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THE MONROE COUNTY INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL DISTRICT:

A CASE STUDY

by

Donald A. Spencer

Dissertation

Submitted to the Department of Leadership and Counseling

Eastern Michigan University

In partial fulfillment of the requirements

For the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

November 20, 2008

Ypsilanti, Michigan

APPROVAL

THE MONROE COUNTY INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL DISTRICT:

A CASE STUDY

By

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to the memory of my mother and father, Phyllis and Richard Spencer, who always believed in me and instilled in me my respect for the teaching profession; to my mother- and father-in-law, Phyllis and Paul Hebert, who encouraged me and have made me their son; to my wife, Carol, and children Kacie, Rich, and Katie, who have supported me in so many ways during this long and challenging journey. You mean everything to me.

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First and foremost, there is Dr. James Barott, my committee chair. When I met Dr. Barott I was adrift in my research without much of an idea of the work that would be necessary if I pursued the subject matter I ultimately chose, the Monroe County Intermediate School District. Soon, after mutually agreeing to work together, I learned of the depth of his knowledge and the passion he has for learning. His probing questions, unqualifying support, and friendship allowed me to grow in ways I never imagined. I will forever be indebted to Dr. Barott for the intellectual doors he opened for me throughout the research process.

Dr. Jaclyn Tracy, Department Chairperson and member of my dissertation committee, must also be singled out for her unwavering support of me during this arduous research journey. Dr. Tracey’s wisdom strengthened me on more than one occasion when I doubted myself.

I must also thank my other dissertation committee members, Dr. David Anderson and Dr. John Palladino, who challenged me to strengthen the intellectual rigor of my study by asking questions and offering suggestions that I have pondered throughout the analysis of the data associated with this research. The process of understanding the complexities of educational leadership and governance demanded that I challenge myself, and they led me to do just that.

There were also many in Monroe whom I must acknowledge. The support of the Monroe County Intermediate School District Board of Education and my Administrative

Assistants, Karen Halstead and Andrea Murphy, was simply outstanding. These people understood the significance of my understanding the Monroe County Intermediate School District and the importance of this research to our community. Their support of me never wavered – I think. To all of these individuals, I say “thank you” for being at my side throughout the research process.

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ABSTRACT

Background: Throughout the history of public education in Michigan, there has been an intermediate unit of educational government. This unit of educational government exists between the State Department of Education and the local school districts. Currently, there are fifty-seven intermediate school districts in Michigan providing educational services and governance functions.

Purpose: The purpose of this study was to understand the Monroe County Intermediate School District in order to inform educational leadership.

Research Design: This study was an interpretive, historical case study. The study explored the manner in which culture was perpetuated via the system of education in Monroe, Michigan, throughout history.

Conclusions:

- The nature of educational governance is found in the myths and belief systems of the people and the ideological techniques used to control the educational environment. The nature of educational governance is to perpetuate culture. The question at issue is whose culture?
- The ideological foundations of Michigan's Public Education System are:
 - Protestant-republican reform ideology
 - business-scientific ideology
 - municipal reform ideology
- The origin of the Monroe County Intermediate School District can be traced to 1867. The drift of educational governance has been away from local control. As the state has assumed more control of educational governance, the

Intermediate School District, put into place as a source of state control, has evolved into a local and state public policy entrepreneur.

- The dominant conflict this researcher found is that which exists between centralized versus local control. The question of who decides about educational matters has been the primary source of educational conflict.
- The educational governance role of the Monroe County Intermediate School District is to provide resources, govern the delivery of special education services, serve as a policy entrepreneur, and manage political conflict.
- The educational services role of the Monroe County Intermediate School District continues to evolve within the negotiated local educational arena and includes:
 - special education services
 - professional development services
 - Data processing services
 - Instructional technology services
 - Student enrichment services

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to understand the Monroe County Intermediate School District in order to inform educational leadership. In developing this understanding, the researcher examined the ideological foundations of Michigan's system of public education the manner in which ideology has impacted the educational governance and service functions of the Monroe County Intermediate School District, and the actions taken by certain actors, on behalf of the Monroe County Intermediate School District, to influence the development of public policy.

The Purpose of the Study

Since virtually the beginning of public education in Michigan, there has been a three-tiered system of educational governance. At the upper tier of the public education system lies the Governor, the legislature, the state board of education, and superintendent of public instruction: at its base is the local school district. Located at the mid or "intermediate" level is an organizational unit of educational government that has been referred to at various times as the county superintendent, the county board of school examiners, the county school commissioner, the county board of education, and, since 1962, the county intermediate school district. These intermediate units of educational government have had various responsibilities in assisting the State of Michigan in carrying out its constitutional and legislated functions. Given Michigan's historical political myth that public education is a local matter, those actors representing the intermediate units of educational government have provided local influence to educational policy development, governance, and the implementation of services at the state and local levels of the public education system (MacIver, 1965). The purpose of this study was to examine one of these intermediate units of educational government, the

Monroe County Intermediate School District. According to Iannaccone (1975), “The scientist’s goal is to understand how certain features of the world are related to other features so that he can explain how they operate and thus, make better predictions and enhance our control over them” (p. 13). This quote aptly describes the purpose of this research effort, which was to understand the Monroe County Intermediate School District through scientific inquiry. In this search for understanding the Monroe County Intermediate School District, I have studied the manner in which this organization has been impacted by ideological, political, social, and cultural factors at the state and local levels. This study will inform educational leaders of the influence of ideology upon educational policy development, governance, and services.

Significance of the Study

Understanding the politics of education is important to the educational leader who wishes to influence decision-making concerning today’s public schools. Iannaccone (1977) foresaw today’s highly politicized environment when he stated, “We are in the midst of a revolution in the politics of education that appears likely to lead to revolution in the character of educational government itself” (p. 51). According to Wirt and Kirst, (1997), “Once there had been a ‘steady state’ of education, in which professionals controlled most aspects of schooling with only minor influence from citizens or school boards. But today there are many signs of challenge to this steady state, indicators of an increased ‘political nature’ to schooling” (p. 3). To support these claims, one need only look so far as the Reauthorized Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 2001, referred to as the No Child Left Behind Act, arguably the nation’s most intrusive federal education legislation ever enacted, which has imposed testing mandates and penalties on local schools whose students fail to perform up to pre-determined unitary standards. The

State of Michigan has also recently implemented new and tougher graduation standards via the Michigan Merit Curriculum in response to the state's economic downturn. Imbedded within these legislative mandates are the ideological beliefs of those dominant policy entrepreneurs who engage in educational politics at the federal, state, and local levels of governance. The volatile political environment surrounding public education gave great urgency to the need to conduct this study within the field of educational politics. The significance of this study of the Monroe County Intermediate School District is heightened by the great turnover in leadership that the fifty-seven Michigan Intermediate School Districts have experienced. The Michigan Association of Intermediate School Administrators (7/26/08) reported that forty-eight of fifty-seven intermediate school districts have changed superintendents since the year 2000. This has created a political vulnerability for the intermediate unit of school governance due to a lack of knowledge concerning the ideological foundations of the intermediate school district's political and service functions. This lack of experienced leadership, when coupled with the dearth of scientific research completed on intermediate school districts, further supports the need for this study (Stephens and Keane, 2005).

It is important that leaders of intermediate school districts understand the nature of the criticism to which public education and intermediate school districts have increasingly been subjected. This criticism is the result of the ever-evolving conflicts between policy entrepreneurs, often representing special interest groups, with differing ideologies. Informed by the knowledge that public education is at the center of a clash between ideological beliefs amongst the American people, this researcher can be a more perceptive, articulate, and prepared leader. The significance of this study is further expressed in the words of David B. Tyack (1974):

We stand at a point in time when we need to examine those educational institutions and values we have taken for granted. We need to turn facts into principles in order to perceive alternatives both in the past and the present. The way we understand the past profoundly shapes how we make choices today. (p. 4)

It is the researcher's intent that this study of the Monroe County Intermediate School Districts past will serve as a tool for shaping its future.

Research Questions

As anticipated, the research questions continued to evolve as the study proceeded. Miles and Huberman (1994) have stated that:

The formulation of research questions may precede or follow the development of the conceptual framework. The questions represent the facets of an empirical domain that the researcher most wants to explore. Research questions may be general or particular, descriptive or explanatory. They may be formulated at the outset or later on, and may be refined or reformulated in the course of fieldwork. (p. 23)

In conducting this longitudinal historical case study I have examined the educational governance role of the Monroe County Intermediate School District and its predecessor offices as their representatives implemented policies and services throughout the history of public education. These educational governance and service functions reflected the dominant cultural ideologies of the times. The empirical data concerning the Monroe County Intermediate Unit of Educational Government's role in governing and providing services to public schools were examined.

The underlying conflicts and temporary resolutions surrounding these research questions have been the central focus of this researcher's data analysis. The following research questions were the subject of this investigation:

1. What was/is the nature of educational governance in Michigan?
2. What are the ideological foundations of Michigan's public education system at the national, state, and local levels?
3. What was the origin of the Monroe County Intermediate School District?
4. How has the Monroe County Intermediate School District evolved?
5. What are the dominant conflicts and ideological clashes that have impacted the Monroe County Intermediate School District?
6. What was/is the educational governance role of the Monroe County Intermediate School District?
7. What was/is the role of the Monroe County Intermediate School District in the delivery of educational services?

These are the research questions addressed in this study seeking to understand the Monroe County Intermediate School District and the manner in which it has developed within the context of its community and state.

Definitions

Culture: "the acquired knowledge people use to interpret experience and generate behavior" (Spradley, 1980).

Federal: The system of federalism in the United States, including the legal and political relationships among the national, state, and local governments (Frantzich & Percy, 1994, p. 53).

Fiscal federalism: The financial arrangement between different levels of the federal system (federal, state and local; Frantzich & Percy, 1994, p. 53).

Governance: Governance is the process of publicly resolving group conflict by means of creating and administering public policy (Wirt and Kirst, 1997).

Ideology: “A set of apparently compatible propositions about human nature and society that help an individual to interpret complex human problems and take action that the individual believes is in his or her best interest and the best interest of the society as a whole” (Kaestle, C. F., 1983, p. 76).

Myths: “By myths we mean the value-impregnated beliefs and notions that men hold, that they live by and live for. Every society is held together by a myth-system, a complex of dominating thought-forms that determines and sustains all its activities” (MacIver, 1965, p. 4).

Politics: A form of social conflict rooted in group differences over values about using public resources to meet private needs (Wirt and Kirst, 1997).

CHAPTER 2: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

Qualitative Research Tradition

The researcher used a case study design within the tradition of qualitative research in conducting this study of the Monroe County Intermediate School District. According to Merriam (1998), “Case studies are differentiated from other types of qualitative research in that they are intensive descriptions and analysis of a single unit or bounded system. A case study design is employed to gain an in-depth understanding of the situation and meaning for those involved” (p. 19). One of the critical factors that qualitative researchers must address is “defining the case.” Miles and Huberman (1994) call this “Bounding the Territory” (p. 25). According to Miles and Huberman (1994), “We can define a case as a phenomenon of some sort occurring in a bounded context. The case is, in effect your unit of analysis” and also “the heart of the study” (p. 25). At the *heart* of this study was understanding the Monroe County Intermediate School District’s role in the implementation of services preferred by the ideologies of dominant policy entrepreneurs. Miles and Huberman (1994) have stated that “qualitative data, usually in the form of words rather than numbers, have always been a staple of some field in the social sciences, notably anthropology, history, and political science” (p. 1). Lofland and Lofland (1995) argue that

The naturalistic or fieldwork approach to social research fosters a pronounced willingness, even commitment on the part of the investigator, to orient to her or his own extra social-scientific concerns; that is, to the concerns that you bring to the situation of doing social analysis. Your analysis may well succeed in opening up entirely new avenues of social science interest. (p.11)

Lofland and Lofland (1995) provided rationale for using “current biography; a job; physical mishap; the development, loss, or maintenance of an intimate relationship; an illness; an enjoyed activity, a living arrangement - all these and many other possible circumstances may provide you with a topic you care enough to study” (p. 11).

Lofland and Lofland (1995) furthermore stress that the fieldwork tradition of “starting where you are provides the necessary meaningful linkages between the personal and emotional on the one hand, and the stringent intellectual operations to come on the other” (p. 15).

This is the theoretical basis I have utilized in conducting this political study of the Monroe County Intermediate School District.

Conceptual Framework and Literature Review

The conceptual framework for this historical, longitudinal case study of the Monroe County Intermediate School District continued to evolve as the investigation proceeded. This case study, which focused on educational politics, required the researcher to have a conceptual framework that ensured that the study was “bounded, focused, and organized” (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p. 16).

The conceptual framework for this research of the Monroe County Intermediate School District is found in Table 1 on page 9. Miles and Huberman (1994) have stated that “a conceptual framework explains either graphically or in a narrative form the main things to be studied” (p. 18). The conceptual framework as developed by the researcher and presented in Figure 1 emphasized the role of education in the perpetuation of culture. This conceptual framework is based on the research of Pettitt (1946) in his studies of North American indigenous cultures.

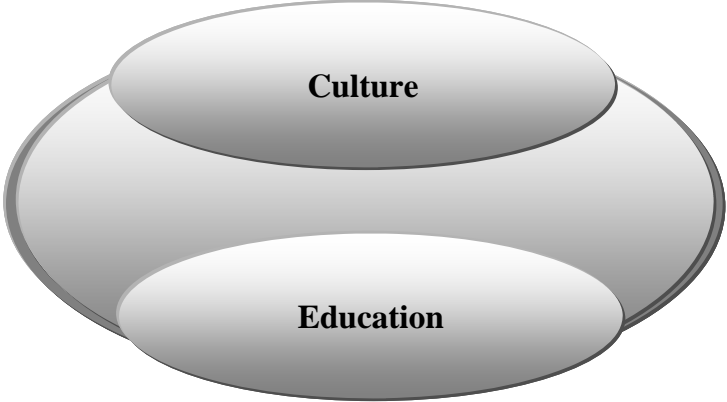


Figure 1: The Perpetuation of Culture through Education.

In conducting this study, the researcher organized Michigan’s cultural environment into eras utilizing the following categories:

Table 1.

Conceptual Framework for the Study of the Cultural Environment

Cultural Environment
• Language
• Governance
• Economy/Tasks
• Myth-Complex
• Religion/Ideology
• Politics
• Conflict

The researcher next addressed the manner in which the culture perpetuated itself during each cultural era through education as follows:

Table 2.

Conceptual Framework for the Study of the Educational System

Education
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language • Governance • Conflict • Core Pedagogy • Ideology • Curriculum • Policy Entrepreneurs • Services

Myth-Complex

Every form of authority or government is held together by a societal or cultural myth-complex. According to MacIver (1965), myths are “the value-impregnated beliefs and notions that men hold, that they live by and live for. Every society is held together by a myth-system, a complex of dominating thought-forms that determines and sustains all its activities.” Every society and nation has “its characteristic myth-complex,” according to MacIver (1965, p. 4). This myth-complex allows people to interpret reality, defines familial relationships, and determines the ideologies used to control the environment, including people. These myths and ideologies are interdependent and ever-evolving. This has major implications for governments. A society’s cultural myths can also be manipulated for purposes of control by other cultures.

According to MacIver (1965), it is the myth-complex that forms the essential links between “the governors and the governed” (p. 9). In his extensive effort to define cultural myths, Halpren (1961) referred to them as serving to “integrate and organize” the cultural group (p. 137).

Myths are found in every culture and society. In addition to authority, myths preside over ethics and religion. It is important to note that the term “myth” does not have any connotation as to the objective “truthfulness” of the belief(s). Myths are “true” in the sense that people believe in them, use them to guide their own behavior and the behavior of others in the culture. The myth-complex is used to form governments and, in turn, by those governments to develop ideologies that control the people. All political, social, and cultural relationships are influenced by the myth-complex held by the people.

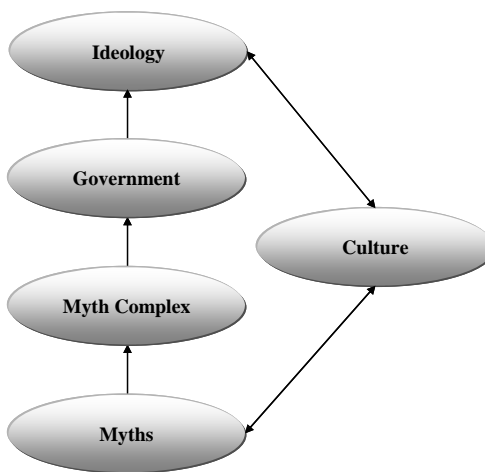


Figure 2: Interrelationship between Cultural Myths and Ideology.

Ideology

There are few terms in the world of political thought that have been so confused and misused as has been *ideology*. The term *ideology* was first used by Frances Bacon in his effort to reveal the prejudice of his time against scientific inquiry. Later, the *ideologues* were a group of scientists organized as a body in post revolutionary France to create a new “body of ideas” to counteract teachings that reinforced the “old regime of kings” (Mullins, 1972, p. 499). Unfortunately for this latter effort Napoleon Bonaparte altered the course of France after becoming emperor, dissolved the *ideologues*, and discredited their work. Later, Marx used ideology to “designate a quality of thought –

especially social thought – that is illusory or distorted” (Mullins, 1972, p. 499). Indeed, Mitchell and Badarak (1980), point out that one of the reasons for the “confusion and contradiction surrounding the analysis of ideology is the fact that many analysts simply do not distinguish pathological from non-pathological forms and thus, do use the term as the pejorative equivalent for neurosis, superstition, prejudice, and authoritarianism” (p. 59).

For purposes of this dissertation, I have examined the concept of ideology based on the research and writings of Mullins (1980), Mitchell (1980), Beyer (1981), and Kaestle (1983). These researchers have studied the importance of ideology as it relates to organizations, education, and political science.

Following an extensive analysis of the etiology of the term and concept of ideology, Mullins (1972) offered the following summary:

Ideology is a logically coherent system of symbols which, within a more or less sophisticated conception of history, links the cognitive and evaluative perception of one’s social condition – especially its prospects for the future – to a program of collective action for the maintenance, alteration, or transformation of society. (p. 510)

Mitchell (1980), in his study of the impact of ideological factors on school politics, defines “ideologies” as those systems of ideas that guide and direct actions by telling us how to take advantage of elements within the present social situation in such a way as to produce a more desirable future (p. 442).

Beyer (1981) researched the interactions of ideologies, values, and decision-making in organizations. In doing so, she defined “decision making [as] a process of choosing between courses of action that are expected to produce different outcomes” (p.

166). Beyer distinguished between ideologies and values as follows: “Ideologies refer to beliefs about the causal relations between courses of action and outcomes, whereas values refer to preferences for courses of action and outcomes. Thus ideologies explain the hows and whys of events, and affect predictions of the likelihoods of outcomes” (pp. 166-167).

Beyer (1981) argued that

(a) cultural ideologies and values are transformed into institutionalized rules through various mechanism; (b) these institutionalized rules are imported into organizations and incorporated into their structures; (c) all organizations must conform to some degree to these rules of the institutional environment to maintain legitimacy, but (d) those organizations in the public service sector with relatively uncertain technologies may have greater needs to defend their legitimacy through conformity than organizations that can demonstrate their technical performance with greater certainty. Thus conformity to environmental ideologies and values contributes to the success of all organizations, but may be crucial to the continued survival of some. (p. 172)

Kaestle (1983), in his work concerning the development of education in antebellum America, paid considerable attention to the ideology of the post revolutionary times. His use of “ideology” meant “a set of apparently compatible propositions about human nature and society that helped an individual to interpret complex human problems and take action that the individual believes is in his or her best interest and the best interest of society as a whole” (p. 76). In Kaestle’s (1983) view it is the ideology of the dominant social group that will dominate print and widely “justify and defend a set of social relations and institutions” (p. 76). It was the Protestants who became the dominant

social group in antebellum America and whose ideology dominated the political rhetoric and institution building, especially in the northeast and Midwest sections of the country. Indeed, it was this group's ideology that was organized into the Michigan system of public education.

Mitchell (1980) summarized the role of ideology in policy formation as follows: Ideologies form the basis of political governance and organizational management by interpreting the tension between knowledge about what is (social reality) and beliefs about what ought to be (social values) for society. An ideology links the 'is' and the 'ought' by providing both a 'definition of the situation,' which explains why things are the way they are, and a definition 'of the social project,' which describes how they can be changed. (p. 443)

Mitchell (1980) argued that "ideology stabilizes a governance system by giving those who embrace it a common frame of reference for interpreting issues, formulating policy proposals and making decisions" (p. 441).

Mitchell (1980) stressed the importance of a strong ideological foundation for public policy as being essential to government's legitimacy. In the view of Mitchell (1980), "an adequate understanding of school governance and management must involve a theoretical framework which brings ideological beliefs into proper focus" (p. 443).

Throughout this research of the Monroe County Intermediate School District and the Michigan System of Public Education, I have discovered the manner in which the ideological beliefs of the dominant cultural groups have influenced the creation, development, and evolution of the governance structure and the services provided therein. These ideologies, according to Beyer (1981), "are determined by their experiences within their environment" (p. 187).

This researcher has relied upon knowledge found in the literature relating to the fields of political science, educational politics, organizational and institutional theory, sociology, and history in conducting this political study of the Monroe County Intermediate School District. This study has explored the interconnectedness of ideology, regulation, organization, educational governance, and the services within the system of public education in the State of Michigan.

Municipal Reform Movement

In spite of the inherent political conflict present in America's public schools, an apolitical myth has surrounded the governance of education since the municipal reforms of the late 1800s and early 1900s (Iannaccone, 1977, p. 48). These reforms were a result of a new ideology emanating from industrialized America and its response to the corruption then existing in the large cities of the United States. The municipal reform movement's three major tenets were "the separation of public service from politics, the view of the community as unitary, and the belief in the neutral competency of professionals" (Iannaccone, 1977, p. 57). These tenets resulted in profound changes in the governance structure of public education and "the transfer of power from one class to another" (Iannaccone, 1977, p. 57). As part of this research, I have sought to determine the impact of the municipal reform movement upon the organization of educational government, particularly as it pertained to the intermediate school district and its predecessor intermediate units of governance.

A major focus of this research of the Monroe County Intermediate School District was upon the educational governance and services at the local community level grounded in the ideological beliefs of the dominant culture of the times.

Wirt and Kirst (1997) have stated that “governance is the process of publicly resolving group conflict by means of creating and administering public policy” (p. 4). The Monroe County Intermediate School District and its predecessors, the Monroe County Superintendent, the Monroe County Board of School Examiners, the Monroe County Commissioner of Schools, and the Monroe County Board of Education, have played a unique, significant, and often overlooked role in the governance of Michigan’s public education system.

Ideological Conflict

American public education has been embroiled in ideological and political conflict since its inception and thus it was especially important that an understanding of the underlying source of this conflict was sufficiently understood by this researcher. In conducting this research, I have built upon the thoughts concerning political power and conflicts originating in the writings of Karl Marx, Max Weber, E. E. Schattschneider, and Laurence Iannaccone. Marx (1847) believed that “the antagonism between the proletariat and the bourgeoisie is a struggle of class against class, a struggle which, carried to its highest expression, is total revolution” (p. 219). Marx believed that this class struggle was irresistibly moving toward revolutionary upheaval. The politics surrounding public education are an extension of the class struggle between the “haves and have nots.”

Weber’s writings concerning the phenomenon of religion, classes, status groups, and political parties in the distribution of power within communities also served as a basis for understanding the ideological conflicts of educational politics. Weber was particularly interested in the impact of various religions, their associated ethical standards, and the accumulation of wealth. The role of “protestant values” in the

development of public education is better understood by this researcher as a result of Weber.

Schattschneider (1975) has characterized political conflict within a democracy as follows:

At the root of all politics is the universal language of conflict. The central political fact in a free society is the tremendous contagiousness of conflict.

Every fight consists of two parts:

- (1) the few individuals who are actually engaged at the center and
- (2) the audience that is irresistibly attracted to the scene. (p. 2)

Schattschneider (1975) has also provided a framework for analyzing conflict.

To understand any conflict it is necessary therefore to keep in mind the relations between the combatants and the audience, because the audience is likely to do the kinds of things that determine the outcome of the fight.
(p. 2)

Iannaccone has expanded upon Schattschneider's (1975) conceptualization that "organization is the mobilization of bias for action" (p. 30). According to Iannaccone (1977):

The audience is never truly neutral, it is overwhelmingly larger than the combatants, and its direct involvement in the conflict will not only determine the outcome but will likely change the organization of the combatants. Organization is the mobilization of bias for action, and changes in organization will change the values at issue. (p. 38)

The academic works of these researchers support the importance of understanding the role of ideology in shaping the structures of organizations to implement preferred policies and services.

Educational Politics

Throughout this search for understanding the Monroe County Intermediate School District, the researcher has utilized the traditions inherent in the field of study of educational politics that are closely related to political science. Wong (1995) states that “the politics of education as a field of study owes much of its intellectual roots to political science—*power, influence, conflict, and the authoritative allocation of values*” (Easton 1965, Peterson 1974, Layton 1982, Burlington 1988; p. 21). In addition to political science, this researcher has incorporated scientific concepts from other disciplines.

