle man, if you will, or some integrative agent seems desirable.
Integration of change

There is a need to integrate change into the organizations which will be introduced to the change. It will be the laboratory and educational agencies, working with other agencies on occasion, to effect change. There needs to be complete cooperation between all agencies, federal, state and local, if educational structures are going to effect change.

The new educational structures can provide a useful function for schools without controlling them. They can provide services heretofore unavailable to many, if not all schools. They can relieve the local school of the burden of administering and financing an elaborate research program.

The direction to be taken by the laboratories, in the change process, is not clear at this time. It would be difficult at this time to anticipate what responsibilities school districts will be willing to allow the laboratories to assume, and what responsibilities they—the local school—will assume in the total change process.

There is ample evidence from diffusion research that change is usually more complete and effective when it comes from within a system than when it is imposed from without. This suggests that state education departments, as an integral part of the system of formal schooling, should be constantly asking themselves what their new role in the emerging system is and can be in stimulating and diffusing innovation within the system. It is in this active capacity that state education departments can relate most effectively to the laboratories (16, 32).
Title V of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act is in the process of innovation by providing them with funds to improve state leadership in education (18., 32-33).

Ianni sums up these various points by stating, "I would propose that the key issue to be faced by the states, whether through the provisions of Title V, as part of a laboratory or association, or even if they elect to go it alone, is how they can retain their individuality as state departments of education and still be a partner in educational innovation" (18.).

Certification

If in fact the teachers role in the change process is a significant one, then it becomes increasingly important that certification comes through a process which requires those skills of a teacher that contribute to his over-all effectiveness. To achieve this, many of the certification requirements of most of the states need to be given close scrutiny. This is brought out when Ianni states:

Despite the claims of obsolescence by some of the more militant computer education types, teachers remain the principal point of contact between education and its clientele. The role of the teacher in any innovative program which involves the classroom is an obvious one. But teachers must be educated and prepared, some means of examining their readiness to teach installed, and some mechanism must be established to insure that they are kept abreast of developments in the field. Each of these is an important responsibility of state departments but there is a fourth concern which permeates all of
the continuing role of state departments in relation to teachers: How to insure that teachers are agents for innovation rather than barriers.

States vary considerably in the degree of their involvement in recognizing and pursuing this activity but a number of state departments are pushing ahead in this important area. Evidence of this fact are some of the recent "special projects" funded under section 505 of Title V of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. Of the first twenty-three projects funded under this section, three of them deal with innovations in the area of teaching. These projects are:

(1) Statewide Teacher Education Programs administered by Maryland with the following states participating: Florida, Michigan, South Carolina, Utah, Washington, and West Virginia.

(2) Interstate Certification of Teachers and Other Personnel administered by New York State with all fifty states participating.


Although one cannot guarantee certification requirements will keep teachers receptive to teaching innovations, they can require programs which will help foster an attitude more along these lines. By allowing teachers creative programs and by stressing programs which encourage individual expression, state departments through certification requirements, preparation programs and in-service programs can work with universities to foster receptiveness to innovation by teachers. The role of the laboratory is spelled out by Ianni:

The responsibility for producing and retraining teachers receptive to innovation is, of course, a responsibility shared among state
education departments, local schools and colleges and universities. In no other area does the laboratory system hold such promise for it has within it the mechanism for coordination of the efforts of groups with such shared responsibilities (18., 36-37).

The present system of administrative certification, with its complexities is confusing and often discouraging and in dire need of revamping. As with teacher certification, administrator certification needs a close review to ascertain his role and the knowledge he needs to perform these skills.

Of significant import is the fact no one really knows yet how to train administrators for today's social world let alone for the uncertainties of the future. We must gain a better understanding of the administrator's role and the social milieu in which he will operate. New techniques must be developed in preparing administrators.

It would be possible for the laboratories to make a contribution. The laboratories with their access to real schools could do research and help determine what realistic certification requirements should encompass. However, they must assume the cooperation of the state education department in using this information.

The fact the laboratories have contact with several schools could also be an asset in the diffusion of innovation. By having a place to turn, the superintendent can find out what really is new. The laboratory can provide ammunition,
in the form of proof, of the program's worth, for the superintendent to present to his board to sell the program.

**Curriculum change**

Before effective curriculum change takes place an assessment of present curriculums should be undertaken. Also before change in curriculum takes place it would be important to ascertain curriculum needs in the local school.

The new educational structures, e.g., the laboratories and the research centers, are based on the assumption that an agency other than a locally-based one is a more effective means of assessing the local curriculum materials. The problem of getting someone who knows the curriculum needs together with the people who have to be charged with diffusion of curriculum materials and programs is important. The communicative link must be open and operative in both directions.

The laboratories can serve as a connective link between the local subsystem and the other layers of government. It can be a meeting ground for university, state, federal and local authorities to get together and work to master problems facing educators.

However, the educational resource structures are just one of the resource structures operative in society directly affecting education. The nature of the changes taking place in the occupational structure of this country hold significant
import for educators. Not only for the kinds of programs which will be offered to the student, but even more important, the level of significance society places on education is closely related to the nature of the occupational structure at a given point in time.

Changing Occupational Structure

As the United States continues to grow and demands are changing, the characteristics of the occupational structure will also change. The changes will be evidenced in the nature, demand and priorities given to various jobs and job groups. The kinds of personnel needed and the kinds of personnel available then become vital questions to the many persons in many organizations interested in human resources.

The future manpower needs of the country are of concern to many institutions in our society. The supply of teachers, engineers, scientists, doctors, and other professional persons is important to the immediate well-being of our society. The achieving of our national goals is dependent not only on material resources, but on human resources as well.

To analyze the manpower needs of the future Lecht has looked at past trends and the implications the changing occupational structure indicated for the future. He also examines the dynamic forces changing the economy's manpower requirements (19.,1-2).
An illustration of the influence of decisions to implement priorities for requirements for scientists and engineers is evidenced by the press to develop our missile capabilities following the Russian's dramatic rocket achievements. This could cause one to wonder what the purpose of education should serve. This is indicated by Lecht:

Teaching and learning are obviously important for many reasons other than preparing people for jobs. The skills and knowledge gained through education are the prerequisites for successful vocational training, for personal fulfillment, and for intelligent social and political participation in a complex technological society. Widespread diffusion of educational opportunity has been our main channel for diffusing social and educational opportunity. It is for these reasons that President Eisenhower's Commission on National Goals recommended in the early 1960's that "education at every level and in every discipline be strengthened and its effectiveness increased.

This is at once an investment in the individual, in the democratic process, in the growth of the economy, and in the stature of the United States." With similar considerations in mind, President Johnson proposed in 1965 that "we declare a national goal of full educational opportunity" (19.2-3).

"Since the pursuit of our goals," Lecht asserts, "and their implications for the nation's occupational structure refer to the future, the point of departure for our manpower projections is a consideration of the economic framework which is expected to characterize our society in the 1980's" (19.3).

The limiting factor in realizing our objectives in the next decade is likely to be a volume of output anticipated to increase to a trillion dollars by 1975 (in dollars of 1964 purchasing
power). This increase assumes a GNP growing at a rate of 4.5 percent a year between 1964 and 1975. A 4.5 percent annual increase in GNP is considerably larger than the average increase in GNP of 3.8 percent a year for the entire period since 1947, although it is somewhat smaller than the 5 1/4 percent growth in output of the past two years. Sustaining this pace of growth for over a decade would involve active fiscal, monetary, and manpower policies by the Federal Government to maintain effective demand and to minimize potentially inflationary pressures (19.3).

As the population in our country grows, more persons have tended to settle in urban places. Among the concentration of population in urban areas have been the rural Southern Negroes. There is reason to believe both of these trends will continue through the coming decade. By 1975 it is estimated that 85 percent of the Negroes in the United States will be living in cities. Lecht states that:

With the indicated growth in GNP and population, the civilian labor force is expected to increase by 17 million persons between 1964 and 1975. This represents an average increase of 1.5 million a year, or a 50 percent larger increase than the average annual labor force growth in the decade before 1964. A larger proportion of the labor force in 1975 will probably be made up of younger workers. Workers in the under 35 age group are likely to constitute 47 percent of the total in the mid-1970's compared with 40 percent in 1964. The proportion of women in this changing labor force is anticipated to increase only slightly, from about 35 to 37 percent (19.4).

By studying some of the changes in the occupational structure since World War II, it can be seen that changes in the structure of basic institutions have taken place. Although, in many instances drastic alterations have taken
place, many institutions have changed little. An example of
the kinds of occupational changes taking place is the in-
creasing educational requirements for entrance into occupa-
tions. The occupations for which high school graduation is
a typical requirement have increased in number since the
second World War. This trend was even more exaggerated in
the ones requiring a college degree as an entrance qualifi-
cation. This is pointed out in the professional and
technical employment which rose to six times the over-all
percentage increase in civilian employment. The opportuni-
ties for employment in fields desiring less than a high
school education have not been growing at a very fast pace.
The farm occupations have declined over two-fifths between
1947 and 1964 while the service occupations grew by one-half
since World War II. This tends to offset, to some degree,
the decline in farm occupations as a source of employment
for those having less than a high school education.

Many changes account for the over-all changes in the
occupational pattern. Though much heralded, technological
change will not be the sole influence on the changing occupa-
tional pattern in the coming decade. The influence of more
widespread educational opportunity and attainment, the impact
of rising family incomes and leisure, and the manpower needs
generated by pursuit of our nation's priorities are interact-
ing factors having a significant impact on our economy's
pattern (19.5-6).
In order to best assess the economic growth of the country there needs to be an index. Such an index is the Gross National Product (GNP). The GNP represents the total products produced in our country in a year; it gives an indication of the countries productive activity in a given year, thus revealing the economic condition of that period. Some economic trends in the GNP are spelled out by Lecht.

GNP produced per man-hour is probably our best single index of productivity growth for the entire economy. There is a significant amount of evidence indicating that GNP per man-hour has been rising in the past generation. The National Commission on Technology, Automation, and Economic Progress has estimated in its report to President Johnson in 1966 that output per man-hour in the private economy since 1947 has been growing by 3 percent a year compared with a 2 percent annual increase in the preceding 35 years (19.6).

Most of the increase in the GNP is related to technological advances. With increasing technological developments automation is becoming more prevalent. During this time the need for specialized personnel is increasing, while unskilled jobs are being eliminated.

On an economy-wide basis Lecht sees little to indicate that automation will produce mass unemployment or even an over-all decline in jobs. He indicates that, 'on an economy-wide basis, using GNP per man-hour as an indicator, the productivity increases in our projections average 3.3 percent a year, or slightly greater than the annual productivity growth in the 1947 to 1964 period" (19.7). There
are indications from the Commission on Technology, Automation, and Economic Progress that technical progress, which is a significant contributor to the growth of the GNP will continue through the next decade.

To predict future manpower needs it is essential to examine the productivity rate of various occupations. Several considerations must be entertained if predictions are to be effective. One such consideration would be that several of the most rapidly growing sectors of the economy, such as the services sector, are characterized by slow growth in productivity. Agriculture is another consideration. It has steadily diminished in its share of total economic activity in the country while its productivity rates have increased. Lecht feels, "there is a time lag between the initial establishment of the technical feasibility of an invention and its diffusion into everyday industrial use; therefore, for the next decade, it is unlikely that technological change, and especially the computer oriented technologies, will change the broad trends in the distribution of employment in our society" (19.8).

The number of well-educated persons is increasing every year. As the supply of well-educated, or better educated persons increases in virtually all occupational fields, the greater availability of these persons to employers becomes an important factor in raising entrance requirements
for many types of jobs (19.,9). This can be seen in the
dependence employers are putting on the high school diploma
as a screening device.

As the average family income continues to rise, from
$7,800 in 1964 to close to $10,400 by 1975, the occupational
structure will be affected by shifts in consumer spending.
A smaller share of the family income goes for food and a
larger share goes for service and durable consumer goods as
family incomes rise. A large portion of the budget is allo-
cated for education, travel, vacations, books, automobile,
hobbies, recreation, medical care, beauticians, appliances
and repairmen, as family incomes rise. This shift in spend­
ing contributes to an increase in professional and service
occupations, as well as other related occupations.

As our nation increases the level of expenditures for
defense there is a pattern of jobs created. Factories are
committed to the production of hardware, thus jobs are
created for those having the skills demanded for this func­
tion. Also, there is an increased need for scientists and
engineers for the research and development of the complex
hardware for defense. Assuming that existing levels of
international tensions continue for another decade, Lecht
indicates a spending level of $70 billion could be reached by
1975. "Barring a considerable increase in international ten­
sions," Lecht asserts, "it is unlikely that the manpower
needs for defense in the next decade will represent a larger
proportionate claim on our human resources than at present (19.,9-10).

How our human resources are deployed is a significant factor affecting the occupational structure. This deployment is due to societal demands. These demands are reflected in national goals. These goals are identifiable and are allotted certain resources obtainable by society.

**National goals**

National goals are nothing more than tenative objectives planners use as guidelines. They are the best estimates of what society wants to pursue. Goals are an estimate of what society wants to "spend" its resources for. How vigorously the nation pursues its goals, and the priorities it assigns to each, is very significant in discussing occupational structure.

If society pursues, as a high priority objective, a higher standard of health and education, the need for white collar workers would increase. This would be particularly true of professionals. By the same token an increase in blue collar workers would come about if society concentrated on conserving and developing our natural resources, rebuilding our cities, developing our highway system, modernizing our industrial plants or similar projects which demand large scale efforts from tradesmen and laborers.
The pursuit of a national objective and its ensuing effect on the occupational structure can be observed by the growth of research and development industries. This has been due to society's pursuit of national goals in defense, space, atomic energy and health. The research and development industries also create many jobs other than scientists and engineers. In research and development and its related industries it is estimated 2.2 million persons were employed in 1962. Scientists and engineers accounted for the majority of occupations and totaled about 450,000. Jobs were also created for some 160,000 technicians, for close to 300,000 clerical workers, and for 90-odd thousand service workers including over 20,000 charwomen, janitors, and porters, and 10,000 guards and watchmen (19.,11-12).

