

THE ROLE AND EXERCISE OF AUTHORITY

IN SCHOOLS

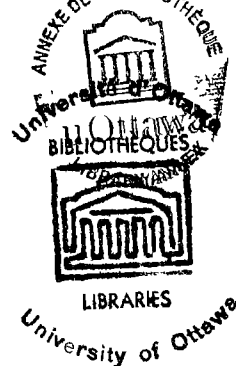
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INTRODUCTION:

This essay has been written against a mixed background. It would be less than honest not to admit that this background is characterized by a combination of relevant practice as well as theory, and that I have chosen to proceed with this essay on the basis of this background as it is. One does not readily sever oneself from one's history, and one is apt to reflect from the point of view of the actor - participant as well as that of the detached observer.

Almost a dozen years of specialized educational practice is part of the background against which this essay is situated. This practice has been academic, the teaching fields having been primarily the history of philosophy and the philosophy of education, as well as administrative. The latter practice was had in a variety of positions at university level as well as on a diocesan-wide basis at primary and secondary levels.

While thus engaged in the world of education, one naturally comes to experience the continual need and desirability to reflect upon one's administrative activities in the light of what one teaches, as well as to evaluate one's teaching in the light of the administrative practice in which one is engaged.

As far as a detailed and particular treatment of a strictly philosophical nature is concerned, there is little available in a coordinate and comprehensive way on the specific problem of school authority which is our interest here. One has to gather the parts needed for a synthesis from various areas of endeavour, especially

in philosophy, psychology and administration.

In the bibliography found at the end of this essay, I have, for obvious reasons, not considered it desirable to attempt a complete listing of all the literature I have used in my teaching experience over the years, especially in the field of educational philosophy. The bibliography represents but a sampling of publications more extensively used in this area.

However, if I were asked to put my finger on authors who probably more than others, have influenced my reflections on the problem at hand, I may be permitted to point to Etienne Gilson's endeavours at a correct historical evaluation of the pivotal position occupied by the philosophy and especially the metaphysics of St. Thomas Aquinas in the history of philosophic thought; to Jaques Maritain's personalism, to his social and political writings generally, and his contributions in the field of education in particular; to Mortimer Adler's historical treatment of the problem of freedom; to C. W. Grindel's symposium on the concept of freedom; and to Kevin O'Brien's contribution to the philosophy of Education.

More recent academic endeavours have led me into the fields of public administration and administrative law among others. Again, several names may be singled out as having influenced my reflections upon the problems dealt with in this essay: There is, particularly, H. W. R. Wade's pioneer studies in administrative law and practice; and in the area of public administration, especially with regard to organizational theory, there is a range of authors from James D. Mooney's treatment of the principles of organization to Herbert Simon's somewhat

irreverent treatment of the same principles in his "Proverbs of Administration".

In concluding this brief list of background references, may I also single out the recent report on "University Government in Canada" sponsored by the Canadian Association of University Teachers and the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, the so-called Duff-Berdahl Report. This report is a helpful contribution to the area of practical university administration; along with an earlier report of the Royal Commission of Inquiry on Education in the Province of Quebec, the so-called Parent Report, with which Messrs. Duff and Berdahl are to a considerable extent in agreement.

In the present essay on the role and exercise of authority in schools, I hope to arrive at guidelines for practice. To be more specific; from a consideration of the more stable as well as changing factors or realities involved in the exercise of authority in the school, I would hope to derive certain objectives and erect or point to some beacons or guidelines for such exercise.

Accordingly, chapters one and two will contain my reflections upon, or my basic assumptions and developed conclusions regarding the realities of MAN and his EDUCATION, and regarding the school and its AUTHORITY ROLES. A third chapter will then deal with the EXERCISE of various authority roles in a school environment, considered in the light of the first two chapters.

The approach thus indicates that we seek the solution to several related problems. Primarily the search is for basic guiding principles regarding the

exercise of school authority roles. To arrive at these, we must first seek an interpretation of authority itself in terms of its basic sources, its objects and its purpose, as well as analyse the object and context of its exercise in relation to man's education in a school.

The first chapter will deal with MAN: his education, and the general place of authority in the process of his education.

The second chapter will deal with the SCHOOL: the place it occupies in the education of man, and the source and identification of authority roles in the school.

The third chapter will concentrate on the exercise of such roles, while it is hoped that the entire essay will point to the summary reached in the concluding section.

CHAPTER I MAN.

Section A. END OF MAN'S EDUCATION.

1. A PERSONALLY INTEGRATED INDIVIDUAL AND SOCIAL
 DEVELOPMENT

(a) To someone surveying the general field of education, it is apparent that many activities are claimed to take place under the heading of education. Education is not readily understood as a simple type of activity which can easily be defined. The single most important reason for this is the material object with which education is concerned, namely man, a complex creature. The distinguishing aspect under which man as its object is dealt with is also multiple, and "education" is thus alleged to cover a number of activities, each concerned with some aspect of the complex creature that is man.

 Yet, these various activities, all concentrating variously on man, share something in common. They concern the development of the human being. The more educated man is commonly presumed to be the more developed man, an improved or better man, i.e. improved or better at least in some respect.

 There is much truth in the aphorism which states that man must become what he is. He must try to achieve existentially the perfections which accord with and are proper to his type. Man must endeavour to actualize his various capacities. As a living being, and capable of activity originating from within man must engage in such activity as he is capable of as such. As a rational and free agent man must engage in such activities as can

freely originate within him if he is to become what he is more perfectly. To freely perform such activities as are suitable to what he is as a human being is man's proper way toward a better self.

What man as such is capable of doing is determined in the first instance by what he is, by his human nature which is often referred to as the remote principle by which he operates as a person. What the individual person at a given time of his life is capable of doing is largely determined by the particular stage of development of the individual's own human capacities which have been termed the proximate principles by which human activity takes place.

In scholastic philosophy, the typically human act has been recognized to be the rationally controlled, freely chosen act, and the typically human or distinguishing capacities or powers of man, among the rest of material creation, have been recognized to be his reason and will.

If education is to concern itself not only with the actualization of various human capacities, but also with their integration as involved in the development of the whole man, it is remembered that such integration properly takes place under the direction of the person himself, "putting his own, self-built house in order", under the guidance of his own "reason as rectified by love" or "enlisted in love's service", human nature being "a task, a project of promotion, a work of love". (1)

(1) R. O. Johan, "Philosopher's Notebook", in "America", April 10, 1965, p. 487.

The integrated growth and unity of man involves the properly balanced hierarchical ordering of those "parts", faculties or powers, which are subject to such ordering. However much we may be able to dissect man abstractly, existentially he is one, in a unity of person. But an integrated unity must, in our human experience as it is, be existentially achieved by the person. This is the direction in which the educational task must be pursued.

Without going into the Christian doctrine of original sin and its consequences, our individual and social experience indicates to us that our existential unity is not always a balanced and properly ordered unity. Activities which should be under the control of the rational will often are not: the will is often unduly influenced by factors other than objective reasoning about proper purposes and means, and the reason is often clouded by factors other than what we have come to know or regard as speculative or practical truth.

(b) To complete the picture of human personal development, we need not be long in reminding ourselves of the social context in which man must develop himself. There is, first of all the fact of "the other". Man cannot even enter this world except through the cooperation of others. His birth constitutes or expands the family, the original human group. His need of this group, and of other individuals and groups for his development should be apparent. He needs others to survive, to grow, to communicate, to love, and thus he is enabled to further actualize himself in activities that bear upon the other. There is thus such a thing as man's social development.

This development is reciprocal: it involves a man's

own personal growth as well as that of the other. A service performed is a service received, and both entail the possibilities of personal growth.

More than this. Through cooperation the well-being of the group may be established, a well-being which entails its own possibilities for personal growth, distinct from those involved in the single person-to-person encounter. This would be true if for no other reason than that the pooling of resources, talents and energies multiplies, increases, both quantitatively and qualitatively, the possible services to be rendered, increases the possibilities of action and interaction with the implied further possibilities for a person's individual and social development.

To illustrate, one need but point to the difference between distributive and commutative justice, or between the difference in scope within either type in different social circumstances. However, it is well to remember that the virtue of justice is in the final analysis a personal moral perfection. If it is not this, it is nothing. The just man has met the social exigencies of the personal virtue of charity.

Thus we come back to the person who must develop himself freely to the extent of his capacities and in dependence upon what help he can obtain from others. The freedom of man to be pursued as a goal in the educational process of his human development will be the developed capacity of a man to find within himself the maturely considered reasons and motives for his own right decisions and actions, apart from external coercion. His decisions and actions will be right to the extent that they

integrally and accurately advance him to his ultimate self-realization, his maximum possible self-actualization. This is to say that they will be objectively right to the extent that this goal actually coincides with his real, objectively true ultimate end; i.e. to the extent that his activity actually advances him toward that being, in the knowledge, possession and enjoyment of which his self is realized to its capacity.

To sum up: the end of human education is personal maturity and fulfillment. As Aristotle puts it: "It is to guide man in the evolving dynamism through which he shapes himself as a human person".(1) And again: "the truly and fully natural man...is the virtuous man, the human soul cultivated by right reason, man to be by the minor culture of the intellectual and moral virtues. He alone has consistency, a personality."(2)

In conclusion then, the end of education is man's personally ordered and integrated perfection, the well-ordered and integrated personal actualization of his capacities. It will result, already here below, in a happiness which cannot be bought with money alone, in his social usefulness, and in the well-being of society at large.

(1) Jaques Maritain, "Education at the Crossroads", New Haven, Yale, 1945, p.10.

(2) Jaques Maritain, "Religion and Culture", in "The Social and Political Philosophy of..." edited by J. W. Evans and L. R. Ward, New York, Doubleday, 1965, p.215.

2. A PARTICULAR CASE OF INEQUITY.

Let us single out, for a moment, from the context of this social well-being, man's personal and family livelihood. It is in relation to the latter that education assumes important secondary purposes.

A child must be trained in specific skills and sciences, not only for the benefit of society but also in order to equip him to get a job and earn a living. The ideal of aristocratic leisure is for most people a thing of the past. A child must be helped to adjust to a rapidly changing environment.

But it is difficult to see how in the context of a hierarchical ordering of values these practical aims, however essential, can be of more than secondary importance. They are, in fact, the fulfillment of man as a human person.

This certainly seems apparent enough within the context of a Christian philosophy of civilization which succeeds in working out a middle way between the bourgeois individualism of the past and the bee-hive collectivism which continually threatens to replace it.⁽¹⁾ And, adds Maritain, because it is unfair to expect our teachers to be wiser than the general culture of their time and its great representatives.. "the most crucial

(1) cf. Jaques Maritain, "Education at the Crossroads", ed. cit., p. 39, see, e.g. J. Messner: "Social Ethics", rev. ed., tr. J.J. Doherty, St. Louis, Herder, 1955 pp. 125-126.

problem with which our educational system is confronted is not a problem of education but of civilization". (1)

Maritain can be expected to see no better way of solving this problem than by emphasis on the education of men toward personal fulfillment. Education may thus convey to man, who will shape himself as a human person ... "armed with knowledge, strength of judgment and moral virtues"... "the spiritual heritage of the nation and the civilization in which he is involved", and preserve in this way "the century old achievement of generations". (2)

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- (1) Jaques Maritain, "Thomistic Views on Education", The Education of Man, edited by Donald and Idella Gallagher, New York, Doubleday, 1962, p. 62.
 - (2) Jaques Maritain, "Education at the Crossroads", *op. cit.*, p. 10.