Again, according to Wong (1995):

Clearly, the politics of education field [sic] has been strengthened by adopting perspectives and tools from various disciplines. We have applied the concepts of human capital investment, incentives, and rational expectation from economics. From sociology, we learn about the nature and functions of bureaucracy, school organization, the process of producing learners, social capital, and the urban underclass. We see the importance of contextualizing our findings, as historians do. Like political scientists, we pay attention to the governance structure, the political process, interest groups, and the distribution of power. (pp. 31-32)

Policy Entrepreneurs, Governance, and Services

The impact of the ideology of nineteenth and twentieth century policy entrepreneurs was a key aspect of this research. During this historical period, the influence of special interest groups within politics became more prominent. In analyzing

policy formation, John Kingdon (1995) has advanced the concept of “policy entrepreneurs” (p. 122). Kingdon described these entrepreneurs as “advocates for proposals or for the prominence of an idea.” According to Kingdon, their defining characteristic, much as in the case of a business entrepreneur, is their willingness to invest their resources – time, energy, reputation, and sometimes money – in the hope of future return (p. 122). The return that policy entrepreneurs receive may provide them with a personal advantage, promote their personal values within the larger society, or simply give them the “thrill” of being in the political game, close to the seat of power (Kingdon, 1995, pp. 122-123). These entrepreneurs impact the political process at the national, state, and local community level. The ideology of those policy entrepreneurs who dominate the political process is reflected throughout the educational governance structure and ultimately in the services provided by the system of public schools.

The findings of Banfield and Wilson (1963) were also utilized in developing the conceptual framework for this study. These researchers studied the politics of city government and argued that “government serves two principal functions. One is that of supplying those goods and services – for example, police protection and garbage removal – which cannot be (or at any rate are not) supplied under private auspices. This is its service function. The other function – the ‘political one’ – is that of managing conflict in matters of public importance” (p. 19). Banfield and Wilson (1963) maintained that these functions are often “indistinguishable” and “inseparable” as government organizations negotiate their environment (p. 18). This researcher has found that throughout the history of public education in Monroe County, the intermediate unit of educational government and its leaders have functioned as policy entrepreneurs and implementers when the important education policies and governance issues of the day have been decided and

services implemented. These policies and services have included those impacting the education of children with disabilities, the local funding of schools, the consolidation of primary schools, improving the quality of teachers, improving instruction, and the establishment of the Monroe County Community College.

In conducting this research of the Monroe County Intermediate School District, I have studied the development of its political and service functions throughout history.

Contingency Theory

In conducting this study of the Monroe County Intermediate School District, it was imperative that the researcher have a theoretical understanding of the relationship of the organization to its community.

Scott (2003), in his analysis of organizations' structural complexity, has defined contingency theory as follows:

There is no one best organizational form but many, and their suitability is determined by the goodness of fit between organizational form and environment.

The argument is formed at the ecological level of analysis; it rests on the assumption that different systems are more or less well adapted to differing environments. Environmental conditions determine which systems survive and thrive; those best adapted are most likely to prosper. (p. 105)

Parsons (1960) wrote extensively on the subject of organizational environment and technical core as a component of every organization.

According to Parsons (1960), every complex organization is made up of three distinct levels of responsibility: 1) "the technical system," 2) "the managerial system," and 3) "the community" or "institutional system" (p. 60). Each of these levels creates problems that a suborganization must address.

Every organization is dependent on inputs from its environment and must produce outputs that are valued by those entities within its environment. For purposes of this study, the concept of task environment was utilized to define the location where this exchange of inputs and outputs takes place. The task environment was defined by Dill (1958) as “that part of the environment potentially relevant to goal setting and goal attainment” (p. 410). Thompson (2004) further explained that “the relationship between an organization and its task environment is essentially one of exchange, and unless the organization is judged by those in contact with it as offering something desirable, it will not receive the inputs necessary for survival.” For purposes of this study, the Monroe County Intermediate Unit of Educational Government and its services have been analyzed within the context of its task environment.

Scott (2003) has also provided a conceptual paradigm for the study of organizations, which was utilized by this researcher in studying the Monroe County Intermediate School District. Scott has stated the following concerning the study of organizations as open systems:

- All systems are characterized by an assemblage or combination of parts whose relations make them interdependent.
- As we move from mechanical through organic to social systems, the parts of which systems are composed become more complex and variable.
- In social systems, such as groups and organizations, the connections among the interacting parts are relatively loose: less constraint is placed on the behavior of one element by the condition of others.
- Social organizations, in contrast with physical or mechanical structures, are complex and loosely coupled systems. (p. 83)

The open systems concept stresses that organizations can and do fundamentally change over time. “The source of system maintenance, diversity, and variety is the environment” (Scott, 2003, p. 91). The concept of “resource dependence” (Pfeffer and Salancik, 2003, p. 258) was also relied upon in understanding the Monroe County Intermediate School District within the context of its task environment. Pfeffer and Salancik (2003) stressed that “to survive, organizations require resources. Typically, acquiring resources means the organization must interact with others who control those resources” (p. 258). Pfeffer and Salancik (2004) provided the field of organizational studies a conceptual framework that emphasized the importance of the environment within which organizations struggle to exist as being critical to their success or failure. According to Pfeffer and Salancik (2003), “Survival of the organization is partially explained by the ability to cope with environmental contingencies; negotiating exchanges to ensure the continuation of needed resources is the focus of much organizational action” (p. 258). The “resource dependence” model allowed this researcher to conceptualize the interdependent nature of relationships between the intermediate unit of governance and the task environment.

Cyert and March (1963), in their studies of business organizations, have described the process of creating organizational interdependency as the “negotiated environment” (pp. 119-120). These researchers stressed the need for organizations to avoid uncertainty in their environment by making it controllable. According to Cyert and March (1963), organizations seek to eliminate the need to predict their environment by making it more controllable via their relationships with trade associations, consultants, and journals within their industry. These relationships are a means for communicating standards of practice that promote certainty within the environment (pp. 119-120).

Institutional Theory

An understanding of institutionalization was also necessary in conducting this study of the Monroe County Intermediate School District and its predecessors during its historical development. Selznick (1957) has described the concept of institutionalization in the following manner:

Institutionalization is a process. It is something that happens over time, reflecting the organization's own distinctive history, the people who have been in it, the groups it embodies, and the vested interests they have created, and the way it has adapted to its environment. (p. 16)

Selznick further stated:

To institutionalize is to infuse with value beyond the technical requirements of the task at hand. The prizing of social machinery beyond its technical role is largely a reflection of the unique way in which it fulfills personal or group needs.

Whenever individuals become attached to an organization or a way of doing things as persons rather than as technicians, the result is a prizing of the device for its own sake. From the standpoint of the committed person, the organization is changed from an expendable tool into a valued source of personal satisfaction. (p. 17)

Change and Persistence

It was necessary to apply the concepts of change and persistence in conducting this study. For this purpose I referred to Watzlawick, Weakland, and Fish (1974). These researchers referred to "first order change that occurs within a given system which itself remains unchanged" (p. 11) and "second order change [as] one whose occurrence changes the system itself." "Second order change is thus change of change" (p. 11).

Watzlawick et al. assisted this researcher in understanding the seemingly cyclical nature of the change we experience in public education and the evolution of the Intermediate Unit of Educational Government within Monroe County and the State of Michigan.

Historical Foundations

Certainly those who have studied the history of public education at the national and local level have been a very important source of information to this researcher. Tyack and Cuban (1995) have provided very significant perspective in their “interpretation of school reform,” which “blends political and institutional analysis” (p. 7). Tyack and Cuban have explained the seemingly unending merry-go-round of educational reforms as follows:

Americans have wanted schools to serve different and often contradictory purposes for their own children:

- to socialize them to be obedient, yet to teach them to be critical thinkers;
- to pass on the best academic knowledge that the past has to offer, yet also teach marketable and practical skills;
- to cultivate cooperation, yet to teach students to compete with one another in school and later life;
- to stress basic skills but also encourage creativity and higher order thinking skills;
- to focus on the academic “basics” yet to permit a wide range of choice of courses. (p. 43)

Tyack and Cuban (1995) wrote that “the underlying rationale of most recent reforms—to use schooling as an instrument of international economic competitiveness—is not new, but its dominance in policy talk is unprecedented” (p. 136).

Kaestle (1983) provided this researcher with the historic foundations of public schools from the Revolutionary War to the Civil War. The regional differences in the development of public education in the United States, as determined by the ideological beliefs of the dominant cultural groups, were well documented and certainly assisted in understanding the early development of Michigan's system of public education.

According to Kaestle (1983), "In no region was there overwhelming consensus on state intervention in common schooling....Geography, class structure, economic development, and cultural heritage combined to tip the scales in favor of state systems in the north and against them in the south" (p. 217). This is an important historical reminder of the importance that ideology, culture, and politics play in the development and maintenance of educational systems. Neither the people nor the schools are the same in this large and diverse country.

Kaestle's (1983) analyses of the common school reformers points out that in spite of some differences in their views on issues such as "industrialization," "slavery," and "Calvinism," (p. 75) they agreed on much more. According to Kaestle (1995):

They were characteristically Anglo-American in background, protestant in religion, and drawn from the middling ranks of American society. They shared views on human nature, nationhood, and the political economy. (p. 75)

Tyack, Cuban, and Kaestle's works were important to this researcher in understanding the organizational and institutional bias of Michigan's Public Education System and the Monroe County Intermediate School District.

Ethical Considerations

An ethic cannot be in a book in which there is set out how everything in the world actually ought to be but unfortunately is not, and an ethicist cannot be a man who always knows better than others what is to be done and how it is to be done (Dietrick Bonhoffer (1962, p. 236).

Certainly ethical considerations were of importance to this researcher, and Lofland and Lofland (1995) addressed the fundamentals of this issue as follows: “Ethical problems, questions, and dilemmas are an integral part of the research experience (especially the naturalistic research experience) as much as they are a part of the experience of everyday life,” (p. 26).

Given my current role as the Superintendent of the Monroe County Intermediate School District, the ethical model driving this historical institutional case study is primarily covenantal. According to May (1980), a covenantal ethic

...is responsive and reciprocal in character. It acknowledges a two-way process of giving and receiving as opposed to the ideal of philanthropy that pretends to a wholly gratuitous altruism. Covenantal ethics places the service one has to offer in the contexts of goods, gifts, and services received. As such, it defines somewhat more aptly the true situation of the fieldworker than does utilitarianism with its pretense to philanthropy. (p. 367)

The strength of the covenantal relationship is perhaps best described in the words of Dehle, Hess Jr., and LeCompte (1992), who state that “covenants characterize significant relationships between husbands and wives, professionals and clients, researchers and their subject” (p. 608). While the ethic guiding my research best fits the covenantal mode, clearly one’s ethical position depends on the context of the research

problem. As May (1980) states, “commitments to one’s discipline, to the truth, and to other communities sets limits on what one will do. Special obligations to fidelity and care quickly corrupt in the absence of standards that transcend them” (p. 369).

This investigation was conducted to fulfill the dissertation requirements of Eastern Michigan University’s Educational Doctorate Degree. Thus, another source of ethical guidance was the Eastern Michigan University Policy on the Use of Humans as Subjects in Research and Intellectual Investigations (2003).

One of the researcher’s responsibilities in conducting this study was to the community. The Ethical Standards of the American Educational Research Association (1992) v. Guiding Standards: Sponsors, Policy Makers, and other users of Research A. Preamble states:

Researchers, research institutions, and sponsors of research jointly share responsibility for the ethical integrity of research, and should insure that this integrity is not violated They should support the widest dissemination and publication of research results . . .

This research will be disseminated to the following organizations: Eastern Michigan University, the Monroe County Intermediate School District Board of Education, the Monroe County Historical Museum, the Monroe County Library System, the Michigan State Board of Education, the Michigan Association of School Boards, the Michigan Association of School Administrators, the Michigan Association of Intermediate School Administrators, and the Association of Educational Service Agencies. As a result of this investigation, the historical governance role of the Monroe County Intermediate School District will be publicly documented.

Data Collection

Sampling

Purposive, within-case sampling was utilized in conducting this research. According to Miles and Huberman (1994), “Sampling is crucial for later analysis” (p. 27). Miles and Huberman (1994) further advise the following:

Sampling in qualitative research involves two actions that sometimes pull in opposite directions. First, you need to set *boundaries*: to define aspects of your case(s) that you can study within the limits of your time and means, which connect directly to your research questions and that probably, will include examples of what you want to study. Second, at the same time, you need to create a *frame* to help you uncover, confirm, or qualify the basic processes or constructs that undergird your study. (p. 27)

In determining which data to examine, Miles and Huberman (1994) have stated that useful data would

- (a) identify new leads of importance,
- (b) extend the area of information,
- (c) relate or bridge already existing elements,
- (d) reinforce main trends, account for other information already in hand,
- (e) exemplify or provide more evidence for an important theme, and
- (f) qualify or refute existing information.(p 31)

This study began with the sampling framework illustrated in the following table.

Table 3.

Sampling Framework

<u>Sampling Parameters</u>	<u>Choices</u>
Settings	Monroe County Intermediate School District administrative archives, Monroe County Historical Museum Archives, Monroe County Commissioners archives, Monroe County Library System, State of Michigan Library, Eastern Michigan University Halle Library Archives, University of Michigan Libraries, Michigan State University Library
Events	Minutes of board meetings, records from millage campaigns, archival administrative memorandums, newspapers articles, program records, newsletters and teacher manuals, brochures
Processes	Linkages to community college, linkages to community organizations, development, implementation, and extinction of services, linkages to local school districts, consolidation of rural schools, development of special education, vocational education conflict, election and appointment of district officers and administrators, development of public schools, and educational organizations

The researcher reviewed the Monroe County Board of Education and the Monroe County Intermediate School District minutes from 1947 through the present and summarized each month's meeting focusing on governance decisions. These decisions were then coded and organized according to the policy and service functions they represented. The archives of the Monroe County Historical Museum, the Monroe County Commissioners Office, the Monroe County Library System, the University of Michigan Library System, the State of Michigan Library System, and the Halle Library at Eastern Michigan University were utilized to review historical data related to the county intermediate unit of educational government and the State Superintendents of Public Instruction. Additional archival materials were reviewed related to the implementation of public acts, administrative policy, and elections. The public records available through area newspapers concerning policy entrepreneurs and implementers were also studied.

Instrumentation

The researcher was the primary instrument for this investigation. For more than thirty years I have served in various capacities within the Monroe County Intermediate School District. I began this relationship as a special education teacher for students with emotional impairments. Most of my students had been recently suspended, expelled, or institutionalized by their local school districts. Though just middle school aged, they had experienced rejection by public education, only to be given a second chance by mandatory special education and the Monroe County Intermediate School District. The teaching staff for students with emotional impairments was small, just three of us in the county, and young; we were all very early in our careers as teachers. These students were amongst the county's most challenging, and their reputation and ours spread. The staff would do virtually anything to help our students succeed. Staff meetings well after contractual hours or before school, evening home visits with families, interagency collaboration, and psycho-educational plans were all part of our efforts to reach these students long before such interventions became commonplace within the educational system. According to Iannaccone and Lutz (1995), "Americans have long held the notion that public education is a major means, for many perhaps the primary institution, of upward social mobility. From Jefferson through Counts (1932) to Adler (1982), American intellectual leaders have seen and continue to see schools as the cardinal organization of civic education and socialization" (p. 43). This quotation captures the essence of spirit and sense of mission held by the Monroe County Intermediate School District staff whom I worked with during those early years. We were bringing in to school a group of students, those with emotional disabilities, who had previously been excluded from public education. The students' circumstances were such that I identified

myself as their personal advocate when intervening with my general education peers, the school administration, and indeed my students' parents. Perhaps more importantly to me as a young teacher, that role was reinforced by the Monroe County Intermediate School District administration. Though the Monroe County Intermediate School District teachers were expected to be a part of the local district staff, at the same time it was made clear that we, like our students who came from other districts, were different. The Monroe County Intermediate School District staff did not report directly to the building principal, as we had a special education supervisor assigned by the intermediate school district. This administrative arrangement meant that there were two sets of expectations. One set of expectations was that of the local building principal, who expected that I would keep my students controlled and in my classroom. The second set of expectations held by the Monroe County Intermediate School District's special education supervisor was that I would get my students out of my classroom (into general education) and that the "integration" process would have a positive impact on general and special education students. At this still early stage in the history of offering mandatory special education services, we didn't realize the negative aspects of putting a group of students with serious emotional disturbances or any other group of students with disabilities together in a classroom. Our staff saw only the opportunity that was before us and our students. As the classroom teacher for an intermediate school district classroom, I was expected to take my students into the community, which meant I was encouraged to take field trips to places like museums, campgrounds, and shopping centers—this during a time when students attending local schools rarely ventured away from their school buildings due to budgetary constraints. Those early years taught me the art of negotiation and reinforced my ideals that being a special education teacher for the Monroe County Intermediate

School District would afford me with the opportunity to use my passion and skills to make a difference in the lives of children.

After three years I would become a consultant and later an administrator of special education programs. Within these various roles I was able to develop relationships across community, regional, and state organizations. In each of these roles I was engaged in a number of what I saw as groundbreaking ventures, creating opportunities for students that didn't previously exist. In my view, being a change agent was expected of the employees, including the administrators of the Monroe County Intermediate School District. This district, with its expectations for advocacy and value of equity for students with disabilities, encouraged a sense of mission on the part of its employees. Equal educational opportunity was the ideology of the administration as we grappled with policies and leaders in our local districts over issues surrounding the education of students with disabilities. The administration's focus was on civil rights, and the staff of the Monroe County Intermediate School District was determined to create opportunities within public education for students with cognitive, physical, and emotional disabilities. That has been a source of pride for many of us who work at the Monroe County Intermediate School District. During the past nine years that I have served as superintendent of the Monroe County Intermediate School District, one of my goals has been to carry on this legacy of advocacy and reform while moving the district into a future that may be very different from the past.

My reasons for conducting this research of the Monroe County Intermediate School District were very personal, and I am certain that this is a great strength of this study. In reaching the decision to study the Monroe County Intermediate School District, I spent considerable time examining my reasons for doing so. According to Lofland and

Lofland (1995), “Two initial and closely related questions require the prospective investigator’s serious consideration. First, should this particular group, setting, situation, question, or whatever be studied by anyone? Second, should this group setting, situation, question, or whatever be studied by me?” (p. 26). In considering both of these questions as they relate to the Monroe County Intermediate School District and to me as the investigator, I responded in the affirmative. In relation to the first question, since the inception of public education, the Monroe County Intermediate School District and its predecessor intermediate units of educational government have been involved in educational governance and the implementation of educational services at the state and local district levels. These policies and services were created in response to political ideology espoused by dominant policy entrepreneurs representing special interest groups not easily identified by the general public. This reality is in contrast to the presiding historical myth that education is a local matter.

Regarding the second question, my remote and current biographies with the Monroe County Intermediate School District have placed me in an excellent position to conduct this research. This researcher has adhered to the qualitative research tradition of “starting where you are.” According to Lofland and Lofland (1995), “Starting where you are provides the necessary meaningful linkages between the personal and emotional on the one hand and the stringent intellectual operation to come on the other” (p. 15). For more than 30 years I have been part of an organization that has been driven by an ideology that at its core has valued equity and efficiency. Professionally speaking, nothing has been closer to my heart and mind.

Data Analysis

One of the greatest challenges for the researcher in conducting this case study was managing the tremendous amount of data in an organized way that allowed me to engage in the necessary iterative process of analysis. Data were gathered from multiple sites and were in various forms ranging from legal documents to historical writings to newspaper articles that were more than 175 years old. This process of data analysis was both inductive and deductive. Miles and Huberman (1994) “Have presented these three streams: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification – as interwoven before, during, and after data collection in parallel form, to make up the general domain called “Analysis” (pp. 11-12). Figure 1.2 illustrates an overview of the process of data analysis that this researcher engaged in during the course of this study.

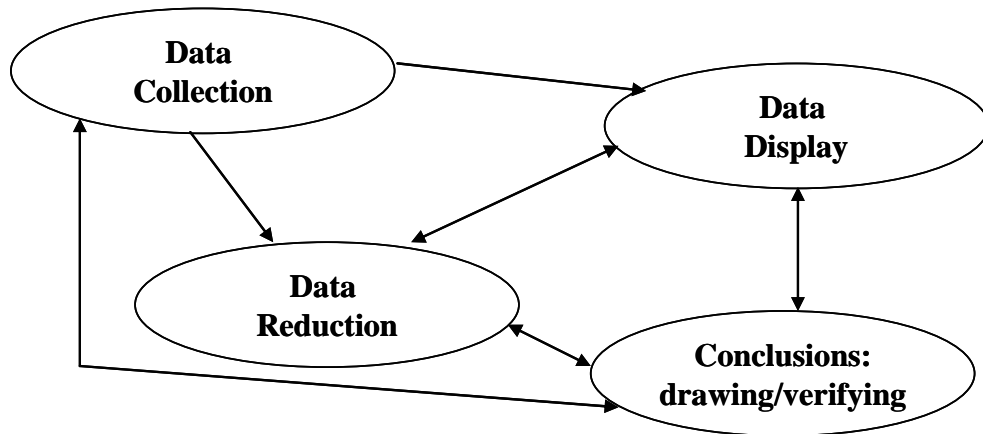


Figure 3: Component of Data Analysis: Interactive Model. (Miles and Huberman 1994.)

As this longitudinal field research was concerned with change over time, Pettigrew’s (1995) methods also offered important direction. Pettigrew (1995) stressed the importance of taking a “contextual” approach to case study analysis. This approach, based on the work of philosopher Stephen Pepper (1942), viewed analysis as the search for “context” and “action” (pp. 93-94). Pettigrew (1995) viewed causation as “neither

linear nor singular” (p. 96). According to Pettigrew (1995), “There is no attempt to search for the illusory single grand theory of change, or indeed, of how and why a single independent variable causes, or even affects, a dependent or outcome variable” (p. 96). What is critical is not just events, but the underlying logics that give events meaning and significance (Pettigrew, 1995).

This researcher engaged in the process of triangulation to ensure that the case analysis was credible. According to Eisenhardt (1995), “Triangulation made possible by multiple data-collection methods provides stronger substantiation of constructs and hypotheses” (p. 73). The “within case analysis” included the coding of archival records and the development of timelines and flowcharts to aid in pattern recognition. Extensive field notes and a diary were also maintained by the researcher to aid in the documentation of theories and conceptualizations as they evolved. Perhaps most significant were the independent study groups, organized under the direction of Dr. James Barott. These sessions were conducted in small groups and on an individual basis and provided the researcher ample opportunity to review and synthesize the data.

Data displays were utilized to assist this researcher in identifying governance and service themes, ideological transitions, and policy entrepreneurs’ actions. According to Miles and Huberman (1994), “A display is an organized, compressed assembly of information that permits conclusion drawing and action” (p. 11). This tool was extremely important in identifying the eras into which these research findings were ultimately organized.

Yin (2003) has stated that “at least four principles underlie all good social research:”

- 1) Your analysis should show you attended to all the evidence.

- 2) Your analysis should address, if possible, all major rival interpretations.
- 3) Your analysis should address the most significant aspect of your case study.
- 4) You should use your own prior, expert knowledge in your case study.

The most important aspect of conducting this case study of the Monroe County Intermediate School District was the painstakingly thorough analysis of the multitude of data supporting the study's findings.

Validity and Reliability

Two issues that were of concern to the researcher were the study's validity and reliability. Validity, which is "generally defined as the trustworthiness of inferences drawn from data," has both internal and external properties (Eisenhart and Howe, 1992, p. 644). Internal validity "pertains to the credibility of inferences that experimental treatments (factors) cause effects under well-defined circumstances. External validity pertains to generalizing the effects observed under experimental conditions to other populations and contexts" (Eisenhart and Howe, 1992, pp. 644-645). Eisenhart and Howe (1992) advance five standards for validity in educational research:

Standard 1: The fit between research questions, data collection procedures, and analysis techniques. Valid studies require cogently developed designs.

Standard 2: The effective application of specific data collection techniques and analysis techniques. It is incumbent on educational researchers to locate their work in the historical, disciplinary, or traditional contexts in which the methods have been developed.

Standard 3: Alertness to and coherence of prior knowledge. Subjectivities must be made explicit if they are to advance, rather than obscure, the validity of research *quo* argument.

Standard 4: Value constraints. Valid research studies must include discussions of values, that is, of the worth in importance or usefulness of the study and of its risks.

Standard 5: Comprehensiveness. Responding in a holistic way to and balancing the first four standards as well as going beyond them. (p. 657-662)

To strengthen the reliability of the qualitative study, Miles and Huberman (1994) have emphasized that “the underlying issue is whether the process of the study is consistent over time and across researchers and methods. Have things been done in a reasonable manner?” (p. 278) Miles and Huberman (1994) further stated, “In qualitative research, issues of instrument validity ride largely on the skills of the researcher. Essentially a person – more or less fallibly – is observing, interviewing, and recording, while modifying the observation, interviewing, and recording devices from one field trip to the next. Thus you need to ask about yourself and your colleagues, how valid and reliable is this person likely to be as an information-gathering instrument?” (p. 38).

Lincoln and Guba (1985) discussed the importance of “trustworthiness” (p. 290) in research. They posed four questions for the researcher:

- 1) *“Truth value”*: How can one establish confidence in the “truth” of the findings of a particular inquiry for the subjects (respondents) with which and the context in which the inquiry was carried out?
- 2) *Applicability*: How can one determine the extent to which the findings of a particular inquiry have applicability in other contexts or with other subjects (respondents)?

- 3) *Consistency*: How can one determine whether the findings of an inquiry would be repeated if the inquiry were replicated with the same (or similar) subjects (respondents) in the same (or similar) context?
- 4) *Neutrality*: How can one establish the degree to which the findings of an inquiry are determined by the subjects (respondents) and conditions of the inquiry and not by the biases, motivations, interests, or perspectives of the inquirer?

Lincoln and Guba (1985) further stated, “The criteria that have evolved in response to these questions are termed ‘internal validity,’ ‘external validity,’ ‘reliability,’ and ‘objectivity’” (p. 290).