To achieve the nation's objectives in defense, atomic energy and space, and also to expand our R & D effort in such areas as water desalination, mass transit, health, or oceanography is estimated to involve a growth in research and development expenditures to $40 billion a year by 1975 (in 1964 dollars). Achieving our goals in R & D would increase employment in the enterprises directly or indirectly related to these activities to an estimated 4.3 million, or some 2 million more than in 1962. Over three-fourths of this total are expected to be in occupations other than scientists and engineers (19.,12).

Lecht, in Goals, Priorities, and Dollars--The Next Decade, discusses the dollar cost of achieving our National Goals in the 1970's.

Some of the goals, i.e., consumer expenditures or housing, are concerned with individual
well being. Others, education is an instance, affect both the well being of individuals and the pace of economic growth. Several of the goals are directed at removing the adverse impacts of economic change on groups of individuals. Area redevelopment or manpower retraining are examples. Others, such as the national defense or the international aid goals, are concerned with protecting the nation's security and enhancing the prospects for world peace. For many of the goals the role of public authority is minimal. Consumers, for example, determine the manner in which they spend their income. In others, national defense for example, public authority alone determines the standard and makes the decisions controlling expenditures. In still others, urban development is a leading instance, the Federal Government utilizes its expenditures to encourage private firms and municipalities to rebuild their central cities (19., 13-15).

To achieve our National goals in the next decade would mean a greater number of qualified personnel. In his initial research study, Lecht indicates that, "achievement of all our goals in the next decade would require a 15 percent larger volume of output than is expected to become available within that period of time" (19., 15). He continues by saying that:

Where and how we assign our priorities in a democracy is determined by the decisions of firms, trade unions, and consumers, and by legislation enacted at all levels of government. Yet research and analysis are essential if we are to have the information needed for intelligent choices. Economic analysis can indicate where rapid expansion in the pursuit of particular goals in the same period of time is likely to create serious competition for the same manpower resources. Higher education and R & D are illustrations. It can also indicate the probable pattern of manpower requirements and job development needs which would emerge from the pursuit of our goals. Research in manpower requirements for pursuing our goals is especially significant because the limiting factor in achieving some goals, as in research
and development, is more likely to be a barrier of insufficient scientists, engineers, and technicians than the barrier of insufficient dollars (19.,15-16).

Priority of goals

It seems reasonable to expect that our nation will achieve our National Goals as well as others which will emerge as society continues to change. The effort our nation has diverted to problems of minority groups indicates some of the changes taking place in our society. "The public and private expenditures in pursuit of our national objectives can be expected to be a major factor in generating employment for millions of individuals in many different occupations and industries," according to Lecht (19.,16).

To summarize his findings, Lecht has prepared an occupational growth profile. He has classified individual occupations into "high," "low," or "moderate" growth occupations relating to two estimates of employment by occupation in the mid-1970's. One is based on annual 5.8 percent growth in the GNP and the other is based on a 4.5 percent annual growth in the GNP in the next decade. He explains that:

The "high," "low," and "moderate" classifications have been arrived at by comparing the anticipated increase in employment in each occupation with the projected over-all increase in civilian employment in the two projections. If the 4.5 percent GNP growth rate in our economic framework were to be achieved, total civilian employment would grow by an estimated 25 percent between 1964 and 1975. To realize all sixteen goals is
projected to involve an increase in employment of over two-fifths, or 44 percent more than in 1964. Achieving all sixteen goals in the mid-1970's would require the employment of more persons than are likely to be in the labor force.

The high-growth occupations are projected to grow at a considerably more rapid rate than the 25 or 44 percent increases listed for total employment in the two estimates by at least a third more in terms of percentage changes. The low growth occupations are the ones which are expected to grow at a considerably less rapid rate, by at least a third less. The growth rates for the moderate-growth occupations do not depart substantially enough from the changes in overall manpower requirements to warrant inclusion in the other two groups (19-16-18).

Many of the high growth groups, according to Lecht's projections, are white collar fields mostly the professional and technical occupations. These tended to be associated with the pursuit of four goals --health, research and development, and, to a lesser extent, education and transportation services. Similar growth is projected for social, welfare, and recreational workers and for salaried managers, in many types of clerical work. Because of the projected increase in family income those service occupations, e.g., barbers, hairdressers, and cosmetologists, will be in greater demand.

Public and private expenditure both have an effect on the blue collar workers, which Lecht projects as moderate growth occupations. The two large expenditures center around the national goals associated with housing and urban development. Painters, brickmasons, electricians and laborers are all projected as moderate growth occupations based on
anticipated large outlays of money for urban development and renewal. Also, in the moderate growth occupational groups are elementary and secondary school teachers. This is still an absolute projected increase of over a million school teachers (19.16).

Lecht also points out that:

Many of the occupations in the low-growth group are in areas where technological change, shifts in consumer spending, or changes in wage rates can be expected to retard growth or to reduce employment. Because of technological change, employment for printing trades craftsmen, for example, is expected to grow slowly, and the economy's requirements for mine operatives are projected to decline. Employment for private household workers is also likely to grow slowly as expansion in other and better paid job opportunities pushes up hourly wages for domestics. Employment is projected to decline in farm occupations so that the "low-growth" classification for these occupations is something of a misnomer. The projection of a decline in farm employment is consistent with trends in employment since 1947. The reasons for the projected decline, as for the historical trends, are the rapid increases in productivity in agriculture, together with the tendency for consumers' expenditures for food to increase at a slower rate than total personal consumption expenditures (19.18-21).

The resources expended to fulfill our Nation's objectives will have multiple effects. The monies spent to provide services will create a manpower demand which in turn will help unemployment and possibly provide jobs for poverty-stricken families.

The overall bearing of our manpower projections is to suggest that, whatever the particular combinations of priorities our society adopts in the next ten years, planning for manpower needs in the
1970's must reckon with the impact of pursuit of our priorities as a dynamic influence for manpower requirements. Programs for conserving natural resources, or developing an adequate mass transit system, or reducing the prevalence of poverty serve social values. They also contribute to economic growth and the demand for labor. The growth in demand for scientists, engineers, and technicians, or for physicians, nurses, and hospital attendants, or for electricians, plumbers and laborers, in the next ten years is very likely to reflect the vigor with which the nation pursues its goals (19.,18-21).

Planning to take account of the impact of pursuit of national objectives for manpower needs or for our educational and vocational training systems has sometimes been assigned a secondary role. This trend appears to have changed in recent years, as witnessed by the establishment of such agencies as the National Planning Agency.

Government agencies, and especially the National Science Foundation, in recent years, have undertaken intensive studies of the economy's utilization and training for scientists and engineers. Similar studies concerning manpower planning and educational planning have also been conducted and their results released, such as the data collected concerning the impact of Medicare on the education of doctors and nurses.

To meet the demands generated by the increasing need for manpower in the health fields, in research and development and in other professional and technical occupations will put tremendous pressure on institutions of higher
education. This, in turn, will create a massive expansion in facilities to cope with the soaring enrollments. This can be seen in the over-all increase in enrollment from about 4.5 million in the Fall of 1963 to around 9.5 million by mid-1970, if achievement of the education goal is to be gained. According to Lecht, an increase in college enrollment of 5 million should be shown and an increase in degrees awarded of three-quarters of a million a year.

There is further indication from Lecht's projection that the largest increase in enrollments will be in the graduate and professional schools, as well as in community colleges. This increase is projected largely because of the anticipated growth in such occupations as professional and managerial as well as the new technical fields. This indicates an ever-increasing demand for training beyond the present four-year high school.

In the past much of the education planning left much to be desired. Often programs were not planned to meet the needs of society's demand, therefore, students were not adequately trained to take their places in the world of work. This is evidenced by the fact that almost half of the federally-aided vocational enrollment in 1964 was in home economics courses, and almost a fifth was made up of enrollment in agriculture. Extra-educational institutions are cited by Lecht:
Some of the most important developments in recent years in relating education to manpower needs have taken place outside of the regular educational institutions although often working in close collaboration with them. These are the new, largely federally-supported programs for training, and training primarily in aid of the unemployed and the disadvantaged. In fiscal year 1966 federal appropriations in aid of these programs amounted to close to $2 billion dollars. The $2 billion supported the training and basic literacy education conducted under the auspices of the Manpower Development and Training Act, the work experience programs for unemployed parents of dependent children, the Neighborhood Youth Corps, the Job Corps, the vocational aspect of the community action programs conducted by the Office of Economic Opportunity, vocational rehabilitation for the handicapped, and similar activities. By 1975, it is anticipated that retraining and basic literacy programs similar to those currently authorized by the Manpower Development and Training Act will involve expenditures of $3 billion a year for trainees' allowances instructional costs, social service aid, and research. Through these programs we are developing an elaborate para-educational system in the United States concentrating on vocational education and basic literacy training for young adults (19,27,28).

There are many cultural characteristics which need to be overcome if those unskilled, unemployed persons in poverty areas are to be helped. Upgrading educational levels for these groups will be of benefit. However, it is important that the increase in education and employment skill does not lead to another dead end of not finding employment.
Transitional Statements on Resource Structures

The transitional statements from the section on resource structure are as follows:

Emergent educational change structures

1. Today we are faced with new educational and social imperatives which demand rather than suggest that the diffusion of the results of the new intellectual and technical revolutions to be made readily and speedily available to the schools.

Change vehicles

2. There is a growing concern for quality as well as equality in education.

3. Regional Educational Laboratories and Research and Development Centers could reduce substantially the lag between research and practice by making new ideas available to the schools.

4. The laboratories are designed to be concerned with a wide spectrum of activities including basic and applied research, curriculum development and evaluation, demonstration projects, staffing and operating laboratory schools, clearinghouse operation for research and curriculum materials, and a variety of training and other dissemination activities.

5. Laboratories are to be a vehicle for carrying out continuous programs from research planning through diffusion of an innovation.
6. New working relationships with local schools and labs will develop.

7. New experimental programs will be developed for trial in the local school district.

8. The use of evaluative techniques will be exercised.

9. The laboratory was designed to act as an association of interdependence among all of the agencies with a stake in education.

10. Specialized personnel will be necessary to staff the laboratories.

Diffusion of change

11. Laboratories working with institutions of higher learning will have an effect on the training of educators.

12. The laboratory can provide an organizational model for diffusion in education.

13. The laboratory may provide the necessary trial run to aid the diffusion process.

14. Schools will continue to adopt more new materials than ideas.

15. More change will come from within the system than from outside the system.

16. Communication is a barrier to diffusion of an innovation.

17. The superintendent plays a critical role in the introduction of an educational innovation.
18. The teacher plays a critical role in the adoption of an educational innovation.

19. The identification of 'opinion leaders' is essential in the diffusion of innovation.

20. The laboratories and research centers are in a position to provide the necessary communicative link between research and practice.

21. The Educational Commission of the States can act as a link between the Federal Government and the local community.

Integration of change

22. The system of formal schooling must be integrated with the systems of federal, state and local governments.

23. The system of formal schooling must be integrated with the system of educational structure for systematic research, development and diffusion of educational innovation.

24. Labs should continue to operate administratively outside the machinery of the formal schooling system.

25. The formal schooling system need not become involved in the administration and finance of research.

26. State education departments will play a role in the change process to the degree they relate to the research and development systems.
Certification

27. Certification requirements must take into consideration the teacher's role in the change process.

28. The teacher will remain the principal contact between education and its client.

29. Teachers must be trained to be agents of change, not barriers to it.

30. Individual expression must be stressed in teacher training programs.

31. Pre-service and in-service training must point toward individual expression on the part of the teacher.

32. The responsibility for producing and retraining teachers receptive to innovation is, of course, a responsibility shared among state education departments, local schools, and colleges and universities.

33. New techniques for preparing administrators must be experimented with.

Curriculum change

34. The new structure organizations for educational change can act as intermediaries in the institution of new curriculum programs.

Changing occupation structures

35. The skills and knowledge gained through education are the prerequisites for successful vocational training for personal fulfillment, and for intelligent social and
political participation in a complex technological society.

36. The civilian labor force is expected to increase by 17 million persons between 1964 and 1975.

37. A larger proportion of the labor force in 1975 will probably be made up of younger workers.

38. Workers 35 years old and under will increase about 7 percent from 1964 to 1975.

39. The proportion of women in the labor market should only increase from 35 to 37 percent by the mid 1970's.

40. The occupations for which high school graduation, and even more so, college graduation are the typical requirements have been expanding rapidly since World War II.

41. Since World War II employment for professional and technical workers grew by over six times the over-all percentage increase in civilian employment.

42. Farm employment is down two-fifths between 1964 and 1947.

43. Employment in the service occupations grew by over half between 1964 and 1947.

44. Opportunities for operatives and laborers will continue to grow in the next decade.

45. Technological change will continue to influence employment opportunities in the next decade.

46. Widespread educational opportunity and attainment will affect employment opportunities in the next decade.
47. The impact of rising family incomes and leisure will affect employment opportunities in the next decade.

48. The manpower needs generated by pursuit of our nation's priorities will affect the employment opportunities.

49. The GNP per man-hour since 1947 has been growing by 3 percent a year compared with a 2 percent annual increase in the preceding 35 years.

50. The GNP per man-hour should increase 3.3 percent a year over the next decade.

51. For the next decade, it is unlikely that technological change, and especially the computer oriented technologies, will change the broad trends in the distribution of employment in our society.

52. As the average family income raises and less of this income is taken for food, clothing and shelter, more money will be spent for services and professional advice.