Section B. THE EDUCATIONAL PROCESS

1. A LONG PROCESS.

In the preceding section "MAN" was seen to be the end of his education, ie. "more of him", man's growth toward a self-integrated unity of person, toward personal fulfillment. Several factors already mentioned point toward a long and complex educational process.

The idea of growth itself conveys these aspects of the educational process. Growth is gradual and takes time, and man's growth as a person is a life time occupation. Human activities must succeed themselves in time, and the struggle involved in the proper ordering and integration of human capacities is readily anticipated to involve repetitious experience.

Time consuming repetition is the path to the acquisition of virtue, whether such virtue be more of an intellectual or more of a moral nature. And in the process, the material body often seems to be as much of a hindrance as it is a help. It remains that the person is not considered fully grown until he has acquired the stability and reliability that comes with virtue.

To become the dependable primary agent of his own development man needs to become steadily oriented toward sound goals. He needs to direct himself toward such goals on the basis of steady patterns of self activity. And for such patterns to be finally and reliably initiated and established, sound habits need to be developed and properly integrated.

It is as a rational agent that man moves himself toward ends known as such, and that he is capable of choosing the means to such ends. The metaphysical propriety of self-direction in the process of human growth and development needs no further elaboration here. As says St. Thomas: "It is proper to the rational nature to tend to an end as directing (agens) and leading itself to the end".(1)

The importance of the will in all specifically human habit formation is here thus readily accepted, as readily as the role of activity in the formation of any human operational habit and the role of the will in such activity. Habits themselves, while perfections relative to their respective faculties, are in relation to the faculty's operation but in potency. Their continued actualization and more intensive strengthening remains dependent upon unlightened motivation and deliberate choice more than on mere mechanical repetition of acts, as is well known to modern educational psychologists.

For as long as acts are repeated under force we do not form truly and distinctively human habits although the former process may at times be required to cause initial dispositions to take shape, dispositions which may be conducive to the development of truly human good habits. (cf. the next section) It is such habits which fashion and sustain good character, the hall-mark of the developed person.

(1) *Summa Theologiae*. I-II, Q.1, a, 2. (Tr. Engl. Dom. Prov. London, Burns-Oates and Washbourne, 2nd Ed. 1927, Vol. 6, p. 5)

2. A COMPLEX, UNID AND UNEVEN PROCESS.

The educational process is not only characterized by time consuming length, but also by its complexity. Man's activities are inter-related on the basis of the unity of their root and on the basis of the unity of their objects. Not only are a man's faculties interrelated because they all belong to him as to a single person who is and who acts; they are also interrelated because their object is fundamentally one, namely being: that which is. In as much as it is, it is knowable to me in concept and judgment, and it is good also in as much as it is, and in as much as in its perfection it is desirable to me.

That is true is the perfection of the mind and good for me, and so the will, whose native orientation is to the good, prompts the intellect to knowledge of the true. What is good for me needs to be identified as such, and so the will prompts the intellect to knowledge of the truly good. What is good for me is desired by the will, but must first be seen as such, and so the will depends on man's ability to know.

Experience illustrates the point of the interdependence of habits. In the human condition, no science, for example, is acquired without the assistance of such moral assets as patience and perseverance. The soul needs the body for its operations, and is limited or hampered by the inevitable imperfections or limitations of matter, (not to mention the doctrine of original sin).

Man's growth is not only a time consuming and complicated process. It also follows uneven patterns.

Bodies tend to have their own natural rate of growth when properly supported. Man's bodily development is not always in step with his spiritual development, and his social development is not always in tune with his development as an individual. The very need for integration in the educational process, as emphasized heretofore, illustrates the facts of life on this point.

Personal peculiarities and environmental conditions are reasons for this, identifiable to a certain extent. The root causes are found in the condition of social insufficiencies and inadequacies, and beyond these in the short comings of men and in the basic facts associated with birth and human growth.

On the basis of all that precedes, education clearly emerges as involving the idea of NEED. Thus, in the long, complex and mixed process of his development man is seen to be in need of assistance to sustain, guide and direct him.

Such assistance will have to come from those who are ahead of him in this process. No one guides unless he has perceived the goals himself. No one gives unless he has acquired what he intends to dispense. No one can really assist in the process of personal integration unless he has travelled the path himself or, to say the least, unless he himself possesses the directional instinct to a developed degree.

Thus the self, which occupies such an important, indeed a pivotal place in human development needs the support of the other. Man indeed can do much by himself. But at various times and in varying degrees he needs assistance. More about this in what follows.

Section C. THE PLACE OF AUTHORITY IN THE EDUCATIONAL
PROCESS.

To avoid confusion from the outset as much as possible, it will be useful here to set down in BROAD outlines some distinctions to be made and to be developed in this essay in order to sustain the principal points of the argument.

Educational authority enters in response to the need for assistance in man's education. It is the answer to the inadequacies of the educand's self.

Educational authority roles arise following the manner in which and the extent to which responsibility is incurred for such inadequacies.

An educational authority role is "properly" exercised not only as an answer to an incurred responsibility, but also if it is competently exercised.

Competence as such is not a source of educational authority roles. A specific competence may aid as co-basis, with need, in the identification of a specific authority response. Its availability is often the occasion for the establishment of an authority role with regard to a need as arising or existing. It would indeed be disastrous if, normally, the mere fact of competence possessed or thought to be had would, ipso facto, establish an authority role considered as legitimately exercisable merely because of such competence. We would have a world full of legitimate so-called "busy bodies" or meddlers.

A particular competence, individually held, points

to the suitability of role exercise by a given person, and adds to the effectiveness of such exercise. It does not give rise to the role itself as an efficient cause.

The effectiveness of the exercise is "measured" in terms of the goal achieved, i.e. in this case always in terms of the fulfillment of persons.

In the present section we are concerned, generally, with the place of authority in the educational process.

1.

1. AUTHORITY.

Generally speaking, authority is the right or title, the obligation even, to respond to a need in or among others for assistance by giving direction or guidance, by providing support, by helping to achieve coordination, and so on. Formally considered, authority, entitles its possessor to respond specifically by way of imposing an obligation, and if necessary, by way of compelling or enforcing, for such purposes as private benefit, or the common welfare and social success. Formally correlated to it, there are on the part of the subject, or of those subject, corresponding obligations to listen, to obey, to cooperate, and so on. These are attitudes which authority, on the basis of its obligations, has a right to expect.

Once among men, authority may be (sub-) delegated or transmitted further among them in various ways, such as by means of contract, or agreement, as instrumental causes. Authority holders are the efficient causes of authority roles in others.

Various authority roles are further identifiable on the basis of various needs, i.e. particular needs within the social and the individual type, and thus on the basis of particular forms of social or private well being.

Further particular authority roles are often established in consideration of competencies developed and available to meet particular needs. Competence may thus act among men as occasional cause for the establishment of a role. Further, of course, it qualifies the role.

holder, and thus, hopefully, contributes to the latter's role exercise and its success in terms of a particular for of private or social well being.

2. AUTHORITY IN EDUCATION

Educational authority as a specific type looks to the needs of educands as such. It is there to lend assistance in the growth toward personal maturity and fulfillment, in the work of personal self-integration.

As a type distinct from social authority which exists to lead the members of a group to seek the ends of the group by their cooperation in the use of common means, it is a private authority exercised primarily on a person-to-person basis. As such it also is a moral authority, cancelling the right to impose obligation on the human acts of others.

But in view of its goal, which is the end of education, it is an essentially complementary authority. The educator is engaged in an "ars cooperativa naturae". His role is instrumental in relation to that of the educand as principal agent, but an instrument which may actually be imposed if necessary. St. Thomas is fond of making the comparison between the art of teaching and the art of healing. It applies to education as well, in as much as teaching is but a particular function in the general work of education.(1)

The process of education is a process of growth and self-development. Whoever assumes in some way or other

(1) St. Thomas Aquinas, "The Teacher -- The Mind", QQ. Disp., X,XI, Transl. J.V. McGlynn, Chicago, Regnery (Gateway), 1959, pp. 16-18.

responsibility for this growth or becomes responsible for the educand's need of assistance, assumes or obtains educational authority in relation to such an educand.

This authority is diminished or becomes restricted in its areas of operation to the extent that the subject of education progresses from the status of an "educandus" to that of "educatus".

Authority always labours under the disadvantage of being external to the educand. The latter's spirituality is not directly accessible to the educator's reason. The will's central position in human activity limits his influence upon it to that of presenting values as objects for the will, or of presenting examples or ideals worthy of imitation or emulation.

Encouragement, or even external pressures may indeed lead to "second thoughts", and initial dispositions developed under force may eventually blossom forth into real, personally acquired virtues. But direct accessibility into the recesses of the soul is refused.

All teachers know that they "can lead a horse to water", that they cannot make it drink. The fact that the human intellect depends upon the body for its operations is bad enough, as people are thereby limited intellectually and do get tired in the laborious processes of thinking. But the influences of the will, of human appetites and inclinations or other personality and environmental factors upon man's intellectual pursuits and his assent to truth is even more frustrating to teachers at times.

3. LAW - VIRTUE - FREEDOM.

The exercise of educational authority, particular roles not being our concern until later in the context of the school, involves the rightful imposition of obligations.

In such cases, the scholastic view of man as applied and elaborated in relation to the problem of freedom vs. law then comes to mind. (1) And the "law" as "laid down" may assume the office of the pedagogue in a peculiar way.

It may "become an inner principle of our action", to be within us "as a sharing of a principle promulgated from the outside". (2) A good precept may be interiorized, and ideally should be so, as the result of a proper exercise of authority. Its free, internal adoption contributes to the development of those stable inner resources that we associate with the virtues and with character.

"The virtuous man", the man of character, "is no longer subject to the law since the law has become interior to him from within", wrote Yves Simon. (3) Such a

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- (1) Cf. e.g. M.J.Adler. "The Idea of Freedom", Garden City, N.Y. Doubleday, 1958; Y.Simon, "Nature and Function of Authority", Milwaukee, Marquette University, 1940; E. Gilson, "Moral Values and the Moral Life", ed. transl. L.R.Ward, New York. Schoestring, 1961; J. Maritain, "Scholasticism and Politics", transl. M.J.Adler, Garden City, N.Y., Doubleday, 1960.
- (2) E. Gilson, "Moral Values and the Moral Life", ed.cit., P. 195.
- (3) op.cit., p.42.

development constitutes the very protection and perfection within the educand of the freedom of choice which, as was seen earlier, is at the centre of his human development. He develops the power to will as he ought as a reasonable man. The external character of the law or the precept "brings no heteronomy into the moral life, for law is of precisely the same order as reason". (1) Or so it should be! And reason is the inner principle from which human activity gets its human or moral character. (2)

What Adler would call "an acquired freedom of self-perfection", and Maritain "a freedom of autonomy" would come as the result of such a development of the educand's freedom of choice. (3) Such a result appears to be well in line with the end of man's education as elaborated upon earlier. To so exercise authority in education as to make the process of interiorization most likely, that is the problem confronting the educator.