The researcher undertook extensive measures to ensure adherence to a clear, ever-evolving methodology and transparency in the use and interpretation of data in conducting this research. Coding and data displays, along with triangulation, were utilized to ensure that findings were defensible. The use of self as the primary instrumentation was clearly identified and analyzed. Every effort was taken to disapprove findings and identify any uncertainties that may exist in the research conclusions. Finally this researcher based all findings on theoretical foundations outlined in the relevant literature pertaining to this study. The findings of this study were based on empirical data and driven by the qualitative research traditions associated with educational politics and case study.

The procedures outlined herein ensured that this case study met the necessary criteria to ensure internal validity and reliability. Given the naturalistic foundation of this research, the traditional notions of external validity found in quantitative research were not met nor was it desired. The findings contained in this dissertation are not to be generalized to other environments outside the Monroe County Intermediate School

District. However, the conceptual framework is analytically generalizable and applicable to conducting studies in other organizations.

CHAPTER 3: THE HISTORICAL FOUNDATIONS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION IN MONROE COUNTY, MICHIGAN: PRE-1834

To understand the Monroe County Intermediate School District, this researcher first had to learn of the culture from which it grew. The culture that first breathed life into education was mysteriously different than that which was brought by the Europeans in the seventeenth century and which ultimately dominated it. Still, this culture of Michigan's indigenous people would not submit without leaving its mark on those that followed and thus on the school system that was ultimately created, a system that led to the creation of the Monroe County Intermediate School District.

Cultural Environment: Indigenous Era: Pre-1634

Language

The history of education in Monroe County, Michigan, begins with the indigenous people whom the early European explorers referred to as Indians. It was the Indians who were the area's first inhabitants. The tribes of the Great Lakes, with the exception of the Huron, were of the Algonquin language stock. Ethnologists have determined that approximately thirty tribes shared the Algonquin language characteristics, indicating they "originated from one parent uniform speech" (Hinsdale, 1930, pp. 30-31). The Huron people, also known as Wyandot, were an exception and were of the Iroquoian language stock. The Huron tribe migrated into the Great Lakes area and Michigan in flight from other Iroquois tribes (Greenman, 1961, p. 23). They eventually moved into the southeastern Michigan area and Monroe County from Mackinac Island when Cadillac built a trading post in Detroit in 1701 (Zeisler, 1969, p. 6).

The Ottawa and Pottawatomi tribes also maintained villages in the Monroe area at different times. For purposes of this research, the focus will be upon the Pottawatomi, which was the principal tribe found in the Monroe County region and throughout southern lower Michigan after 1700 (Cleland, 1975, p. 8). The Pottawatomi were closely related to the Chippewa and Ottawa tribes. Tradition has it that the three tribes were once one, the Chippewa, and split up after migrating westward from Canada into the Michilimackinac area (Michigan Commission of Indian Affairs, 1975). The Pottawatomi, Chippewa, and Ottawa tribes called themselves “the three fires” in recognition of this historical relationship (Bald, 1954, p. 8).

The Pottawatomi and other Algonquian Indians are classified as being part of the Northeast culture area for anthropological purposes (Waldman, 2000, p. 33). These tribes generally shared significant language, ceremonial, mythological, economic, and general living conditions.

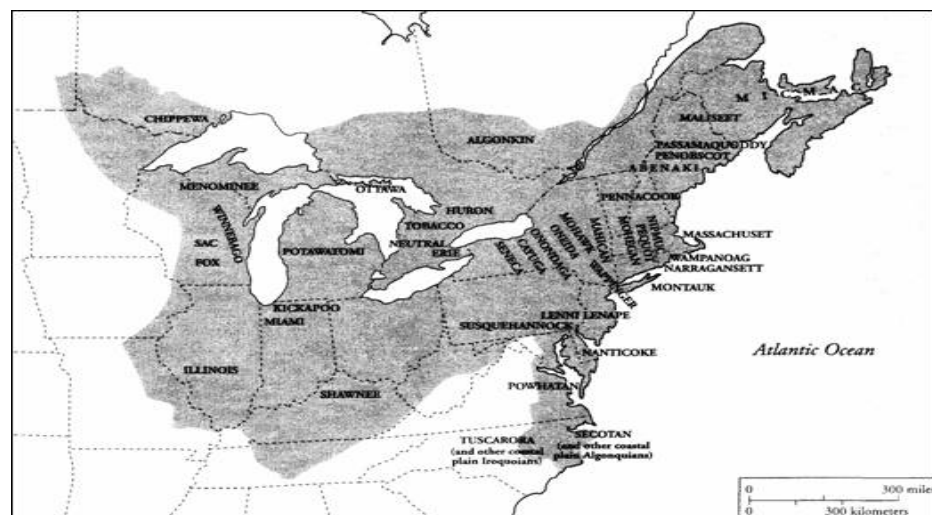


Figure 4. Northeast Culture Area. Showing approximate locations of major tribes (with modern boundaries; From the Atlas of the North American Indian, Revised Edition, 1985, by C. Waldman, M. B. Braun, New York; Checkmark Books).

Economy/Tasks

According to Hinsdale (1931), nine Indian villages existed within the confines of what is now Monroe County. Five of these villages were contiguous to the River Raisin, which the Indians called the “Numasepee,” meaning the River of Sturgeon (LaVoy, 1972, p. 39).

The Indians were attracted to the Monroe County area for many reasons. They moved their villages depending on the season and the availability of food. The economic life of the Pottawatomini consisted mainly of agriculture, hunting, trapping, and fishing. It is thought that the meaning of this tribe’s original name, “Pottawatomink,” which was given by the Chippewa, meaning “people of the place of fire,” is derived from their use of burning to maintain open fields for cultivation (Cleland, 1975, p. 8). During the summer and fall the tribe would find the Monroe area and its proximity to the lake, river, and marshes an advantageous and plentiful environment in which to live. During the winter, the Indians had to retreat to the more protective surroundings that the deep forests provided to them. The River Raisin served as a water highway between east and west. A trail known as the “Sauk Trail” extended north to the Saginaw Bay. This trail went south and connected to the “Great Trail” just south of what is now Toledo. The “Great Trail” led its Indian travelers all the way to New York.

Ziesler (1969) states:

Along Lake Erie they [Indians] would travel easily in their birchbark canoes, they would go far into the interior by paddling up the River Raisin and the many creeks that flow into the lake. The streams and the lake were full of fish, big sturgeon several feet long, black bass and whitefish. The marsh was filled with

ducks, geese, swan, muskrat; the river and creeks had beaver dams and also mink and otter. (p. 2)

Nearly every part of the animal killed was of benefit to the Indians. In addition to food, they provided jewelry, clothing, shelter, and blankets. The Indians took great pride in their tanning techniques, which added color to their products (Dobson, 1978, pp. 23-24).

The Monroe marshes supplied wild rice, an Indian food staple that was harvested in the fall by the women (Zeisler, 1969, p. 2). The process for harvesting and using this important food is documented by Dobson (1979) as follows:

Before the wild rice was ready for harvesting, the Indians poled into the marsh in dugout canoes and separated the rice stalks, grabbing bunches and tying them together with basswood bark rope. The bundles were then checked each day to determine if the grain was ready to be removed from the stalks. When it was ripe the gatherers pulled up along side the bundles in the dugouts, bent the tops into the canoe as they went, and pounded them with a stick in order to knock the loose kernels into the bottom of the canoes. When the canoes were full, the rice was emptied into white oil cloths to be hulled. It could then be used and was often added as a supplement to wild game dishes. (p. 31)

The Indians of Monroe County, like the white settlers who would follow, also used the rich soil to plant and harvest corn, beans, squash, tobacco, potatoes, and melons. The surrounding forests provided them with another staple of the Indian diet in the spring, maple sugar.

Governance

The Pottawatomi were very egalitarian people whose basic political organization was the tribe. The tribe “consisted of people living in a contiguous territory, speaking the same dialect, having the same way of doing things, and with a feeling of relationships, one for another” (Hinsdale, 1930, p. 25). The tribes were led by a chief and other counselors who were selected based on their personal attributes and prowess. The Pottawatomi did not have “royal families” or any “hereditary aristocracy” (Hinsdale, 1930, p. 25).

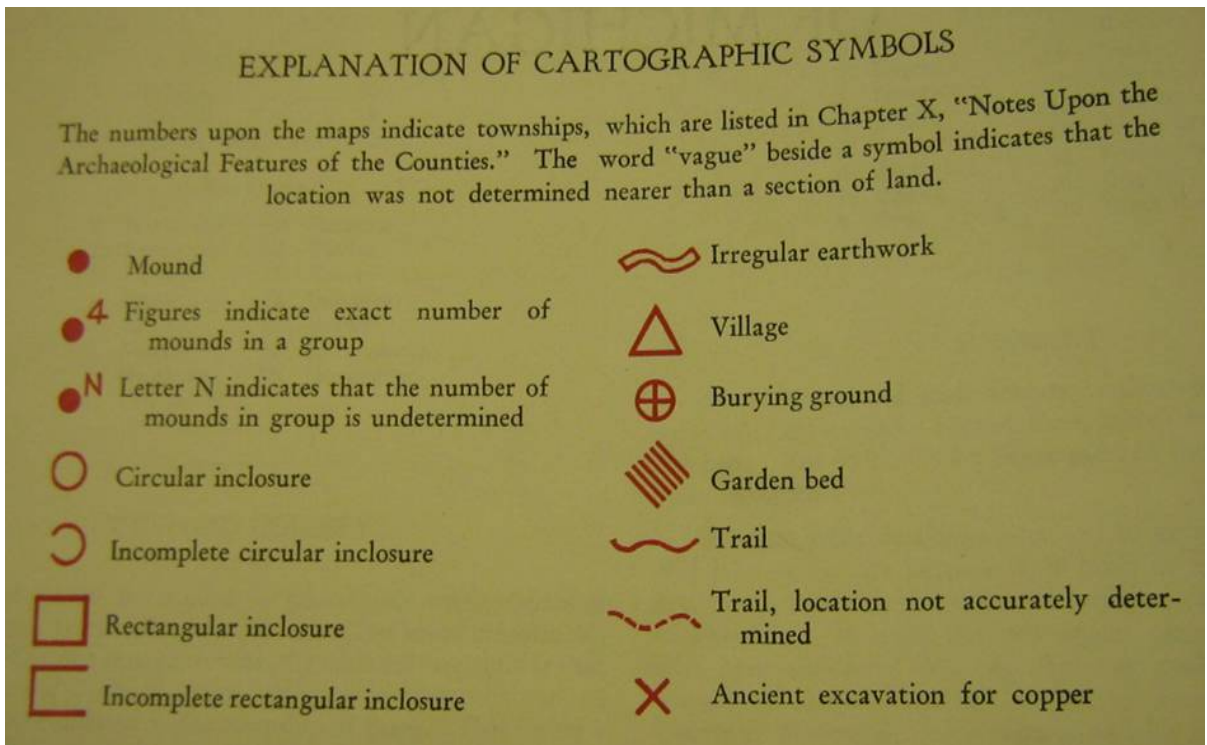


Figure 5: Map of Monroe County Indian Villages; From the Archeological Atlas of Michigan, 1931, by W. Hinsdale, Ann Arbor; University of Michigan Press.

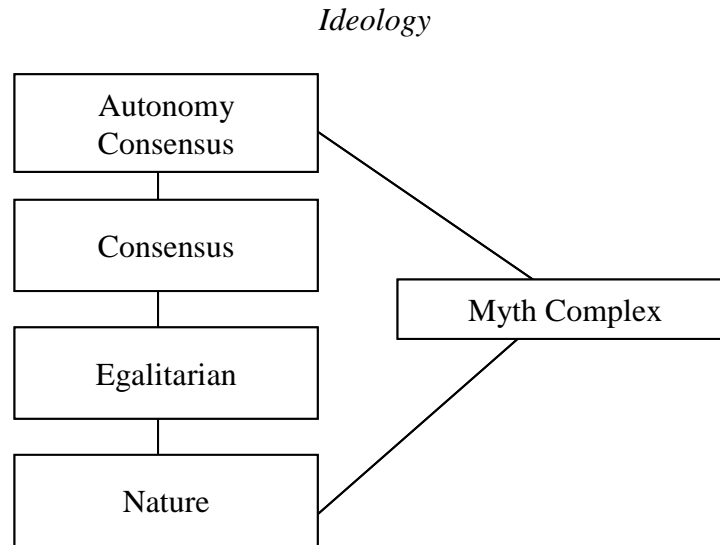


Figure 6: Central Principles of the Indigenous Ideology.

The Pottawatomi shared three central principles with the other Indians of the Great Lakes region, which constituted their ideology. These principles according to Cleland (1975) were:

1. The first great principle emphasized human dignity and autonomy. To these Indians, no man had the right to determine another's fate. All individual action was based on individual decision, and all group actions were grounded on the idea of consensus. A chief was not a man with power but a leader who had demonstrated humanity, generosity, and ability.

2. The second principle involved the ethic of sharing and was as precious as life itself. In a world where the land of nature could be unyielding, men relied on each other for survival. Thus the great ethic of sharing was extended to all things, including goods, labor and food. The scarcer the commodity, the more it was shared; therefore, if anyone had food, everyone had food. Prestige and status were derived from ones ability to give rather than to acquire. Custom, which dictated the rules governing sharing, basically held that the strong protected the young, the

weak, and the aged. Generosity was expected and the concept of giving provided the bonds of social interaction. To Great Lakes Indians, charity was incomprehensible.

3. Finally, there was the principle that guided man in his relationships with the natural world. Earth maker formed each creature, including man, in a distinctive way for a particular purpose. No creature was superior to any other, and all were unalterably linked in the great web of life. Man, like his fellow creatures, became for his life span a cannibal, eating and taking sustenance from his brothers, the deer and the fish. When his spirit left his body, Earth Mother reclaimed it to nourish the plants which, in turn, fed other animals and men. Man's debt was repaid, and the cycle of life was completed. The resources of the earth and the forests were owned and exploited by no man, for these were not objects, but living things. Ecological balance was a primary consideration to the native peoples of the Great Lakes, for they knew that man could survive only as long as he remained part of the cycle of life. (p. 12)

Education Governance

All cultures, to survive, must transmit their beliefs, social customs, and cultural institutions to their young. One of the primary ways modern society in the United States does this is through the institution of public education. Prior to the coming of the French, the Indian people who lived in the geographic area now called Monroe lived in the wilderness, had no written language but for a few hieroglyphics, and had no formal schools. According to Pettitt (1946):

Primitive education was a community project in which all reputable elders participated at the instigation of individual families. The result was not merely to

focus community attention on the child but also to make the child's education a constant challenge to the elders to review, analyze, dramatize, and defend their cultural heritage. (p. 3)

The Pottawatomini communities' support structure for children was extensive.

According to Cleland (1975):

For the Pottawatomini, as for other Great Lakes tribes, the interpersonal relationships between the people of each tribal group were almost exclusively determined by their relative positions in a kinship system. One distinguishing feature of this system was its lack of distinction between a person's father and his father's brothers. For the Pottawatomini, these men were all called *noss* or "father". Similarly, the term *n'gih* or "mother" was used to refer to a group of women which included not only the woman we would call mother, but her sisters as well. For the Pottawatomini, all those called *noss* acted as fathers and all those called *n'gih* assumed the duties of mothers. Thus the children of all of ones "fathers" and "mothers" became in a real sense brothers and sisters. (p. 8)

In addition, the Pottawatomini practiced polygamy, which further extended the support system for their young (Cleland, 1975, pp. 8-9). These cultural traits did not diminish the responsibilities of the biological parents to their children. Pettitt (1946) explained that "the [Indian] father and mother undoubtedly gave as much time as anyone to the training of their children. Far more than in civilized society, their standing in the community depended on the behavior and success of their children" (p. 22).

The Pedagogy of the Indigenous People

The indigenous people relied on their elaborate stories, intricate dances, and highly developed memories to transmit their cultures (Hinsdale, 1930). Education of Indian youth was extremely important to survival and not left to chance nor limited to imitation. The education of the Indian child included many techniques that are utilized by modern educators. Pettitt (1946) stated that “primitive man to a surprising degree has explored the psychological motivations of the child and made effective use of them” (p. 15).

One of the unique customs of the Indians was the deep significance and educational function of one’s name. Pettitt (1946) explained that “personal naming customs of primitive peoples of North America apparently served to stimulate learning, strengthen character, and develop the personality of the individual” (p. 59).

Storytelling was an extremely important part of the Indian child’s education. Hinsdale (1930) explained, “Around the campfires, in the lodges, upon special occasions, at ceremonial festivals, by myth, fable, fiction, allegory, and the narration of actual exploits, the children absorbed the lore and history of their ancestors immediate and remote” (p. 66). Schoolcraft (1839) intensely studied the myths and legends that were the oral traditions of the Algonquin tribes. Within these stories, he found the sources of their character, spirituality, and behavior (pp. 49-50). One such story from the Odjibwa (Chippewa) tribe as related by Schoolcraft (1839) follows:

The Linnet and Eagle
From the Odjibwa [Chippewa]

The birds met together one day, to try which could fly the highest. Some flew up very swift, but soon got tired, and were passed by others of stronger wing.

But the eagle went up beyond them all, and was ready to claim the victory, when the gray linnet, a very small bird, flew from the eagle's back, where it had perched unperceived, and being fresh and unexhausted, succeeded in going the highest. When the birds came down, and met in council to award the prize, it was given to the eagle, because that bird had not only gone up nearer to the sun than any of the larger birds, but it had carried the linnet on its back.

Hence the feathers of the eagle are esteemed the most honorable marks for a warrior, as it is not only considered the bravest bird, but also endowed with strength to soar the highest. (p. 216)

Pettitt (1946) states the following concerning the North American Indians' use of storytelling:

Almost all bodies of oral literature in North America are characterized by a greater or lesser exploratory content. That is, episodes in myths and legends are explicitly or by inference used to explain why things exist in their known form. These etiologic elements range all the way from an explanation of the cosmos, in creation myths, to an explanation of the lengths of animals' tails and of the performance of ceremonial acts. (p. 154)

The Wilderness Curriculum

The Indian child was taught to speak his language at an early age. Children were taught to hunt, garden, weave, and gather according to social customs. The achievements of youth were often celebrated. According to Pettitt (1946):

Speaking generally, American Indian boys progressed through a publicly accepted sequence of hunting achievements, beginning usually with birds killed with blunt arrows, passing through a series of small animals of the 'varmint'

class, and culminating in the bagging of the largest game animals, such as seal, walrus, caribou, deer, bear, buffalo, of a particular area. Each animal killed had to be brought back to camp, and the young hunter could not partake of it himself, but had to sit in state while others feasted and figuratively or literally sang his praise. In a fashion this practice extended to the first berries or roots, that a girl gathered; and occasionally, to her first efforts as a collector of firewood, and to her first attempts in handicrafts, particularly during her puberty confinement. (p. 76)

The male youth was taught from infancy that one day he would have revealed to him in a dream his guide and spiritual protector. This dream, which would occur at about the age of fourteen, was induced by fasting, isolation, and mutilation until the youth would fall into a fitful sleep and experience his “vision.” This protector, once revealed, was usually an animal of some sort that would become his brother for life. The spirit protector that had demonstrated its powers through revealing itself in a dream would be held in great reverence by the young man who, with this vision, would be graduated into manhood (Hinsdale, 1930).

Summary and Analysis

This study began with the indigenous people who lived in the area of Monroe, Michigan, at the time the first French explorers arrived. To understand the Monroe County Intermediate School District required the researcher to explore the very nature and beginnings of government in Michigan. The beginning of government was found in the families of the indigenous people who lived in the Great Lakes region before the Europeans arrived. In the indigenous culture, with their extended familial relationships, the rules were enforced and the culture was perpetuated, through the education provided within the immediate tribal groups. It was here that the nature of educational governance

was found by this researcher. The organic nature of this governance and of all governments are the myths or belief systems of the people and the ideological techniques used to control the environment. According to MacIver (1965), myths are “the value-impregnated beliefs and notions that men hold, that they live by and live for. Every society is held together by a myth-system, a complex of dominating thought-forms that determine and sustain all of its activities” (p. 4). Every society and nation has “its characteristic myth- complex,” according to MacIver (1965, p. 4). This myth-complex allows people to interpret reality, define familial relationships, and determine the ideological techniques used to control the environment, including the people. These myths and ideological techniques are interdependent and ever evolving. A society’s cultural myths can also be manipulated for purposes of control by other cultures. The myth-complex of the indigenous people was very different from the Europeans who would conquer and come to dominate Michigan. The indigenous tribe was egalitarian and valued each part of nature equally, and its myth-complex was intertwined with the immediate environment. These people defined the universe within the concept of family. Their leaders were not determined by kinship but by intelligence, prowess, and skill, as demonstrated within their immediate cultural grouping, the tribe.

Table 4.

The Indigenous Cultural Environment in Michigan

Cultural Environment: Indigenous

- Language (Algonquin)
- Governance (tribe)
- Economy/Tasks (hunter/gatherer)
- Religion/Ideology (earth maker)
- Myth-Complex (egalitarian)

The Indigenous form of educational governance, pedagogical techniques, and curriculum reflected their myth-complex. In spite of their different myths, there was also commonality amongst people. According to Pettitt (1946), “It may be accepted as a truism that every culture, regardless of its simplicity, must successfully condition its future carriers if it is to maintain itself” (p. 4). If one accepts this as a universal “social necessity,” it leaps to the acceptance of a “universal educative compulsion,” which can be useful in understanding the very similar modes of “cultural growth processes” amongst highly divergent cultures and societies (Pettitt, 1946, pp. 4-5). During the course of this study, this researcher has determined that the indigenous people of Monroe County sought to perpetuate their culture using pedagogy surprisingly similar to what one sees in classrooms today. The indigenous myth-complex was transferred to the young via precise dances, elaborate stories, and developmentally appropriate “hands on” experiences. The primary difference in curriculum reflects the culture the indigenous people sought to perpetuate. Their myth-complex meant that they would seek to perpetuate themselves, the Pottawatomie culture. The indigenous people held the education of their children in the highest regard. Nothing was left to chance by the child’s extended family in assuring that he/she was prepared to perpetuate the cultural tasks, economy, and religion of the tribe. Immediate and long term survival depended on a highly educated tribe in indigenous cultural terms. “Who decides” concerning educational matters is of great importance in all societies and cultures. The “myth-complex” of local control has been the mantra of public educators and communities throughout the late twentieth and early twenty-first centuries even as any vestiges of it have been stripped away by the ever encroaching movement towards centralization of educational governance. It was the indigenous people who truly had “local control” of the education of their children. The social status

of indigenous parents was determined ultimately by their success in preparing their child for his/her adult role. There was no federal or state government to take responsibility for the child’s education within the indigenous society. Neither was there any bureaucracy nor ruling class within the tribe. There was no certified teacher, principal, or superintendent to tend to the tasks of pedagogy, discipline, or curriculum. There were no taxes. There was just the environment that gave the people everything, along with the extended family who taught the children how to take what the environment gave them and to give back so it would continue to give life to the people. The lack of governance beyond the tribe would soon end after the coming of the Europeans.

Table 5.

Historical Foundations of Education in Michigan

Education: Indigenous
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language (Algonquin) • Governance (extended family) • Pedagogy (stories, dances) • Curriculum (wilderness) • Ideology (perpetuate own culture) • Myth-Complex (egalitarian)

Cultural Environment: French Era - 1634

Language

A European language, French, was first brought to the shores of Michigan by adventurous hunters and trappers called “Coureurs de-Bois” (‘rover of the wood’). They cleared only enough land that was necessary for them to build a shelter. They lived much like the Indians, with whom they frequently inter-married. These men, according to Buckley (1913), were escaping from the “stifling restrictions of government” (p. 48). These “hard drinking, swearing Frenchmen” explored the Great Lakes, the tributaries,

and the forests for approximately one hundred years before formal settlements appeared (Bulkley, 1913, p. 48).

Economy/Tasks

There was another kind of explorer at this time in the wilderness of Michigan.

Bulkley (1913) described these adventurers as follows:

Of a type different from the Coureurs-de-Bois, though resembling him in some of his characteristics, is the Voyageur, who, instead of being a ‘rover of the woods,’ pursued his vocation of roaming over the waters of the northwest, the great lakes, and the streams which attended the adventagous sites for the fur trade, for the establishment of missions by the Jesuit missionaries, or for settlements by *permanente habitants*. (p. 49)

The voyageurs were businessmen, sometimes licensed, often supported by the state (France) and usually accompanied by Jesuit priests. The voyagers were skilled boatmen. Their explorations required them to command craft ranging from the cedar “bateau,” which literally means *boat* in French, to the birch canoe, and the dugout craft made from poplar, white wood, or sycamore (Bulkley, 1913, p. 52). Whatever craft was used had to be easily carried around shallow streams and waterfalls, be ridden down the rapids of rivers, and stay afloat in the rough waters of the Great Lakes. Often these crafts were loaded with furs, brandy, or rum, all of which were the currency of the northwest (Bulkley, 1913, pp. 45-52).

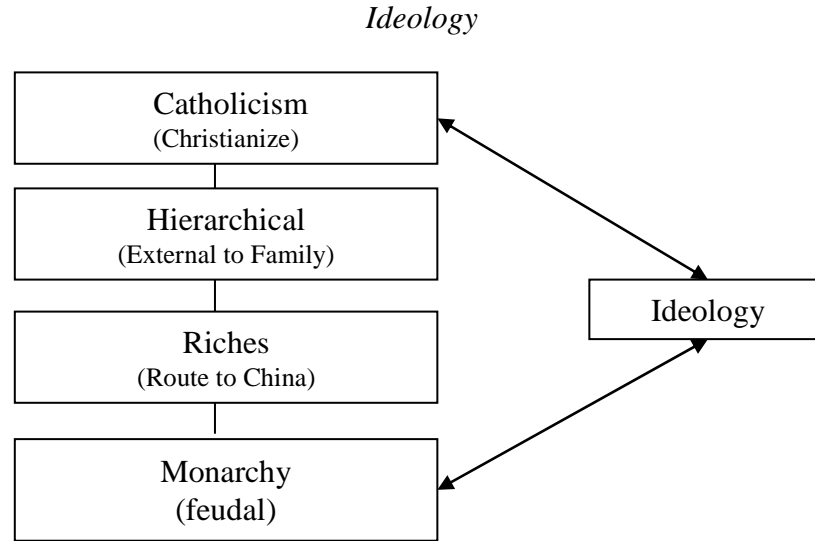


Figure 7: Central Principles of the French Ideology.