53. It is unlikely that the manpower needs for defense in the next decade will represent a larger proportionate claim on our human resources than at present.

National Goals

54. National objectives in defense, space, atomic energy, and health have been largely responsible for a tripling of research and development expenditures in the ten years after 1953.

55. In 1962 R and D enterprises created employment for an estimated 2.2 million persons.
56. The limiting factor in achieving some goals, as in research and development, is more likely to be a barrier of insufficient scientists, engineers, and technicians than the barrier of insufficient dollars.

Priority of goals

57. Rapid increases in the occupations associated with health, research and development, and, to a lesser extent education and transportation will take place in the next decade.

58. During the coming ten-year period blue collar employment will shift to the moderate growth category.

59. Elementary and secondary teachers will be in the moderate growth rate category of occupations through 1975.

60. Occupations in the low-growth group will decline in the coming period to 1975.

61. Enrollment in institutions of higher education will increase from 4.5 million in 1963 to 9.5 million in the mid-1970's.

62. The largest percentage increases in enrollments and degrees in higher education are expected in graduate and professional schools, and also in community colleges.

63. Some of the most rapid growth in the next decade is likely to take place in the new technical occupations.

64. There should be an increase in the number of post-high school institutes and community colleges in the next decade.
65. 400 more community colleges will be needed by the mid-1970's.

66. By 1975, it is anticipated that retraining and basic literacy programs similar to those currently authorized by the Manpower Development and Training Act will involve the expenditure of one million more dollars than spent in 1966.

67. Federally-aided programs will create more and better job opportunities for nonwhites, and for individuals generally who are unemployed or with poverty incomes.

68. Broader and greater depth will be added to the programs for the unskilled and unemployed.

69. There will be increasing numbers of pre-first graders in school in the coming decade.

70. Developing a teaching staff to reach and teach those students will probably require a new type of teacher -- a person who combines the traditional skills of the classroom teacher with the insights of the social anthropologist, and with the techniques which have proven effective in professional social work.

71. To meet the national goals would require the expenditure of 50 million more by the mid-1970's than the 31 million spent in 1962.
Propositions on Resource Structures

The propositions which hold relevance for professional personnel administration from the resource structures section are as follows:

1. That business expansion in the field of educational products will be an additional drain on the supply of available teachers;
2. That educational policy making will become the interest of increasing numbers of groups in our society;
3. That new structures for decision making will continue to evolve;
4. That educators will feel greater demands for systems planning;
5. That increased emphasis will be placed on evaluation and measurement of educational output;
6. That greater emphasis will be placed on education's ability to solve man's social problems;
7. That our advanced technology will change the job content of the teacher;
8. That specialized personnel will be needed to staff the educational laboratories;
9. That the teacher will continue to play a critical role in the adoption of educational innovations;
10. That the state education department will hold a key leadership position in education;
11. That pre-service training of professional personnel will undergo alteration to meet the changing demands of education;
12. That there will be an increased demand for persons with technical skill, and higher levels of education;
13. That money will be readily available to support education at the level needed to attain our national goals.

To provide the educational programs necessary to achieve our national objectives will necessitate additional financial investment by society. Even modest educational advances will require considerable outlays of money; however, these sums are not beyond the capacity if the nation's GNP continues to rise at the projected rate. Lecht asserts that:

. . . our study of national goals indicates that it would probably require an expenditure of $86 billion a year (in 1964 prices) by the mid-1970's to achieve all of our objectives in education. This means an increase of over $50 billion beyond the $31 billion actually spent in 1962. If these objectives were to be realized, spending for education would grow from the 5.5 percent of GNP it constituted in 1962 to about 8.5 percent of the trillion-dollar gross national product anticipated in 1975 (19.,29-30).

Although the $50-odd billion increase in expenditures is not beyond grasp it will have to be sold to those who will
foot the bill. This will take much effort on behalf of those decision-makers in a position to influence the allocation of financial resources which will be necessary to achieve our educational goals. This will be done in the legislatures for the most part. Political maneuvering will long precede the actual enactment of legislation which will favor such a capital outlay. The nature of these maneuvers and the role educators play in them then takes on a significant hue. The nature of the changes taking place in politics, which most definitely are taking place, becomes increasingly significant to all educators and decision makers.

**Politics**

As other sectors in our society, politics is undergoing constant change. As politics change so does education. Education and politics are so interwoven it is difficult to separate them. Educators, being dependent upon political action for financial support must be concerned with the change in political structure. They must heed changes which will dictate new action, on the part of educators, to precipitate desired results.

In his article "State Government and Education" Laurence Iannaccone outlines forces bringing about changes in politics. Within the constraints of existing research, he develops a taxonomy of political change which could be most
helpful to educators in determining what direction politics, in a given state, may be headed.

There is rapid change taking place in politics as in other sectors of our society. Many authors, Iannaccone and Wayson among them, are of the opinion that we are undergoing a revolution in politics. They are also interested in research concerned with state politics of education. This research is necessary for all governmental agencies of education, professional associations and similar extra-legal, power-holding organizations influencing educational policy which are now in the process of being modified by this political revolution.

Changing relationships

With the increased federal spending for education, there are many new and different relationships between education and government. This can be evidenced in the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 in which provisions are made for local school districts to receive monies from federal as well as state agencies.

The changing relationships between and among our various governments, federal, state, and local are visible political changes. Those less visible changes, e.g., the rearrangement of less formal power centers such as teachers' associations, entrepreneurial profit-making combines engaged in text publishing pose a threat. Those Iannaccone refers to
as "teaching machine production and the peddling of learning gimmicks; as well as the non-profit 'growth' combines the wheelers and dealers, of policy research, may constitute a grave threat (17.,1-2).

These organizations of professional problem solvers par excellence and per so many millions of dollars of U.S. contracts represent a genuinely new force in the reshaping of the political relationships of traditional agencies involved in pollution, poverty and pedagogy. Even the identification of actors in education's political revolution is of little explanatory help without additional specificity as to where we stand in the so called revolutionary flow of political events in education, to what possible states of affairs we are tending and more important to those who wish to influence events, where we may not go (17.,2-3).

The forces affecting the revolution in politics are many and varied as indicated above; they can be identified in specific activities of social institutions bringing pressures to education. These pressures can be couched in terms of broad social forces bearing on those policies affecting education. These forces are general and worldwide and part of a global social revolution affecting all of society. An example would be the racial struggle between the white and colored population of the world. More particularly, the thirst for power the Negro population is seeking in their struggle against the Caucasian would be an example. The demands for upward mobility through education as a result of the affluent society could be listed, as well as those urban and metropolitan social problems which cannot
be ignored by the schools. An additional force is witnessed in the whole collective bargaining movement. With its inception in the labor management realm bargaining has grown roots in negotiation efforts on the part of the National Educational Association and the American Federation of Teachers on behalf of teachers. These trends have significance in showing the scope of the political revolution. However, Iannaccone points out that it is "only as such currents become organized into governmental bodies and actions or into truly revolutionary bodies and actions, subverting and replacing established governmental agencies with themselves, that meaningful changes in governmental action take place" (173-4). He further asserts that it is of first importance to consider the historic actors in the political arenas and events producing educational policy and the present state of affairs in this.

The role played by the organized profession in the politics of education is significant. The profession first pointed out the need for major changes in the level of financial support for education, according to Iannaccone. Thus, he concludes, that this effort helped to bring about federal aid which in itself has created a significant realignment in political power relationships of educational agencies within states and between state and federal governments.

Also, the Baker vs. Carr decision, one-man, one-vote principle, will produce political realignment of state
political systems. By reducing the rural and small town advantage, held in many of our state legislatures, it will have a significant effect upon state legislatures' attitude on the question of local autonomy, while in some states the political power of the organized profession may be reduced.

As more studies of state educational policy making, and the political activities influencing them, become greater in number, the reality of a workable theory of political change becomes more distinct. Some studies are outlined by Iannaccone.

Studies involving some eleven states have been recently published by teams from Syracuse University and Washington University. The former involves eight states in the northeast, the New England states, New York and New Jersey. The Washington University team studied Michigan, Missouri and Illinois. Michael Usdan's independent study of New York State added depth to our knowledge of educational politics especially at the grass roots of that state. As James has pointed out, these studies represent a significant addition to our knowledge of the state politics, in particular legislative, of education. However, to paraphrase Goldhammer, until concepts with explanatory statements of relationships among these which account for the pattern of events described in these studies are developed, our understanding as distinguished from knowledge will not be significantly enhanced. This is in no way intended to derogate the work accomplished in these studies. They do provide us with a published set of observations and hence constitute a manageable body of information. However, having begun their descriptive task theoretically, these researchers have brought the field to the point where concepts and theory using these may now be imposed upon the data so as to produce greater understanding (17.,8-9).
By studying the available research, Iannaccone reveals the relationship between the legislature and the organized educational profession in given states. From this he gleans his taxonomy of political transition. He explains that:

A crude taxonomy may be used to classify the characteristic organizational linkage between the legislature and the organized educational profession of given states. The published reports used for this paid more attention to the organized profession as it acts to influence the legislature than they did to the structure of the legislature and the legislative process in each state. Consequently, the classification of states will depend upon characteristics of the professional organization at its linkage points with the legislature and its typical patterns of behavior in particular as it goes about the business of influencing the legislative process. Confining ourselves first to the different types of organizational structures characteristic of given states reported as used by education interests to influence the cause of educational legislation suggests a four-way typology. One type may be illustrated by reference to Bailey's report of Vermont and New Hampshire. Localism may here be seen not only as dominating the politics of these states but also the relationship among schoolmen and their allies as they seek to influence state educational policy. The condition of the organized profession depicted is essentially dispersed, paying strong tribute to the influence of locality and particular local school districts (17.,10-11).

In many states in which it appears there is, on a statewide basis, little organization, one might be led to believe localism has taken the political strength from the educational interests. This point of view does not allow for the strength which accrues from belief in localism and fails
to grant force to the political weight certain schools hold. Iannaccone indicates that, 'the term locally based disparate will be used to denote the type of educational organizations in states where localism and separatism exist as the dominate characteristics of educational politics used to influence legislation' (17.,11). Iannaccone outlines the three other organizations as follows:

The term state-wide monolithic will be used for states where the type of educational organization characteristically influencing legislation presents the picture of a unified pyramid of organizations converging in a citadel agency informally to the legislature. While the term state-wide fragmented will designate states where no single citadel agency exists and multiple linkages connecting different educational associations with the legislature may be observed. Finally, the term state-wide syndical is used to denote a structure with a citadel agency to which agents of separate associations and governmental bodies belong as a result of governmental action to create a linkage system between the legislature and the education interest groups (17.,11-13).

The syndical form is distinguishable from the monolithic by three characteristics. The former is created by governmental action while the latter is produced extra-legally by the organizations of schoolmen and their allies. The syndical includes legislators as agents of the legislature. Finally, the organizations putatively represented in the monolithic pattern's citadel agency are demonstrably coopted by schoolmen while at least some of those in the syndical pattern represent completely independent organizations (17.,13).

Iannaccone continues by identifying the customary behavior of those near the linkage points in the structures.

The customary behavior pattern in the locally based disparate is entrepreneurial. Cooptive behavior instead is characteristic in particular
of those who sit at the apex of the state-wide monolithic structure and in general down to the grass roots of its component social subsystems. The state-wide fragmented structure fosters and is in turn supported by competitive behavior. The state-wide syndical form of organization is above all a governmentally produced coalition of interests and its major behavioral characteristics are coaltional (17.,13-14).

Bringing the types, styles and groups together, Iannaccone illustrates his taxonomy in terms of its structure with its correlations of behavior patterns and leadership groups as follows (17.,16):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>structural type</th>
<th>life style</th>
<th>leadership group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>locally based disparate</td>
<td>entrepreneurial</td>
<td>squirarchy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>state-wide monolithic</td>
<td>cooptational</td>
<td>oligarchy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>state-wide fragmented</td>
<td>competitive</td>
<td>polarchy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>state-wide syndical</td>
<td>coaltional</td>
<td>synarchy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although the proposed classification system is based on only a few studies, it does provide insight into changes in types of structures. This is indicated by Iannaccone.

The reports do, however, shed some light on another question, do states change from one type to another over time? It appears that they do but perhaps in one direction only. Again, the limitations of the data at hand may account for this apparent directionality. In any case, it would seem that the locally based disparate is an early form giving way to the state-wide monolithic (17.,17).
In citing relevant research, Iannaccone forwards the changes resulting in a state-wide monolithic structure as follows:

Thus, while limited, the evidence at hand indicates that if locally based disparate states undergo a major revision of their customary entrepreneurial policy making pattern, the traditional form of their politics of education, then they will become state-wide monolithic in structure with the cooptational life style of politics (17.,18).

"It may be hypothesized that the existence of a state-wide monolithic pattern is a necessary though not sufficient cause to produce the statewide fragmented pattern," Iannaccone states (17.,19). He continues:

Hence, it would seem the state-wide monolithic pattern tends to devolve into a state-wide fragmented structure. Cooptation, the politics of the priesthood, is replaced by competition, the politics of the market-place.

Viewed in terms of states changing from one type of educational politics to another, it seems that the taxonomy offered above can be considered as a developmental construct.

In addition to the preceding pattern, one factor seems to emerge by its presence where states have been reported as moving from one phase to another. It is equally prominent by its absence in those instances where a phase change is noted as almost but not quite having taken place as in Massachusetts. It is political realignment, not of education in particular, but of the state's elected power structure itself (17.,22).

Political structure is not rigid and is subject to change. From all indications this change does follow a sequential pattern. First, if one plans to judge the probable future of the educational politics in a state, it must be
ascertained which of the four phases of structure, lifestyle and leadership that state fits. It is also necessary to know whether the state is moving from one phase to another. There is a good chance, with political reapportionment, effects of federal funding, to name a couple forces, most states will be moving from one phase to another in the next few years.