But we must turn now to the school as a particular area of educational endeavour, as this essay concerns itself with the role and exercise of authority in the school.

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- (1) E. Gilson, "For I Values and the Moral Life", ed.cit., p. 195.
 (2) cf. *Summa Theologiae*, I-II, q.60, a.1; q.90, a.1.
 (3) J. Maritain, "Scholasticism and Politics", ed.cit., p. 132; N.Y. Adler, op.cit., passim.

CHAPTER 2. THE SCHOOL: AUTHORITY ROLES IN SCHOOL.

The school is commonly considered an educational institution. The previous chapter has dealt with man; his education, and the general place of authority in the process of his education. Two other realities must be dealt with in this chapter before the exercise of authority in schools can be considered. These are: 1) the school itself, and the place it occupies in education (SECTION A); and 2) Authority roles in the school; their source (SECTION B) and their identification (SECTION C).

Section A. THE SCHOOL IN EDUCATION.

1. THE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION.

Formally considered, as an educational institution, the school represents a grouping arrangement of a specific type. It brings together educators and educands. The arrangement exists for the purpose of the education of the educands.

As a man-made arrangement, the school may reflect various interpretations of educational objectives. Its "finis operantis" is thus open to be multi-colored, depending upon what activities are, in the opinion of a school educator, to be subsumed under his responsibilities.

Similarly, the "finis operis", the purpose of the school itself as an educational institution is open to interpretation. We had occasion to observe in the first chapter that many activities take place under the heading of "education", man being a complex creature and his education involving many things.

2. THE SCHOOL'S FUNCTION OBSCURED.

We face problems of historical interpretation and problems associated with man and his condition in the real. There is a strong tradition of defining the functions of the school more precisely in relation to intellectual culture. (1)

Few proponents of this view have gone as far as disclaiming the school's existential responsibility for strengthening the moral fibre of youth. The widespread disintegration of family life and the crisis in morality and the common good have not gone unrecognized.

Again, from an existential point of view, the school is in fact a group, a social arrangement, and any effort at person-to-person educational activity must take this fact into account, even if it is sought to restrict such activity to intellectual pursuits only.

The central role of the will in man's development constitutes another important element in the problem. Even though, speculatively speaking, knowledge is a value and an end in itself, it is also in life an indispensable condition of that freedom of independence without which character would be nothing but a mask. On the other hand, Aristotle long ago declared against Socrates and Plato

(1) For a brief historical outline of the problem, with references, cf: K.O'Brien, "The Proximate Aim of Education", Milwaukee, Bruce, 1958, pp. 207, ff.

that knowledge "as condition for the possession of virtues has little or no weight at all". (1) For "we do not want to know what courage is, but to be courageous, nor what justice is, but to be just, in the same way that we want to be in good health rather than to know what kind of thing health is". (2) It is not difficult to agree with Aristotle on the point as long as the advantages of knowledge about health in a medical doctor, or of law in a judge are allowed for and appreciated.

From the general point of view of man's education which is aimed at the improvement of people, it is indeed realized that ultimately it is through man's will, when it is good, not through his intelligence, be it ever so perfect that man is made good and right. Unfortunately, there have been many unsaintly scholars.

Man is as good as his will, as good, generally speaking, as his appetites and inclinations when these are fastened upon what is objectively good, upon what will advance him toward that in the seeing and possession of which his happiness will be found.

That man's capacities for knowledge play a cardinal role in the development of his moral life is not denied. . . But man's intellectual power has its speculative and practical functions. With regard to the latter, we may find a viable basis for allocating responsibilities to

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- (1) Nicomachean Ethics, II, 4, 1105,C, 1-2; cf. "The Ethics of Aristotle", Ed. J.A.K. Thomson, Baltimore, Penguin, 1955, pp. 61-62.
- (2) Eudemian Ethics, I, 5, 1216 C, 21-25, (Ed. J. Solomon, Vol. IX, in "The works of Aristotle Transl. into English", W.D. Ross, ed., Oxford, Clarendon, 1908-1952. No page numbers.)

the respective educational spheres here, in the distinction is maintained between the will and practical reason.

Thus, with regard to morality, general rules and principles do have to be learned. Yet "prudencia", which applies the general rule to my unique situation, and also the individual judgment of conscience, cannot very well be replaced by any sort of science or theoretical knowledge. Here, "it is the rectitude of my willing that has to effect the accuracy of my vision". (1) If there is nothing so important for personal morality, than love and education, and if what we are in love with counts for so much, it is clear that these things cannot be the products of academic courses. We know from our own personal histories that such things come rather as the fruit of spiritual experience, of friendship, of other inter-personal relationships, even of disappointment and suffering. We learn "in the school of life."

(1) J. Maritain, "Existence and the Existent", tr. L. Galantiere and G.B. Phelan, Garden City, Doubleday, 1957, p. 60.

3. A DIVISION OF RESPONSIBILITIES.

Let it first of all be obvious then, that not everything can be learned. It should also be obvious that schools cannot be equipped to take over the whole business of education. Maritain graphically illustrates this point when he states: "No illusion is more harmful than to try to push back into the microcosm of school education the entire process of shaping the human being, as if the system of schools and universities were a big factory through the backdoor of which the young child enters like raw material, and from the front door of which the youth in his brilliant twenties will go out as a successfully manufactured man". (1)

The school is essentially preparatory. Furthermore, even as such it must, needs be, merely complimentary to other educational spheres, such as families and the Church. That historically a link has existed relating these various spheres is undeniable. It has been a normal and proper link, forged by special circumstance and in view of the unity of man and his existential condition.

But the school, although existentially and inescapably a wider educational instrument, has had to develop a more specialized formal instrumentality. It has developed as its specialty, the development of the intellect and its speculative virtues, as well as of practical reason as guide to action and conduct. It has also

(1) J. Maritain, "Education at the Crossroads", ed.cit., pp. 25-26.

emerged as a training centre for the acquisition of the various skills necessary in daily personal and social life. It has had to leave any direct concern with the will, the actual determinant of human action in the concrete, to the related educational spheres of Church, family and social life.

Thus, schools exist that teachers may teach, coaches may coach, instructors may instruct, demonstrators may demonstrate, and so on. The school also exists to put the tools required today in the hands of these specialists. Schools exist so that their efforts may be successful.

But the manner in which such specialists at school will acquit themselves of their responsibilities, and the example they set in or out of their special engagements can be expected to be crucial. The same will apply to the other educational spheres. Reality, and the real activity and behaviour of existing people have a way of mocking any distinct division of functions, powers, or spheres, however necessary such a division may be judged to be.

Section B. SOURCES OF AUTHORITY ROLES IN THE SCHOOL.

In the interest of clarity it may be useful to repeat here, and to elaborate somewhat on some distinctions already referred to earlier.

Authority is understood as a quality of entitlement or of having the right to respond to a need for direction, correction or coordination in or among others by way of exercising appropriate leadership and by way of imposing, and if necessary enforcing, moral obligations binding the individual or the members of a group to a certain course of action or the use of common means.

Authority in terms of specific or particular roles is dispersed or transmitted among men by way of such instruments as delegation, designation by common agreement, and so on.

There is an element of similarity, the closest found in the natural order, between God on the one hand, as creator of and master over contingent beings, and parents on the other. When the latter bring forth their child in cooperation with God, they assume under God original responsibility for and an authoritative position over the child.

In the social order, a similar element of originality obtains, as social authority is found to reside among men by virtue of their being human beings created with a social nature. The human need of the other gives rise to the social group where social authority is said to reside originally.

Before being transferred or dispersed among men, authority needs to be possessed by those who do the transferring or designating, the dispersing or delegating.

Thus, in speaking of sources of authority roles in the school, we are not speaking of the need which constitutes a basis for authority by way of a justifying occasion for authoritative intervention. We are talking about the sources of authority roles which must be derived from where authority already is. We are dealing with the origins of the roles. "Needs" cannot be origins or sources of being!

In or among men, continued or recurring needs, or newly developing particular forms of need are the occasion for and circumscription of authority exercise. Needs specify the forms of intervention and indicate its particular manner in terms of the relief to be brought about.

Competence may indicate the suitability of a certain role performance in response to a need. It will often indicate the desirability, even the need for consultation, cooperation or participation, especially in the area of mixed role performance. It seems to me that this point underlies much of the position taken by messrs. Duff and Berdahl in their report already referred to. It is illustrated by many of their recommendations. (1)

(1) "University Government in Canada", Report of the Commission Consisting of Sir James Duff and Prof. Robert O. Berdahl, sponsored by the C.A.U.T. and the A.U.C.C., Toronto, University of Toronto Press, 1966, (Subsequently referred to as "the Duff-Berdahl Report")

Competence, when available, has been known to serve as additional occasional reason for the establishment of an authority role by delegation, to meet a given need. It certainly will contribute to the effectiveness of a given role performance. Implied in this point also is the idea that competence in the authority may well play an important role in the individual judgments of compliance or non-compliance on the part of a subject.

But competence is not a source of authority roles. It belongs to the order of formal causality. Formal perfections as such, whether essential or accidental, are not efficient causes, no more than e.g. Aristotle's First Mover could create. An old scholastic adage was: "agere sequitur esse". Thus, to act authoritatively follows being in an authoritative position. If one must be if one is to act, one must also have before one can give. Authority is thus found in human beings either because they themselves, as secondary causes under God, have caused it to be in or among themselves, or because they have received it from another, or from others. He who has authority can efficiently cause it to be in others. The latter in their turn can then act authoritatively.

Thus authority sources act as efficient causes, secondary under God. Firstly, they "create" needs, in individuals produced by them as does the parent, or in groups as do members when constituting a group. Secondly, they become thereby originally responsible for meeting these needs. Thus, thirdly, in the created natural order parents and the social group represent "original" authority sources, and parents are found to delegate their authority to various others, while the social group is found to designate its leaders.

This section may be seen as occupying a pivotal position in this essay. We have been groping our way toward these considerations as toward a peak from which much of what follows will descend in relatively simple fashion. "Competence" has been following us persistently in an almost nagging manner. I think that finding a proper place for it, considerably helps in solving the problem.

"Authority" is often used in a misleading manner, in the English language at least, as when we say of someone who is considered competent that "he speaks with authority", or "authoritatively", on such and such a subject within his competence.

It may be useful here to summarize once more as succinctly as possible our findings with regard to "authority", "need", and "competence". The three paragraphs that follow in a real sense summarize the entire essay in depth.

With reference to Authority: its formal element is considered to be the right to oblige, and if necessary enforce, with reference to the actions of normally autonomous human beings. Its final cause among men is either personal or social wellbeing, or indeed both. Its "original" efficient cause is its source in or among men, namely those in whom authority "originally" resides. From these sources, parental and societal, authority descends upon others in distinct and particular roles by way of the instruments of delegation or designation.

Competence relates to practice. It relates to the practice of delegating or designating in as much as it

should enter the considerations and judgments of those who so delegate or designate. It is practically required for effective delegation or designation. It relates to the exercise of authority in as much as it affects its effectiveness. The implied reference here is to competently applying authority, on the one hand, and to confidently and readily complying with it on the other.