The French explorers and the settlers who followed them to Michigan were primarily of the Roman Catholic faith. The Jesuit missionaries were amongst the earliest explorers. As early as 1634 “they joined a party of Huron’s at Quebec...and sailed through the Ottawa River to Lake Huron, upon whose shores they erected the first log house, which served for their home and sanctuary for many long and weary days. They daily rang the church bell and called the savages to prayers. Here they educated a small band of Hurons, and trained them as missionary assistants” (Wing, 1890, p. 9). In 1671, Father Marquette also established a mission in St. Ignace. These would be the only two missions in Michigan. In spite of any professed religion, the relationship among the *coureur de bois*, the *voyageurs*, and the Jesuit priests was uneasy. The *coureur de bois* disliked taking the Jesuits to the Indians (Bald, 1954, pp. 30-31). Perhaps this was because the missionaries were staunch advocates against giving brandy to the Indians, which was the currency that the *coureurs de bois* and *voyagers* used in trading with the Indians. According to Wing (1890), “The Jesuits’ anxiety to extend a spiritual kingdom was often met and opposed by as great a zeal to extend an earthly kingdom” (p. 16).

Clearly, the Jesuits, the fur traders, and the explorers had different ends in mind when it came to their relationships with the Indians. According to Catton (1984), the Jesuit missionaries “set a strange new fashion by trying to do something *for* the man, rather than *to* him (it was a fashion that somehow never caught on in Michigan or elsewhere.)” (p. 9). Of significant importance was the fact that as the Jesuit missionaries followed the tribes, attempting to Christianize them, they provided a significant scientific contribution to the world. According to Bald (1954):

These men were well educated, and they were encouraged to take notes of the regions throughout which they passed and where they lived. Every year each of them wrote a report of his labors and included in it information about the lakes and the rivers, the forests, the animals, the plants, and the customs of the Indians.

These reports were edited and published in France. (p. 32)

Bald (1954) acknowledged the work of the missionaries as follows: “To the missionaries we owe a debt of gratitude for their services in making known the new regions into which they carried the gospel” (p. 32).



Figure 8: The Jesuit Map of Lake Superior Showing Northern Michigan; Retrieved from <http://cache.viewimages.com>. Photo by MPI/Getty Images #512459675. Reprinted with permission.

On July 23, 1701, Cadillac landed in what is today Detroit. Three days later, on July 26, which is Saint Anne's Day on the Roman Catholics' calendar, a log church was established under her patronage (Rosalita, 1928, p. 17). The French settlers in Detroit were, for the most part, of a different class from those found at Quebec and Montreal. With few exceptions, the settlers at Detroit were peasants. They came mainly from Normandy and Picardy. They were uneducated. Some of them could write their own names, but little else. They were devoted to the services of the church. Their moral characters were above reproach. They married early and had numerous children (Utley, 1906, p. 313).



Figure 9. New France in 1750; From <http://images.encarta.msn.com>. New France in 1750. Copyright 2007, retrieved on November 10, 2007.¹

Governance

As the Europeans explored the new world, the geographic area of Monroe County became part of the territory of New France under the Proclamation of Lusson in 1671 (LaVoy, 1971, p. 3). Monroe County was a vast wilderness of swamps and forests on August 10, 1679, when Robert de la Salle sailed past and entered the Straits of Detroit aboard the Griffin (Wing, 1890 p. 16). La Salle was the first man to sail a ship on Lake Erie and the Upper Great Lakes as well. He had set sail from the western shores of the Niagara River where he had built the Griffin. The Griffin was so named after the coat of Arms of Count Frontenac, the Governor-General of New France. Count Frontenac was the Godchild of King Louis XIII. Appointed by the King as Governor-General of New France in 1672, at the age of fifty-two, he was responsible for establishing numerous military outposts around the Great Lakes and their tributaries. He also oversaw the exploration of the Mississippi River. The “Father of Great Waters” would presumably be the direct passage to the South Sea, China, East Indies, and all their collective riches. Thus was the motivation of La Salle, who overcame great hardships, including the loss of the Griffin, to eventually enter the Mississippi River on February 7, 1683. La Salle claimed all of the Mississippi River Valley for France, having brought a notary with him to record these claims. On April 9, 1683, La Salle claimed the outlet of the Mississippi and the country attached to it for France, naming it Louisiana after his King and Godfather (Wing, 1890, pp. 15-17).

The influence of France on the development of Michigan was tremendous. According to Wing (1890), “From France we received our first laws, our original social policy, and our early religious character” (p. 16).

France was under the reign of King Louis XIV when Cadillac arrived in Detroit. Cadillac saw the military and economic strategic value that the site of “Le Detroit” afforded to the country that occupied it. Still, he was unable to convince “Count Frontenac,” the Governor of New France, of its strategic worth before the governor’s death in 1698 (Burton, 1922, p. 84). His replacement, Chevalier de Callieres, was not taken by Cadillac’s proposal to build a permanent settlement at “Le Detroit” (Burton, 1922, pp. 83-84). Thus Cadillac presented his plans directly to his ruler, King Louis XIV, who approved his commission, which was then granted by Count Ponchatrain. Cadillac’s goal was to populate his settlement. Thus when Cadillac “landed and planted the French standard” he did so “in the name of Louis XIV” (Burton, 1922, p. 84).

In fact, Cadillac viewed himself, apparently quite correctly, “as the exclusive owner of its [Le Detroit’s] post and trade” (Burton, 1922, p. 87). This sense of ownership would soon end. Shortly after becoming the leader of New France, Count Chevalier de Callieres created “the company of the colony” and received a commission from King Louis XIV to essentially be the overseer of Detroit.

According to Burton (1922),

While the company was in charge of the post, Cadillac remained as commandment on a salary of 2,000 livres per year, and was not required to bear any part of the expense of maintaining the Garrison. Under this arrangement he was not shorn of his powers, always went about in military costume, with his sword by his side, soldiers saluting him and civilians removing their hats as he passed. But he was almost constantly involved in quarrels with the representatives and employees of the company (p. 90).

On June 4, 1705, the company and Cadillac finally reached an agreement that would return Detroit to the ownership of Cadillac (Burton, 1927, p. 91). Eventually, however, Cadillac's insistence on increasing the population in Detroit, contrary to the fur traders' wishes to maintain the wilderness environment, led to his removal from Detroit and his appointment in 1710 as the Governor of Louisiana (Burton, 1922, p. 91). Cadillac had also created enemies with the Jesuits over the sale of brandy to the Indians, and they too were more than likely involved in his removal from Detroit by the French government.

In 1784 a small body of French families settled on both banks of the River Raisin (Wing, 1890, p. 45). These people built several log cabins and surrounded them with pickets or "puncheons" as a defense against the Indians (Wing, 1890, pp. 37-38). The settlers opened a trading post for the North-West Company, which soon became a gathering point for area Indians. "In 1785 a treaty was signed with the Ottawa, Chippewa, Delaware and Wyandot Indians that granted the United States a belt of land for cultivation six miles wide extending from the River Raisin to Lake St. Clair" (LaVoy, 1971, p. 40). On June 3, 1785, five Pottawatomie chiefs signed a paper granting Francois Navarre "1200 or 1500 acres of property" along the south bank of the River Raisin (Wing, 1890, p. 138). Navarre had already been living in the area amongst the Indians. Soon Navarre traveled back to Detroit, where he had previously lived, and told others about the area. Other French settlers soon followed, escaping the English who now ruled Detroit (Zeisler, 1969, p. 9). The area that was simply called "The River Raisin Settlement" would eventually be named Frenchtown, after its many settlers, by the English and Americans who would come later. Soon after the River Raisin Settlement was founded, "settlements spread with considerable rapidity to Otter Creek, about five

miles south, to Stony Creek, about four miles north, and Swan Creek, nine miles southeast” (Wing, 1890, p. 45).

The French settlers built their log cabins close together along both banks of the river. This close proximity provided them with a social network and mutual protection as opposed to living alone in the wilderness. These long narrow strips of land called “ribbons” stretched out away from the river and streams of the area. Like the Indians, the French settlers lived off the land. They hunted, trapped, and fished. They then traded for their commodities at the trading post. The early French did relatively little farming. The forest was a formidable deterrent to large scale crops that would require the French settlers to extensively clear the land. As time progressed, land was cleared, markets were established, and farming became more prominent.

According to Wing (1890):

The first French settlers that located on the River Raisin were the direct descendants from the old French pioneers of Detroit. Few among the French farmers had much of the education to be derived from books, yet there was [sic] quite a number of intelligent, strong thinkers, men of sound judgment, who well deserved their reputations for integrity and uprightness. (p. 43)

The French settlers brought with them their customs of celebrating their religious and non-sectarian holidays. New Years, Christmas, Mardi Gras, and weddings were all celebrated in the wilderness that was Monroe in the late 1700s (Zeisler, 1969, p. 11).

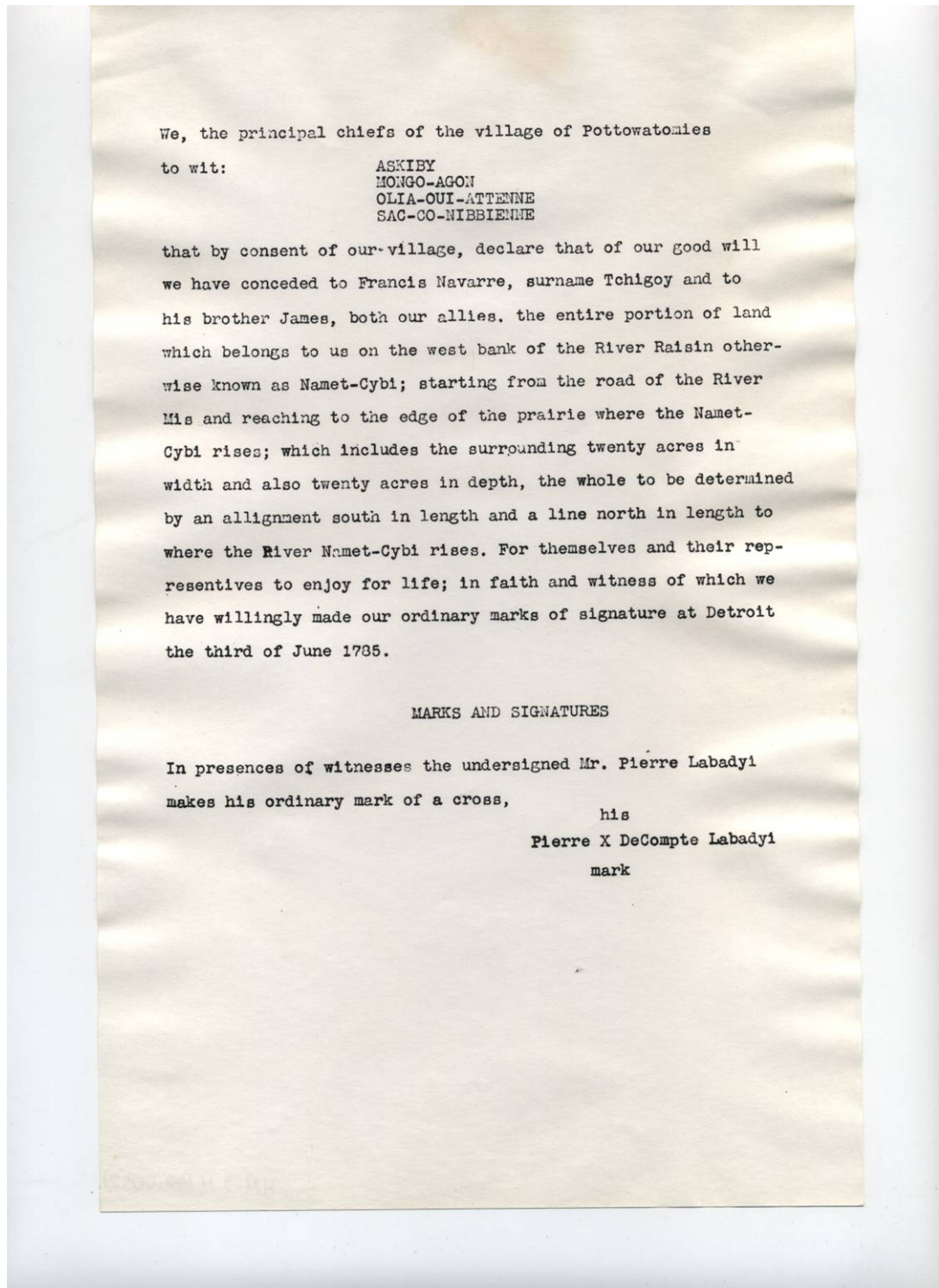


Figure 11: English Translation of the Original Deed to Navarre Property; Retrieved from the archives of the Monroe County Historical Museum, Monroe, Michigan, on November 10, 2007. Catalogue Reference Number HM 3.4 PHO.

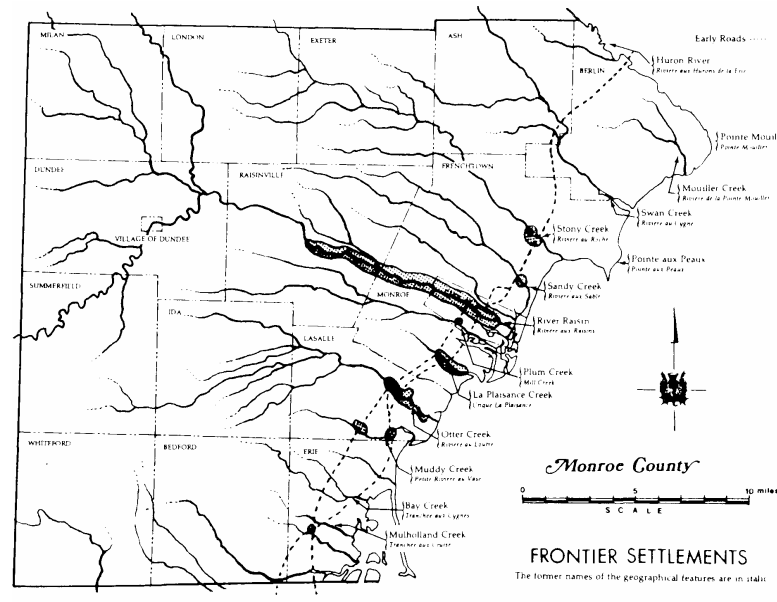


Figure 12: Map of the Locations of Frontier Settlements in Vicinity of River Raisin Settlement; From the Legacy of the River Raisin by V. Hogg and B. Korab 19 VW library, Monroe County Historical Society, Monroe, MI..

Education Governance

The French who explored the Michigan Territory did not concern themselves with developing an educational system. There were very few children and the French focused on exploiting the rich resources for themselves and their king. Those “habitants” who had children usually had them stay in Montreal, Quebec, or even France to be educated. The Jesuit and Ursuline, religious orders of the Catholic Church, had established schools in Quebec and Montreal (Rosalita, 1928, p. 25). At this time in history, the churches of France, Catholic and Protestant alike, were responsible for education. Education was determined by one’s birth and station in life. Contrary to his homelands attitude, Cadillac advocated that the Indians must be educated to become French (Dain, 1968, p. 10). Cadillac felt that missionaries from different orders should be brought to his outpost “Le Detroit” to teach the Indians to accept the French way of life, including their religion. The Jesuits, who were prominent by their presence amongst

the early explorations, opposed this plan, advocating for separating the Indians and protecting them from the evils of liquor and the voyagers. Repeated attempts were made by Cadillac and the Monseigneur de Pontevand, the Bishop of Quebec, to convince the church and government that schools were needed. “By the year 1755 the French Catholics of Detroit had established St. Anne’s Parochial School” (Rosalita, 1928, p. 23). Education would remain a personal choice for the time being.

Education in Monroe also grew slowly. Early formal education most likely began in the local Catholic Church, St. Antoine Sur La Riviere aux Raisins, which was organized in 1788 by a missionary, Father Fricette. It was there that Father Gabriel Richard served intermittently as the non-resident priest from 1805 until 1828 (Wing, 1890, p. 111). Father Richard would later be the first congressional representative of the Northwest Territory and a co-founder of the University of Michigan (LaVoy, 1971, pp. 51-56). In Detroit (and Monroe), like France, the parish priest became the primary teacher (Dain, 1968, pp. 13-14).

Summary and Analysis

Table 6.

The French Cultural Environment in Michigan

<p>Cultural Environment: French</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language (French) • Governance (monarchy) • Economy/Tasks (fur traders) • Religion/Ideology (Catholicism) • Myth-Complex (hierarchical)

With the French dominance in the Great Lakes region, indigenous culture began to change, though it was gradual at first. The first Europeans in Michigan were seeking

refuge from the stifling conditions of feudal France. These men, with their French language, entered the wilderness and for the most part lived harmoniously with the Indians. Their profit motive was mostly personal. Soon these men, the “Coureurs de Bois,” were followed by others seeking greater financial gain for their king and country. These later French “voyageurs” were the first to introduce formal “European” education onto the shores of Michigan via their teachings of Christian salvation. The voyagers were usually accompanied by the Jesuit Priests, who played a critical role in transferring the existing egalitarian social myth-complex of authority that the kin bound indigenous people maintained into the more hierarchical and centralized concept of authority that was the social myth-complex of the western European people. At the very center of this western European myth-complex was the conceptualization of God, “liberated from the mores of family, given a greater amplitude, and for the first time a kind of transcendence” (MacIver, 1965, p. 29).

Table 7.

Historical Foundations of Education in Michigan

Education: French
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language (French) • Governance (Catholicism, personal) • Pedagogy (stories, Bible) • Curriculum (European) • Ideology (perpetuate European culture) • Myth-Complex (hierarchical)

With the migration of the French religion and monarchical government, the cultural myth-complex in southeastern Michigan began a revolutionary change that took government outside the immediate family and tribe. Gradually the education in the Michigan region became centered upon the French religion (Catholic) and culture. The

indigenous people initially tolerated this; as the teaching of this new myth-complex came with European weaponry, food, and clothing. The early French trader, Cadillac, advocated for schools to teach the Indians to be French, but it was to no avail. Cadillac, who promoted education with the French and Indian children integrated together, was up against the fur traders who, for reasons of profit, wished the region to remain remote, and the powerful Jesuits, who believed the indigenous people, must be separated to be protected from the evils of liquor. Gabriel Richard, Sulpician priest, later advocated for and even started a school for the indigenous people. These early efforts by the Europeans were to teach the Indians to be French. The goal of this first approach to education in Michigan was to perpetuate a culture from another land. There was little support for it amongst the native people or the early French “habitants.”

Cultural Environment: British Era - 1760

Language

A third language, English, came to Michigan when the French supremacy in Canada was ended on September 8, 1760. On that date Montreal fell to the British, thus ending French rule in southeastern Michigan, which was seceded in the surrender. The British almost immediately dispatched Major Robert Rogers, “famed Indian fighter,” to take occupation of Detroit. This he and his 200 “Rogers Rangers” accomplished without bloodshed on November 29, 1760. The French soldiers, who were not aware of their defeat until Rogers informed them, laid down their arms and would eventually be moved home to France.

Governance

The British conquerors allowed the French settlers to keep their property, provided they pledged their loyalty to the British monarch, King George (Catton, 1984, p. 35). Stark (1943) sums up the settlers' reaction to this news:

The colony was stunned. All up and down the shore from the River Raisin to L'anse Creuse Bay on Lake St. Clair, the "habitants" heard of the defeat and humiliation with a mingled emotion of fear and melancholy. (p. 59)

The French settlers readily pledged their loyalty to the British crown. They were, however, suspected by the British to be collaborators with the Indians in the coming unrest.

Economy/Tasks

The British, like their French predecessors, could only see the furs and the riches they could bring to their king when it came to governing Michigan. Unlike the French, however, the British did not respect the Indian way of life and sought to drive them out of Michigan (Burton, 1922, p. 114). The Indians, in kind, led by the Ottawa chief Pontiac and others, sought to drive the British out of the region (Catlin, 1926, p. 38).

Catton summarizes the British and Indian relationship as follows:

It took the Indians very little time to discover that the British were not like the French. At such places as Michilimackinac, the French had regularly given ammunition and clothing to the tribesmen who lived nearby. This was an understood thing, a custom that had grown up over the years, not because the French were generous, but simply because it helped keep the Indians in good temper and made the bargaining for furs go smoothly. Now it developed that the British did not have this habit and did not propose to acquire it. (p. 39)

This change in the ruling culture’s behavior was problematic for the Indians, who were now dependent on the white man and his trade for survival (Catton, 1984, p. 40). Chief Pontiac would do his very best to protect his homeland and lead the return of the French to govern “the Michigan and Ohio country” (Catton, 1984, p. 43).

War



Figure 13: Old Northwest 1778-1794; From: Michigan in Four Centuries, 1954, F. C. Bald, New York: Harper and Brothers Publishers.

The British culture significantly changed the living conditions under which the indigenous and French “habitants” existed. Throughout the British rule there was war between it and those cultures that preceded it in the region. There was no effort to initiate any educational system by the British.

In the spring of 1763, Pontiac held a meeting of warriors a few miles southwest of Detroit on the Ecorse River (Catton, 1984, p. 43). There he developed a plan to capture Fort Detroit through deception. Pontiac would request entry into the fort along with forty other warriors for the expressed purpose of smoking the calumet (pipe) of peace. Once inside and with their English hosts relaxed, the Indians would pull out their sawed off rifles hidden under their blankets, start killing their hosts, open the fort gates to let the

warriors waiting outside in, and capture the fort. Unfortunately for Chief Pontiac, the British were somehow informed of the plan and were ready. Pontiac, using a predetermined signal, called off the ambush and the peace pipe was tensely smoked. Pontiac and his party departed, furious that the carefully planned attack had been detected.

The period of time that followed was one of great conflict around Fort Detroit and throughout “the whole region west of the Allegheny Mountains” (Bald, 1954, p. 71). Eventually every fort except Niagara, Pitt, and Detroit was captured by the Indians (Bald, 1954, p. 71). A siege of Detroit was conducted by the Indians led by Pontiac, which would last 153 days. The word that the French and British “7 Year War” was ended came in 1763. The British victory effectively ended Pontiac’s hope that the French would return to rule the area. In the fall of 1763, Pontiac received word “from the French commandant in the northern Louisiana country, to whom he had appealed for help: there could be no help, now or ever, because beyond the seas the incomprehensible white kings had made peace” (Catton, 1984, p. 49).

Part II: Cultural Conflict

Governance

When the Revolutionary War ended in 1783, the British refused to relinquish control of the Michigan Territory. Their principal focus was to maintain the riches of the fur trade as long as possible. This occupation continued in spite of the Northwest Ordinance of 1787, which provided a form of territorial government, a means of progressing towards statehood, and declared that “religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged” (Ordinance of 1787). Little, if any, formal education existed in the area of

Monroe during this time (Bald, 1954, p. 88). Finally, with the British surrender of Detroit and Fort Mackinaw to the United States in 1796, Michigan would become part of the United States of America.

Frenchtown and the entire region of southeast Michigan continued to be a remote outpost at the dawn of the nineteenth century. According to Dain (1968), “From the time the American flag first rose over it, the region had existed precariously, surrounded by potential enemies, and cut off by lakes, forests, and swamps from the populated regions of the United States” (p. 57).



Figure 14: Michigan Territory Boundary Changes; From Michigan in Four Centuries, by F. C. Bald, 1954, New York: Harper Brothers, p. 105.

During its early years as part of the United States of America, Michigan was governed as part of the Northwest Territory from 1800-1803, split between the Northwest and newly formed Indiana Territory in 1803, and finally in 1805 was made a “separate political unit as the Territory of Michigan” (Dunbar, 1971, pp. 184-189). In 1818 the Territory of Michigan was extended to include the area west to the Mississippi River that roughly constituted what is today the state of Wisconsin. The territorial governance structure consisted of a Territorial Governor, a Secretary of the Interior, and three judges; all were appointees of President Thomas Jefferson. “Michigan’s first Territorial Governor

was William Hull of Massachusetts” (Dunbar, 1971, p. 193). Stanley Griswold of Connecticut was appointed the first Territorial Secretary of the Interior. The three territorial judges were Augustus Elias Brevoort Woodward of Virginia, Frederick Bates of Michigan, and John Griffin of Virginia. Bates soon resigned and was replaced by James Witherall of Vermont. The politics of the governing board were such that it pitted the three New Englanders against the two Virginians (Dunbar, 1971, pp. 194-195). In particular, Hull and Woodward were at great odds with one another. It was Judge Woodward who crafted Michigan’s first set of laws, referred to as the “Woodward Code,” “which consisted of thirty-one laws” (Dunbar, 1971, p. 197). According to Dunbar (1971), “The ordinance of 1787 had specified that the laws enacted by the Governor, Secretary and Judges of the territory must be adapted from those of the original states, but much of Woodward’s Code was original, altogether too elaborate and complicated for a pioneer community” (p. 197).