Iannaccone offers "A Development Construct of The State Politics of Education," as follows (17, 29):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Phase one</th>
<th>Phase two</th>
<th>Phase three</th>
<th>Phase four</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Structure</td>
<td>Locally based</td>
<td>State-wide</td>
<td>State-wide</td>
<td>State-wide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>disparate</td>
<td>monolithic</td>
<td>fragmented</td>
<td>syndical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Political behavior</td>
<td>entrepreneurial</td>
<td>cooptational</td>
<td>Competitive</td>
<td>coalitional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Leadership groups</td>
<td>squirarchy</td>
<td>oligarchy</td>
<td>polyarchy</td>
<td>synarchy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Development over time

State-wide general political reorganization

The developmental construct serves more as a warning than as a guide, Iannaccone asserts. Although there is a need for a theory of state educational politics the construct can be useful in other respects. Iannaccone outlines these responses as follows:

It suggests, first of all that the educational politics of a given state are neither unique to that state, except in details, nor identical to
the educational politics of all other states. Following this determination of type, one should, unless Russian Roulette is one’s favorite past-time, make an assessment of the odds on a reorganization of the state’s political system.

If the larger political system is undergoing realignment, it is probable though not inevitable that so also will the politics of education be moving it from one phase to the next. In any case, if a state is undergoing political reorganization and the politics of education change with it then the leadership group, the political behavior and the structure of the profession’s interest group will all change together (17.,31).

Transitional Statements on Politics

The transitional statements from the section on politics are as follows:

General Nature

1. We are undergoing a revolution in the politics and governing of education.

2. All governmental agencies of education as well as professional associations and similar extra-legal power holding organizations influencing educational policy are now in the process of being modified.

Changing Relationships

3. There are visible changes in relationships between and among our various government—federal, state and local.

4. Less visible changes involving a rearrangement of less formal power centers are also taking place.
5. A force behind the revolution in politics would be the struggle for racial equality of the thrust for power against the caucasian.

6. The creation of an affluent society with resulting demands for upward mobility through education are forces bearing on the political revolution.

7. The thrust for power to negotiate collectively with boards and superintendents on the part of teachers is a pressure on the political revolution.

8. Only as forces become organized into governmental bodies and actions or into truly revolutionary bodies and actions subverting and replacing established governmental agencies with themselves, that meaningful changes in governmental action take place.

9. The changes in federal funding of educational ventures constitutes a major element in producing a realignment, which will continue, in the political power relationships of educational agencies within states as well as between state and federal governments.

10. Continued pressure to change will be brought to bear on the local school district by the U.S.O.E.

11. A reduction of rural political power in our legislatures, which will be the end result of the Baker vs. Carr decision in many states will have a significant effect upon the relationships between state agencies and local districts on the questions of autonomy.
12. The Baker vs. Carr decision will sharply reduce the political power of the organized profession in some states.

13. The body of knowledge concerning state politics and education is constantly increasing.

**Taxonomy**

14. **Locally based disparate** is the type of educational organization in states where localism and separatism exist as the dominate characteristic of educational politics used to influence legislation.

15. **State-wide monolithic** is the type of educational organization in states where a unified pyramid of organizations converge into a citadel agency informally linked to the legislature.

16. **State-wide fragmented** denotes organized educational interest groups not connected into a single citadel agency but multiple linkages connecting different educational associations with the legislature may be observed.

17. **State-wide syndical** is used to denote an educational structure with a citadel agency to which agents of separate associations and governmental bodies belong as a result of governmental action to create a linkage system between the education interest groups and the legislature.

18. The customary behavior patterns of those who occupy positions at and near the linkage points in the
locally based disparate type is **entrepreneurial**.

19. Coptive behavior is characteristic of those at the apex of the state-wide monolithic structure.

20. Competitive behavior is characteristic of those leaders in the state-wide fragmented structure.

21. The behavioral characteristics of the state-wide syndical form of organization are **coalitional**.

22. States change from one type to another.

23. States change types in one direction.

24. The locally based disparate is an early form giving way to the state-wide monolithic.

25. The existence of a state-wide monolithic pattern is necessary to produce the state-wide fragmented pattern.

26. The state wide monolithic pattern tends to devolve into a state-wide fragmented structure.

27. Cooptation is replaced by competition.

28. In attempting to judge the probable future of the educational politics in a given state it would be necessary to determine which of the four phases of structure, lifestyle and leadership that state fits.

29. Some determination of whether a particular state is moving from one phase to another is needed.

30. Due to reapportionment and the political revolution now underway, more states will, in the next four or five years, be undergoing transition from their present phase than would otherwise be the case.
31. The educational politics of a given state are neither unique to that state except in details nor identical to the educational politics of all other states.

32. If the larger political system is undergoing realignment, it is probable though not inevitable that so also will the politics of education be moving it from one phase to the next.

33. If a state is undergoing political reorganization and the politics of educational change with it then the leadership group, the political behavior and the structure of the profession's interest group will all change together.

Propositions on Politics

The propositions which hold relevance for professional personnel administration from the politics section are as follows:

1. That there will continue to be a changing relationship among federal, state and local governments;
2. That there will be increased efforts on the part of teachers to collectively negotiate with boards of education;
3. That increasing pressure to change will be brought to bear on local school systems by the U.S. Office of Education;
4. That there will be a sharp decline in the autonomy of local school districts;
5. That the structure and development of educational politics will become of greater interest to professional personnel in education.

The political revolution we are experiencing is having its effect on all levels of governments. We have seen how the politics, at the state level, can be observed in a developmental pattern. The result of this pattern is the changes governments display as a result of the changing political context in which they exist. By the nature of these ensuing patterns, and the nature of government itself, all levels of government are now experiencing the same changes simultaneously.

**Government**

Two of the social institutions undergoing some of the greatest changes in our society today are government and education. These institutions indicate a growing interdependence in their relationships because of the difference in their relationships. Because of the difference in their rate of change these inter-relationships are also changing. This change in relationships is best evidenced by the increased activity the federal government has taken in the field of education. As the money spent for education increases the relationships of these institutions will also alter.
The changing role of the federal government and education is discussed in Nicholas A. Masters' paper entitled, "The Expanding Role of the Federal Government in Education with Implications for State Education Departments."

The role of the federal government in education, in terms of money spent, has increased steadily over the past decade. The rate of increase, until 1961, had been a gradual steady increase. Since 1961, this trend in government spending for education has increased rapidly. For example, only 10 major federal programs were administered through state educational agencies in 1961 with a total of $758,781,691 of federal funds. This figure increased about two and one-quarter billion, by 1966, to $2,995,976,521. This tremendous increase took place in the short period of five years (22,1).

The new programs enacted between 1962 and 1965 far overshadow earlier federal education commitments. This can be evidenced in the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 alone.

Moreover, the years since 1961 have seen a general broadening of the impact in state-administered federally-assisted programs. Those in the past five years are much broader than the ones in previous years. The 1961 programs dealt more directly with the actual classroom education of
students, the exceptions being programs which provided lunch, milk and surplus property. The latter programs are more supplementary to the basic educational program.

The programs enacted since 1961 have been supportive, special and even additional supplemental ones. These are witnessed by portions of the Economic Opportunity Act, Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965, and Title V of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (22.,2).

More numerous and probably far-reaching than these, however, have been the newly enacted programs that directly affect such basic components of the over-all educational programs as books and materials, student support, teaching equipment, and the provision for training personnel. Among them are the higher education facilities construction programs; activities under sections 211 and 214 of the Appalachian Regional Development Act; the 1963 Vocational Education Enactment; the arts and humanities teaching equipment program; the equipment grants under Title VI of the Higher Education Act of 1965; the student loan program under that Act and under the National Vocational Student Loan Insurance Act; and Titles I and II of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (22.,3-4).

Many of the older bills, enacted prior to 1961, have since been amended, in addition to the new programs enacted. The amendment to the bills were all more liberal than the
bills themselves. An example would be Cooperative Research Act, enacted in 1954 and amendments added in 1965. The original act only provided for grants to or contracts with colleges, universities, or state educational agencies for support of educational research programs. The amendments in 1965 were much broader. They provided funds for the construction and operation of educational research facilities and for the support of programs of training for educational researchers as well as providing funds for agencies and individuals in addition to the ones in the original bill.

In 1956, the Library Service Act was enacted. At the time it provided grants to state library administrative agencies for use in providing or extending public library services to rural areas. The 1964 amendments broadened the bill to include urban areas and authorizes funds for the construction of public library facilities.

These few examples give an indication of the tremendous legislative action the federal law makers have enacted in the past few years. It also gives an indication of some of the kinds of changes which face educators in their relationships with state and federal governments.

State relationships

All state educational agencies vary in structure and organization. Yet in one respect states are similar, to a degree, in the problems encountered in handling and
implementing the federal program. Although states take unique approaches to these problems, similar problems do exist.

As far as budgetary planning is concerned state education departments have not been heavily counted on by the governor when plans were inaugurated. This is particularly true in the more populous states and is exemplified by the virtual non-existence of communications between the budgetary officers of the state educational agency and the governor's office. The private educational agencies, e.g., units of the National Education Association and various taxpayers' groups, have provided the articulation of education demands (22.,9).

A lack of functional, working relationships between the various components of higher educational systems and state educational agencies, has been very limited. We have witnessed the large universities within the state garnering enough power to satisfy the demands directly to the state governments. With such established power it is difficult to foresee higher educational agencies relinquishing any of it to a state agency (22.,10).

In the past state education departments have confined their affiliations with national departmental organizations of the N.E.A., primarily the elementary and secondary education groups. Relationships between state departments
and such groups as the American Association of University Professors, the American Council of Education, the American Association of Land-Grant Colleges and the American Association of Junior Colleges have not existed to any significant degree.

The recent emergence of the Educational Commission of the States may involve a closer relationship between state education departments and the institutions of higher education. If the Commission develops as planned it could provide a bridge between the various interests involved in higher education and those traditionally associated with elementary and secondary education. It is difficult at this early date to tell the commission's exact course (22,10).

Masters feels that, The use of state commissions may be viewed as a significant development in the area of state-administered, federal assistance programs because such commissions may be entirely new agencies with members appointed by governors, who may or may not draw on the traditional state agencies and departments in making their appointments (22,10). He points out that in California and Ohio it is the coordinating agency and the Board of Regents, respectively, that receive and administer funds under Title I of Higher Education Facilities Act of 1963. These agencies are then more than advisory in the coordination of educational policies.
The establishment of such agencies has some educators concerned. For example, "Higher Education and National Affairs"—the bulletin of the American Council on Education (June 23, 1966)—reported that Dr. Logan Wilson, President of the Council, said, "Federal actions since 1963 have given state governors important new appointive powers relating to education. These new powers have reduced the possibility of federal interference, but only at the cost of imposing another layer of state agencies between academic institutions, private as well as public, and their source of supply" (22., 1012). This statement may be an indication of the kind of controversy centering around the future function of commissions.

Urban districts have, for the large part, been treated with special consideration by some legislative action. This and the fact state education departments have not been too involved with urban problems has led to little interaction between the two agencies. This relationship has only improved slightly in recent years.

Some of the problems facing city superintendents are complicated by defacto segregation. This is a result of residential segregation in the cities and adherence to the "neighborhood school" concept.

"Many of the alternatives open to the state or city education administrations for dealing with defacto segregation are not particularly attractive nor can they gain the
necessary public support," according to Masters (22.16).
Yet this is a problem urban school systems must face and ameliorate.

The solution is not a simple one, as Masters indicates:

Even if the chief state school officers had the power to reverse the imbalance by transfer or busing, or to enforce such an order should it be made, they would still not have an effective solution. Busing creates problems which are almost as difficult to handle as the one which it is intended to solve. In the face of pressures which would result from the enforcement of a transfer program, the negative government sanction of withholding state funds simply is not functional. Neither the state, nor the Federal Government can deny an adequate education, and the chance for a better one to students in a school even if the government does not sanction the composition of the particular school's enrollment. There seems to be no immediate solution to the dilemma of a state department of education aware of its position and aware also of the needs of the school system but restricted in authority. That this situation will continue to raise real questions about the nature of the state federal relationship in the field of education is obvious (22.16).

By the action of the federal government new relationships between government and non public educational institutions have been established. Masters states that:

State departments of education have not been, for both constitutional and political reasons, very much concerned with private and parochial schools. The 1965 Elementary and Secondary Education Act did, however, include substantial funds for innovations in the areas called "cooperative education" which makes such things as television, books and other educational equipment and facilities available for private and parochial school use. Although these programs
usually involve a state plan, the policy and administrative decisions have been primarily worked out at the local level with little or no state department of education participation (22., 16-17).

However, staffing still hampers the development of understanding between non-public and larger urban school districts. Legislation alone will not ameliorate the situation. Therefore, state departments have not been leaders in attacking problems of the urban schools.

Another factor influencing the relationship between state departments and higher education, as well as local school systems, is the constitutional and statutory limits placed on the state. In many states institutions of higher education have independent constitutional status which affect the state department's authority of these institutions. In states in which the chief school officer is an elected representative, that officer's duties are bound by constitutional law as is his department's structure. And in some states, such as New Jersey, education is financed at the regional and local level which gives greater autonomy to local political educational authorities and weakens the state department's role (22., 18).

There is also a reluctance on the part of chief state school officers to accept federal aid for fear of federal control. In spite of the extensive financial problems facing state education departments, there is a fear of federal aid
as a solution to the state's problems. Masters states that:

It must be realized, however, that whatever useful function the emphasis of these fears serve within the state educational system, they are not entirely unfounded. If federal money is being expended it is almost inevitable that it will be accompanied by regulations as to how the expenditure will be carried out. If these limitations do not constitute real 'federal control' they at least pose a substantial challenge to state autonomy in all phases of educational decision-making. Moreover, the requirements of federal accounting have posed a real problem in state-federal relationships, which strongly affects federal aid to education (22, 18-19).