Human or group Needs relate to practice in as much as, having to be met in a certain way, they justify and circumscribe authority exercise. Need may justify the establishment of additional roles, and it justifies the exercise of a given role in terms of its relief which is to be achieved. It circumscribes such exercise in as much as it meets the needs of normally autonomous human beings or groups. It points to interiorization, consultation, participation, and so on, as the road to successful exercise. Furthermore, it points to the ways of adaptation to the fluctuations and particularities in the concrete.(1)

The above distinctions and summary having been made, we may now proceed as follows in this section.

Within the school, now considered primarily as a teaching - learning establishment, possible sources of authority roles are as follows:

1) Teachers can validly (suo-) delegate their teaching authority to their delegates, to what ever extent this is necessary or desirable, possible, prudent and

(1) Cf. the traditional distinctions between jurisdiction, validity and liceity in relation to these three paragraphs.

permissible. Competence may also play its proper role here, as indicated above. A good measure of it will e.g. be desirable in the teachers in the form of good judgment on the method and choices involved in the transfer, and on the part of his delegate in view of the latter's exercise of his new role.

Teachers as a group of educators may also be validly called upon to take part in the designation of their educational administrators. This again to whatever extent and in whatever manner this may be required or desirable, possible, prudent and permissible. On the basis of what precedes there is no question about the validity of the group as source of its own administrator's authority. Complications follow from the fact that particular groups are of specific types and made up of more or less competent individuals.

Needless to say, not all school administrative positions are equally or even directly related to the educational function. One can think, e.g. of a school plant maintenance superintendent. Similarly, a faculty association may be more of an employee lobby for better contracts than a specific group of educators as such. To the extent that it is the former, qua group, it contains the source of its own administrative authority role. To the extent that it is the latter, the group contains the source of its own educational administrative authority roles. In the former case we end up with somewhat more of a labour organizer, in the latter with the teacher - principal or academic administrator. But the latter case is modified considerably by the involvement of the common good or public interest in the work of education, although this element is not lacking in the former, depending on the type of work

involved.

Thus "administrators" often come to a school by virtue of outside appointment as well; e.g. a board, or government, department may be involved. Needless to say, administrators, acting as subordinate sources, may sub-delegate their authority to their appointees. Much will depend on the terms of the instruments of designation or delegation.

Implied here also is the idea that administrators as such are not sources of teaching authority roles, much less is the state except in relation to its own common good functions. Thus e.g. it trains its own army and its own bureaucracy. Conversely, individual teachers are not as such sources of administrative authority roles, although in view of their competence they may be suitably engaged in the processes of designating educational administrators.

2) Students precisely as educands cannot be sources of teacher or educator authority roles. Their individual needs may be, as having to be relieved, occasion for the establishment of such roles by way of delegation from e.g. their parents to others. However, to the extent that they are educated, or of age, they may well play a suitable role in the choices that become available in the area of role establishment, the assigning of functions, and the evaluation of performances. Indeed, students who are of age are found to enter "sui juris" into contracts with educational institutions.

Students as a group, to the extent that they are "in-coordinati" are validly called upon in the processes of designating their own group administrators, e.g. a student

council in charge of not directly educational or academic student affairs. As a group they contain the source of the administrative authority which is to administer to their needs as a group. In consideration of their age or inexperience, in view of the educational ramifications of anything they do, and in view of the impact upon the school enterprise, needs arise for guidance and the acceptance of advice.

The student group is of course not just a group, but a group of "educandi". As such they lack what it takes to designate an educational administrator qua educational. It is of course easy for borderline cases to develop when age and degree of education come into play as qualifying factors. A useful criterion in considering all such problems is summed up in the ancient adage: "NEIIO DAT QUOD NON HABET".

External to the school, again several sources of authority roles in the school may be found.

1.) There are first of all the parents, in the unique position indicated earlier, under God. They are the "original" comprehensive source of educational authority, as cooperators in the process of bringing forth the "educand" and thus incurring original responsibilities.

Parents often send their children simply "to school" without worrying about the intricacies of delegation. Often they have expected perhaps far too much of the school. On the basis of our analysis of the place of the school in education, parents delegate primarily to teachers their authority to teach. The need is there, in the educand and in society, and the available talent may enter into

their decision as to choice of school.

2) The Church's position is also unique. It has authority to teach by virtue of a special divine commission, independently of any human authority if needs be. As such the Church is a source of teaching authority roles, and may suitably and validly delegate to others. But apart from the teaching, governing and sanctifying functions which are Hers by divine mandate with a view to man's eternal salvation, the Church acts in other areas of the total educational effort generally at the invitation of parents with delegated authority, and out of solicitude for the common welfare. (1)

3) Out of a similar solicitude for the common welfare, which in this case is its very "raison d'être", the State has entered the area of education. The State is not a source of educational authority roles properly speaking except in a broader sense in relation to its own functions of governing, protecting and serving the common good for which its own functionaries, and so on, have to be trained. Otherwise it acts in this area on behalf of parents with delegated authority, and to supplement the private effort.

The State itself has received its authority in relation to the common welfare, immediately from the people, and on their behalf it may act suitably in the area of education in a subsidiary capacity. Inter-school coordination, the setting of suitable standards, the

(1) To be complete, we would have to mention that Souls belong to God, to Christ and His Church by a pre-eminent right of origin.

competency of teacher, the provision of adequate talent for those engaged in its own tasks are all examples of legitimate areas of concern for the State. The State may suitably delegate its responsibilities to its agents, to school administrators, to its representative on Boards, and so on. The availability and use of competence is an important key to successful state engagement in the area of education. So is its adaptation to actual needs.

Having thus indicated the several sources, both internal and external, of authority roles in the school, we may now proceed with an effort to distinguish various types of school authority roles.

Section C. PROPER SCHOOL AUTHORITY ROLES.

We are dealing with authority roles that are proper to the school. We have identified the school in a present day context as primarily a "teaching - learning" establishment. Thus we are interested in roles proper to the school considered as such. With regard to the identification of roles, it is considered advisable here to limit ourselves in the main to types, because further particularizations and colorizations will depend on particular schools in concrete situations. On the basis of the preceding section it will have become clear that, proper to the school as considered above, there are two such types: the teaching role, however broadly or narrowly interpreted, but of itself involving a person-to-person relationship, even when performed in a group context; and the administrative role in relation to the group which consists of both teachers and students.

1.) First, there is the teaching role. At times, this role has been broadened to include additional aspects of the educational process due to wider delegation, sometimes usurpation, or simply because of default on the part of primary educators. In the latter case, vicarious delegation by the State may enter the picture as a result.

Strictly speaking then, the teaching role immediately and of itself envisions the intellectual development of the educand or student, i.e. the development of his speculative and practical reason. It proposes to supplement the natural powers of discovery and allows the child to profit.

from the vicarious experience as offered. It guides and directs the intellectual processes, and integrates them in their objects, while leading the way by demonstration or example. Any emphasis on direct training of the will it leaves to related educational spheres. However, this role faces the particular challenge of motivating the educand toward the effort required on his part as principal efficient cause of learning, because of the central role played by the will, and the appetites generally, in practical human life.

Again, in order to distinguish this role from what we call the administrative type, it will be remembered, in spite of the fact that we are dealing with schools, that groups do not learn. Individuals do, and knowledge is a private acquisition. It is nothing if not the intellectual virtue of a person.

The formal feature of this role in as much as it is an authoritative one, described in terms of the right to oblige, finds a very limited application in practice, except by way of the indirect approach as when certain standards are set down and enforced. Furthermore, in the grouping arrangement that is the school, this basically person-to-person relationship of necessity takes on the social dimension which cannot in practice be ignored.

This particular authority role comes to the teacher by way of delegation from the parents as original and comprehensive educational authority source. A contract may be the instrument of delegation; it is not the source of the authority role, neither is competence on the part of the delegate, as we have seen. The role may also in part derive from the Church considered as an original

source, namely in those areas where the Church has, by divine mandate, special jurisdiction in view of man's eternal welfare. The State, as we have seen, may also be a limited source for this role in the areas of its own special responsibilities for the public interest.

Beyond the intellectual development of the educand, and by way of it according to our analysis of the school function and responsibility, this role envisions the growth, maturity and fulfillment of persons, i.e. the overriding primary end of human education as we saw, within the context of which the teaching role operates.

2.) There is, secondly, the administrative type of role. It is essentially supportive or coordinative in nature in relation to the group and the efforts made within it. It involves the right to oblige those concerned to common approaches, ordered activities and definite standards and goals, and if necessary to enforce such cooperation.

The source of this type of role being the group, it envisions the wellbeing and the support of the group, and the realization of its goals in a human but coordinated manner.

But we are not dealing with a generic group. Complications derive from the fact that the school specifically groups both teachers and students, or educands, and, concretely, individuals within these groups.

The teachers, or educators, are as a specific group the internal source of school administrative roles that are academic or educational in character. One could think

here, e.g. of the chairman of a department, or the dean of a faculty whose roles may be interpreted as being primarily of such a nature.

There are other administrative roles much less directly academic or educational in nature. It was pointed out earlier that teachers do not always organize precisely qua teachers or educators. In such cases one would have to say that the administrative role called for is not proper to the school as such, strictly speaking, to the precise extent, however difficult to identify concretely, that the group exhibits these non-academic or non-educational features and operates outside the proper school context.

3.) Furthermore, there is the group of students or educands who as such need the services of the educational administrator. Students or educands as a group remain the source of this role, but via the vicarious activities of teachers or educators on their behalf in as much as, qua students or educands, they do not or cannot assume their responsibilities in this regard.

As a "mere" group of young people (or older ones!) the coordination of their non-educational or non-academic activities is suitably left to the role of something like a "student" council, a role born of the group as source, but exercised under the "guidance" of those responsible for the academic or educational context in which the group concretely operates.

Again we may observe that an administrative role performed by something like a student council, thus conceived as having non-academic or non-educational

responsibilities, is precisely to that extent (however difficult to identify concretely) not an authority role proper to the school on the basis of our analysis of its function. Again, the context of the school as a specific group more often than not tends to render claims to independent activity rather doubtful.

4.) We observed that the purpose of the administrative type of role is the well being of the group and the realization of its purposes in a human but coordinate way. Within the school as an academic or educational enterprise, this role, which is generically that of social authority, takes on its specifically academic or educational character and features. As such, its success is measured in terms of the contribution made by teachers or "educators", in concert, to the intellectual development of human beings, and beyond this to the integrated growth, maturity and fulfillment of persons, i.e. the wider goal of education.

Whether or not this latter, wider goal, is the immediate concern of the school authority will depend on the terms of delegation to the school, as well as on the intricate interrelationships involved in the existential unity of man and in the concrete conditions and practice. In our own abstract analysis of the place of the school in the total educational effort we have favoured the development of man's speculative and practical reason as its specific immediate concern, and even this only in terms of an essentially preparatory role. (1)

(1) With reference to the preparatory character of the school function, cf, K.O'Brien's definition of education itself, which is said to involve man's development "in first proximate act", and to render man "maturely constituted self-directive "toward his end. K. O'Brien, "The Proximate Aim of Education", Milwaukee, Bruce, 1958, p. 193.