Later, in the absence of Woodward, Governor Hull would see to it that the Woodward Code would be replaced by the “Witherall Code.” This package of 41 laws was drafted by Judge Witherall. Later, Judge Woodward was successful in getting the governing board to revise itself and yet again reinstate the “Woodward Code” (Dunbar, 1971, pp. 197-199). The Michigan Territorial Government suffered from a less than stellar reputation during those years, which did not assist it in attracting either financing or populations from the east (Dunbar, 1971, pp. 197-200). In the midst of this government’s dysfunction, the Indians were still in possession of much of the Michigan Territory, and their fears of the American expansion from the East were being heightened by Tenskwatawa, the “Shawnee Prophet,” the mystic brother of the Great War Chief of the Shawnee, Tecumseh. Unlike its neighbors, Ohio, which had already achieved

statehood, and the fast growing territory of Indiana, Michigan was “unknown, unsurveyed, and uninhabitable” (Dain, 1968, p. 60). The immediate future did not bode well for the tiny settlement of Frenchtown.

The Shawnee were an Algonquin tribe of the Northeast culture area thought to have originally been located in the general vicinity of southern Ohio, West Virginia, and western Pennsylvania. After having been driven from their homelands in the mid-1600s by warring Iroquois tribes from the north, the Shawnee returned to their historical homelands by the mid-1700s. The Shawnee chief, Tecumseh, thought by many to be the greatest indigenous leader, was a brilliant strategist and a visionary politician, intent on convincing the many tribes west of the Allegheny Mountains to confederate and act as one against the invading white man. Tecumseh believed that only by coming together in common purpose would the indigenous people have a say in the future of North America. Tecumseh was also of the conviction that treaties signed by individual tribes granting land to the white man were invalid, as these territories belonged to no individual tribe. Tecumseh equated such treaties to the granting of the air, sky, or water to others, an act that was impossible as no person (or tribe, nor government) could own them. The earth could only belong to the “Master of Life,” the Shawnee’s principle God. In 1808 the Shawnee, under the leadership of Tecumseh and his brother Tenskwatawa, “the prophet,” founded the village of Tippecanoe or “Prophetstown” as it was often called. Tippecanoe was a place where indigenous people of any tribe could gather, free of the burdens of the white man. Tecumseh traveled throughout what was then the Northwest Territory, seeking alliances with the indigenous tribes. It was during one of his tours away from Prophetstown that William Henry Harrison, Governor of the Indiana Territory, famous Indian fighter, and future president, used alcohol and trickery to gain a treaty granting

three million acres to the United States for \$7,000.00 and a small annuity. Tecumseh personally confronted Harrison upon his return but did not have his 1,000 warriors attack. It was not yet the time for the indigenous people to fight.

Tecumseh continued to rally the indigenous tribes west of the Alleghenies. During one such trip, on November 6, 1811, William Henry Harrison incited Tenskwatawa to attack his 1,000 troop militia. The attack was rebuffed in spite of heavy troop losses by Harrison. The next day Harrison would enter the abandoned Tippecanoe and burn it to the ground. Harrison claimed a major United States victory and three years later rode it to the Presidency. Tecumseh would continue to pursue his goal of a homeland for all indigenous people by joining the British effort to defeat the invading Americans in the coming fight (Waldman, 2000, pp. 137-139).

War of 1812

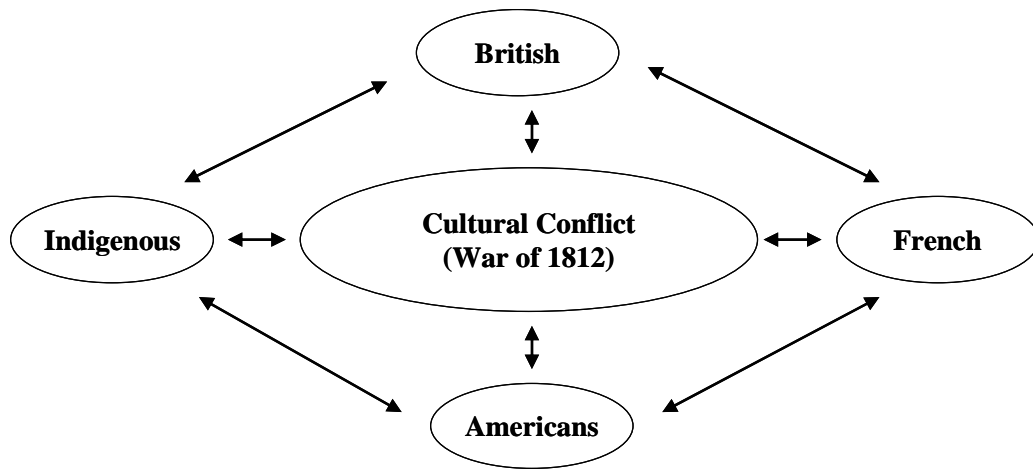


Figure 15: Cultural Conflict.

In 1812, war broke out when the British allied with a confederation of Indian tribes, led by Chief Tecumseh, against the Americans. The British captured Detroit on August 16, 1812, without a shot being fired (Bald, 1954, p. 128). The controversial surrender by General Hull also applied to the small detachment located at Frenchtown

under Captain Brush who ignored the order. Brush removed his men from Frenchtown to Ohio. The British dispatched troops and Indians to Frenchtown who seized the settlement. On January 18, 1812, an American force, led by Colonel William Lewis, returned and drove the British and Indians out of Frenchtown. American reinforcements soon arrived, which swelled the number of American infantry to approximately 1,000 men. The see-saw battle was not over. On January 22, before sunrise, the British and Indians attacked, catching the French and American inhabitants of the village unaware. After a vicious battle, the Americans surrendered following negotiations guaranteeing that the wounded Americans would be protected. The British, fearing yet another counter attack by the Americans from Ohio, took those prisoners who were able to walk and removed themselves to Fort Malden in Canada. The village was attacked the next day by an estimated 200 Indians who would kill the remaining wounded and burn much of the village to the ground. Soon the village of Frenchtown would be deserted by all, and the battle cry of the War of 1812 became "Remember the Raisin!" McLaughlin (1891) states that

"The poor people from the Raisin District, whose houses had been burned or left in desolation, without food or means to obtain it, hovered, clamoring, in the village [Detroit] where the young governor [Cass] was expected to turn stones into bread. The lives of the French people had been spared by the Indians because of the general friendliness between the two races, but the hungry savages had killed their cattle, carried off the fruit from the orchards, burnt the fences and the floors of the houses, and left the *habitant* in the direst destitution." (p. 87)

As the War of 1812 progressed, great naval battles would be conducted on Lake Erie, not far from the shores of the now evacuated River Raisin Settlement. On October

5, 1813, Tecumseh was killed at the Battle of Thames after his indigenous warriors were deserted by the British under Colonel Henry Proctor (Waldman, 2000, p. 139). On December 24, 1814, a peace treaty between the British and Americans was signed in Ghent, Belgium. According to Burton (1904), a series of articles appearing in the Detroit Gazette beginning on May 21, 1819, chronicled the ending of this war as follows:

The return of peace, in 1815, was joyfully hailed by the people of Michigan, who had been long harassed and disturbed by a savage border war with all its frightful concomitants, during which the inhabitants of the territory, although many of them were strangers to our language, laws, and government, have borne every species of privation and distress that savage malice could support. (p. 20)

In 1817 Britain and the United States signed an agreement that committed both nations to operate only unarmed vessels on the Great Lakes (Bald, 1958, pp. 127-143). These treaties opened new opportunities for progress in Michigan and the settlement of Frenchtown. With peace, many of the families who evacuated Frenchtown returned to rebuild their community (Zeisler, 1969, pp. 29-30). In time, many others would follow.

Summary and Analysis

Table 8.

The British Cultural Environment in Michigan

<p>Cultural Environment: British</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Language (English)• Governance (monarchy)• Economy/Tasks (fur traders)• Religion/Ideology (Protestant)• Myth-Complex (hierarchical)

On September 8, 1760, the British dominance over Michigan began with the fall of Montreal. Like the French, the British rule was motivated by the search for riches primarily through the fur trade. Unfortunately, for the Indigenous people, the British, unlike the French, did not respect their way of life, and their rule was marked by great conflict. Michigan remained occupied by the British even after the Revolutionary War. After defeating Pontiac and the French, the British allied themselves with the Shawnee leader, Tecumseh, in an attempt to prohibit the tide of Americans coming from the east. For the British this fight was a last ditch effort to prolong their economic monopoly over the fur trade. The British would lose their monopoly but eventually establish relationships with the United States national government. Tecumseh would be killed during the War of 1812, his movement and culture exterminated from their native lands. For Tecumseh and his confederation of tribes, the fight was a last ditch effort to reject the dominance of the American culture and to maintain the indigenous peoples' control of their destiny. The indigenous leaders and holy men were ultimately "forced" to adapt their myth-complex to accept the government of the United States, but it was not done without great conflict and bloodshed on both sides. The battles occurring in Monroe County left the people in extreme poverty and their property abandoned.

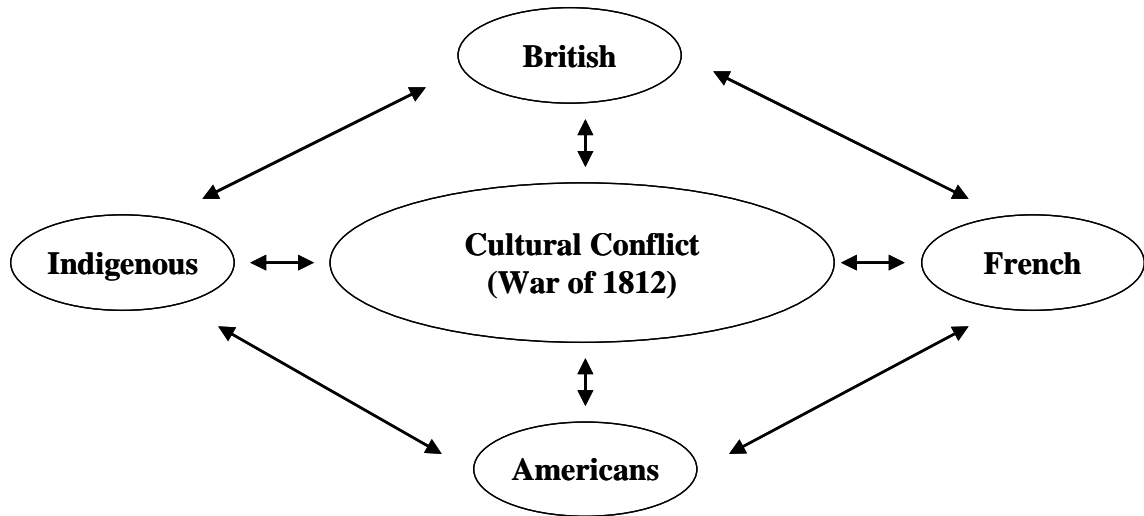


Figure 16: Cultural Conflict.

Very little purposefully changed concerning the education of children during the British conquest and rule of Michigan. The state of war, in all probability, must have impacted the curriculum taught by the indigenous people to their children. The French, in all probability, were able to continue their religious teachings though the hostile environment most certainly effected the education of the few children who were now in “Le Detroit.” There were no known advocates and certainly no policy entrepreneurs for bringing formal education to the Territory of Michigan amongst the British.

Cultural Environment: American Territorial Era - 1805

Language

Though the British were finally driven from the Michigan Territory, the English language they had brought would stay and become dominant within the cultural myth-complex of Michigan throughout its history.

Governance

During the War of 1812, upon the retaking of Detroit by the Americans, James Madison appointed Brigadier General Lewis Cass as Interim Governor of the territory.

Cass, a native of New Hampshire, would continue in that position following the end of the hostilities. William Woodbridge, a Connecticut native, was appointed as secretary of the territorial government by President Madison following the war (Dain, 1968, pp. 71-72). The United States also decreed that hereafter only Americans could engage in the fur trade on American soil, which cleared the way to fortune for John Jacob Astor (Catton, 1984, p. 65). The Michigan Territory, and especially Frenchtown, was badly damaged by the War of 1812.

“In May, 1815, Cass spent \$1,500.00 provided by Congress to buy flour for the starving settlers in the River Raisin” (Dunbar, 1970, p. 21). Governor Cass was an assertive executive who sought to strengthen Michigan’s appeal to settlers. His efforts were hampered by the negative reputation that Michigan had acquired over time. The reputation was reinforced by Edward Tiffin, Surveyor General of the United States, who wrote unfavorable accounts of Michigan’s land to Congress when conducting a survey of the southeastern portion of the territory in 1815. It was the Congress’ intent to distribute two million acres of Michigan to veterans of the War of 1812. Relying on the early reports of surveyors involved in this work, Tiffin reported that “Michigan apparently consisted of swamps, lakes and poor sandy land which was not worth the cost of a survey” (Bald, 1958, p. 146). He declared that in his opinion, there was “not more than one acre in a hundred, if there were one out of a thousand that would in any case admit of cultivation” (Bald, 1958, p. 146). As a result of Tiffin’s reporting, Congress allocated land in Illinois and Missouri to the veterans of the war of 1812. Lewis Cass did not accept Tiffin’s assessment, and, at his insistence, the surveying of Michigan was completed. During this territorial period, Michigan’s boundaries were changed repeatedly as statehood came to the surrounding area of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. These changes

insured that these states had advantageous ports in Gary (Indiana), Chicago (Illinois), and Toledo (Ohio). In the case of Ohio, the boundary line was disputed throughout the territorial period (Dunbar, 1970, pp. 272-274).

As a result of the survey's completion, which Lewis Cass had insisted upon, the rich lands and forests of Michigan were eventually discovered (Bald, 1958, p. 146). Still, due to its reputation as an uninhabitable and hostile territory, lack of roads, and primitive means of transportation, population growth came slowly to the Michigan Territory in its early years.

In 1818 Governor Cass submitted the question of popularly electing the governor, secretary, and judges to the people. The Ordinance of 1787 allowed this action once a territorial districts' population reached "5,000 free male inhabitants, of full age" (Ordinance of 1787: The Northwest Territorial Government, 1878, sec. 9, p. LIII). The measure was soundly defeated. The French settlers, who were still the predominant electorate, were suspicious of government, did not object to the status quo, and were not convinced that the cost of the new form of government was worth it (Cooley, 1885, p. 198). This was a significant blow to Cass as he firmly believed in a representative, freely elected government. Still, in 1819, Congress granted the right to the Michigan Territory to elect a delegate to Congress who could engage in debate, but not vote. "In 1825, thirteen councilmen were allowed, and in 1827 the people choose the whole number. The judicial system was gradually elaborated to meet the growing needs of the territory" (McLaughlin, 1891, p. 121).

As Michigan began its territorial years, there were just four towns within its boundaries: Detroit, Sault Sainte Marie, Mackinac, and Monroe (Frenchtown; Bald, 1954, p. 161). During the period that followed, much of the state's land had to be secured

from the Indians via treaties, and Governor Cass set out to see to it that this was successfully done with the help of the fur traders (Catton, 1984, pp. 69-70). Catton described the dynamics of the negotiations surrounding the treaties:

Arranging the treaties by which these huge parcels of land were acquired was not very difficult. The Indians had got used to the white man by now, and were more or less adjusted to the fact that he was there to stay; also they got value received for the land they surrendered, receiving not only cash in hand and arrangements for annuities but also various continuing services – the help of blacksmiths to keep their guns in repair, schooling for their children, medical attention, some help (clumsey enough but well intended) in the matter of adapting to the new ways that American settlement would bring. (p. 70)

Catton (1984) further explained how the fur traders were helpful in this process:

From the beginning, unlike their French and British predecessors, they had known that civilization was going to come to the wilderness, and they had taken pains to be on friendly terms with the Indians and, by standards of that time and place, to deal fairly with them; which is to say that although they did swindle them, they kept it within bounds. As a result, many of the Indians followed the traders' advice when it came to making treaties. (p. 70)

Once the states' land was secured, Cass set out to have it surveyed so that settlers might buy it. Catton (1984) described the manner in which this was done:

They began by carefully surveying and marking two lines – the meridian line, running north and south through the state on a true meridian of longitude, known as the “First Principle Meridian,” and an east-west base line on a chosen parallel of latitude, which, as it turned out, ran along the northern border of Wayne

County and continues onto Lake Michigan. Every piece of real property bought or sold in Michigan since then is described in terms of its relation to those two lines.

(p. 70)

Using those two lines as their reference points, the state was laid into townships, six miles square, that is containing thirty-six square miles. Each township was then divided into thirty-six sections. This preciseness with which Michigan was divided made title to property very exact. “While all this surveying was going forward, a new land law passed in 1820 made it possible for a man who could pay cash to buy eighty acres of land at \$1.25 an acre; which meant that, for as little as \$100.00, he could become owner of an eighty acre farm. If the soil was halfway good and he was strong and industrious, he was fixed for life” (Catton, 1984, p. 71).

Local Government Organization

“On July 14, 1817, the territorial government of Michigan under Lewis Cass established the ‘County of Monroe’ (Carter, 1942, Vol. x, pp. 729-730). Nearly two months later, on September 4, 1817, the “town of Monroe” and “township” of Monroe were established by proclamation of the territorial secretary, William Woodridge, acting on behalf of Governor Cass (Carter, 1942, vol. x, pp. 730-731). According to Bulkley (1913), “The immediate occasion for the organization of Monroe County was possibly the expected visit from the President of the United States, the Honorable James Monroe, who had already started on his tour through the northern states. He arrived in Detroit about the middle of August, accompanied by a party of distinguished officials of the government and of the army” (p. 247). President Monroe never visited the town or township of Monroe, which had so recently been named in his honor.

On May 4, 1818, Governor Cass, in accordance with the Ordinance of 1787, issued a proclamation establishing the Townships of Frenchtown, Monroe, Raisinville, and Erie (Carter, 1942, Vol. x, pp. 776-777). In 1825 Congress authorized the territorial Governor and council to divide the territory into townships, incorporate them, and provide for the election of officers. “All county officers were to be elected except for judges, sheriffs, clerks, judges of probate and justices of the peace” (Bulkley, 1913, p. 481). In 1827 five townships were organized: Frenchtown, Monroe, Raisinville, Erie, and Fort Lawrence. Fort Lawrence lies within the territory that was disputed by Michigan and Ohio. Eventually, Fort Lawrence would become part of Lucas County, Ohio (Bulkley, 1913, p. 481). As population grew, so did the number of townships in Monroe County. The townships that were later organized from the original five organized in 1827 are as follows:

Townships	Date Organized
LaSalle	1830 (from Erie)
Summerfield	1831 (from Raisinville)
London	1833 (from Raisinville and Summerfield)
Whiteford	1834 (from Fort Lawrence)
Milan	1836 (from London)
Bedford	1836 (from Erie)
Exeter	1836 (from London)
Ash	1837 (from Frenchtown)
Ida	1837 (from Raisinville and Summerfield)
Dundee	1838 (from Raisinville and Summerfield)
Berlin	1867 (from Ash)

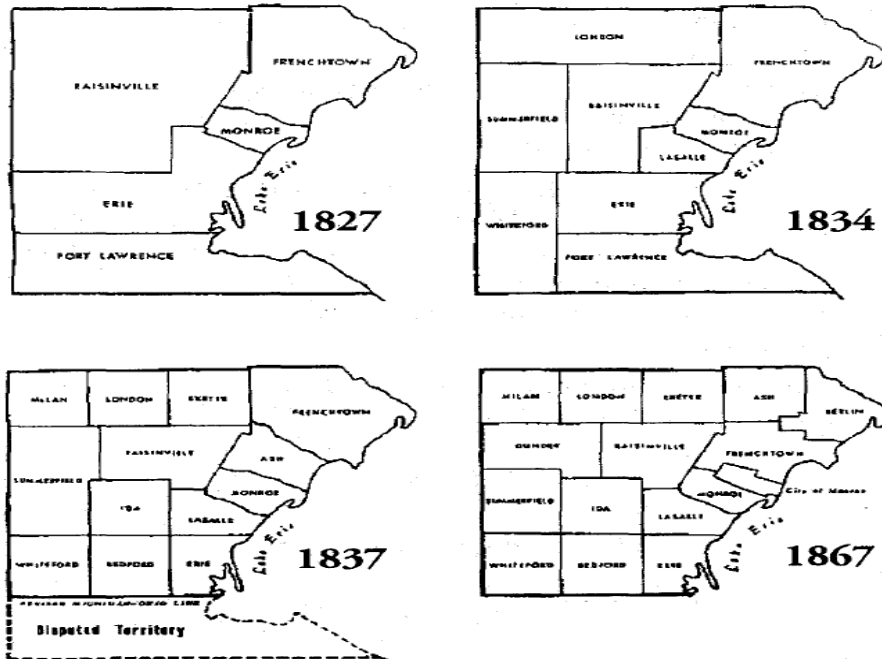


Figure 17. Evolution of Townships in Monroe County, Michigan. From the Floral City: A Brief History of the City and County of Monroe, Michigan. 1830-1930. Naveaux, R. and Gruber, S. 2001, Monroe, MI; Monroe County

Demographics

Cultural Migration

During its later territorial years, as Michigan recovered from its many battles and wars, its character was slowly changing. According to Cooley (1885), “The French-Canadian element was still conspicuous along all the eastern border of the state, and the increase was large and continuous, though the proportion relatively to the whole population was all the while diminishing” (p. 323).

According to Dunbar (1971), “One of the factors that was most important in delaying any large scale movement into Michigan was the difficulty in reaching the territory” (p. 245). “Navigation on Lake Erie was regarded as more dangerous than on the Atlantic” (Dunbar, 1971, p. 245). According to Catton (1984),

“To reach this area [Michigan], in those days, people from the east usually crossed Pennsylvania overland, drifted down the Ohio, and then cut north overland, striking up for the mouth of the Maumee, where Toledo is now. This place, unfortunately, was surrounded by a vast bog known as the Black Swamp, which was no fit place for an immigrant wagon.” (p. 72)

Immigration from the east increased first over the water from Buffalo across Lake Erie. The sailboat excursion would take approximately ten days. In 1817 the steamboat “Walk in the Water” was the first to make this trip in just under three days. LaPlaisance Harbor was the first stop the boats made on their way to Detroit and the upper lakes. In 1825, the Erie Canal would open and now the Great Lakes were connected to the Atlantic Ocean (Zeisler, 1969, p. 37). Settlers could travel in the relative comfort of canal boats across New York to Buffalo. The New England floodgates were open and the men of Monroe were ready. “Colonel John Anderson and others formed the LaPlaisance Bay Harbor Company. They dredged out the shallow bay and built docks and warehouses. They fixed up the road to Monroe” (Zeisler, 1969, p. 37). The population increased as statehood approached:

<u>Michigan Territory</u>	<u>Monroe</u>
1810 – 4,528	1,340
1820 – 9,048	1,831
1830- 32,531	3,187
1834 – 87, 273	8, 542

Source: Buckley, 1913, pp. 551-552

Economy/Tasks

As Michigan approached statehood in 1834, its industry began to change as the prominence of the fur trade was “definitely shifting westward to St. Louis from

Mackinac” (Dunbar, 1970, p. 232). “The competition for furs had become so intense that Michigan had, in fact, lost most of its wildlife before it was settled” (Catton, 1984, p. 68).

Though Michigan’s pioneers were similar to others who ventured west, they possessed some unique characteristics. First and foremost, these people were predominantly from New England. Nowhere in the west did the New Englanders dominate migration as they did in Michigan (Dunbar, 1970, p. 255). This fact would influence the development of a public education system, the naming of communities, state politics, and the state’s religious character.

Most of these pioneers were farmers. Upon their arrival, whether by boat, wagon, cart, foot, or later, train, food and shelter were on their minds when they arrived. According to Dunbar (1970), “Some settlers arrived with only the bare essentials: their clothing, a small amount of flour and salt, an axe, rifle, iron pot, a few tools, some seeds, and bed clothing. Many families arrived better equipped, however. Frequently, a choice piece of furniture, a flute, a fiddle, a few dishes, or some other prized possession, was brought from the east” (p. 257). Like their predecessors, the Indians, these settlers from New England, depended on wild game, fish, and other natural resources to provide food, clothing, and shelter.

In 1823 a land office was opened in Monroe, and many more people came to the area. According to Bald (1954):

Among them were several young men of unusual ability: Austin E. Wing; Warner Wing; Isaac P. Christiancy, who later became justice of the state supreme court and United States senator; Alpheus Felch, governor of Michigan, 1846-1847, and United States senator; and Robert McClelland, governor, 1852-1853, member of

Congress and Secretary of the Interior in the cabinet of President Franklin K. Pierce.

These and other leaders were determined to make Monroe a great lake port. They induced Congress to open a channel connecting the town [Monroe] with Lake Erie, and the citizens themselves, appropriated money to pay for part of it. In 1836 there were in Monroe three banks, six churches, a woolen mill, an iron foundry, a tannery, three saw mills, two flour mills, and two printing offices. Two warehouses and wharves had been erected for the use of shippers. In the population of fifteen hundred, there were thirty merchants, six physicians, and thirteen lawyers.

In spite of able and aggressive leaders, Monroe did not become a lake port except for a few years. Situated between Detroit and Toledo it found most of the traffic it had hoped for going to these towns. (p. 165)

Once these New Englanders who came to Monroe and Michigan took care of their basic needs, they set their sights “to providing schools, churches, literary societies, and other cultural organizations patterned on their previous experiences in New England” (Bald, 1954, p. 174). It is important to note that while many “New Englanders” were bringing change to the former “New France,” there was still a great deal of wilderness left in Monroe County. According to LaVoy (1971), “As late as 1827 many Canadians [French] still wore the buck skin shirt, leggings and moccasins together with a leather belt and sheath-knife” (p. 67).