There are indications of the federal government seeking to develop better budget control through increased accountability by the state to the federal government. This is a logical step in that federal legislators are concerned that they are not getting a 'bang for a buck' for the voters back home. People vote for tangible results. Masters indicates that:

Also at the federal level we cannot ignore the fact and this has very real implications for the state education department, that the Federal Government is moving more and more to program budgeting. This tendency will involve the Congress in a more direct and more detailed evaluation of government educational policy as a whole than has been the case in the past. It will also involve an overall, rather than a compartmentalized evaluation of federal educational programs. In such a case, congressional response to the problem of educational policy formation on the federal level will be increasingly specific (22, 19).

We then can see that a tremendous change is taking place in one of our fundamental social institutions -
government. The federal government is increasing its influence over educational policy making. The state government is also changing as a result of increased federal involvement in education. The local governments are highly affected by the changes taking place in both state and federal governments.

These changes we are witnessing in government, as in other social institutions, will have a profound effect on the future development of education at all levels. The changing relationships will mean creation of new programs and positions. It will order into existence new organizations and structures, calling for new and specially trained personnel. And, these new relationships will further entrench some in a bureaucratic maze, unless creative leadership can provide the necessary ingredients to dissolve barriers and span fissures that the various agencies pursuing educational goals may encounter.

Transitional Statements on Government

The transitional statements from the section on government are as follows:

Federal

1. During the sixties the federal funds administered by state education departments have increased significantly.

2. Federal, state and local relationships are changing.
3. The federal government is financing education at a higher rate than before in our history.

4. Federal-aid is supporting more programs and a wider range of programs.

5. More money is available to educators now for greater variety of equipment and personnel.

6. State governments are more involved with local programs as a result of federal monies.

7. Federal authorities have control over a larger portion of the money spent for education.

8. Federal money is being used more widely for supporting state education departments.

9. More money is being spent for the administration of federal programs.

10. States are handling more federal money for educational programs.

**State and local**

11. Relations between the legislature and the state education agency are changing.

12. Relations between the governor and the state education agency are changing.

13. Relationships between state government and higher education are not very extensive.

14. The ties between state agencies and the national educational organization have not been close.
15. New organizations which may draw state education departments and higher education closer together, e.g., Education Compact of the States Regional Educational Laboratories and the Research and Development Centers are beginning to increase in number.

16. Coordinating agencies outside the department of education are handling some federal education money.

17. The governor has more appointive powers to administer federal money for education, under recent federal legislation.

18. Urban districts in many states enjoy a unique relationship with the state legislatures.

19. State education departments, for the most part, have not taken an active role in dealing with the problems unique to urban school districts.

20. Racial segregation is a local problem with which federal and state government must become more involved.

21. The federal and state governments have become more financially involved in non-public education.

22. State education departments have had little to do with policy and administrative decision of non-public school programs.

23. State education departments staffs, in the main, are recruited from rural or medium size school districts.

24. The federal government is moving more toward program budgeting.
25. Educational policy formation on the federal level will become increasingly specific.

26. The new federal programs clearly imply more attention will be paid to specific and immediate problems of the large urban areas.

27. State education departments must prepare to handle programs to assist with urban problems.

28. Salary and recruiting for state department personnel need to be revamped.

29. If educators do not prepare to meet the needs of society other agencies will.

30. A closer relationship in educational policy development must exist between state education departments and other agencies of the state government.

31. Relationships between national educational organizations and state education departments will change in the direction of less compatibility.

32. State education departments will be forced to change to meet new program requirements.

Propositions on Government

The propositions which hold relevance for professional personnel administration from the government section are as follows:

1. That efforts will increase to bridge the gap between federal and state interests in education;
2. That relationships between state education agencies and large urban districts will improve;
3. That legislation will tend to favor consolidation and larger school districts.
CHAPTER IV

IMPLICATIONS FOR PROFESSIONAL PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

Introduction

This chapter includes implications for professional personnel administration drawn from the proposition statements found in chapter three. The implications have been developed for selected areas of professional personnel administration; namely, the areas are selection, development, welfare and evaluation. Selection is that area of professional personnel administration dealing with obtaining personnel. Sources of personnel supply, collection of data on personnel, evaluation of personnel are identified functions of this area of professional personnel administration. Development deals with personnel development following their employment. The areas of development to be considered in this report are the need for personnel development and programs for in-service development of personnel. Welfare pertains to those factors influencing the well-being of professional personnel. General welfare benefits and procedures for decisions on welfare constitute the designated function of the welfare area of professional personnel administration. Evaluation has as its function certification, program elements, hiring practices and reward systems. These
are coordinated functions designed to upgrade the level of instruction.

The propositions developed in chapter three will be treated individually with implications being developed in the four areas of professional personnel administration as applicable. Not all propositions will hold implication for all of the four identified areas of professional personnel administration.

Implications

To facilitate the presentation of implications developed from propositions, a proposition will first be listed, then implications will be identified in the appropriate areas of professional personnel administration. This procedure will be carried out for each of the propositions.

Proposition I. That with the decrease in demand for facilities more monies will be diverted to personnel.

Implications for selection

1. With higher salaries, personnel administrators will be in a better position to attract many personnel otherwise unattractable. This means new sources of supply for professional personnel will become available. Many personnel who were originally attracted to education, but who had educational training, may now consider a career in education.

2. More funds will be available to hire personnel for the more specialized positions opening in education. An
example of a specialized position would be a federal program coordinator. The increased number of specialized positions will dictate new and better job descriptions so interviewers will have a clearer understanding of the competencies, skills and responsibilities required of these personnel.

**Implication for development**

1. In-service programs will have to deal with a wider cross-section of personnel. With additional personnel filling new kinds of positions in the schools, there will be a greater chance for lack of understanding and lack of familiarity as to individual roles among staff members. It will therefore be necessary to organize in-service education programs which keep staff members abreast of the rapid developments in education, in specialized roles in education and the various fields staff members represent. This is already evident in many larger school districts today.

**Implication for welfare**

1. If educators are to successfully compete with other agencies in society for the services of specialized personnel, programs for increased welfare benefits will need to be offered. Attracting and retaining specialized personnel will entail developing welfare benefits which are comparable with business and industry. This would mean providing more benefits in the form of paid insurance benefits, cost of living allowance and plans to provide additional education. Many of
these benefits could not legally be offered until recently, and are still illegal in many states.

**Implications for evaluation**

1. With increased expenditures for personnel will come an increased press for evaluation of the worth of such expenditures. Thus, adequate evaluation programs based on sound educational objectives will need to be provided. This will insure the equitable evaluation of personnel on criteria which serve the needs of a sound educational program. Without a program based on sound planning and staff involvement, evaluation can result in unrest and discord among staff members and inequitable judgment formed by uninformed citizens.

2. With the increasing demands for personnel, certification laws will need to come under close scrutiny. Certification requirements must remain sufficiently high to protect the level of qualified personnel in the profession. However, if unnecessary requirements are not eliminated from requirements many persons will become discouraged. Present high on-the-job requirements for those seeking certification in vocational education gives an example of an area needing revision.

**Proposition II.** That the greatest problems facing educators in the next decade will be associated with the metropolitan schools.
Implications for selection

1. There will be a greater demand for personnel with special training to meet the unique problems faced by children in the inner-city schools. These problems might include lack of a father model, cultural limitations, etc. Selection procedures will need to provide the person interviewing candidates with information on the kinds of background the vacancies in inner-city positions will require. Also, knowledge of the problems in institutions of higher learning which prepare personnel with specialized training for inner-city school work will be important as a source for specialized personnel.

2. More ancillary personnel will need to be provided to accomplish the tasks personnel in inner-city schools will be asked to undertake. This will call for clearer indentification of professional and non-professional roles and the specific kinds of persons needed to perform each role, and specifically what role each will perform. This is showing up in contract agreements between teacher bargaining units and boards of education in areas such as New York City and other cities where agreements have been established. Many of the ancillary personnel can be used in routine clerical tasks once required of professional personnel.
Implications for development

1. Much of the need for specialized professional personnel will have to be met by those personnel within the system. This means in-service training must be developed to provide personnel with the skills and knowledge needed to meet the challenge of the growing metropolitan problem.

2. New joint programs of universities and state education departments will need the cooperation of personnel in metropolitan districts. This may include shared personnel or a personnel exchange program. Whatever the case, plans need to be cooperatively developed to handle this developing situation.

Implications for welfare

1. Professional personnel administrators will be faced with unique welfare problems of attracting qualified teachers to teach in slum areas not common to the outlying suburban school systems. Provisions must be provided for incentives for those personnel assigned to inner-city schools. This may take the form of extra pay, e.g., New York City pays teachers in inner-city schools additional money for their assignments. This may not be the answer to the problem of attracting outstanding personnel to these schools, but it may be a good start.

2. Because of their insight and closeness to the problems of the inner-city, personnel in these schools should be
provided the opportunity to have an effective voice in program development. This may entail allotting more resources to these personnel to meet program requirements and free them for program planning. Although this is a worthwhile goal in all schools it cannot be delayed in the metropolitan schools any longer without serious social repercussions.

Implication for evaluation

1. Evaluation cannot be based on the number of dropouts alone. Evaluation will have to be both long and short-range. Long-range programs may identify those students who do not graduate. However, short-range programs must be based on more immediate objectives. These programs will have to be based on behavioral objectives and not in terms of numbers of students and thousands of dollars. Both programs will take thoughtful, cooperative planning between administrators and professional personnel.

Proposition III. That educators must join with other agencies if true gains are to be achieved in helping the culturally disadvantaged.

Implication for development

1. In-service education programs will have to be designed to include personnel from agencies outside the school as well as those within the system, e.g., Head Start personnel need to coordinate their efforts with the local system.
This would mean cooperative planning between the school and agencies. Provisions would have to be made by professional personnel administrators to establish machinery to achieve the necessary cooperation.

**Implication for evaluation**

1. Plans for evaluative procedures will necessitate the involvement of personnel from cooperating outside agencies in planning sessions. These sessions may provide insight into the kinds of areas to be evaluated, and who evaluates. For example, educators may evaluate the success of teaching methods used, while outside agencies might evaluate the success of home visitation sessions. If valid cooperative efforts are to evolve between outside agencies and schools, and the true worth of the total program is to be assessed, program plans and resources must be pledged to evaluation of the entire effort and not just the part education plays.

**Proposition IV.** That problems facing educators in urban centers in the coming decade will not end with students in the twelfth year of schooling.

**Implication for selection**

1. The new programs developed for post-high school training will dictate new kinds of specialized professional personnel. These programs will include training in industrial skills, in the service occupations and other jobs in
demand. The kinds of personnel needed to fill these vacancies, under present certification requirements, need business and industry experience as well as the qualifications for certification as a teacher. To compete for the number of personnel available for these positions, salaries and welfare benefits will need to be brought in line with those agencies competing with education for these specialized personnel.

Implication for welfare

1. Welfare benefits will have to be more in line with what these personnel can receive in business and industry, if personnel administrators hope to attract and retain quality personnel. These are indications, e.g., legislatures are providing acts which permit school boards to purchase medical and life insurance, that some provisions are being made to ameliorate this condition.

Implication for development

1. Provisions will need to be established to allow these technically-trained personnel the opportunity to keep abreast of new technological training. This may mean summer institutes sponsored by industries adding these changes. This will mean developing training experiences outside of the normal university-based experience personnel administrators have established in the past. Contact between these technically-trained personnel and business and industry will need to be maintained if these personnel are to keep up on
the technical changes which are being incorporated, so they might incorporate these changes in their programs to keep them contemporary.

**Implications for evaluation**

1. Evaluation must go beyond counting the number of students placed in jobs. As indicated earlier, evaluation should be cooperatively developed among professional personnel, cooperative enterprises and administrators and expressed in terms of desired behavior change. Post-high school training programs must be designed to meet the needs of the individual and their effectiveness must be measured in terms of how well the program meets its goal.

**Proposition V.** That education of youngsters in general will begin at an age earlier than five years.

**Implication for selection**

1. Personnel with skills in dealing with problems of early childhood will be in greater demand. Some of the problems these personnel may need to understand and deal with will center around the psycho-motor development of early childhood. Selection programs to identify and recruit personnel needed for vacancies in pre-school education will need to be developed to identify who have the specialized training these programs demand. Just putting teachers in these classrooms, as we have in the past, will lead to very meager
programs. Persons with specialized training to deal with the unique emotional and physical characteristics facing these children are needed. The burden for this placement rests with the professional personnel administrator and the selection program he develops.

Implication for development

1. As mentioned earlier, many personnel needed for this, and other, specialized programs will need to come from the ranks of personnel already employed. They will also come from personnel who do not have the training, yet they must be hired because of the unavailability of trained personnel. This indicates a need for in-service programs to train personnel to fill these positions and perform at a high level of effectiveness. Programs to train personnel in modern mathematics is an example. These programs may be cooperative between or among districts or they may be arrangements between state education departments and local systems.

Implication for evaluation

1. Evaluation of pre-school programs, as earlier stated in Proposition II will need to be both short and long-term and stated in behavioral terms. We cannot continue to evaluate programs on the basis of the high school dropouts alone. Program results will have to be stated in input-output terms society understands if they are to be financed. This indi-
cates a need for cooperative development of realistic objectives between professional personnel administrators and professional personnel reflecting societal need.

Proposition VI. That segregation of the Negro in cities will increase rather than decrease.

Implication for selection

1. Personnel placed in the segregated cities' schools must be highly qualified. They must be aware of the problems facing the Negro youth, e.g., cultural deprivation in the form of inadequate father models, lack of skills to compete in a technological society, substandard housing and little understanding of that which exists outside his immediate community. To derive this kind of understanding training programs must be developed with the cooperation of local professional personnel and administrators with institutions of higher learning.