5.) However mixed roles tend to be in school practice, let us attempt what can only be a partial listing of various particular role functions that are possible, within the main types or can be associated with each as we saw them, namely teaching and administrating.

a. Associated with the teaching function may come additional responsibilities as per delegation. Hence additional roles of a more broadly educational nature may be assumed. Furthermore, in the school the teacher inevitably faces the group and cannot avoid functions that are basically administrative in character in relation to groups of students assigned to him. Some "administrative" work comes to the teacher from the academic administrator above, e.g. in connection with directives concerning the maintenance of class records. Some of it may come from below in as much as in the absence of an effective student effort to maintain that minimum degree of order among the many which is required for effective teaching and learning, the teacher may have to assume vicarious responsibilities in this area. In any case, the social aspects of the teacher's work can be used to advantage for purposes of an academic or of a wider educational nature.

b. Within the administrative authority role type, we may attempt to distinguish particular functions also. A special effort is required to limit ourselves as much as possible to the school function as described in our own analysis in academic terms. We will assume that patterns of delegation have followed this analysis.

1. There is, on the basis of areas of need, first of all the teaching effort which must be physically organized and coordinated toward the success of teachers in the

school. The teaching effort must thus be organized toward maximum benefit of each and all students in terms of their intellectual development.

2. Secondly, there is the learning effort in the group which must be physically organized and coordinated immediately in view of the school's maximum contribution to the intellectual development of each student.

3. Not altogether unrelated to the first two functions is the role of coordinating the academic program. It envisions the properly integrated intellectual development of students at the wider level of the school. If nowhere else, the importance of competent advice is here certainly most obvious, especially in curriculum work which appears to be essentially an academic function of an organizational character.

4. There is, fourthly, the need for the academic development of the school as a whole, especially with reference to personnel, as well as the development of all assets and functions which immediately support the school's total academic function.

5. Fifthly, there is the school's position in relation to the common good. A delegation of shared responsibility for the public interest in particular terms may come down from the State. The coordination and integration of academic programs, standards, admission policies, and so on, between schools and geographical areas are examples of the public needs which somehow must be provided for. The intellectually developed person is also a citizen, whether he be teacher, school administrator or student, and a satisfactory performance in that capacity

is rightfully expected of him.

In the next chapter we will return to these roles in greater detail.

6. We are limiting ourselves to authority roles proper to the school as per our analysis of its place in the total process of education. Consequently, such non-academic authority functions as may be suitably exercised by a student council on behalf of students not considered as "instruendi" are not strictly speaking our concern here. One could think of such a basic coordinating function as dormitory regulations, or even the general exercise or enforcement of group discipline when not wielded as an instrument of moral formation. Apart from such ordering activities there may be additional functions pertaining to the provision of various student services. Within the context of a school, however, such functions cannot very well be exercised without regard for the wider responsibilities of the proper school administrator, especially if they relate to such order as is desirable in view of the success of the total academic enterprise.

CHAPTER 3. THE EXERCISE OF AUTHORITY IN SCHOOLS.

We are now concerned with the exercise of proper authority roles in the concrete. Such exercise should thus reflect the realities involved in these roles, especially their source, and their purpose in terms of cooperation and the intellectual development of human beings gathered in groups.

The "finis operantis", on the part of the role exerciser, may tend to aim well beyond the objective limits set to the role. Thus, generally speaking, there may arise the need for bringing the "finis operantis" in line with the "finis operis". The latter, on the part of the school as a man-made arrangement, is measured in terms of an actual, though often implied, delegation or assignment of functions.

The end result of all such role exercise is the fulfillment of the proper school function toward the intellectual development of human beings, along with the effective fostering of such public interest as may be involved. Whatever fosters such goals in a moral way is to be striven for, and whatever impedes their realization is to be avoided.

Once the role exercise is limited to the proper area of jurisdiction, without further usurpation taking place, its practical morality will be measured in terms of, not only the ends pursued, but of the employment of means suitable to man, to his intellectual development and to the public interest, and in terms of the various circumstances

involved in the actual enterprise.

In view of the personal autonomy which is natural and proper to man in all his human activities, the immediate standard of success in all such role exercise will be the voluntary adoption and interiorization of such guidance or assistance as is offered. This is the goal to be kept in mind constantly in the use of the means.

Generally speaking, for this type of endeavour, if it is to be successful in those terms, a good degree of appropriate competence is required on the part of the role exerciser. Furthermore, he needs to be careful to measure his response in terms of actual human and social needs which have a way of following uneven patterns among themselves. Such needs are also apt to exhibit fluctuations in the concrete, and to follow irregular patterns of diminishing.

The various particularities associated with the human individual in his concrete situation thus also deserve careful consideration, and there will be a need of prudent adaptation to such particularities.

Generally speaking again, the more successful this adaptation will be, the more assuredly success will come with regard to the process of interiorization. And the same applies to such required techniques as consultation and participation. These techniques can alleviate the formal element in any authority role, namely that of obliging, not to speak of enforcing, to a point where voluntary inward adoption or interiorization of a precept or regulation presents a minimum of difficulty.

The virtue of prudence is here, as in other human activities, the key to success in the concrete as it requires us to take counsel wisely, to judge rightly, and prescribe correctly. (1)

(1) Cf. St. Thomas, "Summa Theologiae", I-II, q 57, a.6.
(tr. ed.cis., Vol. VII, pp. 97-98)

Section A. THE TEACHER'S EXERCISE OF AUTHORITY.

The teaching role is that of authoritative direction and assistance on the part of the teacher in the personal and internally ordered acquisition of knowledge on the part of the student.

Our analysis of the place of the school in the total educational effort pointed out the advisability of attaching priority importance in the school to the educand's academic development. Thus the teacher was thought to proceed on the basis of a delegated authority limited primarily to this area. It was thought best to leave any direct concern with the will to other educational spheres and roles.

It is at once realized that in practice, a spite of every justification for placing all emphasis on intellectual development, the school tends to be existentially and inescapably a wider educational instrument. This is readily seen especially at lower levels.

The very teaching role itself depends for its lasting success upon the voluntary cooperation of the student who is to "absorb" the material taught, and who remains the principal cause of learning. It also depends for its success, therefore, upon a certain degree of development, of stability, and of order between his various appetitive, emotive and instinctive powers in as much as these affect his personal efforts. Even a degree of purely physical development and well-being is obviously required in a being of composite nature such as is man, in which spiritual activities have been acknowledged to exhibit a relationship

of extrinsic dependence upon the body. Psychologists are wont to point to brain damage as affecting intellectual operations by way of illustration. Various psychosomatic disorders point out the same fact of interdependence.

Furthermore, in the grouping arrangement that is the school the teaching role inevitably assumes its coordinative and social dimensions. Needless to say, a realistic exercise of the teacher role must take all these realities into account.

But even within the restricted ambit of intellectual development the teaching role assumes what are, if not administrative functions in relation to the group, at least what may be called "organizational" functions in relation to individual developments.

Man's intellectual development envisions knowledge and control of a very complex reality. The centuries have witnessed the development of many specific approaches at various levels in relation to the real or to what is, as the contemporary curricula indicate.

These approaches, and hence the academic programs and course patterns of individual students, (not to mention the curriculum here) are in need of constant re-evaluation and integration. This is required, not only in the interest of an ordered acquisition of knowledge, but also in consideration of social requirements, career patterns, and other practical aspects of individual and social life. Whatever leadership may be required on the part of administrators in this area, the task remains essentially one which requires, apart from cooperation, the talents of teachers and competent specialists.

1.) Let us go back for a moment to the personal relationship between the teacher and the student. A suitable and successful exercise of the teaching role on this basis involves a number of interesting aspects.

On the basis of a recognition of the role of experience in learning, certainly in sciences immediately concerned with the real, and in consideration of the student's native capacity, albeit limited initially, for personal discovery, the teacher can make his experience and that of others vicariously available to the student. Thus the student is further enabled to proceed on the basis of what he knows toward a knowledge of what he does not know as yet. (1) Thus also the teacher, in as much as he has travelled this path before him, can guide and demonstrate by academic example, preceding him step by step in the discovery of new truths.

Then there is the central role of the rational will and other appetities to be reckoned with. Thus teaching involves a good amount of motivation by value presentation and value illustration, the latter especially by personal and other attractive examples. Furthermore, to be in any sense permanently successful in terms of the student's development, teaching requires in the learning student the influence of good moral habits on the basis of which a steady and well-ordered learning effort may be made. Example here again may play an effective role.

(1) Cf. Vincent Smith, "The School Examined - Its Aim and Content", Milwaukee, Bruce, 1960, pp. 5. ff.

Even if one restricts the school function to the academic area as per our analysis, the school's group living, its group approaches and procedures may provide many opportunities for the acquisition of such moral habits, of which the teacher could avail himself. To the extent that the teacher is called upon to exercise leadership and other functions of an administrative nature in relation to the coordination of the group with which he is confronted, student participation in such administrative functions is natural enough and may be a helpful device in the fostering of such habits.

2.) The teacher's academic function in its exercise responds to a need, and supplements the undeveloped powers of self-discovery in the student. The student's need for authoritative and competent assistance should as a result of effective teaching efforts correspondingly diminish in those respective areas of his intellectual development in which such efforts are made.

Needs follow uneven diminishing patterns and the teacher's problem is that of "measuring" the individual progress made. It also is the problem of knowing when to stop, and when to move the student on, e.g. to a higher grade.

Standards may be set and enforced, but the individual particularities in a given situation need to be taken into account. And after all, the school, however specialized its function is interpreted to be, fits into the larger context of the total process of education, the end of which is the self-developed and stably self-developing person, developing toward personal maturity and fulfillment. The school's end is not found in its own benefit, apart from this.

The teacher is inevitably called upon to be the judge of his own success in terms of standards which have been set and evidence of progress which may be required. This is a hazardous situation to be in, and one in which undue subjectiveness and arbitrariness is to be carefully avoided as much as possible. The safety-valve of some form of appeal against decisions merits serious consideration with regard to matters such as these. Due consideration of the particularities of the case must be weighed against standards and measurements of progress and its evidence, as laid down.

If a teacher's all-round competence is required anywhere for a successful role performance, it is especially required here. A competent "measurement" of the extent of need to justify continued role performance in the concrete presents a taxing problem. It behooves the teacher to develop to a high degree the ability to "stop, look and listen" before proceeding further.

If a healthy self-effort and a ready process of interiorization of directions and guidance offered is to result, any real evidence perceived by the student of such due consideration of and adaptation to particularities can be expected to contribute to this process enormously. A common principle in administrative law states that "justice not only must be done, it must be seen to be done". The principle illustrates the point we are trying to make here(1)

(1) The reference is here, of course, to British Common Law.

Section B. THE EXERCISE OF ADMINISTRATIVE AUTHORITY.

We have identified the administrative role first as a generic type concerned with the coordination or support of group efforts. Within this type we tried, in Section C of the preceding chapter to identify specific roles with reference to the school. These roles are thus, in relation to a school, academically or educationally administrative to a greater or lesser degree, or more or less directly educational or academic in nature.