Governor Cass also set out to develop a system of roads during the territorial years. He secured federal funding to build a road from Detroit to the Maumee Rapids. The first road to Fort Dearborn (Chicago) received federal appropriations in 1825, and

“by 1835 two stagecoaches a week were operated between Detroit and Fort Dearborn” (Dunbar, 1970, p. 246). During this time, roads were extended or begun throughout the territory connecting Detroit to Indiana, Ypsilanti, Saginaw, and Grand Rapids (Dunbar, 1970, p. 24).

Ideology

With the coming of roads, steamboats, the Erie Canal, trains, and New Englanders, the territory’s religious character began to change. Most of the settlers coming from New England were of the Protestant faith. The Reverend John Monteith of Connecticut began preaching in Monroe in 1816. Monteith, who co-founded Michigan’s first public education system, organized the First Presbyterian Church of Monroe on January 13, 1820 (Bulkley, 1913, p. 434). These ministers preached to “not only Presbyterians, but Congregationalists, Methodists, Baptists, and Episcopalians” (Bulkley, 1913, p. 434). Though initially small in numbers, the influx and influence of Protestants would grow as the counties, towns, and townships of Monroe County were formed and education of children became increasingly important.

Education

Governance

It was during the early territorial period that the first signs of a centralized system of public education appeared. According to Hoyt and Ford (1905), “The first law relating to schools in the territory was in 1809” (p. 47). This law, which provided for taxation to support the schools, was never enacted (Bald, 1954, p. 174). Territorial Governor Lewis Cass was a strong advocate for education. His New England roots informed his beliefs concerning the value of common schools. Cass sought the counsel of others in attempting to make Michigan attractive to the many people moving west from the New England

states. Those within this circle of advisors included Territorial Secretary Woodbridge, Territorial Judge Augustus Woodward, Father Gabriel Richard, John R. Williams (Mayor of Detroit), and Reverend John Monteith. These men were the religious and governmental leaders of the territory. All were staunch advocates for “the creation of a plan for education for the territory” (Dain, 1968, p. 76). These men would work together to devise a plan that would provide a system of universal education for the children of Michigan. The system would be written by Judge Woodward, who had authored the book *The System of Universal Science*. According to Rosalita (1928), “Judge Woodward worked out a system of universal science and inflicted it upon a patient people in the form of the act to establish the Catholepistemiad or University of Michigania” (p. 127).

This system of colleges, academies, schools, libraries, and laboratories, which was implemented in 1817, was highly centralized and reflected the structure of the French system of education, upon which it appeared to be based (Hoyt and Ford, 1905). The Catholepistemiad was much more than a university. It was a system that addressed education from the elementary through the college level. The Catholepistemiad required a 15 percent tax increase, lotteries, and student tuitions to fund it. The Catholepistemiad was nonsectarian and governed by a board consisting of those persons holding the thirteen “didaxia” or professorships (Dain, 1968, p. 81). Woodward’s legal terminology was strange to the fledgling territory and certainly did nothing to advance its cause among the people. The professorships (“didactors”) were composed of the following:

1. “Catholepistemia or universal science”
2. “Anthiopoglassica or literature”
3. “Mathematica or mathematics”
4. “Physiognostica or natural history”

5. “Physiosophica or natural philosophy”
6. “Astronomia or astronomy”
7. “Chymia or chemistry”
8. “Iatuca or medical sciences”
9. “Aeconomia or economical sciences”
10. “Ethica or ethical sciences”
11. “Polemitactica or military sciences”
12. “Diegetica or historical sciences”
13. “Ennolica or intellectual sciences” (Rosalita, 1928)

The leaders of the Michigan Territory put their system into the hands of two men. The Reverend John Monteith was appointed President, and Father Gabriel Richard was appointed vice president of the university. Of the thirteen professorships within this system of education, President Monteith was assigned seven and Vice President Richard six. The annual salary was established at \$25.00 for the President and \$18.75 for the Vice President. Funding for this system was to be provided by a 15 percent tax increase and on future proceeds from up to four lotteries (Bald, 1958, p. 178). This educational system was not free to its students. According to Dain (1968),

The board adopted a standard tuition rate of \$2.50 per quarter. It specified, however, that this rate should be increased to \$3.50 per quarter for those whose parents have not contributed at least ten dollars to the university building fund, and might be reduced to a minimum of \$1.00 per quarter “at the discretion of the directors” for those in “low circumstances.” (p. 94)

According to Bald (1958), this plan set forth four principles that would “become foundation stones of the public education system of Michigan and of other states as well” (p. 178). These principles were:

1. That it is the duty of the state to provide education for its people from the lowest grade through the university.
2. That the system must be supported by taxation.
3. That tuition fees for higher education should be low.
4. That the schools should be nonsectarian (Bald, 1958, p. 178).

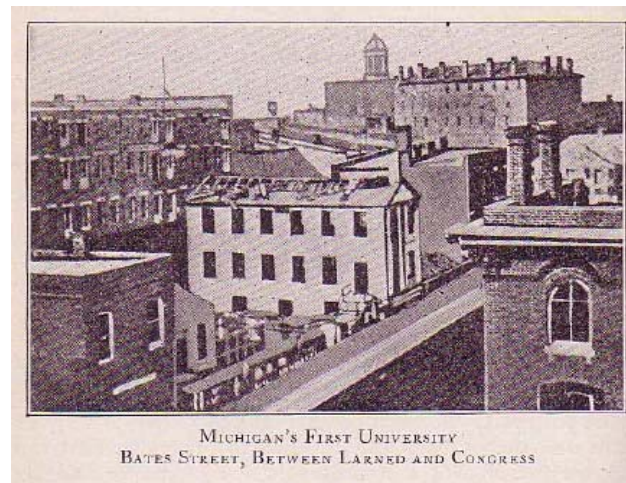


Figure 18: Michigan’s First University. Note: From the Story of Detroit, by G. Catlin, 1926, Detroit: The Detroit News. p. 226.

On November 6, 1826, Michigan Territorial Governor, Lewis Cass, addressed the legislative council. According to Fuller (1925), Cass stated the following in regard to education:

Of all the purposes to which a revenue derived from the people can be applied under a government emanating from the people, there is none more interested in itself, nor more important in its effects, than the maintenance of a discipline...Many republics have preceded us in the progress of human society;

but they have disappeared, leaving behind them little besides the history of their follies and dissensions to serve as a warning to their successors in the career of self-government. Unless the foundation of such governments is laid in the virtue and intelligence of the community, they must be swept away by the first commotion to which political circumstances may give birth. Whenever education is diffused among the people generally, they will appreciate the value of free institutions; and as they have the power, so must they have the will to maintain them. It appears to me that a plan may be devised which will not press too heavily upon the means of the country, and which will insure a competent portion of education to all youth in the Territory. (pp. 27-28)

McLaughlin (1891) stated that “such views as these were in advance of the thinking of the time” (p. 123).

In 1827 the Territorial Council, which had succeeded the governor and judges as the lawmaking body, took a more decentralized approach to the cause of education. This law was modeled on the Massachusetts law of 1647 and was Michigan’s first attempt to enact “semi-public education” (Rosalita, 1928, p. 205).

The Massachusetts Law of 1647 was significant in that for the first time an English-speaking government was acknowledging that education should be accomplished outside the home via community-based schools (Cubberly, 1934, p. 18).

The Massachusetts Law of 1647 ordered:

1. That every town having 50 householders should at once appoint a teacher of reading and writing, and provide for his wages in such a manner as the town might determine; and

2. That every town having 100 householders must provide a (Latin) grammar school to fit youths for the university, under a penalty of £5 for failure to do so!

According to Martin, “The underlying principles which underlie this legislation are:

1. The universal education of youth is essential to the well being of the state.
2. The obligation to furnish this education rests primarily on the parent.
3. The state has a right to enforce this obligation.
4. The state may fix a standard which shall determine the kind of education, and minimum amount.
5. Public money, raised by a general tax, may be used to provide such education as the state requires. This tax may be general, though the school attendance is not.
6. Education higher than the rudiments may be supplied by the state.

Opportunity must be provided, at public expense, for youths who wish to be fitted for the university. (Cubberly, 1934, pp. 18-19).

The Massachusetts Law became the basis for providing education throughout most of New England (Cubberly, 1934, pp. 18-19).

Moehlman (1925) summarized Michigan’s Law of 1827:

This act provided that every township with 50 inhabitants or householders should employ a school master of good morals to teach children to read and write and to instruct them in English and French languages as well as arithmetic, writing, and decent behavior, for lengths of time that would be equivalent to six months a year for each school. Each township with 200 families or more was also to provide a grammar school master that would instruct in Latin, French, and English

languages. Townships were subject to a fine of from \$50.00 to \$150.00 for failure to support such a teacher. To administer these schools the township was to choose five persons as inspectors of common schools. The people at their annual meeting voted to raise such sums of money upon the polls and estates as a majority deemed expedient. This levy was to be assessed and collected at the same time with county and township taxes. The monies were to be apportioned by the supervisor and town clerk according to the children between the number of 5 and 17 years, as appeared in the census of the district, and were to be used exclusively for the wages of the schoolmasters.

This law, however, did not apply to such townships which, by a two-thirds vote, decided not to accept its provisions. Section 10 provided for the exception of poor parents from supplying fuel. This law, while very important, was not mandatory; and consequently, not generally effective. (p. 50)

Decentralized Education

The decentralized “New England” model of education replacing the centralized “New France” model in Michigan in 1827 would have implications throughout history. Cubberly (1934) characterized three types of educational systems developed in early America. These systems had religious origins and can be characterized as “the compulsory maintenance attitude,” “the parochial school attitude,” and “the pauper-school non-state-interference attitude” (Cubberly, pp. 15-24). The compulsory school maintenance attitude as carried out by the Puritans and others in New England was viewed by Cubberly (1934) as directly linked to the Protestant reformation and the need for knowledge of the gospels to receive personal salvation. This meant everyone needed to read the bible. As the state was viewed by these Protestants as a vehicle for the church,

the connection between the church, state, and school was a short leap indeed. The state would ensure that parents met their obligations to their children. In 1636, Harvard (Massachusetts) and in 1701 Yale (Connecticut) were founded. These colleges were the first capstone “English type” experiences for preparing boys for the ministry in America (Cubberly, 1934, pp. 15-16). This was the model adhered to by Michigan’s educational activists flooding in from New England after 1825 and the opening of the Erie Canal.

The “parochial school attitude” was best displayed in New Jersey and Pennsylvania and was the result of people of different Protestant faiths migrating to form the citizenry. No monopoly of faith existed as it did in the early New England Colonies. Significantly, these various sects valued the importance of reading scripture. Just as significantly to the development of their schools they came from different nationalities, practiced different creeds, and looked to their sect, not the state, for instruction. Education in the “middle colonies” was left to the church in the beginning. Public schools would come only after overcoming “bitter opposition” (Cubberly, 1934, pp. 20-22).

The “pauper-school non-state-interference attitude” was found in the southern colonies and was best exemplified by Virginia. The southern colonists, in contrast to New Englanders, were not dissenters from the English national church, but loyal adherents to that faith. They came here not for religious freedom, but for wealth. Educational opportunities developed in the south were modeled on those of England and were mostly dependent on one’s wealth. William and Mary College was founded in 1693 so “that the youth may be piously educated” (Cubberly, 1934, p. 23).

In commenting further on the development of schooling in the southern colonies, Cubberly (1934) stated, “the education of the leading class may have been wider and more generous than in the New England colonies, but it was the education of the small

class rather than that of the great bulk of the people” (p. 23). In Virginia and other southern colonies, like in England, education was no concern of the state. You would get what you could afford and aspired to attain.

According to Cubberly (1934) “These three types or attitudes towards public education became fixed American types, and deeply influenced subsequent American educational development” (p. 26).

The school laws in the territory of Michigan were further amended in 1829 and 1833. The school law of 1829 created the office of Superintendent of Common Schools. The law placed the Superintendent in an administrative role focused upon managing the reserve land grants, which had been given to the territories for educational purposes and overseeing the funds. These administrative duties included insuring that the rate bills were paid in proportion to the amount of time each individual student attended school and the total number of scholars attending the school during the three months it operated (Dain, 1968, p. 141). The city of Detroit was exempted from complying with the School Act of 1829 through an oversight. Wolcott Lawrence, a citizen of Monroe and an elected member of the Michigan Territorial Legislative Council from 1824-1831, was in the midst of this controversy that is unique to the early days of government. The reasons for this exemption are unclear. According to Dain (1968):

On the final day of the legislative session the School Act of 1829 won approval despite strong opposition. During the hectic days before the council’s adjournment, the legislators who opposed the bill made a last ditch attempt to hold it over to the next session of the council, and when that move failed, they did all in their power to defeat the measure. They protested that the measure was so lengthy and so complicated and had been introduced so late in the session that

they had not had sufficient opportunity to become acquainted with its provisions. Wolcott Lawrence, a legislator representing Monroe and Lenawee Counties, headed the opposition. Predicting that the people of the territory would consider the law 'oppressive and uncalled for by the circumstances, of the country,' he sought to amend it in such a manner that Monroe County would also be exempt from its provisions. This amendment failed by the slim margin of one vote. Resentful of the outcome, Lawrence immediately submitted an amendment to strike from the act the section granting exemption to Detroit. Perhaps influenced by the decision on the previous amendment, the legislators evidently reached the conclusion that no part of the territory should be exempt from the act. They accepted the amendment. Moments later the council approved the bill as amended and apparently nullified the exemption previously considered for Detroit.

But the bill had not yet become law. It reached the legislative clerks for enrollment along with a number of others that had been passed during the final days of the session. Deluged by the mass of paperwork, the harried clerks neglected to strike from the act the section which exempted Detroit from its provisions. Subsequently, the incorrect final draft went to the president of the legislative council who, failing to note the error, signed the act and forwarded it to the governor for his approval. (pp. 142-143)

Detroit would be exempted from the Michigan School Laws until 1833 when Governor Porter approved an act providing for common schools in the City of Detroit (Burton, 1922, p. 731). Students attending school under this law were required to pay tuition. According to Burton (1922), "The law also provided that at the annual April meeting, the qualified voters should determine the amount of money to be raised for the

purpose of defraying the charge of schooling such poor children as have no parents to provide for them” (p. 731).

Local Educational Governance

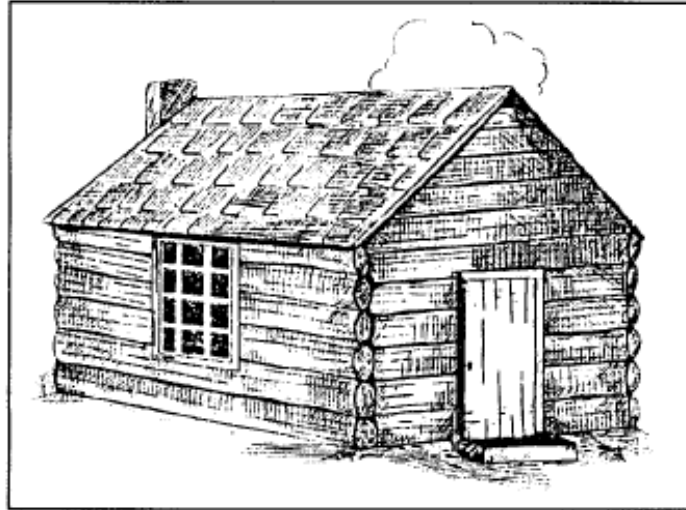


Figure 19: Michigan’s First “Free” Public School, The Bridge School, 1828. From the 100th Anniversary, Bridge School, the first public school in Michigan, S.E. Younglove, 1928. Monroe, MI: The Monroe Business Men’s Association.

The first formal education in Monroe during the territorial period was of private origin. According to Vollrath (1973), Isaac Skinner “probably” opened the first school in Monroe in 1819 “on the south side of the river.” Skinner’s time as a schoolmaster was short and he soon left teaching for politics. Colonel Peter Ferry, a man who it was said served under Napoleon Bonaparte, arrived in Monroe in 1822 and “taught school a number of years” (Wing, 1890, p. 144). Ferry, too, left teaching to become a politician as the elected County Treasurer of Monroe County (Wing, 1890, p. 144). It was common during this period for teachers to travel about, seeking students to teach. On August 4, 1827, John Kromer advertised in the Michigan Sentinel that he would be instructing school “in which will be taught the various branches of an ‘English education’ and ‘where the terms of teaching will be moderate’” (Vollrath, 1973).

On July 12, 1828, public education would begin to emerge west of the town of Monroe. On April 7, 1828, at the residence of George Sortor, in the township of Raisinville, a township meeting and election was held. Immediately afterwards a special meeting was conducted for the purpose of dividing and organizing the township into school districts. It was decided that the basis of division would be the allotment to each district of an equal number of homes. "Three school districts were formed. 'District Number 1' was composed of the present township of Monroe. 'District Number 3' was composed of the present township of Erie. 'District Number 2' 'lay wholly within the township of Raisinville'" (Younglove, 1928, p. 13). "In the year 1828, the Board promptly proceeded to business and built its first schoolhouse on the west line of the George Sortor farm, later known as the William Gibson Farm" (Younglove, 1928, p. 13). The school was built that summer by area residents of logs furnished by the surrounding timbered land (Younglove, 1928, p. 15). George Sortor, Francis Farwell (who became Bridge School's first teacher that year) and James Knaggs were chosen to constitute the district school board; and they continued to serve in that capacity during the following year, 1829 (Younglove, 1928, p. 15). According to Younglove (1928), "The only means of transportation across the river in the vicinity of the school house in District 2 for a time was a canoe eighteen feet long dug out of a large cottonwood tree" (p. 23). Initially any person, regardless of age, could attend school at the Bridge School. "In 1840 the age limit was placed at 21 with a small fee required of those between 21 and 24 years of age" (Younglove, 1928, p.17) "Raisinville Township's Bridge School was Michigan's first Free Public School" (Hartline, Meyers, Trace, G. and Trace R.H., 2002, p. 4). The school was named after the Bruckner Bridge, which was built in 1828.

According to Hartline et al. (2002), “The interior layout of Monroe County’s early schools probably followed the designs of rural schools in the east and northeastern parts of the county. Desks were typically attached to the walls of the school in a form of a ‘U’ pattern” (p. 5).

The manner in which school teachers delivered instruction in these facilities – which existed on the frontier of Michigan – must be viewed within the context of their surroundings, preparation, the materials they had, and the students they served.

The first school in Erie, the Turner School, opened in the summer of 1833. “The house was built in the winter and spring by labor, material, and money contributed by individuals, there being at that time no organization in the townships. The promoters were James Mulhollen, Jacob Turner, Hames Cornell, Warren Pietee, Samuel Colbath, George Hall, Peter Pieott, Salmon Keeney, John T. Gilbert, and Joseph Mocass. At the 1902 meeting of the Erie Pioneer and Historical Society, A. J. Keeney, local historian, shared his insights concerning the conditions under which Miss Gun, the Turner School’s first teacher, taught.

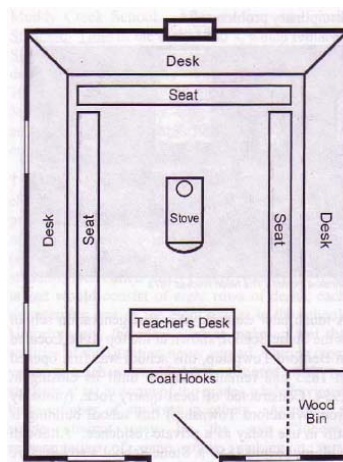


Figure 20: First General School – Early Interior Layout. From: Country Schools of Monroe County: LaSalle and Monroe Townships, by H. Hartline et al. 2002, Meyers and Trace, p. 5.

The house was not plastered, the seats were benches made of slabs and writing desks were boards fastened up against the side of the room. The school continued three months, the teacher receiving \$1.50 per week for her services and 'board around'. The attendance was from 8 to 10 pupils, mostly girls. The boys of those days were kept at home in summer to drive oxen, hoe corn, burn brush, make prairie hay and all other pioneer work of the time. During the summer on hot, cloudy days, it was no infrequent occurrence for the mosquitoes to come from the surrounding woods and dispute, the right of possession with teachers and pupils, to be settled only by a tribute of blood or vacate; and on several occasions the latter alternative was adopted, the scholars dismissed and the school dismissed for the day. This, of a truth, was getting an education under difficulties." (*The Observer*, 1952, August 9, p. 1)

These two early schools were among the first to serve their communities' efforts to provide public education. "Within thirty years every Monroe Township had built public schools" (Meyers & Trace, 1999, p. 1). These early schools were tiny and designed to accommodate fifteen to twenty children. Usually one teacher was responsible for teaching all students. A three man appointed board oversaw the teachers work (Meyers & Trace, 1999, p. 1).

Early American Pedagogy

During these early days of public education, the teachers were poorly prepared and barely educated by today's standards. The private schools were directed at teaching a "classical English education." Usually one teacher was assigned to teach and maintain the school building and grounds. The teacher of the one-room schoolhouse focused on the 3 R's and, by most accounts, student discipline.

Early American Curriculum

The bible was the book most often available to teachers. Spelling bees were a major activity for schools and entire communities. “The books used in the Turner School were Noah Webster’s spelling book, English readers and Day Balls Arithmetic. The older scholars took lessons in writing; the teacher setting their copies and making and mending their goose quill pens” (*The Observer*, 1952, August 9, p. 1).

Ideology

Educational Policy Entrepreneurs

Of particular significance to this territorial effort to create an educational system was the partnership that developed between Father Gabriel Richard, a Catholic Sulpician priest, and Reverend John Monteith, a Presbyterian minister. Father Richard was born in Sainte, France, on October 15, 1767 (LaVoy, 1972, p. 52). Richard escaped from France during the French Revolution in 1792. After teaching math for a period in Baltimore at the Sulpician Seminary, he worked as a missionary in French settlements near St. Louis, Missouri. In 1798 Father Richard was transferred to Detroit, which was ruled by the British and from which many of the French had fled (LaVoy, 1971, pp. 51-53). Throughout his life, Father Richard was an advocate for universal education in Michigan. According to Rosalita (1928), “By 1804, he [Gabrielle Richard] had in operation at Detroit a primary school for boys and girls, an academy for young ladies, and a seminary for young men” (p. 65).

The Reverend John Monteith was born on August 5, 1788, in Gettysburg, Pennsylvania. His parents were natives of Scotland. Reverend Monteith was a graduate of Jefferson College in 1813 and of Princeton Theological Seminary in 1816. Monteith

came to Detroit in June of 1816 as a missionary to the Board of Missions of the Presbyterian Church. Reverend Monteith would leave Michigan in 1820. He returned in 1845 and spent ten years in Blissfield, Michigan, before moving back to Ohio. The relatively brief time these men spent together during those early years in Michigan would have a lasting impact on education.

As leaders of the newly adopted educational system, Monteith and Richard went into action immediately to put the plan into place. They vigorously undertook a capital fundraising campaign to construct a building in Detroit. According to Dain (1968), “Judge Woodward laid the cornerstone for the university building on September 24, 1817, less than a month from the day the institution had come into being” (p. 82). Though a university class was never to be held in the building, “It was occupied for some years by a primary school and a classical academy conducted under the supervision of the university trustees” (Bald, 1954, p. 178). Soon the university authorized a classical academy for Detroit and primary schools for Detroit, Monroe, and Michilimackinac (Dain, 1968, p. 82).

The relationship enjoyed by the French and, in particular, Father Richard, with the Indians would soon pay off handsomely for the fledgling educational system. On September 29, 1817, the Indian leaders of the Ottawa, Pottawatomi, and Chippewa tribes met to negotiate a treaty with Governor Lewis Cass and General Duncan McArthur at Fort Meigs (now Toledo, Ohio). As a result of hearing of the educational efforts being undertaken by Gabriel Richard and others, the Indians included a provision in the treaty which gave “to the rector of the Catholic church of St. Anne of Detroit, for the use of said church, and to the college of Detroit, for the use of said college, to be retained or sold as the said rector and corporation may judge expedient, each one half of three sections of

land, to contain 640 acres on the River Raisin, at a place called Macon, and three sections not yet located” (Burton, 1922, p. 757). As there was no “College of Detroit” in existence to legally receive the gift, Richard and Monteith quickly saw to it that a charter was enacted, establishing the institution.

The charter specified that the College of Detroit be administered by the President and professors of the University of Michigan and that a building to house the new institution should be erected on university grounds (Dain, 1968, p. 83). In 1835 Congress directed that the lands granted to the Catholic Church of St. Anne’s of Detroit for the College of Detroit be sold and one-half of the proceeds given to the University of Michigan (Burton, 1922, p. 757). The Macon Reserve, which contained these lands, was located in the Northwest corner of Monroe County in an area that is now Dundee, Michigan. This gift to the educational system of Michigan by the Indian leaders is evidence of the respect they had for Father Richard and his longtime advocacy to educate their people. Unfortunately, as the year of 1817 passed, the fundraising from other sources dried up. The university building construction was interrupted due to the lack of funds. A decision was made to begin the Classical Academy of Detroit, in spite of the lack of a facility, so as not to lose the momentum achieved by the passage of the Education Act of 1817. The university rented a building in which to conduct a school for older students who had completed primary school. On February 2, 1818, the first academy classes were held in Detroit. Simultaneously with the creation of the Classical Academy of Detroit, Reverend Monteith made plans to create a primary school based on the Lancasterian model of educational pedagogy (Dain, 1968, p. 88). The pedagogy and curriculum would now be imported from Great Britain.