Implication for development

1. Personnel teaching in the segregated areas of the cities must be brought to realize the problems, some of which were previously mentioned, facing the Negro in these segregated conditions. In-service training programs will have to be directed toward helping teachers solve the many problems with which they are daily confronted. The identification of these problems then becomes paramount. To accurately identify
problems professional personnel daily face will take planning in which these persons directly participate.

**Implication for welfare**

1. In order to attract and retain quality teaching personnel into the segregation area of large urban complexes, welfare programs in these districts must be comparable, and even exceed those programs in districts in the suburban fringe. This is not to give indication that economic motives alone are those of the urban teacher, but motivation must be provided and can come in many forms. Some of these forms may be pupil-teacher ratio, ancillary personnel for teachers, freeing teachers from many clerical duties, and providing teachers with materials when needed. These are just a few welfare considerations many districts today offer teachers.

**Implication for evaluation**

1. One chief implication not mentioned to date is the development of evaluative procedures as a means of motivation. Evaluation in city districts, as well as others, needs to provide personnel with feedback. As children met behavioral objectives of the course the teacher could see return for her efforts. This is especially applicable in the urban district because of the limited number of positive stimuli personnel receive for their efforts. As mentioned before, these procedures must be cooperatively developed to provide more complete impact.
Proposition VII. That the effectiveness of Negroes as a political power in the United States will increase.

Implication for development

1. Programs to provide personnel with the skills and knowledge necessary to cope with the unique problems facing the American Negro must be developed. In addition to those problems outlined in Proposition VI, teachers could profit from a better understanding of the political development of the American Negro. As indicated earlier, this need to understand the Negro's unique problems has implications for both pre-service and in-service training, but many teachers presently employed will need this training with periodic updating designed into a comprehensive in-service program.

Implication for evaluation

1. With increased political power the Negro will be in a position of greater strength voicing his approval or disapproval of products of the educational system serving his community. He must be given indication of the benefits this program is performing for his child. This, as has been said, repeatedly, can be done most satisfactorily when evaluation is based on mutually-developed criteria. There must exist some formal evaluation program if the electorate is to be positively influenced to support education.
Proposition VIII. That increased financial resources will not continue to be poured in compensatory education without tangible evidence of results.

Implication for selection

1. If the compensatory education programs are going to make a difference, they must be staffed with personnel with the backgrounds and qualifications to provide them an understanding of deprivation. Professional personnel administration must identify the needs of those served by compensatory education and staff the programs with personnel who are best trained to satisfy these needs.

Implication for welfare

1. Welfare programs which provide for material and human resources in quantities that will sustain an effective compensatory program must be developed. Full utilization of talent and financial resources must be made. This can best be accomplished through planning for benefits to the personnel staff which will provide them with the goods and services they need to make compensatory education effective.

Implications for evaluation

1. Certification requirements must be aligned to provide well-trained and well-qualified personnel for compensatory education programs. Specific requirements for personnel
filling these positions should be strong programs in general psychology and child development in addition to the required work to certify.

2. Programs designed with cooperative planning with federal, state and local agencies to avoid duplication of time, money and effort is necessary. Preplanning which incorporates evaluative procedures and involving personnel charged with executing the plan will yield the most satisfactory results. Professional personnel administrators will be faced with increasing demands to defend compensatory education programs in light of the benefits received for dollars spent, and their defense will be strongest if it is based on planned criteria developed to measure program objectives.

Proposition IX. That renewed efforts must be made to retain and secure additional volunteers working in disadvantaged programs.

Implications for development

1. Professional personnel must be brought to realize the potential value of using volunteer help. Specific uses for volunteer help must be cooperatively developed between professional personnel and administrators. The uses of volunteers may include clerical duty, playground responsibility or a role in the visitation program.

2. Professional personnel administrators must identify and screen sources of volunteer workers. Definite duties
must be assigned these workers with prescribed perimeters. Criteria for their selection must be defined in writing.

Proposition X. That business expansion in the field of educational products will be an additional drain on the supply of available teachers.

Implications for selection

1. The competition for personnel will be increased which will cause school systems to offer higher inducements. These may take the form of monetary reward. A greater need by business for personnel needed by school systems will cause professional personnel administrators to alter recruiting procedures by increasing incentives. New recruiting areas may need to be developed as more technicians are needed in education. Recruitment may take place in colleges of business and engineering as well as in education.

2. The training and backgrounds of personnel will be a factor influenced by business expansion. Understanding the computer and budgeting procedures are two examples of training changes. The adjustments of the program demands on personnel will necessitate a college training program which will enable a better opportunity to choose between a career in business and one in education. Thus, the burden will be placed on the professional personnel administrator to convince these personnel to join with education.
Proposition XI. That educational policy making will become the interest of increasing numbers of groups in our society.

Implication for selection
1. The professional personnel administrator will have to become more concerned with various pressure groups in selecting professional personnel for vacancies and equally concerned when considering job requirements for new positions that will be created. Assignment of personnel to various schools throughout the system will likewise precipitate response from vocal opposition. This calls the need for the professional personnel administrator to base his selection program on educational needs and to structure this program within the framework of the law.

Implication for welfare
1. Increased pressure to alter and establish policy affecting professional personnel welfare will be forthcoming. This can be seen today in those groups interested in economizing educational operations by increasing pupil-teacher ratios and lengthening the school day without increasing the cost of operations. This problem will be met by the personnel administrator if he can demonstrate need based on educational planning which is subject to established evaluative criteria.
Implication for evaluation

1. Demands for policy change to revise evaluation will increase. As more groups are influenced and benefit from education, e.g., minority groups, industry, etc., more will become interested in molding the outcome to suit their individual needs. This will call, again, a demand for evaluation based on preplanning and educational needs.

Proposition XII. That new structures for decision making will continue to evolve.

Implications for Welfare

1. Professional personnel administrators will more often face the problem of identifying sources and structures of decision making. By so doing they will provide better educational opportunities. The force may come from federal sources in the form of new legislation which provide revenue for new programs creating staffing problems. It may come from the staff itself in increased demand for additional benefits. In any case earlier identification benefits teacher and pupil alike through advanced planning.

2. Decisions will be made further from the local system thus allowing less local professional staff participation. This becomes clearer with increased federal participation. Procedures will need to be established to keep the professional personnel in as close contact with factors influencing decision making as possible. Increased efforts to improve
communication and selected representation can bridge some of the gaps created by removed decision making.

Proposition XIII. That educators will feel greater demands for systems planning.

Implications for selection

1. The kinds of personnel selected will be influenced by a greater demand for personnel with training and understanding of systems planning. The increased demand for systems planning will also cause these persons to be in limited supply because of the increased demand for them by other institutions in society.

2. The process by which personnel are selected will be affected by total systems planning, i.e., selection will be based more on the need to fulfill a specific objective. The implementation of the process will, in some cases, have an effect on organization and operation of the total professional personnel program. Reorganization of personnel may result.

Implication for development

1. Personnel will need to become acclimated to systems planning. Some staff members may be competent in this area, but for the most part programs to train and acquaint personnel with systems planning must be initiated.
Implication for evaluation

1. Input-output measures will be stressed. Efforts will need to be vigorous to maintain the basis for measurement to rest on educational needs of children and not on economic motives alone. We have seen enthusiasm grow for national testing in the fertile ground of indecision on the part of educators in the area of evaluation.

Proposition XIV. That increased emphasis will be placed on evaluation and measurement of educational output.

Implications for selection

1. The need for input is directly related to output. More highly qualified personnel will need to be attracted, retained and well placed. Vacancy needs will have to be more precisely identified in terms of program outcomes desired. Clearer job definitions will need to be developed.

2. To do this job of evaluating and measuring more professional personnel will need to be hired. Determining the nature of their responsibilities parallels what was pointed out in the previous implication.

Implication for development

1. More resources will need to be devoted to the problem of evaluation and measurement. This can be done at the pre-service level, but must be done at the in-service level to bring present professional personnel to the realization of
what involves evaluation. Time and money must be allocated for developing these efforts into a workable program that produces desired results.

Implication for welfare

1. This increased emphasis on evaluation and measurement can work to the professional personnel's disadvantage if planning fails to materialize. Mute evidence lies in the many mathematics teachers who are criticized because some students fail to achieve good results on the College Entrance Examination Board scores. This situation stems from a lack of formal evaluation at the local level.

Implication for evaluation

1. As more pressure is placed on local school systems to use evaluation and measurement procedures, better program planning will result. Criteria for evaluation and measurement procedures will be built in to these programs as they are developed. New creative programs will also need to be developed.

   Proposition XV. That greater emphasis will be placed on education's ability to solve man's social problems.

Implication for selection

1. Professional selection will be affected to the extent that programs are added, altered and deleted because of the changing societal forces influencing them. Personnel
needs will be dictated by these changing program needs, e.g., the increasing number of vocational schools. Programs must be planned based on societal needs before "crash" programs, e.g., Head Start, are imposed upon educators without effective educational planning. This planning gives an opportunity to develop training programs and selection procedures which will assist in effective programs which are capable of meeting designed goals.

Implication for development

1. Development programs must be planned to provide professional personnel with an awareness of societal forces and an indication of the kinds of changes these forces are likely to bring. Professional personnel must be attuned to identified societal changes and these changes must be linked to the in-service effort of the local system. For example, to best benefit from federal aid to education educators must understand how it can be fully utilized.

Proposition XVI. That our advanced technology will change the job content of the teacher.

Implication for selection

1. It will be the difficult responsibility of the professional personnel administrator to keep abreast of changes created by technology. He must plan his selection program to provide adequate quantity and quality of staff.
He must determine the extent of influence certain advances will bring and how this will affect educational programming, e.g., federal program coordinators will not be needed if federal aid to education is drastically restricted.

**Implication for development**

1. An opportunity must be provided professional personnel to evaluate the constant new technological advancements. They must also assess the implications of these advancements for their role. Their assessment should be planned and resources allotted toward these ends. In-service opportunities, e.g., study of new advancements as they relate to given areas of education, should be provided.

**Implication for welfare**

1. It will become extremely difficult for professional personnel administrators to determine which new technological advances will benefit education and its personnel, and which will detract from the over-all effort of education. With the increased influence of political forces coming to bear on the professional personnel administrator to incorporate certain innovations, he will have to evaluate what is and what is not going to aid in achieving educational objectives. His task can be ameliorated somewhat if he cooperatively undertakes this task with professional personnel.
Implications for evaluation

1. Evaluation will be assisted by new technological techniques, e.g., video tapes and computer uses. Again, how they are used and the reasoning behind their use will be most significant. Economy and expedience cannot be sole criteria in evaluating educational efforts.

2. Reliance on technology alone will not be sufficient to solve the evaluation problem. The blend of the best of the new technology and the best of what has been proven to be successful may be a firmer beginning.

3. Many of the new technological advancements changing the job content of the teacher will alter evaluation. Many classes will be on video tape, for example, and can be used to rerun and develop new approaches or reinforce successful behavior.

Proposition XVII. That specialized personnel will be needed to staff the educational laboratories.

Implication for selection

1. These personnel will come from the same sources now supplying local school systems. This will further complicate the personnel administrator's task of trying to recruit quality personnel. Benefits, in the form of monetary rewards, ancillary help, and vacation advantages, will be advantageous in competing with other social institutions for qualified personnel.
Proposition XVIII. That the teacher will continue to play a critical role in the adoption of educational innovations.

Implication for selection

1. Teachers will be selected who are willing to innovate and to examine new ideas. This does not give indication that other criteria for selection are invalid; it only gives indication that innovativeness is a worthwhile trait for professional personnel to possess. Only those teachers willing to examine and accept change can make the greatest contribution in our rapidly changing society.

Implication for development

1. Some teachers will need to be brought to realize the importance of innovating and critically examining new ideas and changes. This can be taught through in-service efforts by demonstrating how a change can be beneficial. The importance of such an in-service effort lies in the fact that not all of the staff will have taken the opportunity to see the benefits certain innovations could afford. The informal leaders on the staff may be among the members who may not have taken the opportunity to experience the benefits of change and, therefore, they may have been acting as a barrier to change.
Implications for evaluation

1. Efforts to improve evaluation can be greatly handicapped if professional personnel are not in accord on the innovative undertaking. A well-conceived program with staff involvement in planning is the best deterrent to rejection of evaluative procedures.

2. To ascertain the success of innovative efforts and to insure the adoption of them, evaluative criteria must show what difference the innovation made. A person is not as likely to accept change that shows no benefits. To register these benefits most dramatically would be to exhibit them in terms of behavioral change.

Proposition XIX. That the state education department will hold a key leadership position in education.

Implications for development

1. Programs for training will originate at the state level and will assist local professional personnel administrators in upgrading the level of training of personnel. These training programs might include in-service efforts to assist teachers in coping with the problems of the inner-city.

2. Cooperative efforts will need to be developed. This will mean planning with state personnel and cooperative planning sessions with teachers. Resources must be allotted to the planning and to the implementation of planned program
changes. These cooperative efforts are visible in federal program coordination and in states where there is state bus coordination it is also witnessed.

**Implication for evaluation**

1. Certification will be altered to be more in line with the needs of personnel in performing the tasks a dynamic educational system demands of them. As new positions are required certification will help provide qualified persons. This will allow the professional personnel administrator the opportunity to secure those personnel needed to man those programs being created and revised to meet the changing needs of society. Most recently this development can be witnessed in the development of the position and certification of guidance counselors at the various levels of elementary, junior high and senior high schools.

**Proposition XX.** That pre-service training of professional personnel will undergo alteration to meet the changing demands of education.