Some of these roles may be educational or academic to such an extent or in so direct a fashion that they need to be essentially performed by educators or teachers, with presumably a degree of organizational leadership on the part of someone acting in an administrative capacity.

Other roles are such as to require primarily the attention of an administrator, without however ruling out, with regard to a school, the desirability of expert academic or educational advice.

Let us relist the roles or functions enumerated in the previous chapter in a slightly different fashion now, to suit our present purpose. The first one, that of coordinating the teaching effort of teachers, can be combined with the second, that of coordinating the learning efforts of students as a group, into one role which is essentially one of

(1) TIME TABLING and THE ALLOCATION OF SPACE AND ASSETS.

The third role, that of coordinating the academic program can be performed at the level of the school as a whole, as well as in relation to individual students, Thus we have

(2) SCHOOL PROGRAM COORDINATION, or curriculum functions, and

(3) INDIVIDUAL STUDENT PROGRAM COORDINATION.

This role does not belong here. A further remark or two will be made about it below, after which we must leave it to the exercise of the teaching function, as in the preceding section.

The fourth role, that which more particularly envisions the development of the school as a whole, can be distinguished into two types as follows: there is the need for:

(4) A DIRECTLY ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT OF THE SCHOOL, ESPECIALLY IN ITS TEACHING AND LEARNING PERSONNEL; and the need for

(5) THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE SUPPORT FUNCTIONS; and of the material assets and resources of the school.

With reference to the common good and the school's place in relation to the public interest, we may distinguish the fifth role into

(6) INTER-SCHOOL COORDINATION, and what may be described as

(7) SCHOOL FUNCTIONS IMMEDIATELY SERVING THE PUBLIC INTEREST.

What pertains to mere order among students as a group and is not immediately academic or educational in character (although presumably usable for such purposes) we may leave to a student council, along with the provision

of additional services to the student body. A few separate paragraphs will be devoted to this below, under No. (8), to see if a wider student role is not defensible or advisable in the concrete.

We will return to the exercise of each of the above roles. First, we are reminded of the fact that all such functions, apart from the third one, involve the group aspect directly and necessarily, unlike the teaching function. Knowledge being a personal acquisition, the teaching function as such involves initially or of itself but a person-to-person relationship, even though the teacher in a school confronts the group by virtue of the very arrangement that is the school. Even then, he does not teach a group; he teaches individuals in a group.

Here the reference is to functions which involve the group aspect essentially and immediately from the beginning. On this basis, the No. (3) role, listed above, belongs more properly to the teaching function. It does not need to be considered any further here. We will leave it to the qualified guidance activities of the teacher or the guidance specialist. If necessary, the school administrator as such may have to see to it that this role is performed competently and with due consideration for the time table as set up, the available resources and talents, and for any social implications which may be involved in the choice of careers. Outside advice, e.g. from business or industry, or from social authorities, is often essential.

ad 1) TIME TABLING and THE ALLOCATION OF SPACE
AND ASSETS.

If the school administrative function can be said to involve a delicate balancing of values as represented by the interests of teachers, students and any other interested parties such as the parents, the State or the Church, such a balancing role seems essential in this particular function.

It can be described as "directional" balancing in as much as this work aims at the wellbeing and efficient functioning of schools by way of coordination. The aim involves the effectiveness of teachers and the maximum possible intellectual development of students under the circumstances and in respect of their talents. Also involved is the public interest, always indirectly, and remotely, but sometimes more directly.

But this is primarily an ordering functioning internal to the school. It results in properly coordinated teaching and learning efforts in the group toward the maximum possible effectiveness of the work of teachers and students.

As an organizational or ordering function, it properly enlists the cooperation of both teachers and students to ensure practicality and workability. They may be suitably consulted, and asked to participate in this work, done on their behalf, at least in a representative manner. The aim is to make the time table, the schedule, the allocation of space and facilities practically workable.

It will be so, and is more likely to be concretely reasonable to the degree of participation and of agreement reached on these matters.

Everyone's continued cooperation is more likely to result from such an accomodating approach to the coordination of activities according to time and space.

ad 2) SCHOOL PROGRAM COORDINATION : THE CURRICULUM
FUNCTION.

Considered primarily from the school's internal point of view, this particular organizational function, administrative in relation to the school as a whole, is also formally academic in character. It determines and circumscribes the total teaching effort directly. It requires the services of especially competent academicians acting in an administrative capacity, or else an administrator who, while providing organizational leadership, relies heavily on the work being done, or the advice being provided by experts in this field.

By way of illustration, the curriculum functions are suitably performed internally on the university level by a specializing committee of the Senate as an academic body. The Senate itself shares the dual characteristics which accompany the combination of administrative and academic functions. It moves in the academic area in relation to the whole school. As a governing body it should represent the result of a leadership designating function exercised by the teaching staff.

A particularly specialized school function, available resources, and, outside the school, the interests of the community at large, and of the State or the Church may all have to be taken into account in practical curriculum work.

As specialists, those who perform curriculum functions need to be especially mindful of the importance of a properly integrated intellectual development on the part of the student. This integration needs to be pursued

in as complete a fashion as practically possible. It will be as complete as the school's particular function, specialized in view of any practically necessary inter-school program coordination, will allow. Various economic and social realities may be expected to impose severe limitations in practice upon what may be considered ideal in these matters. Careful compromises have to be worked out in the concrete, allowing for various possible compensatory arrangements.

Thus also, the participation or practical advice of those responsible for other administrative school roles, especially those engaged in various supporting functions, of inter-school committees, and of social authorities outside the school, as required, needs to be welcomed by any body of educational specialists working in this field.

Curricula cannot very well be developed in a vacuum. Or rather, they can, and may be for general guiding purposes. But they should not be so developed in practice.

Here again, long-term practical workability depends heavily on the participation of all those who are in some way concerned with this work on the basis of their respective delegated or assigned responsibilities. This applies to long-term curriculum policy planning, as well as to a more short-range handling of problems arising in this area. It applies whether this work is done inside or outside a particular educational institution.

The former is more often than not the case at university level, and by way of illustration several recommendations in the already referred to Duff-Berashl Report may be considered relevant here. One can think e.g.

of their views favouring 1) the specialist Senate Curriculum Committee set up on an inter-faculty basis; 2) the principle of teaching faculty rotation in this body to develop a wide basis of expertise and to foster wide allegiance and cooperation; 3) some expert Board representation on the Senate; 4) wide academic, but "non-partisan" competence represented on provincial advisory committees working in this general area, and so on. (1)

By-passing No. 3, as indicated before, we can proceed with the next heading.

(1) "The Duff-Berdahl Report", pp. 20, 51, 56, 79ff.

ad 4) DIRECTLY ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT OF THE SCHOOL :
ITS PERCOLATION.

Again we are dealing with an administrative function in respect to the school as a whole which requires such academic or educational expertise, as was the case with the curriculum function which is another particularization of this role.

Again the integrated intellectual development of human beings makes its demands here, as it is the school's purpose, and to be realized by way of effective teaching work. So do various social considerations such as inter-school coordination and the public interest at large. Other practical matters need to be considered in the concrete exercise of this function such as those taken up in particular under the next heading.

Here, this specialized development of the school as a whole in its academic aspect involves by way of important illustrations such particular functions as relate to school development, especially with reference to teaching standards and teaching effectiveness, and to entrance requirements, especially in relation to learning standards and learning effectiveness. It also involves curriculum development as mentioned and referred to above.

Most of what was said in respect of the latter applies here. Just as is the case with curriculum development, any wider academic development of the school, whether short- or long-range, envisages ultimately the intellectual development of students who come to the school to learn.

It thus also envisions the effectiveness of teachers as a means to this end.

If teachers are to be effective, the work load has to be effectively distributed among competent teachers who must be recruited in sufficient numbers to adequately meet the demands on their services. Teacher recruitment and certification is an administrative function in view of the effectiveness of the school as a whole. It requires considerable participation of, and advice from, academic personnel, both in consideration of the academically technical aspects of this work, requiring competence, and in view of practically ensuring a cooperative atmosphere. Thus, e. . University Faculty Deans are found to recruit staff, taking into consideration the advice of department heads, who in their turn suitably consult their staff.

The staffing function being clearly related to curriculum and program development, to the number of students, and to the resources as available, it is equally clear that further advice needs to be sought in additional quarters. Competent staff recruiting is thus not only academically able recruiting but also practically prudent recruiting in terms of actual needs and actual means of meeting them. Here as everywhere else, the theoretical ideal guides practice, but practice is compromise and adjustment.

Student performance development can only come in the wake of the competent academic development of the school, first of all considered, after the curriculum, in terms of competent staffing and competent teaching, and of careful academic organization generally. This is of course allowing for the student's native ability, and for other

factors of an environmental nature, both internal and external to the school, which may foster or impede such development.

But both in the case of teachers and students, faulty admission or recruitment policies, or faulty performance assessment and promotion procedures may vitiate the best intentions had in this area. There will be individual and social particularities in the concrete which again can be expected to impose their limitations on any ideals held in these matters. Apart from this, the administrative role performance in this area, as in others, depends for its success on several other factors.

Formally, considered, as an authority role, in relation to the group, it may impose admission conditions or performance standards upon both teachers and students in an obligatory fashion. Qualifications laid down as part of admission or recruitment procedures cannot in practice be decided upon in a vacuum apart from individual and social particularities, as mentioned above. But once in the school, both teachers and students remain subject to further performance assessments in the light of standards.

The setting of such standards, while an administrative function exercised in relation to the school as a whole, in its interest as described in terms of student development, and in the interest of equity, is a highly specialized one. It involves the balancing of the demands of equity and the interest of the school as a whole, as seen from the administrative point of view, against the actual development of individual students and the actual effectiveness of teachers.

For this function to be competently performed,

competent and practically relevant participation or advice are required. For standards to be effectively applied in practice for any length of time, for standards to be adhered or lived up to, for standards to result ultimately and effectively in actual student development following a successful teaching effort, this participation is equally important.

Cooperation from the beginning on the part of all those concerned on the basis of their respective responsibilities or obligations is likely to result in continued cooperation subsequently. The process of interiorization is at the centre of any successful authoritative approach. We shall return to student participation under 10. 3.

Again with special reference to the university, several recommendations of the Duff-Berdahl Report illustrate the point. Thus it recommends, e.g. various degrees of teaching staff participation in the appointment of administrators or administrative bodies directly involved with such academic standard setting, e.g. Deans or Senates. Some of the Report's recommendations in favour of participation illustrate an implied awareness, although somewhat unconscious perhaps, of the source of the administrative role in relation to the group. More often there is explicit awareness of the desirability of participation in view of the special competence which is involved, and of a ready cooperation which is to be achieved. (1)

(1) "The Duff-Berdahl Report", cf. pp. 29, 48, 51.

It is recalled again that "competence" has nothing to do with the valid establishment of administrative or educational authority roles. It has plenty to do with the practical morality and efficiency of role establishment, as well as with the practical effectiveness of its exercise; and so do actual needs and actual means of meeting them.