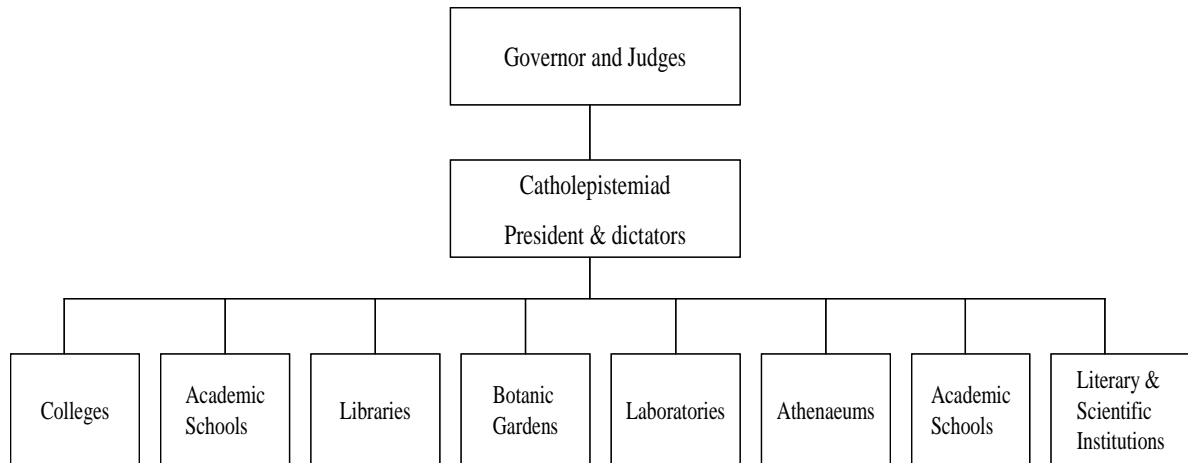


Figure 21. Diagram Showing the Organization of the Catholepistemiad or the University of Michigania. From the *Metropolitan America: Public Education in Detroit*, by A. Moehlman, 1974, New York: Arno Press. p. 42.

Pedagogy

The “Lancasterian Method” of education was the creation of Joseph Lancaster from England. According to Kaestle (1983), “Lancaster had derived an elaborate plan of instruction according to which older students drilled smaller groups of younger students” (pp. 40-41). The Lancaster system emphasized recitation. The use of student “monitors” allowed children to be actively involved and be exposed to more material, depending on the child’s own rate of learning. According to Kaestle (1983), “Last, but certainly not least, the Lancasterian system, properly implemented, would allow a single master to operate a school with as many as 500 children in attendance” (p. 41). The Lancasterian system provided a means for advocates of education for “the poor and churchless,” especially in urban areas, to bring education to more children (Kaestle, 1983, p. 40). Dain (1968) describes the Lancasterian model as follows:

Lancaster placed beginning students alongside a sand-covered table, where they wrote letters with their fingers until they had mastered the alphabet. Thereafter, he furnished them with slate and chalk – cheap substitutes for paper and ink. For

want of individual texts he removed the leaves from a spelling book, posted them on boards, and placed them on the walls of the school room in order that many students could make use of them at the same time. Out of necessity, the youngsters gathered about these boards became accustomed to helping themselves and each other. (p. 89)

The Lancasterian system became quite popular in the east. Rosalita (1928) explains that “the Lancasterian system reached American shores in 1805, and in a few years had spread to almost every city of consequence as far west as Cincinnati.” On April 23, 1818, the “Trustees and visitors of the Classical Academy and Primary Schools of the City of Detroit” passed a resolution establishing a Lancasterian Primary School. The Lancasterian experiment would last for six years (Rosalita, 1928, p. 191).

During the four years the Catholepistemiad was in existence, the attitude of the citizens, particularly those in Detroit where its only two schools existed, began to change. According to Dain(1968):

Quarter after quarter, a large proportion of the town’s youngsters had attended classes and had come to look upon school as an essential and expected segment of daily routine. Parents who had formally viewed education as a private matter found themselves immersed in a public experiment with mass instruction. They willingly sent their children to a school regulated by a constitutionally appointed board of directors and paid tuition costs at rates established by law. Thus they indicated acceptance of the concept that the territory should provide facilities for public education and that the individual parent should share in the support of the institution which his child attended. (p. 108)

The first teacher employed by the University of Michigan was Hugh M. Dickie, who was recruited from Jefferson College in Pennsylvania (Dain, 1968, p. 68). Mr. Dickie was in frail condition upon his arrival to his new position and died on February 18, 1819, less than seven months after starting the job (Dain, 1968, pp. 86-87). According to Dain (1968), it was reported that his death was caused by “wild typhus fever” (p. 87). It was not until the following year that the university would reopen its doors under the instruction of Ebenezer Clapp (Dain, 1968, p. 103).

Most of the attention was directed to the primary school taught by Samuel Shattuck. For three and a half years, Mr. Shattuck performed his duties in a manner that shed light on the importance of schooling for all. He became the librarian and recording secretary for the Detroit lyceum. According to Dain (1968):

In this capacity he [Shattuck] was probably an interested listener, or what is more likely, an active participant at a discussion held early in March, 1819, when the members deliberated the question: “Is it the duty of the Republican Governments to enact such laws as shall provide for the education of children of all classes?” (p.103)

“In 1819 the school had 183 students who paid \$2.60 each term for their tuition” (Catlin, 1926, p. 227).

The Classical Curriculum

The Catholepistemiad or University of Michigan system established in 1817 was highly centralized, and the curriculum reflected this in that it was highly prescribed via the regulations. Moehlman (1925) reported that the law provided:

...that instruction in the primary schools should consist of writing, arithmetic, English grammar, and elocution, and that instruction in the classical academy

should consist of French, Latin and Greek antiquities, English grammar, composition, mathematics, elocution, geography, morals, and ornamental accomplishments. The authorized textbooks were Murray's Grammar and Spelling Book, The English Reader and Exercises, and Walker's Elocution and Dictionary. The sacred scriptures were to be read from beginning to the end of the course. (p. 43)

According to Dain (1968) on December 11, 1818, the following advertisement appeared in the Detroit Gazette:

The Classical Academy of the city of Detroit, will be held for a short time, (till a room in the university building is prepared for the winter), in the house at the corner of Jefferson Avenue and Griswold Street; opposite Judge McDonnell's. Where the Latin, Greek, French, and English languages are grammatically taught; also, writing, composition, rhetoric, geography, arithmetic, surveying, bookkeeping, and navigation. Globes and maps are provided for students in geography. Every attention will be paid to children and others who may attend to receive instruction in the above branches. (p. 87)

During the time that Mr. Shattuck taught at the Detroit Primary School, he remained a staunch advocate for public education under the most extreme conditions. Having been recruited by John Monteith from Albany with a promise to be paid \$800.00 annually, he traveled seven days over treacherous roads to get to Detroit to learn that there was a school system virtually in name only and there was no money to pay him. Eventually, action was taken to prepare a facility, pay the instructors salary, and recruit students, and, largely due to Mr. Shattuck's efforts, public education began to be accepted by wealthy and poor alike. Throughout his service at the Catholepistemiad,

Shattuck received little pay and ultimately he literally collapsed in the classroom. After returning to New York to convalesce, Shattuck decided it was time to leave the employ of the Catholepistemiad (Dain, 1968, pp. 107-108). Soon after he left, attacks upon the Lancasterian method of instruction appeared in the *Detroit Gazette*. In January 1824, John Farmer, who had replaced Mr. Shattuck, resigned. "The Lancasterian experiment which had blossomed so hopefully in 1818 was ended" (Dain, 1968, p. 113).

Though Lewis Cass was the territorial governor in 1817 when the Catholipestimiad was created, it seems that he was away from Michigan negotiating treaties with Indians when it was signed into law. According to Dunbar (1970), "In 1821 with Woodward absent, Cass and two other members of the five-man governing authority amended the 1817 act, abandoning Woodward's elaborate verbiage and designating it simply the University of Michigan" (p. 37). This version of the law maintained a strong central authority, and "the complete responsibility for territorial education still rested with the university" (Dunbar, 1970, p. 37). Progress toward providing education in any systematic way was minimal under this law as the university simply did not have funds to support such a centralized system. Still, according to McLaughlin (1891), "He [Cass] was a Jeffersonian in all that related to education, and used his influence for popularizing the school book and the ballot" (p. 122).

Amongst the Board of Trustees of the University of Michigan were Gabriel Richard, John Monteith, who declined his post, and John Anderson, "an influential citizen of Monroe" (Shaw, 1942, p. 29). At the time of the repeal of Judge Woodward's Catholepistemiad, not a single university class had been conducted. Neither had the primary school branches in Michilimackinac or Monroe been organized. Monteith would soon leave Michigan, disheartened at the lack of progress in creating an educational

system, to accept the Chair of Ancient Languages at Hamilton College in Clinton, New York.

Summary and Analysis

As America organized itself, the Michigan Territory remained remote and largely neglected by the fledging national government. Since the French dominance of Michigan began, it had been ruled by a monarchy and its military. This form of governance in which one person “under authority of God and birthright” ruled would eventually give way to a comparatively free society ruled through democratic, republican, and federalist notions of governance. This shift in cultural dominance, political form, and government would not come without great conflict. Little changed as Michigan became governed under the provisions of the Ordinance of 1787.

Governments are formed as a result of political conflict, and this was certainly the case in Michigan. The government ruling Michigan was appointed during the territorial years. Those men serving were from the east and southern cultural areas and were politically at odds with one another. Michigan’s reputation as a hostile territory consisting mostly of swamplands restricted its growth in a manner that significantly impacted its future development. Instead of the government owned lands in Michigan being given to the War of 1812 veterans, the lands of Indiana and Illinois were opened for their restitution. This meant that Michigan’s early migration would come from primarily the northeast and especially New York.

Table 9.

The American Territorial Cultural Environment in Michigan

Cultural Environment: American Territorial
• Language (English)
• Governance (appointed)
• Economy/Tasks (natural resources)
• Religion/Ideology (Protestant)
• Myth-Complex (hierarchical)
• Cultural Migration (East)

Educational Governance

During the American Territorial period of Michigan's development, the first efforts to organize a system of public education occurred.

Kingdon (1995) labeled advocates "for proposals or for the prominence of an idea" as "policy entrepreneurs" (p. 122). Policy entrepreneurs may advocate for proposals for personal gain or to promote their own values (Kingdon, 1995, p.123). The first efforts to implement a state system of public education in Michigan were championed by policy entrepreneurs of both the Roman Catholic and Protestant faiths. Father Gabriel Richard, a Sulpician priest, and the Reverend John Monteith, a Presbyterian minister, aided by political leaders such as Territorial Governor Lewis Cass and Territorial Judge Augustus Woodward, created a highly centralized system of public education, apparently based on the French system of education. While the symbolism of having a non-sectarian system of public education created via the collaboration of a Catholic priest and a Presbyterian minister was significant for the future public school system, the Catholepestimiad or the University of Michigania, as it was named, failed. Still, this first effort to implement a system of public education established several important concepts that were incorporated

into Michigan's public education system that still maintain today. These concepts, according to Bald (1958) are, 1) the state's responsibility to provide a system of education, 2) tax support for such a system, 3) tuition for higher education should be kept low, and 4) that schools should be non-sectarian. (p. 178)

Parsons (1960) defined organizations as "a system which, as the attainment of its goal, 'produces' an identifiable something which can be utilized in some way by another system; that is the output of the organization is, for some other system, an input" (p. 17). Despite the heroic efforts of many, especially the teachers, and the increasing popularity of the primary school, the Catholepestimiad or University of Michigan was repealed in 1821 after just four years of existence. The short-lived effort to bring a system of public education was too expensive, too centralized, and too difficult to comprehend for the impoverished people fighting for survival in the wilderness. There was simply no use for its product by the culture it was to serve. Still, a similar system was in Michigan's future.

In 1827 the Territory of Michigan enacted the "Act for the Establishment of Common Schools" (Rosalita, 1928, p. 205). This law was Michigan's first attempt to enact a "free" public school system. The law allowed for instruction in English or French. It called for the election of a township board of school inspectors to govern the schools and a local Board of Trustees to oversee the daily operations. Very significantly, the "Act for the Establishment of Common Schools" provided for the general taxation of inhabitants to maintain the school building and to pay the teachers salary. The law called for financial penalties against townships that failed to comply. Townships would exempt themselves from compliance by a two-third's vote at the annual township meeting. The 1827 school law was largely ineffective.

For the French citizens of Monroe, education was certainly a local and personal affair, restrained by the desolation of war and poverty. Formal educational opportunities, like those in Detroit, were initially tied to the religious community. Following the War of 1812, during which the Monroe area was deserted by the French inhabitants, the people returned, and soon the area flourished as a result of the arrival of new immigrants from the east. These people brought their values, laws, and ideas concerning education and religion with them. The first formal schools were private. Soon, however, the people gathered to build their own public schools. These policy entrepreneurs at the local level were represented by people such as George Sortor and Jacob Turner, who organized two of Michigan's first public schools in Monroe County. The Monroe County, Raisinville Township's Bridge School was Michigan's first "free" public school.

Table 10.

American Territorial Era: System of Public Education

**American Territorial Era:
System of Public Education**

- Language (English/French)
- Governance (centralized French to decentralized Eastern United States)
- Policy Entrepreneurs (Montieth, Richard)
- Pedagogy (British, Lancastrian)
- Curriculum (classical to reading, writing, arithmetic)
- Myth-Complex (hierarchical)
- Local Policy Entrepreneurs (Sortor, Turner)
- Cultural Conflict (education vs. survival)

CHAPTER 4: PRE-INDUSTRIAL AMERICA ERA: 1834

Cultural Environment

In 1834 a census was taken, which determined there were 87,273 inhabitants within the Michigan Territory. This figure was far beyond the 60,000 required for statehood by the Ordinance of 1787. The Ordinance of 1787 anticipated the ultimate formation of states within the Northwest Territory. Those responsible for authorizing the document, however, had no idea of the latitude of any point within the territory, and this made the determination of the boundary between the southern and northern tiers of states less than an exact science. Thus the boundary between these tiers of states was set as “a line beginning at the most southern extremity of Lake Michigan running due east to Lake Erie,” and placed the deep water port of Maumee Bay on Lake Erie in Michigan (Catlin, 1926, p. 329). In 1816, Indiana was admitted to the union and expressed its right to, and was given, a port on Lake Michigan along with a strip of property previously belonging to Michigan. Though the citizens of Michigan were not pleased, there were few of them and little protest took place. Thus, Michigan City has been in the state of Indiana ever since.

The people of Ohio understood the value of Maumee Bay and inserted in their constitution that,

“it agreed to the prescribed line between Ohio and Michigan, ‘provided, that if the southerly bend or extreme of Lake Michigan should extend so far south that a line drawn due east from it would not intersect Lake Erie, or if it should intersect Lake Erie east of the mouth of the Maumee River, then and in that case, with the assent of Congress, the northern boundary of this state shall be established by extending it to a direct line running from the southern extremity of Lake Michigan to the

most northerly cape of Maumee Bay, after intersecting the due north line from the mouth of the Maumee River” (Catlin, 1926, p. 330).

Congress approved the entry of Ohio into the union along with its constitutional language in 1803 (Catlin, 1926, pp. 329-330). It also created the boundary of the Michigan Territory in 1805 using the original Ordinance of 1787 boundary lines. Two surveys were done by the United States Government Land Office in determining the Michigan and Ohio border. The first, authorized by Governor Cass, was completed by William Harris who, being influenced by Ohioans, erroneously used the language from the Ohio constitution. Cass protested this action to President Monroe, who ordered that another survey be completed by John A. Fulton using the Ordinance of 1787 boundaries. These two surveys were used to support both states’ contentions, with Michigan demanding the Fulton Line and Ohio, the Harris Line, as its boundary. The disagreement festered and finally culminated on February 23, 1835, when Governor Lucas requested that the Ohio Legislature assert its claim to its own constitutional boundaries. Three commissioners were hired by the Ohio Government to resurvey the land according to its constitutional language. Michigan, under Boy Governor Stevens T. Mason, quickly acted to make it a crime, punishable with a fine of \$1,000.00 and imprisonment for up to five years, if any Ohio citizen was apprehended conducting any official act or function in the territory. A similar penalty was applied to any person from another state accepting an office in the territory of Michigan. The matter escalated until in April 1835, approximately 1,160 Michigan men were in Perrysburg facing Governor Lucas and several hundred Ohioans who intended to conduct a survey (Catlin, 1926, p. 332).

At the urging of emissaries dispatched by President Andrew Jackson, violence was avoided but the dispute continued to simmer. On April 25, 1835, the Michigan

Militia fired shots (reportedly high over the head) of the surveyors who had been allowed by the United States Government to conduct their survey. Nine men from Ohio were taken prisoner. The state of Ohio called a special session to appropriate \$300,000.00 to carry out Governor Lucas' orders and to create Lucas County, Ohio, which included the disputed territory. The only bloodshed that took place during this border dispute according to Catton (1984) was as follows:

An officer of the Ohio militia, one B. F. Stickney, was arrested by Michigan deputies, and one of his sons set out to rescue him. Stickney had two sons, and in some fit of backwoods eccentricity, he had given them numbers rather than names; they were, in order of seniority, One Stickney and Two Stickney. One was peaceful, but Two Stickney went on the war path and wounded a deputy sheriff with a pen-knife – which seems a wholly inappropriate weapon for a frontier brawl – and then fled to deepest Ohio, where Michigan could not follow him. (p. 91)

Though Michigan had a good case, there was an election coming, and with Ohio's full delegation in Congress, and numerous voters, a compromise was found. Congress agreed to give "the faraway bleak, little known Upper Peninsula to Michigan if Michigan would give up all claim to the Toledo strip" (Catton, 1984, p. 92). Michigan's legislative committee quickly rejected this compromise. The United States tempted Michigan to change its mind when it found a surplus of money that it would divide among the states but not the territories. Michigan soon accepted the compromise, received \$400,000 along with the Upper Peninsula, and the matter was settled. Michigan became a state in January, 1837.

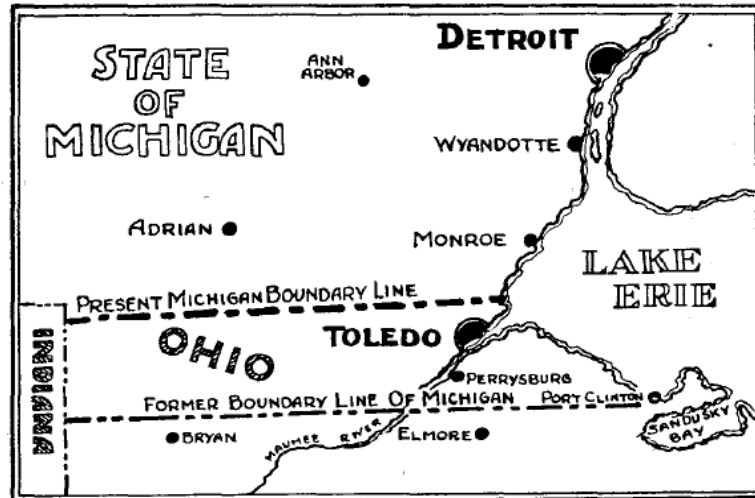


Figure 22: Disputed Territory between Michigan and Ohio.¹

Citizenship Rights

Marshall (1992) divided citizenship into three parts, “civil, political, and social” (p. 8). The civil aspect of citizenship involves those rights involving personal freedom such as freedom of thought, religion, and the right to own property. The political aspect of citizenship involves rights relating to the exercise of political power, such as the right to be a member of a body with political authority, or the right to be an elector. The third aspect of citizenship is the right to a “modicum of economic well-being and the right to share in the social heritage of the society” (Marshall, 1992, p. 8). In Marshall’s view, early societies had no collection of rights afforded to each person but rather afforded rights to some according to class status. Thus the early efforts to define the citizenship rights of Michigan residents were of great importance to its future directions, including those related to public education.

¹ From *the Story of Detroit* by G. B. Catlin. The Lakeside Press. R.R. Donnelly & Sons.

Table 11.

Citizenship Rights as Defined by Marshall

Civil	Political	Social
Individual Personal Freedom (speech, thought, faith)	Exercise of political power (suffrage, serve on legislative body)	Due process, assert rights exercise, political power

“The constitutional convention met in the capital of Detroit on May 11, 1835, and it adjourned on June 24th after having completed its task” (Bald, 1954, p. 196). The first constitutional convention was made up of ninety-one delegates in all. They were elected by the votes of “free white male residents” who exercised their right to vote. Indeed, it was the right to vote that was among the few contentious issues of the convention. There was strong sentiment of the representatives to this convention that only “property holders” be allowed to vote but their opinions were not in the majority. Ultimately, the constitution was ratified to give suffrage to “every white male over the age of 21 who resided in Michigan at the time the constitution was ratified” (Dunbar, 1971, p. 317). The constitution did require a six-month residency period afterwards, but even aliens could vote under Michigan’s Constitution of 1835. It is significant that the majority of representatives to this convention were men of modest means. Dunbar (1971) further stated, “Almost exactly one-half (45) were farmers. The next largest group (20) included merchants, mill operators, and lumbermen. Surprisingly, there were only ten lawyers among the delegates. Included also were three physicians, two surveyors, an editor, an architect, a school teacher, and eight persons whose occupations are unknown” (p. 316). The convention was dominated by the presence of Democrats with “a few Whigs”

(Dunbar, 1971, p. 316). Nine citizens of Monroe were representatives to the convention. These prominent men were Edward D. Ellis, James J. Godfroy, Peter P. Ferry, Robert McClelland, David White, Eliphalet Clark, Samuel Ingersoll, Femuel Colbath, and J. V. D. Stephen (Michigan Sentinel, May 9, 1835). The constitution called for a bicameral legislature. The House of Representatives consisted of between forty-eight and one hundred members. The Senate was to have one-third as many members as the House of Representatives. Elections were held annually with terms for Representatives being one year and Senators, two years. The Governor appointed the Secretary of State and a prosecuting attorney for each county. The two houses appointed the treasurer. The Governor, Lieutenant Governor, legislators, and all local officials were to be elected by popular vote. The terms of the Governor and Lieutenant Governor were set at two years (Dain, 1954).

Michigan's first Constitution of 1835 set forth the following in Article 1 of the Bill of Rights:

1. All political power is inherent in the people.
2. Government is instituted for the protection, security and benefit of the people; and they have the right at all times to alter and reform the same, and to abolish one form of government and establish another whenever the public good requires it.
3. No man or set of men are entitled to exclusive or separate privileges. (p. 1)

Slavery was prohibited under the Constitution of 1835.

Constitutional Changes

In 1850 Michigan adopted a new constitution. A constitutional convention met in Lansing, Michigan, on June 3, 1850, and completed its revision on August 15 of the same

year. On November 5, 1850, the constitution was approved by a vote of the people, 36,169 yes to 9,433 no. This constitution was more than twice as long as the first Michigan Constitution of 1835. The Constitution of 1850 addressed a number of the shortcomings that were perceived as having existed in its predecessor. The new constitution mandated the election of all state officials, including the superintendent of public instruction. The new constitution also forbade the legislature to build or finance internal improvements, required the legislature to meet every other year instead of each year, restricted the legislature's ability to pass banking laws, and fixed the salaries of state officials. The constitution was clearly Jacksonian in its spirit. It reflected the Michigan citizen's belief in choosing officials by election rather than appointment and in limiting the power of the government. The judiciary was also significantly changed by the Constitution of 1850. "The county courts were abolished. Instead, the state was divided into eight circuits, each of which was to have a judge elected by the people" (Dunbar, 1971, p. 425). The circuit court judges were to constitute the Supreme Court until a new court "with a chief justice and three associate judges" would be organized to be elected by the people (Dunbar, 1971, p. 425).

As Michigan entered its statehood in 1837, there were approximately 175,000 inhabitants. The majority of these people now hailed from New England and, principally, New York. Michigan's counties were continuing to be organized and filled with people. The early relationship between the national, state, and local governments, referred to as federalism, was cautious at best. The earliest form of relationship in education took the form of enablement. The national government owned most of the property in Michigan, but the state had been granted Section 16 of each township for local schools and seventy-two sections of land to support a university. Congress also allocated five sections of land

to Michigan to defray the costs of public buildings and an additional seventy-two sections of land where there were salt springs. Salt springs were deemed as being quite valuable in those days due to the assurance by their presence that this valuable resource would be available to the people. Later, Michigan was to become a rich source of salt through its underground mines, which were unknown at the time of statehood.

Resources

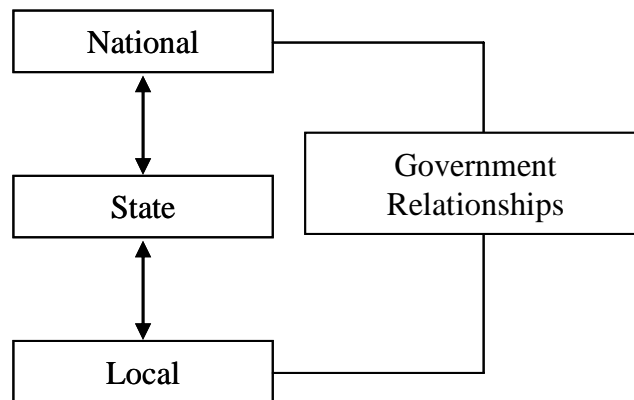


Figure 23: Federalist System of Governmental Relationships.

Economy/Tasks

During the pre-industrial era, Michigan’s economy was mostly based on agriculture, though soon the vast supply of woodlands would make the lumbering of its forests the chief economic engine.

The lumbering era began slowly in 1837 at the mouth of the Muskegon River, but soon the demand for Michigan’s white pine became pronounced (Catton, 1984, p. 101). According to Catton (1984), “It has been estimated that in the sixty years beginning in 1847, when the boom really got started, the value of Michigan’s lumber output was at least a billion dollars greater than the value of all the gold dug in California in the same time” (p. 108). In 1841, it was reported by Douglass Houghton that he had located copper deposits in Michigan’s Upper Peninsula (Bald, 1954, p. 207). In reality it had been

known for many years that copper deposits existed in the Upper Peninsula as Indians had mined it, and others, such as Henry Schoolcraft, had documented its existence previous to Houghton (Bald, 1954). Nevertheless, the Houghton reports incited prospectors from abroad and investors from as far away as Boston and Pittsburg to seek their fortune. There were successful mines, but the copper was hard to get at and took vast resources. Still, according to Bald (1954), “By 1860, thirty-three companies employed 3,681 men and the capitol invested was estimated at \$4,053,000.00” (p. 237).