**Implication for selection**

1. Administrators will need to work closely with teacher trainers to provide the kinds of knowledge and experience students will need as they become professional educators. Educators in the urban setting will need to identify the kinds of knowledge and experience personnel can best profit from in
the urban setting. A better knowledge of the slum living conditions which the inner-city child comes from would be an example of the kind of knowledge personnel preparing for a career in an inner-city school could profit from.

**Implication for development**

1. If the pre-service training alterations are to retain their effectiveness, personnel will have to be kept abreast of changes taking place in society. Coordination of the in-service program with the recent trends in the field will be a major task for personnel administrators. This can be seen with efforts to set up workshops to train teachers in modern math, PSSC physics, BSCS biology, and other new curriculum programs.

**Implication for evaluation**

1. The changing pre-service training programs will allow for evaluation procedures foreign to some staff members. The personnel administrator will be faced with the challenge leading the total staff to accept progressive approaches to evaluation brought to the organization by new staff members via new pre-service training programs. For example, Flander's Interaction Analysis will need to be explained and the advantages demonstrated if staff acceptance is to evolve.

**Proposition XXI.** That there will be an increased demand for persons with technical skill and higher levels of education.
Implications for selection

1. The increased demand for persons with technical skills and higher levels of education will result in increased competition for professional personnel from other societal institutions. To combat this outside competition educators must offer competitive benefits in the form of financial rewards, better working conditions, chances for professional growth and others.

2. The most prudent use of available personnel will be necessary if educators are to keep pace with technical advances. This may be accomplished with ancillary personnel, increased use of technology or through better planning of time of the present personnel.

Implication for evaluation

1. Evaluation programs will have to reflect the emphasis placed on programs deemed significant by societal forces. As technological advances complicate society and technical skills are taught in increasing numbers in our schools, evaluation programs will reflect the changes. For example, many of the technical programs such as electronics will use technical tools, e.g., oscilloscopes, to aid in evaluation of performance.

Proposition XXII. That money will be readily available to support education at the level needed to attain our national goals.
Implications for selection

1. Financial support as a roadblock in the selection of quality personnel in sufficient quantities will all but be eliminated. Program demands for increased financial support will need to be justified, but monies will be available for those who can establish a defensible need.

2. Increased funds will not guarantee quality, and personnel problems will not just fade into the background in the mere presence of higher levels of spending. Planning, coordinating and follow-up activities will still have a place in selection programs which reflect quality.

Implication for welfare

1. As money becomes available personnel administrators will be called upon to ameliorate many welfare problems facing professional personnel for a number of years. Providing adequate clerical help for teachers, providing release time for planning and study are examples of welfare problems. This will call for priorities and well-defined plans for attacking the problems.

Implication for evaluation

1. Financial assistance will be available to take advantage of the technological devices which can aid in the education process, e.g., federal funds can be used to purchase video equipment which can aid evaluation. Although aids can be used in a supplemental role they can be beneficial and
they will be attainable. The role of the personnel administrator may include assisting personnel in using aids to full advantage. This role of the administrator may be one of providing funds and time for consultants to acquaint personnel with new technical devices.

**Proposition XXIII.** That there will continue to be a changing relationship among federal, state and local governments.

**Implications for development**

1. These changing relationships will need to be identified. Programs will then need to be developed to prepare professional personnel to cope with these changes. These procedures can be witnessed now in many in-service practices school systems are undertaking to acquaint personnel with various facets of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

2. As the government and education relationships continue to change, new positions will be created. Many of these new positions will need to be filled by personnel from within the system. These new positions will create a need for in-service programs to prepare the personnel to function effectively in these positions, e.g., staff members assigned to a Supplementary Educational Center to teach reading would profit from some prior training.
Implication for evaluation

1. More pressure will come from the changing government and education relationships, from outside the local system, to evaluate the outcomes of these new relationships. This will come, for the most part, in terms of economic evaluation, e.g., in the last half of 1960 there has been a press toward PBBS. To avoid this press for strictly economic evaluative criteria, the burden will have to be accepted by local personnel administrators and local professional personnel to establish evaluative criteria which can show that a given program is achieving what it is designed to achieve.

Proposition XXIV. That there will be increased efforts on the part of teachers to collectively negotiate with boards of education.

Implication for selection

1. Agreements reached with professional personnel and boards of education will indicate the kinds and numbers of personnel to be selected. As is the case even now in some districts, class size and the kinds of duties to be performed and not to be performed are spelled out in teacher agreements. This will have a direct influence on the kinds and numbers of personnel the personnel administrator must secure. Therefore, the person in charge of personnel must have a voice in negotiation.
Implication for development

1. Personnel will push to have an increased voice in those programs which have direct influence on them. They will demand, and in most states during the latter 1960's, are demanding a strong voice in in-service program planning. They will request wider latitude in the kinds of development activities which will be discontinued, as well as those to be added. The personnel administrator must be given an opportunity to express his desires in negotiation sessions.

Implications for welfare

1. Welfare will continue to be the chief focal point of the professional personnel's drive to collectively negotiate with boards of education. Negotiation sessions during the 1960's center more specifically on financial matters. This in itself will cause welfare programs to be altered to the extent that financial items will be upgraded.

2. The role of the professional personnel administrator, in negotiations, must be clearly spelled out. He must participate to the extent that the board of education is fully cognizant of what concession will seriously affect personnel administration in their district.

Implication for evaluation

1. Efforts to influence evaluation techniques and procedures will be part of negotiation efforts of professional personnel. Who evaluates, who is evaluated, how often
evaluation takes place, upon what criteria evaluation is based will be subject to negotiation. The personnel administration must have a voice in any final decision on any of the above topics.

**Proposition XXV.** That increasing pressure to change will be brought to bear on local school systems by the U.S. Office of Education.

**Implication for selection**

1. Selection programs will be altered in relation to the nature of changes introduced. The kinds of specialized personnel and the number of personnel will be determined by the kinds of programs approved by the U.S. Office of Education.

**Implication for development**

1. As program innovations evolve, requirements of professional personnel will be altered. The alterations in programs and in personnel requirements will be reflected in changes in in-service training programs. In-service programs to acquaint personnel with the services extended through new programs, e.g., Supplementary Educational Centers, and training personnel to function in these new programs, will be forthcoming.
Implication for evaluation

1. Renewed funding will be more dependent upon evaluation of programs. Often evaluation will be part of a packaged program introduced in change, i.e., pre-test and post-test kinds of activities will be part of the program by design. Evaluation, in many cases, will be part of programs sponsored by the U.S. Office of Education. How they are evaluated can be determined by professional personnel only if they take the initiative.

Proposition XXVI. That there will be a sharp decline in the autonomy of local school districts.

Implication for evaluation

1. Increased pressure for evaluation will come from outside the local community. Programs for evaluation will be developed nationally, e.g., the National Educational Assessment Program. To give emphasis to what is being accomplished in terms of designed educational progress in the local setting, measurement of behavioral change must be established.

Proposition XXVII. That the structure and development of educational politics will become of greater interest to professional personnel in education.
Implication for development

1. The investigation of political action will need to become incorporated in the in-service program of the local school system. A better understanding of political action affects a unified effort to effect changes in legislation. It will become more important for professional personnel to be aware of political forces and their influence on societal change so program planning can be more effective. The change in relationships between local, state and federal governments mentioned earlier can be beneficial if personnel are aware of the uses of these changing relationships.

Implication for welfare

1. Professional personnel will take an increasingly active role in political action in an effort to change welfare programs. The political activities of local, state and national teacher affiliations give evidence that teachers are organizing to influence political action to favor their welfare. This action can be seen in benefits of bargaining in Michigan, and in increases in state support for teachers' pay in most states during the 1960's. Administrators must identify this political trend and negotiate at the local level or lose any opportunity to influence the direction or extent of professional personnel's welfare demands.

Proposition XXVIII. That efforts will increase to bridge the gap between federal and state interests in education.
Implication for development

1. The efforts to bridge the gap between federal and state interests will be felt at the local level in terms of additional interventions from both agencies. The state will increase their activities to help local districts to show that they can be of greater service. The federal agencies, often through intermediaries such as Regional Educational Labs, will try to fill the void they feel exists between state and local sources. All this will lead to development activities which must provide for cooperative planning to decide what good can be gleaned from each program to serve local needs best.

Implication for welfare

1. Many new career opportunities will be opened through many of the cooperative activities which will be undertaken. Activities such as the personnel exchange program between the U.S. Office of Education and state education department will allow personnel an opportunity to develop experience which will enhance their chances for advancements. Also, the opening of the Regional Offices of the U.S. Office of Education will provide opportunities for professional personnel.

Proposition XXIX. That relationships between state education agencies and large urban districts will improve.
Implication for development

1. State education departments will provide assistance to urban districts. The assistance provided may take the form of increased personnel or financial resources or both. Some assistance will come from the Educational Commission of the States. From either source cooperative activities must be planned to coordinate efforts for maximum effectiveness.

Implications for evaluation

1. State agencies may help by being in a position of giving a broader perspective to many problems facing several cities. The identification of common problems may lead to some common solutions. By performing this function the state agency gives local systems a clearer understanding of realistic goals which might be incorporated in program development. A pooling of data could also result in identifying situations which lead to explosive proportions.

2. With state agencies working closer with the urban districts, more realistic views of certification needs may evolve. This closer contact with the problems of urban districts could be a positive force in bringing needed revisions in certification requirements.

Proposition XXX. That legislation will tend to favor consolidation and larger school districts.
Implication for selection

1. Consolidation will afford more personnel specialization. More flexibility in hiring professional personnel will evolve through an increased number of positions. Thus, the job of the personnel administrator will be complicated by the need for more specialized personnel, but simplified by the gain in flexibility increased numbers offers him.

Implication for development

1. With increased numbers of professional personnel, gained through consolidation, more program variation in in-service training, can be offered. Subgrouping can be accomplished, i.e., the teachers can be divided by specialty, on the specific needs of the numerous professional personnel interest areas.

Implications for welfare

1. As a district grows in size a need for an administrator of the professional personnel program becomes necessary and easier to justify. The services of a personnel administrator should be felt in increased better planning, coordination, organization and evaluation of the personnel program.

2. With the increase in the financial base, which accrues from most consolidations, more welfare benefits can be financed. The lack of this is readily visible in smaller districts which cannot afford to bring in consultant help for
planning, hire clerical assistants, reduce class size or provide continuing education for professional personnel.

**Summary**

Implications from the selection area reflected a pressing need for specialized personnel. Competition for professional personnel was also frequently mentioned. The need for additional professional personnel was indicated. The implications of technological advances, increased segregation, collective negotiations and change were pointed to as significant in this area of personnel administration.

The area of development showed implications centering around cooperative program development as being quite significant. Also, with the technological advancements skill and knowledge development were mentioned often. The awareness of societal changes, varied programs and the process of innovation were identified in the area of professional personnel development.

Professional personnel welfare implications relating to increased expenditure were most numerous in this area. Outside forces influencing policy making and well-planned welfare programs received considerable attention. Changing societal forces, collective negotiations and staff involvement were among other implications identified in this section.

In the final area, evaluation, indication for change in certification requirements was the most frequent
implication of this section. Outside pressure for input-output measures was also significant. Technological changes, cooperative development of evaluation programs, short and long-range plans based on behavioral objectives and the influence of collective negotiations were all indicated as implications for this area of professional personnel.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the implications societal changes held for selected areas of professional personnel administration. Societal change was restricted to the changes found in seven of eight "background papers" prepared for the conference on the Emerging Role of State Education Departments with Implications for Vocational Education held in Columbus, Ohio, February 27, 1967, through March 2, 1967. The areas of professional personnel administration were gleaned from the literature in the field of personnel administration.

To accomplish the primary purpose of the study four specific study objectives were established. The first objective was to identify, from the "background papers," significant societal changes impinging upon professional personnel administration. The second objective was to determine from the societal changes, general propositions pertaining to professional personnel administration. The third objective was to identify implications for professional personnel administration from the propositions. The final objective was to summarize by making statements which flow from the identification of societal changes, the determining
of general propositions, and the implications for professional personnel administration.

After the purpose and objectives had been identified the next major step was the identification of societal changes found in seven of the background papers. To facilitate this process five areas of societal change were identified as: (1) population, (2) minority groups, (3) resource structures, (4) politics and (5) governments. From these areas of societal change transition statements were gleaned to aid in moving from societal changes to proposition statements which relate to professional personnel administration.

As in the case of the societal changes the writer developed a structure of professional personnel administration to facilitate the development of implications from the identified proposition statements. The areas of professional personnel administration, selected from the literature, were identified as (1) selection, (2) development, (3) welfare and (4) evaluation. Implications were developed under each of the four areas of professional personnel administration.

**Summary Statements**

The implications reported in Chapter IV were based on proposition statements drawn from the societal forces presented in Chapter III. From these inputs the writer will make summary statements which are judged to hold significance
for professional personnel administration in light of the changing social milieu in which it functions.

Demand for specialized personnel

Due to the technological revolution and the knowledge explosion specialized personnel will become more in demand which will have its effect on professional personnel administration. This will result in more competition for more specific personnel. Job descriptions will need to be more accurately spelled out and the kinds of personnel needed to fill these specific positions will need to be carefully screened. This will entail more time in selecting personnel for specialized positions.

Also, there will be the problem of keeping the present personnel acclimated to the trends and developments in their field. As technological advances are made and new knowledge is uncovered, this information must be available and evaluated by professional personnel. Use must be made of that knowledge and technology which will aid in the teaching process, but of greater significance, use must be made of the existing personnel. This would indicate programs for keeping personnel abreast with recent developments would be of paramount importance to professional personnel administrators.

The competition from other educational agencies and agencies outside education, for specialized personnel, will also increase. This would indicate a need for benefits
which would attract and retain highly-qualified personnel.