Thus, again largely for immediately practical reasons of efficiency and workability the report recommends staff participation in the matter of standard setting, especially by way of the Senate and its committees. (1)

(1) Opus. cit., pp. 25-30.

ad 5) DEVELOPMENT OF THE SUPPORT FUNCTIONS :
MATERIAL ASSETS AND RESOURCES.

Several roles, sometimes very diverse in appearance, may enter to support the school as a whole in its academic work. In relation to the school as a whole they belong to the administrative type of role and derive their origins ultimately from the group as source. They are established by way of some common agreement, or by way of further administrative appointment subsequently. These further appointments are ultimately valid only by way of reference to the original social agreement which gives rise to the administrative position as such.

Such appointments are competently and properly made to the extent that competence is involved in their establishment and to the degree that the requirements of the social virtues, e.g. distributive justice, are observed. The word "competence" is thus seen to have its wide and its narrow interpretations. It may refer to "technical" or academic ability, it may refer to the characteristics of prudence and other virtues required in practice. Practice may refer to role establishment; it may refer to role exercise.

Subsequent role exercise is practically competent, sound and moral to the degree of fittingness in the response to actual needs. Besides any technical ability or competence in that sense which may be required, such fittingness implies as its principal characteristics an adaptation to the particularities of actual needs duly weighed against the requirements of administrative equity, as well as any approach that will lead to or increase the

likelihood of the proper processes of interiorization.

Not any approach is legitimate or will lead to such proper processes. Bribery or blackmail are obvious examples of the wrong approach. Involved here is the age-old administrative problem of weighing private advantage against common interests. Not even the most satisfactory philosophical solutions can here be a substitute for a highly developed **d**egree of prudence. (1)

Let us return to administrative roles which support the academic school functions. They must support the teaching functions as well as school-wide academic functions of an administrative nature; certainly not the latter at the expense of the former, but to the support of the former. It is the teaching function which most immediately affects and effects the school's purpose in terms of the student's intellectual development.

Administrative positions in the present area of our concern are to a lesser or greater degree related to the academic function. Thus they range from maintenance supervisors, business officers, public relations or development officers, and a Board, all the way to the administrative functions of the librarian. In the library, two types of functions coalesce in a peculiar way. The library's position in the school, although it supports the teaching function, also shares in it. The printed word can "teach" as well as the spoken word. But the latter has all the advantages of tangibility and living example over the former.

(1) Cf. J. Maritain, "The Person and the Common Good", London, G. Bless, 1948, pp. 34 ff. cf. J. Messner, op.cit., pp. 129ff.

Corresponding to the varying degree of directness in their relationship with the teaching function, these various supporting roles require varying degrees of academic competence and participation in their performance if the latter is to be ultimately effective in terms of a contribution to the purpose of the school.

This participation is desirable, even in the matter of establishment, at least of some of these positions. Thus, for a number of primarily practical reasons in the interest of cooperation, communication, and mutual knowledgeability, the Duff-Berdahl report recommends faculty representation on the board by way of senate appointments. Such a recommendation is also well in line with the idea that the academic group as such is at least one valid source of administrative roles; along with the State as an external secondary source, as we have seen, when it acts on behalf of the public in the public interest.

But any such internal participation in the establishment of such leadership functions as are associated with an administrative board conversely requires an appropriate competence in the participators. In order to competently and properly participate there must be an appropriate degree of familiarity with such positions and the responsibilities entailed. Sound judgment is here proportionately as important as it is in the case of establishing social authority in a society. A degree of development in the people and in the group is required for any practical participation. The appropriate illustration here indeed comes to us from the field of politics. It can be said of the democratic form of Government that it is philosophically defensible and suitable to man. But practically it is not always viable, e.g. in cases of an under developed

juridical and social consciousness on the part of a people, not to mention conditions of social upheaval. (1)

Similarly, familiarity with at least some support functions is especially required on the part of certain academically administrative role exercisers. For example, how could additional teaching staff be realistically recruited without familiarity with available resources, assets and facilities?

Similarly, a degree of practical familiarity with the school as seen from the administrator's point of view is required on the part of those who otherwise validly participate in the election of Deans or others engaged in Department, Faculty or University - wide administrative positions and responsibilities.

In any case, any degree of participation and involvement is practically useful in terms of cooperation to be achieved and of the process of interiorization leading to such cooperation.

(1) Cf. J. Messner, "Social Ethics", ed.cit., p. 605.

ad 6) INTER - SCHOOL COORDINATION.

This is an administrative function that must weigh the benefit of a given school in relation to that of other schools, and the benefit of all schools in relation to the public interest. It is thus a social authority function as well.

Responsibilities for the exercise of this role may come by express delegation from the State to the school administrator, although the latter as a citizen, and in view of the school's contribution to the common good cannot consider himself void of all responsibility in this area from the start.

However, as citizens properly pursue their private interest and as groups do the same if society is not to look like a Maleoranchean world, a causal wasteland; and as school administrators properly pursue the interest of their own schools if the educational world is not to assume similar features, so social authority is properly in special charge of the public interest and is legitimately concerned with the education of the citizens as an important aspect of the common good.

Thus the state may require inter-school cooperation, especially in view of program coordination, where it is not forthcoming, and will encourage it and assist it where such cooperation exists. Obviously, the public will benefit from a good supply of educators who are administratively able and willing in this area.

The academic administrator, private or public, should he lack some academic expertise himself e.g. regarding the matter of curriculum coordination or regarding degrees of uniformity in admission standards, is often in the fortunate position of being able to draw upon the specialized competence of educators or academic experts in these areas.

In practice, he is well advised to enlist the cooperation of all who can be of use regarding these matters, whether he himself is expert or not. This, of course, is advisable in view of the subsequent workability of any program of coordination. Teachers will have to teach, admission officers will have to admit within the context of such programs. Their participation from the start, to the degree that this is possible or can be made possible, will make their subsequent cooperation much more likely. Similar considerations apply to the use of those in various administrative supporting functions.

Thus, e.g. some governmental representation on a University Board may be quite suitable for the purpose of presenting the public interest aspect from a government point of view. And if this is not necessary in order to encourage inter-school coordination, it is desirable because so much of the public revenue is spent on education. Conversely, e.g. the Duff-Berdahl Report recommends University participation on provincial advisory committees occupying themselves with university affairs. And this with equal plausibility. It is all in the interest of competent and effective role exercise. (1)

(1) "The Duff-Berdahl Report", pp. 76ff.

ad 7) SCHOOL FUNCTIONS IMMEDIATELY SERVING THE
PUBLIC INTEREST.

Much the same considerations as above apply here. The contemporary school is called upon to serve its environment not only indirectly by way of the suitable intellectual preparation of students as persons and useful citizens of tomorrow, but also directly.

It is asked to engage in community services of various kinds, to conduct research programs for the benefit of the social group and social life, and to lend its facilities for the adequate preparation of the professional servants of the State and the common good.

The cooperation of the academic and other staff is required in view of academic or other aspects of such programs. Various supporting, administrative roles must play their part if such programs are not to exceed the bounds of economic realism, or unduly interfere with the school's normal operations. Here again maximum possible participation as this is feasible from the start is an important key to subsequent cooperation.

ad 3) THE STUDENT ROLE.

It was thought desirable to return to the student role separately. Earlier we were reminded that students may validly exercise their role as source of coordinating and supporting authority in non-academic areas, and properly so in accordance with their degree of development.

With regard to the proper exercise of student authority, one must of course always allow for the wider responsibilities in relation to the school as a whole on the part of school authorities. Students are not just a group, but a group of students within a school. Thus student coordinating or service bodies, operating within the wider content of the school are properly required to take direction from such authorities where this is needed. What they do among themselves in the context of the school should ultimately serve the purpose of the school, and may certainly not impede it.

Is there a wider student role than this, e.g. at a higher or university level? Is there room for further participation on their part to the extent that they are no longer "instruendi" but "instrueti", or no longer "educandi" but "educati"? We are here not concerned about the use of students by the development or public relations office. We are here interested in student participation in the exercise of administrative authority roles more directly related to their academic efforts. And we are here talking about their participation, not a vicarious participation as e.g. by alumni on their behalf, or by someone on the staff on their behalf, although such would here depend on actual procedure.

Phrasing the question in terms of a concrete example, we might ask if students themselves could be asked to share in the making of decisions on academic performance standards or their schoolwide enforcement. Such participation, as would be the case in vicarious participation, would presumably foster the process of interiorization and a readiness in the group to maintain cooperative attitudes.

It remains however that such decisions are authority decisions in the area of educational administration where the mere fact of relative student competence does not give rise to such a participating role. That applies to a group of teachers as an internal source of authority roles in academic administration does not apply to students as such. Whereas teachers on this basis and in consideration of their competence properly participate in such decision making, students do not, at least not in the making of the decision as such.

It might be objected that if it were not for a large group of students being present, there would not be a group of teachers, as a group giving rise to the academic-administrative role, thus arising in its establishment, and hence in practice suitably consulted in the exercise of such a role in consideration of their competence and in view of their subsequent cooperation. But this would look like an argument of "Post Hoc, Ergo Propter Hoc". The student group and the student's need for academic assistance is not the efficient cause but the occasion for the academic-administrative role establishment.

But if there is no student role in the making of the decision as such, there is a student role prior to the

decision, or in the course of its preparation. It is the virtue of prudence which suggests to the academic administrator the advisability, not only of teacher but also of student consultation prior to arriving at a decision. The decision is his, but it may suitably be expected to be coloured by the relevant facts and other considerations.

Such decisions are to be practically reasonable in terms of the total concrete context which includes the student who is to abide by the decision. It is not difficult for administrators to overlook some concrete aspects in a situation. A course load may look reasonable, yet after listening to a student it may not look quite so, if all circumstances are taken into account. A standard of performance may appear equally reasonable, yet after listening to students, again it does not always appear quite so.

Students thus appear to be suitably involved, if not in the actual decision, at least in what precedes it. What precedes the prudent decision among other things is wise consultation. If it is wise, such consultation will involve listening to students as well as to educators, or teachers or other experts in positions of authority. They are all part of the concrete context in which the decision must operate.

In view of such considerations as the preceding, it is not surprising to find the Duff-Crichton report devoting an entire section to the question of student participation in university government. The Report's considerations are to a large extent prompted by wide-spread student unrest. The recommendations are in line with what was said above, and seek to improve lines of communication in view

of channeling student sentiment constructively. (1)

In concluding this section thus, we may observe that every feasible form of student participation can contribute to the end of education and the effectiveness of the particular school function. The school represents a cooperative effort in the search for truth in the grasping of which the student is (in line with the school's particular purpose), the principal agent, as well as on this basis the principal architect of his future. The life of a man will be as good as the intellect which constructs it and the experience which precedes it. Thus a defensible approach which will foster a cooperative spirit in the school will contribute to the school's purpose and is thereby recommended.

(1) "The Duff-Berdahl Report", pp. 65-67.

Section C: MIXING OF ROLES IN EXERCISE.

At first, it appears perhaps that this section would merely involve a convenient summary of previous material as recapitulated once more from the point of view of roles as mixed in their exercise.

E.g., it could be pointed out again that, in practice, teachers inevitably educate in a wider sense, that academic institutions turn out to be educational ones, that administrators end up educating and that teachers end up in administrative positions. Obviously, mixtures and shades are multiple and varied.