With the present increase in funds for education, many benefit possibilities will be more readily available. This will place a responsibility on the professional personnel administrator to provide creative leadership in the development of benefit programs.

With the increase in specialized personnel comes the complicated question of evaluation of these, as well as other personnel. Evaluation procedure will need the attention of specialized personnel, in its development as well as in its execution, due to the nature of that which is being evaluated. This presents the professional personnel administrator with the challenge of coordinating the efforts of specialized personnel in their development of evaluation so the final outcome will be in keeping with the over-all goals of the institution.

Interinstitutional cooperation

With the concentration of population has come growing problems faced by increasing numbers of disadvantaged groups which need the services of several separate social agencies. Accompanying this need is an imperative need for increased cooperation among these agencies and educational institutions.

Although educators will be called upon more often to solve many societal problems, they will not be the only societal agency undertaking this task. Problems such as the
one of the disadvantaged youth in the inner-city slum is a many-faced one which calls for treatment from many agencies. Welfare agencies, church groups, community action groups and others will be working toward the end of rectifying the complex problem. The professional personnel of the inner-city school must work in cooperation with these and other social agencies if significant results can hope to be attained.

This suggests that selection procedures, in districts with these kinds of problems, should be developed to seek personnel who can, and are willing to work closely with other agencies. Personnel with backgrounds which will assist them in carrying on this cooperative venture should be recruited. This can be accomplished best by describing the kinds of activities in which these personnel will engage and selecting those persons who best qualify to fulfill this need.

It will be necessary for professional personnel administrators in districts which have several agencies working with disadvantaged groups to develop a cooperative relationship with these groups and the institutions. This can be accomplished best when this relationship is based on sound program objectives which are cooperatively developed between professional personnel of the school district and their counterpart in the outside agencies. This can be attained through cooperatively-sponsored development programs
Involving professional personnel and the personnel with whom they will cooperate in the participating agencies.

Progress of such an undertaking will need to be evaluated, not only to justify continued activity to funding sources, but to provide feedback to the personnel. This feedback can provide for corrective measures and for reinforcing desirable activities.

Educational policy influence

As education has been allocated a greater share of society's financial resources institutions outside education have increased their influence on educational policy.

This can be observed best through the increasing influence those industries which supply education with materials, supplies and aids for teaching have had on policy. The impact the educational products industries have on education is reflected, in part, in the influence they have on professional personnel administration. This is, and will continue to be, reflected in the selection and development of professional personnel. The kinds of programs and kinds of personnel needed will be determined by the extent of mechanized hardware a system utilizes.

Training programs, both pre-service and in-service, will be influenced by the adoption of specialized equipment. The pre-service programs will need to include training to prepare teachers to utilize these kinds of equipment. This
will affect selection, in that personnel will need to be more directly matched to the programs they will conduct. Also, these same suppliers will be in competition for the very personnel educators will need.

The development programs will be affected by the influence of these outside institutions. In-service training programs will be needed to develop teaching skills which will be needed to utilize the equipment the educational products industries will provide. Also, evaluation programs to keep pace with and assess the utility of these new products will need developing. All these tasks will fall within the range of professional personnel administration.

Educational militancy

The rising militancy in society will be reflected in professional personnel administration.

This can be readily observed in the increasing number of strikes teachers are waging in the 1960's. Many of these strikes are waged in the face of court restraining orders prohibiting such activities. These acts are an outgrowth of teachers' demands for a voice—a right to collectively negotiate with boards of education.

These demands may affect all phases of professional personnel. Selection may hinge on the class size negotiated with teacher groups. The kinds of teachers selected would be governed, in part, by the kinds of tasks from which teachers
are excluded and the kinds and numbers of personnel needed to perform these tasks. Whether or not teachers will have a direct voice is difficult to ascertain at this time, but it seems likely that it is not beyond the realm of possibility.

Development will be affected by the kinds of tasks which are deemed in the realm of the teacher's activity. Also, the extent of waivers granted for academic work will determine what portion of the development program is devoted to graduate study. The amount and extent of release time extended teachers may be a factor in influencing development activities.

Welfare programs have been and will continue to be changed by the increasing militancy of teachers. Benefits accruing from collective bargaining between teachers and boards of education have included paid hospitalization, reimbursement for college credits, paid life insurance, higher salaries, limited teaching day—just to mention some.

Much attention will be paid to evaluation programs as benefits negotiated for are felt in increased taxes. Justification of capital outlay will draw attention to the formalized evaluation procedures. The evaluation program itself may well be the focus of many negotiation sessions. The development of sound criteria which will improve the level of instruction should be the goal of those concerned with professional personnel administration.
Change structures

As societal pressure for change in education has mounted, new educational structures have evolved and they will have an influence on professional personnel administration.

The new educational structures, e.g., Regional Educational Labs, Research and Development Centers and The Educational Commission of the States, will have an initial effect on the limited supply of available personnel. They will compete with other educational agencies for the specialized personnel alluded to earlier in this text. They will also compete for ancillary personnel.

New policies and procedures need to be developed. These policies will need to allow for cooperation and coordination between local school systems and educational structures. There will be a need to provide for interplay and exchange of ideas between the personnel of the local district and the personnel of the educational structure.

These new educational structures will need to provide an organization which offers a basis for creative activity. This will cause cooperative planning between administrators and staff personnel. Schedules will need to be planned and progress evaluated to satisfy funding agencies.

To head these educational structures will take an administrator with unique talents. He will need an
understanding of research and an appreciation for it, as well as an understanding of administering an organization.

Increased government expenditures

Increased expenditures for educational programs at both the federal and state levels will affect professional personnel administration.

These expenditures mean the creation of such innovations as the supplementary education centers. This will mean additional personnel and new positions with new skills. This means different positions for the person selecting personnel to acquaint himself with. Also, it means a further drain on a limited supply of trained personnel.

With the adoption of new programs provided with increased funds, teachers will need to know how to best utilize these programs. This will mean training programs which acclimate personnel to the advantages and uses of new programs. Also, incorporating teachers in the planning of such programs will be necessary.

The press to staff additional programs will not always allow for employing personnel with the kind of training and experience the program requires. This indicates a need for personnel development among present staff members. The development program may consist of in-service training in cooperation with a university. It may require an intern type of experience. The point is that professional personnel
administrators must make provisions for the development of existing personnel to man the new programs created through increased federal and state expenditures.

With the increased expenditures will come increased demands for evaluation of program effectiveness. This will require the development of evaluative criteria, by the professional personnel, to evaluate the success of the increase in expenditure of time, staff and economic resources. If an evaluative procedure is not cooperatively developed by the professional personnel, a procedure will be imposed upon them as a prerequisite for receiving additional funds.

Understanding social forces

To better understand the changes that take place in society, professional personnel will need an understanding of social forces causing changes.

The basic understanding of social forces can be taught at the college level. However, many professional personnel members who are on the job will not have had this training. This would mean a development program including programs for increasing personnel's understanding of social forces could be a significant addition to the professional personnel program. Also, an on-going program to keep personnel informed of recent social developments would be effective in causing professional personnel to understand the development of social forces.
Professional personnel may observe social forces by becoming active in politics. There are indications that teachers are becoming more involved in politics. Teachers are banding together, as witnessed in the sanctions in Oklahoma and Utah in the '60's, to effect a force to ameliorate inequities against education. Through their participation in politics teachers can get first-hand insight into social forces working to shape education.

Another means of gaining a clearer understanding of social forces would be through programs cooperatively developed between the local school and a university. These programs could be taught in the school or in the university. Existing university programs could help increase teachers' understanding of social forces, but would not be as effective as cooperatively-planned programs.

With a better understanding of social forces it would appear that professional personnel would be in a better position to understand the problems they face. It would put them in a better position to arrive at an effective solution to more of education's problems. It may provide them with more incentive to do the job that must be done if education is to succeed in solving some of society's problems.

Needed Research

By the nature of society it is ever-changing. This in itself is significant to educators. Antiquated educational
programs can result from not keeping abreast of societal change. This study was an attempt at looking at some of the current societal forces as they influence one facet of education—professional personnel administration. While the study served the function of isolating implications for professional personnel administration it also gave indication of questions which will need to be explored further.

Many questions relating to societal change and professional personnel administration will need periodic examination. Many suggested questions were beyond the scope of this study. As societies change, new ones may arise and emphases may shift. However, some of the more pressing questions for our present society can be listed.

I. What cooperative activities exist between urban districts and outside social agencies? What role does professional personnel play in these activities? How have these activities influenced the professional personnel program?

It has been suggested that social agencies join with education, particularly in the large urban complexes, to cooperatively undertake the task of solving social problems. There appears to be little evidence of this arrangement in existence at this point in time. It might be worthwhile to identify those districts which have launched a cooperative activity. It would be useful to identify pitfalls in these early programs which should be avoided later. Also, it would be helpful to other districts planning to inaugurate
such a plan to have an understanding of some of the steps taken to initiate such an undertaking.

The role professional personnel play in these cooperative activities is also significant. It would be interesting to know what influence the classroom teacher has in planning, or whether or not planning is done at administrative levels and handed down to teachers. The role parents play also has an effect on the professional personnel. Also, the influence outside agencies have on classroom activities and the role they play within the physical context of the school would be helpful knowledge.

The extent of cooperation between agencies would provide useful information. The degree of personnel exchange and the degree of involvement of outside agencies in development activities of the district would prove helpful. If cooperation in development took place it would be beneficial to study the financial arrangements for this venture.

II. What effect will the new educational structures have on professional personnel administration? What cooperative programs are in use? What new personnel have been utilized as a result of cooperative programs? What role are these structures playing in evaluation of local educational programs?

There is indication in the premise from which the new educational structures stem that there will be effects on professional personnel programs. It is too early at this time to receive a clear reading on the nature and extent of
the effects. However, at a later date it would seem beneficial to explore the nature and extent change in professional personnel administration can be credited to the new educational structures, e.g., Regional Educational Laboratories, Research and Development Centers and the Educational Commission of the States.

The kinds and nature of cooperative programs between one of the agencies and the local district will be something that can be examined. This will give an indication of the kinds of services personnel will be asked to render. Although this is difficult to predict at this time, at a future date such an investigation could serve to identify new roles performed by professional personnel.

Through the identification of new cooperative efforts between the educational structures and local districts the utilization of new personnel can be ascertained. This will give further indication of changes in professional personnel programs that have taken place. It will also provide insight into needed changes which should be made in professional personnel programs.

It would appear to be significant for professional personnel administrators to know the role these structures are playing in evaluation of the educational program at the local level. The real significance here may lie in identifying the role professional personnel of the local district
play in the development of the evaluative criteria utilized
to analyze cooperative programs. Much will depend on the
philosophy of the new structures as they grow from their
present embryonic stage.

III. How has the teacher's role in the
inner-city changed? What new programs
have been inaugurated in these areas?
What specialized preparation are these
teachers receiving? How has professional
negotiation affected the professional
personnel program in these areas?

The role of the inner-city teacher has changed in the
past decade and it will continue to change in the next decade. The identification of these changes would be helpful to profes­sional personnel administrators. It would provide them
with an indication as to the direction this trend is taking.
In this way it could provide a look at which roles seem to
be the most effective.

Of equal importance in assessing effectiveness is
identifying the changing programs. The role of the teacher
in these programs may be studied giving still a clearer indi­cation as to needed professional personnel administrative
changes. These changes may range from revision of certain
courses to dropping or adding programs. The kinds of pro­grams and the role teachers play in them have significant
value for professional personnel administration.

The nature of the teacher's role would have implica­
tions for training needs, both pre-service and in-service.
A study showing specialized training received by teachers in
inner-city areas as contrasted by the specialized training that is needed to conduct effective programs could provide some useful insight. These findings may provide indications of the kinds of development and evaluation programs that will be most beneficial. This would cause additional tangible evidence to be accessible to professional personnel administrators in presenting a case for in-service activities.

Subordinate and superordinate relationships are altered by binding agreements settled in collective negotiation sessions. These agreements will undoubtedly have significant effects on professional personnel efforts in the inner-city, as in other areas. One such effect is the controversy which came from the New York City teachers' recent demand for the right to decide who will be retained in their classrooms and who will be excluded. Immediate response to those proposals came from the Negro community. The significance in this example is that the very people teachers should seek the closest cooperation with—the parents—feel the teachers are discriminating against them in their negotiation demands.

IV. What influence do the new educational products industries have on educational policy making? How have the new educational supplies, materials and equipment influenced professional personnel administration?

Although the emergence of the new educational products industries gives clear indication that they will influence educational policy, this trend is as yet not fully developed.
It is somewhat early to gain a clear understanding as to their full impact. It would be of benefit to undertake a study to check the development of outside involvement by such institutions as the new educational products industries to ascertain what policies have been affected and how these policy changes affected professional personnel administration. For example, the recent merging of electronics and publishing firms would indicate the possibility of complete programs being developed with little variety from which educators could choose. Also, money from grants for equipment in greater amounts than for books and other supplies may influence the nature of programs offered.

As the new educational products industries grow and electronics and publishing firms continue to merge it will become more imperative for studies to be launched to give an indication of the effects of these developments on the adoption of programs and personnel utilization. It will take time before studies can reveal the full significance of the trend toward increased expenditure for new "gadgets." It will be significant to ascertain whether or not these "gadgets" make a difference and if the role of the teacher in the formal educational process has significantly changed.

These implications for research are offered as possible areas in which studies may be undertaken. They are suggested in view of the data investigated in this study. Only as society changes can some of these questions be answered.
Concluding Statement

The importance of professional personnel administration and its effect on the education of children needs no further documentation. That it operates in a dynamic societal milieu goes without saying. The fact that professional personnel administration should and can be based on societal changes is the issue with which this writer came to grips. Planning can be based on societal change and not imposed by societal force. Only the foresight, imagination and conviction of professional personnel administrators will determine the success of the endeavor.
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