The need for competence in prudent role exercise has pointed time and again to the advisability of cross-consultation, participation and cooperation in practice.

More fundamental reasons for role mixtures are found in the nature of the school itself, and in the nature of man. The school, as a grouping arrangement and thus in need of administrative coordination and support, brings together both those engaged in teaching and those engaged in learning. With regard to man, human nature and its assets, the concrete existence and operations of human beings also account for this coalescing.

Again, school authority roles tend to be mixed because of the overlapping of their sources. Administrative roles derive from groups within the school, and from society at large by way of the State. Academic authority roles may derive from parental sources directly, or indirectly by

way of State or Church, although the latter two may act as "part-time" direct sources, as we have seen.

There is one type of case we have not dealt with in connection with educational or academic authority exercise because it falls outside this scope strictly speaking. It is the case of the adult.

That adults come under administrative authority as members of a group is clear. In this respect they constitute no exception to the foregoing considerations. Less obvious, however, is the fact that adults may choose to submit themselves to further academic training as voluntary partners to a contract. The teaching or instructional authority does not here fulfill its functions authoritative in the same sense as taken in this essay. The voluntary aspect of the contract prevents this in as much as it is entered into by the adult on his own and in as much as the teacher does not act as parental delegate, or as delegate of social authority.

Teaching in cases like this cannot be an exercise of authority except to the extent that the adult wishes it to be. Of itself, it is in such cases an exercise of competence only. It becomes a social service, rendered on the basis of a free contract, by someone who is in possession of something and who makes it available to someone else in return for monetary compensation. Competence affects the product, hence raises the value of the contract. The contract here involves making use of the advantages of competence only, not, additionally, the exercise of authority on behalf of parents or others as in other cases dealt

with in this essay. Such obligatory features as are entailed in the contract and in the carrying out of it derive from its terms. There is the obligation to deliver and to accept as per terms agreed upon. This obviously points to the importance of having all the terms clearly spelled out in detail prior to the conclusion of the contract.

There is one other obviously important point, relevant to this essay on authority roles, which must be made here. It is the fact that people do not become adults suddenly on a given day in their lives. We need not elaborate on this point and on its obvious implications for practice. The fact stands as a formidable challenge to any educational authority which makes an honest effort to adapt itself continuously in its role exercise to the facts of life.

Having said this much with regard to this special case, we return to school authority roles. We have tried to proceed from a consideration of the realities involved to some conclusions regarding the exercise of authority roles in schools. Before concluding this essay, it may be useful to look back upon these roles in the light of practice thus considered. Let us therefore first attempt a hopefully more succinct and useful summary re-statement of role distinctions as follows:

We dealt with two basic types of authority roles: educational and social, different according to their source, their nature and purpose, and consequently in their exercise. But in spite of all differences in exercise, there were basic similarities in the approach to and the methods of role exercise as authority exercise.

1. Educational authority was seen to derive by way of delegation from the parents as an original and comprehensive educational authority source. On the basis of our analysis of the school function we have restricted ourselves as much as possible to a particular type of this role, namely teaching authority. In this connection it was necessary to refer to the Church and the State as additional partial sources of this role on the basis of their normal respective responsibilities as incurred. These two bodies are not always only additional sources. They are also found to act vicariously on the basis of a wider parental delegation or, as with the state, because of parental default. Making use of available competence is of paramount importance in any exercise of roles incurred by these bodies, just as competence is a normal requirement for parental-educational, or teaching role exercise. The goal in all exercise of educational authority roles ultimately remains what it is: the maturely fulfilled person, whatever dimensions this is capable of acquiring.

Social authority was seen to derive from the group as source, and as original designator at least by consent, further roles of this type being assigned in the name and on behalf of the group for the sake of its coordination or support.

In the school as a particular social form, it became necessary to further distinguish between teacher and student source groups. Although the two groups may be considered jointly, as engaged in a cooperative academic enterprise, the work still centres primarily around student intellectual development as a goal. Thus the position of authority in relation to students still to be educated or taught forces

this additional distinction upon us. We are therefore not referring to such things as common research projects shared between equals; but there are borderline cases and shaded areas, and leadership does not necessarily have to be thought of in terms of authority. It may be exercised on the basis of an advantage in competence or moral assets, and as the result of contracts.

Again in the school, particular roles of the social authority type were found in various administrative roles and in further positions as established by administrators on behalf of the group in the interest of its coordination and support. If a distinction is maintained, as above, between teachers in authority on the one hand, and students on the other, only the former are found to be a group source of those administrative roles which are academic in character. The latter are distinguished from non-academic administrative positions which may arise from either teacher or student source groups considered as social groups only, e.g. to the extent that they operate outside the proper academic school context. Again in practice borderline cases and grey areas develop. In addition, the above refers to sources internal to the school only. There are others as we have seen. E.g. the State may act as source of administrative positions on behalf of the wider social group it represents.

The particular purpose of the educational authority role in the school, which as per our analysis is a teaching role, is the intellectual development of persons. The particular purpose of the social authority role in the school, i.e. the academic-administrative type, is the academic well-being of 2 groups in the school: i.e. immediately the success of the teaching efforts, and

through it the success of the learning efforts, on the part of teachers and students respectively.

2. Basic facts which account for complications in role structures and which must be kept in mind to avoid confusion are as follows:

There is the fact that teachers as individuals occupy teaching authority positions, while as a group in the school they give rise to the academic-administrative authority role. Here two basic types of authority roles meet to that extent, the one as exercised, the other in its source.

In the former case, the teacher meets a student who is the principal efficient cause of his own learning and general development. The student's need is both occasion for a competent teaching effort, and the justification for its continuation. While this is so, and while continually assessing the need correctly is very difficult, teaching authority is validly exercised only on the basis of delegation, not on the basis of an original jurisdiction. The mere fact of competence in the teacher does not cause the validity of the exercise. Apart from this is the case of a voluntary, mutual contract set between the teacher and the "adult" student himself.

Competence may enter as a consideration in the process of delegation; it may even be made a clear condition of delegated authority role exercise. Competence presumably enters as a consideration for delegating to this rather than that person, other circumstances allowing for the choice. In the latter case, that of a direct student-teacher contract, competence presumably enters the terms of the contract as well, at least implicitly. But here the exercise is not an authority exercise (except in the administrative area), only an exercise of relevant academic

competence.

With regard to administrative authority, the needs of both teachers' and students' groups are occasion for the activities of administrators and justify their continuation. But only the teachers' group, apart from external sources, is source of academic-administrative authority roles. For non-academic administrative authority roles the students' group can serve as source when such an administrative role envisions the good of the students' group. However, administrative roles which envision the good of the whole school, including teachers and students, and which are not academic in character may, to the extent that they are not, involve both groups as source. Problems occur with respect to the type and degree of relatedness of such roles to the academic enterprise. They may exhibit various degrees of a directly academic or merely supportive nature.

3. Such complex features in and among role structures as summarily referred to above complicate the exercise of the roles. While all forms of participation are generally laudable in view of effective and long-term efficient role exercise, such participation is differently based on different types of cases as should now be evident.

Some forms of participation in authority role exercise go back in their basis to the source of the role. Thus we have Parents-Teachers Associations. Some forms of participation go back to some kind of share in the establishment of roles, ranging from a constitutive consent down to simply providing the occasion for it by presenting a need which requires assistance.

Some participation in actual authority role exercise, preferably a competent participation, should be constitutive of the very authoritative decision itself, while other forms of participation, e.g. in consultation, is "merely" required by prudence in the preparation of the wise decision.

Some participation is essential, as it is e.g. on the part of the student in the teaching-learning situation, while in other cases it must depend on a host of relevant circumstances which must be taken into consideration; e.g. the degree of development, personal or social, in a group, or the availability of talent or even of facilities.

In practice all internal school authority roles, when exercised, are related. They are related, if not in their origin, or by way of their respective immediate objects, whether essentially or accidentally, then at least by virtue of the fact that they are all performed within the

atmosphere and structural context of the school and its total complex of functions and relationships. On this basis, everyone's cooperation is apt to involve a degree of importance if the school is to contribute as effectively as possible to the development of human beings by way of its special emphasis on intellectual formation.

CONCLUDING REMARKS.

In concluding this essay, let us return to two important features in all competent authority exercise in practice, namely "interiorization" and "adaptation".

Competent authority exercise in practice involves much prudence. This virtue points out the desirability of adaptation, in the service of interiorization. A careful allowing for the concrete particularities of the case will go a long way toward the free inward adoption of any necessary decisions.

Authority, once validly obtained in terms of a specific role, indeed involves the general obligation to act according to its specific capacity. Correspondingly involved on the part of those subject to it is the obligation to obedience and respect to which authority has a right.

But in consideration of the autonomy that is proper to human beings, authority is circumscribed in its concrete exercise by actual needs to which it must respond. The principle of subsidiarity, as applicable to authority exercise, is described in terms of needs for which authority supplies by direction, assistance or support.

Authority role response to actual need involves the special competence required in view of the nature of the need and of the nature of the role. But concrete response also involves the practical "competence" of prudence.

Prudence demands a concrete response in consideration

of actual needs in concrete situations. It requires the adaptation of the response to such needs so situated. It carefully weighs stability or uniformity as against flexibility in terms of time, place and persons in their concrete condition.

E.g. Social authority is called upon not only to legislate the norm competently and wisely: it must also see to it that competent and wise judgments are made in its concrete application. Similarly, educational authority may lay down a general norm to be observed by the educand; it must also know how to apply it from day to day.

An authoritative decision made in applying a general rule constitutes a case by itself and those to be made subject to it are apt to rebel against routine general considerations and against facile or superficial judgments made on the basis of generalities.

Rebellion is the opposite of interiorization. If example can be a powerful force in achieving interiorization, it should start at an early point, namely in the form of a conscientious and gradually competent authority role performance at the stage where decisions are being made on norms or on their concrete application. Only this will inspire in those to be subject to the decision that confidence which is such a helpful prelude to interiorization, i.e. to their ready inward adoption of the decision.

There are other connected roads which lead to this same interiorization, e.g. to a perfection of the subject's freedom of choice, to his willingness and readiness to make the norm or the decision his own. We have been able to point to these roads throughout this essay. The

"techniques" of consultation, the constant effort to improve and maintain communication, the ready invitation to participate are all so many ways of helping to turn heteronomy into autonomy as much as possible.

All this applies not only to social authority exercise. Also with regard to the teacher the critical question will be, to borrow someone else's phraseology: "Shall he, the teacher, the "law", impose himself, his views, his knowledge, from the outside, as one who is exterior to freedom, restraining it, compelling it? Or shall he become interior to this other self, not by imposing himself, but in such a way that the student remains himself, and is himself discovering the truth? Finally, the teacher will relive his thinking before the student, and the latter will freely and spontaneously relive it as his own". (1) Only when this happens, will the externality and pressure of the law vanish. It needs to vanish if a person is to grow; i.e. if a person is to achieve his maturity and his ultimate fulfillment.

(1) William F. Lynch, "The Problem of Freedom", in "Theology Digest", Vol. IX, No.3, (Autumn 1961) p.185.

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