Iron mining also became a major force in the Upper Peninsula of Michigan. Unlike copper, it was unknown that large iron ore deposits existed in the Upper Peninsula until 1844. The Indians and early explorers simply believed it to be an “unusually heavy kind of rock” (Bald, 1954, p. 237). The Upper Peninsula cities of Marquette and Ishpeming were both founded by mining companies (Bald, 1954, p. 240). Iron ore, like copper, was very expensive to mine, especially given the distance from manufacturing, the weather, and the general remoteness of the Upper Peninsula at that time (Bald, 1954).

On June 5, 1855, the Upper Peninsula region of Michigan became much less remote with the opening of the Soo Locks. The canal was completed in just two years by Charles T. Harvey, and the Ship Canal Company started construction on June 1, 1853. The Sault Canal had been a dream of many Michigan leaders. This project was assisted by an act of Congress, in 1852, which granted Michigan 750,000 acres of land to defray the cost.

Transportation

As Michigan’s population continued to grow, it pushed out from places like Detroit and Monroe. Soon railroads, canals, and roads were being built and improved. Immigrants continued to arrive, mostly from the northeast, but soon, directly from

Europe looking for cheap land – and there was plenty of it. The State of Michigan appointed “a board of six commissioners of internal improvements to oversee its development” (Bald, 1954, p. 213). Three railroads and two canals were planned to traverse the state from east to west. The three railroads were the “Central,” from “Detroit to St. Joseph,” the “Northern” from “Port Huron to Grand Rapids,” and the “Southern” from “Monroe to New Buffalo” (Bald, 1954, p. 212). The canals, which were to be modeled after the Erie Canal, which had been so successful, were to connect Mt. Clemens on the Clinton River to the mouth of the Kalamazoo River, and the Saginaw River with the Grand River.

The state also planned to build a shipping canal around the St. Mary’s River connecting the upper and lower Great Lakes. These projects were undertaken with great enthusiasm but were too ambitious and costly for the new state. The Government simply did not have this kind of funding available to it. This over-enthusiasm ultimately resulted in a severe economic downturn or “panic” in 1837, which, in part, caused the constitutional changes instituted by the people in 1850. Nevertheless, Michigan’s population continued to grow and change during the mid-nineteenth century. By 1837, roads connected Detroit “to Chicago, to Toledo, to Flint, to Port Huron, and to Howell. There was also a highway from Monroe to Tecumseh, and the Territorial Road extended from Dearborn through Ann Arbor, Jackson, and Kalamazoo, to St. Joseph on Lake Michigan” (Bald, 1954, p. 206). By 1852 the Michigan Southern and the Michigan Central railroads reached Chicago (Bald, 1954, p. 247). An important development in the history of Monroe took place in 1855. This was when the Erie and Kalamazoo Railroad, which connected directly to Buffalo, completed its line to Chicago. The business development competition between Monroe, Michigan, and Toledo, Ohio, (formerly, Port

Lawrence and Fort Meigs, Michigan) was settled. The Erie and Kalamazoo Railroad had originally been planned when Port Lawrence was part of Monroe County, Michigan. It now was based in Toledo and connected with the Michigan Southern Railroad in Adrian, Michigan. Monroe was out of the direct line from Buffalo to Chicago.

Ideology

Protestant Republican Reform Ideology

As Michigan's population grew and became more diverse, the local culture changed significantly. These new cultural groups, migrating mostly from the eastern United States and, later, Europe, were driven by an ideology that viewed education much differently than the indigenous people and the frontiersmen who came before them. It was this migrating ideology, as expressed through the political process, which led to the development of Michigan's system of public education. Beginning in the 1820s and gaining momentum through the mid-1800s, an ideological reform movement took hold in Michigan and elsewhere in the United States (Dunbar, 1971). The leading cause of these reformists was the anti-slavery movement. This was followed in prominence by movements promoting "temperance," "women's rights," and even "the complete reorganization of society into communist units" (Dunbar, 1971, p. 415). Dunbar (1971) stated,

"Politics!, you could hear men talking politics everywhere – in taverns, in front of the meetinghouses on Sundays, after dinner at harvest time, at camp meetings in summer, around the cracker barrel in the general store in winter – in fact just about anywhere men congregated; and usually they were arguing: not discussing in the manner of polite conversation, but in all seriousness and often with rancor." (p. 416)

Understanding the ideology of the dominant cultural group was essential to this researcher's understanding of the Monroe County Intermediate School District.

This reform movement was born from the religious beliefs of the many Protestant Anglo Saxon sects that now populated the country. The roots of the reform movement began in western New York, with its many New Englanders holding Puritan and Calvinistic beliefs. At the heart of the movement was the belief in pre-destination, that we are all living in a sinful world and thus are sinful beings. The twist in this reform movement that was new involved an accompanying belief "that it is the duty of the Christian to make the world better" (Dunbar, 1971, p. 426). It was the belief of the clergy, and the churches they led, to realize their destiny by spreading the Gospel to all (Dunbar, 1971, p. 426). Tyack (1982) refers to this belief system, which resulted in the building of churches and schools throughout the nation, as "Protestant-republican ideology" (p. 19). Its proponents held "a common belief that the United States was a redeemer nation entrusted with a millennial destiny. Schools and churches were institutions designed to produce a homogenous moral and civic order and a providential prosperity" (Tyack, 1982, p. 19).

The Protestant-republican reform ideology dominated the American culture well into the twentieth century.

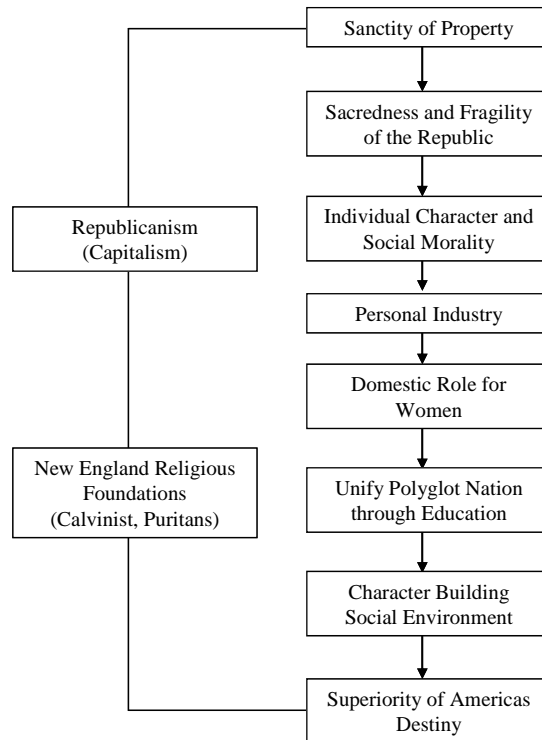


Figure 24: Central Principles of Protestant-Republican Ideological Reform Movement.¹

Education

Ideology

State Educational Policy Entrepreneurs

The ideological foundations of Michigan’s system of public education were found by this researcher in the advocacy of state educational policy entrepreneurs Isaac Crary and John D. Pierce. Just as the Territory of Michigan owed its territorial educational efforts to the partnership between Gabriel Richard and John Montieth, a similar partnership was formed by two influential leaders during the time of Michigan’s transition into statehood. Isaac Edmond Crary and John Davis Pierce were two New Englanders who found their way to Marshall, Michigan, and struck up a friendship that resulted in the public education system that essentially still exists in Michigan to this very

¹Kaestle, 1983. pp. 76-77.

day. Isaac Crary, a lawyer, relocated to Marshall, Michigan, from Connecticut in 1832. Mr. Crary was elected as a delegate to the Constitutional Convention of 1835 by the people of Calhoun County. During the convention, Mr. Crary was appointed to the education committee and selected as the chairman (Barber, 1907). Thus Michigan's constitution, with its strong emphasis on education, is a testament to Isaac Crary's ideological beliefs and political skills.

Mr. Pierce, a native of New Hampshire, came to Michigan in 1831. Following the death of Mr. Pierce's wife, Mr. Crary and Mr. Pierce lived together "for a year or two" (Pierce, 1875). On February 3, 1875, John D. Pierce gave the Michigan Pioneer and Historical Society his account of how this relationship led to the beginnings of Michigan's Public Education System:

In 1834 the census was again taken, and Michigan was found to contain 87,000 inhabitants. Soon after this time the legislative Council authorized the calling of a convention to form a State constitution, and fixed upon May, 1835, for it to assemble at Detroit for that purpose.

It was at this period of our history that the Michigan public school system as it is essentially structured still today had its inception and origin. Gen. Isaac E. Crary, a graduate of an eastern college and a warm friend of education, was, for a year or two, an inmate of my house. The condition and prospects of our new State were often subjects of discussion, and especially of schools of various grades, from the highest to the lowest.

About this time Cousin's report of the Prussian system made to the French minister of public instruction came into my hands, and it was read with much interest. Sitting one pleasant afternoon upon a log, on the hill north of where the

court-house at Marshall now stands, General Crary and myself discussed for a long time the fundamental principles which were deemed important for the convention to adopt in laying the foundations of our State. The subject of education was a theme of especial interest. It was agreed, if possible, that it should be made a distinct branch of the government, and that the constitution ought to provide for an officer who should have this whole matter in charge and thus keep its importance perpetually before the public mind.

That gentleman went to the convention and was appointed chairman of the committee on education; drew up an article on that subject; reported the same to the convention; it was adopted, and became the law of the land. It provided what no other in the United States had done, namely: for the appointment of a superintendent of public instruction. This was to be done on nomination by the Governor and joint vote of the two houses of the Legislature. (p. 38)

At the election held in October 1835, the constitution was ratified.

Stevens T. Mason was elected Governor, and General Crary representative to Congress. Members of the state legislature were chosen at the same time (Pierce, 1875, p. 38). The government of Michigan would not be recognized by the United States until 1837 after the border issue with Ohio was resolved.

Superintendent Pierce saw the Primary School Districts as the most important of all the branches of the public education system. This is expressed in his own words to the legislature on the first Monday of January, 1837:

Without education, no people can secure themselves against the encroachment of power. Superstition and ignorance furnish the raw material of despotism; for there

is nothing to prevent the tyranny of the sword, where the mind is degraded and the many unacquainted with their rights and powers.

In the attainment of an object of such magnitude, so grand and comprehensive as a nation’s welfare, prosperity and happiness, universities may be highly important and academies of great utility, but primary schools are the main dependence. Nothing else can secure the great mass of the people against legalized oppression; nothing else can retain them in full possession and enjoyment of all their rights, privileges, and immunities, as men – as rational beings, endowed by their common Creator with the high attributes of moral agency and freedom of choice, and the essential prerogative of self-government. How valuable soever high seminaries of learning may be, we cannot rely upon them for instruction of the great body of the people, because they are to be found only in the primary schools. And hence these demand the first attention. They ought to be the foundation of our whole system of public instruction, as they are indeed the chief support of all our free institutions. (Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, 1836, p. 30)

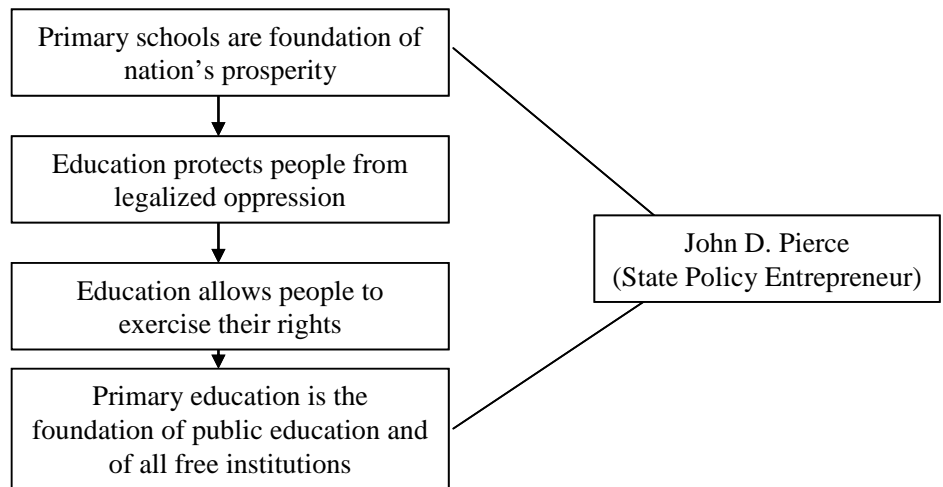


Figure 25: Principles of State Policy Entrepreneurs Ideology.

Local Educational Policy Entrepreneurs

As public education took hold in the State of Michigan, lofty goals were set by reformers such as John D. Pierce, superintendent of public instruction. Pierce's clearly articulated vision of a compulsory and bureaucratic system was similar to the heavily centralized system put forth during the territorial period, which had failed. The sweeping cultural changes brought to Michigan from the New England states and the ideology of the protestant reformers eventually created a political climate resulting in the adoption of a system of common schools and the Michigan system of public schools. The challenge to the state superintendent was to govern this decentralized system with non-professional leaders and untrained teachers at a time when still-primitive modes of communication and travel meant that the distance between the capital of Detroit and the rest of Michigan was a long way indeed. The distance between reality and the educational pedagogy as articulated by John D. Pierce is reflected in the report of G. Morris, School Inspector of Ash Township, Monroe County in 1840 to Sawyer (1841):

“As I have remarked above, an increased interest in schools is beginning to manifest itself here. Still their condition is very low. The scholars, from long previous neglect, are backward, and the qualifications of teachers are proportionably [sic] slender. The inspectors allow many to pass as qualified for particular schools, who would not do for others. This arises from the necessity of the case, as good teachers are scarce. In most of our schools, females are employed both summer and winter, at from one to two dollars per week and their board. These ladies usually make teaching but a temporary business, with no intention of continuing it, and do not take pains to qualify themselves for the duty.

Teachers, so far as I observed, are well sustained by parents in the matter of government. The old system of corporal punishment still obtains to a great degree. The absence of the necessity for such a resort indicates a refinement of feeling, a correctness of thought, and a high moral sense in the children of the community which, though attainable, is not often attained by all the children of my particular school. And so far as children are barbarous in conduct, this relic of a barbarous age may be properly resorted to, in the opinion of the undersigned, until a degree of civilization is attained. He thinks that in family government, and in all schools where the same teacher continues with nearly the same scholars from term to term, for a long time, the rod becomes entirely useless. But in the district schools of the present day, in this town, where teachers usually keep but one term in a place, the changes are so frequent that a sufficient influence, and intimate acquaintance is not acquired by the teacher, to enable him to dispose with it entirely. Little moral culture is attempted, although every where needed; and the undersigned would approve of this in schools so far as the general principles of morality and religion are acknowledged by all Christian denominations, without treading upon ground peculiar to any sect.

There is little uniformity in books, except that Webster's Elementary Spelling Book is more used than any other; and for want of this uniformity, classification is not carried to a desirable extent. The undersigned would deem it expedient that the Superintendent be required by law to designate a list of school books, and while scholars were allowed to use their own books, so long as they last, all new purchases should be regulated by the list. None others would then be brought into the state, and uniformity be eventually produced.

Four private schools in town have come under my observation within the past year. Three of them were kept by females to accommodate children, who, from distance or other cause, could not attend a district school. These teachers were paid a stated price per week by the parents who supported the school, and the expense divided by the scholars. The fourth was kept by a man. It was commenced for two boys, who were somewhat advanced, at a price agreed on, with a privilege of receiving other scholars at 20s per quarter, and twelve additional scholars availed themselves of this. The tuition was cheerfully paid by some of the poorest inhabitants, and the improvement of their children was such that they are anxious to have the private school re-opened. The teacher of a private school knows that his compensation depends upon his success, and exerts every nerve; and in this lies, in my opinion, his only advantage over a public teacher. If any plan could be devised by which the teacher of the public school could have the same incitement to exertion, this difference would be annihilated, and would be placed on better ground even, as we can be sure that he (the public teacher) is qualified by previous examination, while the private teacher is the sole judge of his own qualifications. (pp. 318-322)

There were many obstacles to the successful implementation of the State of Michigan's public school system. A culture that was more concerned, out of necessity, to meeting basic needs, and a lack of financial resources, were just two of the issues that would have to be overcome by state and local leaders, such as Superintendent of Public Instruction, John D. Pierce, and G. Morris, School Inspector of Ash Township.

Governance

State Regulations

The Michigan Constitution of 1835 specifically addressed education in Article 10. It mandated that the Governor appoint, with the consent of the legislature, a superintendent of public instruction whose term was two years. According to Dain (1954), “No other state constitution at the time contained such a clause. The Michigan delegates made him a constitutional officer so his position would be secure” (p. 197).

The Constitution of 1850 called for a number of changes to the governance of the public school system. The first of these changes was that the superintendent of public instruction and the university board of regents would now become elected positions. The constitution also established a three-member state board of education with provisions for the popular election of these persons. Terms of board members were six years. The superintendent of public instruction served as an ex-officio member of the State Board and as its Secretary. The sole responsibility of this board was to oversee the operation of the state normal school. The constitution also called for the legislature to create a new agricultural branch of the university and authorized the sale of salt spring lands to pay for it. The operation of this new entity would be under the supervision of the university. Perhaps most significantly, the people, with their approval of the second Michigan Constitution, called upon the legislature to create a free system of public schools in each district, to be taught in English, for at least three months of the year.

Finance

Under the Constitution of 1835, all monies derived from the sale of lands granted to the state for the support of public schools by the United States government were to be placed in a perpetual fund and the interest received from these dollars used to support

public schools throughout the state. The legislature was required to provide for a “System of Common Schools,” in which districts would maintain a school for “at least three months in every year” (Constitution of the State of Michigan, 1835, p. 15). Any district not supporting a school would lose its portion of the public fund. The constitution required the legislature to establish libraries “as soon as the circumstances of the state will permit” (Constitution of the State of Michigan, 1835, p. 15). Finally, the legislature was required to establish a permanent fund to support a university using the receipts from the rents or sale of federal lands granted to it by the federal government. Equally noteworthy is the lack of any mention of “free public schools.” Rate bills would still be issued for the foreseeable future, and the quality of educational opportunity would vary greatly (Dain, 1954, p. 197). The State of Michigan, through Isaac Crary’s political savvy, was able to secure the monies attributed to the sale or leasing of the sixteenth section in each township, which was set aside by the United States Government, to be used to benefit public education in each state. Prior to Michigan, the proceeds from the sixteenth section were granted, in every state, to the townships or other local government for their schools. This had led to great inequality due to the relative value of property from township to township. Other states had misused and simply squandered the money. Crary saw to it that the language in the ordinance admitting Michigan into the union of United States was worded differently, so that the state would receive the monies from the sale or leasing of section sixteen and be responsible for allocating it (Michigan Pioneer and Historical Society, 1877, p. 40). This would have a profound impact on Michigan’s public school system. The centralized state governance authority controlled a significant portion of the funding for education. Still, when Michigan’s schools were established, financial problems almost immediately surfaced due to the financial panic of 1837. At its

start, Michigan was a land where speculators bought property and sold it at inflated prices to people securing loans from “wildcat” banks that had insufficient money to back the loans. This meant that the money lent was basically worthless. The result was the value of Michigan’s property plunged and the school lands, once thought to be so valuable, suddenly were worth much less than anticipated, difficult to sell, and insufficient to meet the financial needs of the common schools or university. Nevertheless the public school system continued to grow as more settlers came to Michigan. “In 1839 the legislature deprived the school districts of the right to tax, and the expense of maintaining schools over and above the amount received from the primary schools fund was placed upon the parents of pupils” (Dunbar, 1971, p. 402).

Administrative Structure

On July 26, 1836, John D. Pierce was nominated by Stevens T. Mason, at the recommendation of Isaac Crary, to be Michigan’s and the nation’s first state superintendent of public instruction (Pierce, 1875, p. 39). Reverend Pierce was given until the first Sunday in January to submit to the legislature “a plan for the organization and support of primary schools; a plan for a university with branches, also a plan for the disposition of the university and primary school lands” (Pierce, 1875, p. 39). The future of Michigan’s public education system had essentially been placed into the hands of one man.

With the passing of this law, Pierce quickly embarked on a tour of the eastern United States, meeting with some of the nation’s educational leaders and political supporters of public education. Pierce returned after two months and submitted his report that, in essence, was three plans addressing the issues he had been charged with. The Reverend Pierce’s plans were adopted as a whole “with scarcely a dissenting voice”

(Pierce, 1875, p. 40). The Pierce plan for public education included primary schools, township school inspectors, branches (academies) of the University of Michigan, and the University of Michigan.

Governance Function

Mr. Pierce and the Legislature endowed these primary school districts with corporate powers. They could sue and be sued. The primary school districts had the responsibility to secure and maintain the school site. Each district could tax its inhabitants one time up to a limit of \$500.00 for school district related purposes. The meetings of the districts were to be posted in a central location. The districts were to set the length of the school year (not less than three months), and the amount of money to be raised, in addition to its state apportionment, not to exceed \$60.00 in any given year.

Under the State of Michigan's first school law, district officers were appointed at the mandatory Annual Meeting. These positions consisted of a moderator, a school director, and an assessor. The moderator presided over the meetings of the district, and his was the official district signature. The school director was responsible for hiring teachers, examining them, and ensuring that enough taxes were collected to pay the teachers. The director was also responsible for conducting the census of the children between the ages of five and seventeen within his primary school district. Finally, the director was responsible for the enrollment of the students and submitting reports related to the subjects taught, attendance, and expenditures.

The assessor's role was to work with the moderator and director in constituting the school board. The assessor was to make certain that all taxes voted were assessed and levied. Together, this body was the district's Board of Education.

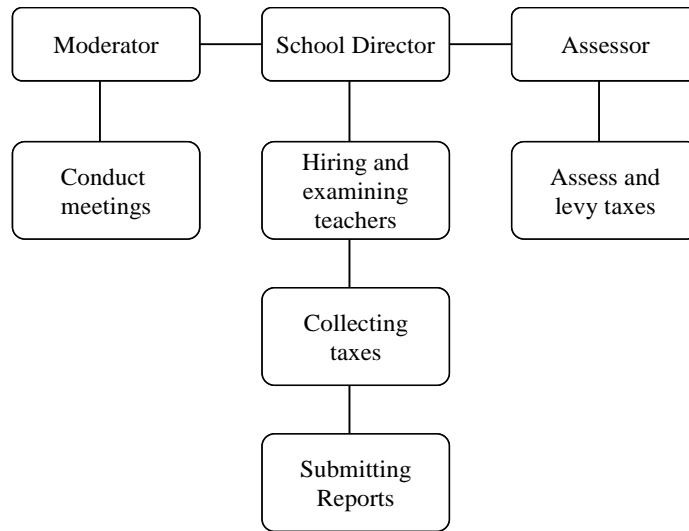


Figure 26: Services Function of Township District Officers.

Mr. Pierce, in his township-based system, called for three school inspectors to be elected at the township's annual meeting. These inspectors would elect one, the Chairman of the Board. These individuals were to insure that new districts were formed when population increases required it, to inspect the teachers and schools at least twice a year, and to apportion money from their townships to the respective Primary School Districts therein. The township board of school inspectors was responsible for submitting an annual report to the superintendent of public instruction concerning the state of their schools. The townships were required to raise the necessary taxes, choose the school inspectors, and generally comply with the law in order to receive their apportionment of the school funds. The township board of school inspectors was the intermediate unit of educational government in Michigan's first system of public schools.

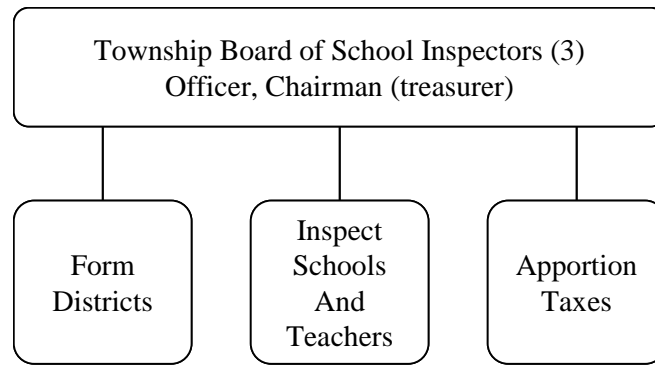


Figure 27: Michigan's First Intermediate Unit of Educational Government.

Deficiencies

While Michigan's education law was viewed as one of the best of its period, Pierce believed there were deficiencies. According to Pierce (1875),

One defect was that it [law] did not provide for the support of a school in every district throughout the year. To have done this at this time was simply an impossibility. Besides, five days in a week for forty weeks is as much as any school ever ought to be kept open in one year. I think that this was in accordance with the sentiment of all experienced teachers.

To have proposed thus early in the settlement of the country to levy a tax to keep the schools open the year round would have defeated the whole thing. Even up to 1850 we failed to procure the passage of a law for the establishment of free schools, even for three months; and then the best we could do was to make it the duty of the legislature to establish such schools after five years, and this was neglected for two years longer.

The second defect pointed out was in not providing for the appointment of county superintendents, to be named by the State Superintendent. Such a proposition at that day would have been as fatal as the other. The people were not

prepared, nor could they afford, to be taxed \$1,000 more or less in every county, in addition to their other taxes, to pay a Superintendent. Township inspection was our only resort; it was the best we could do. (p. 41)

These “defects” noted by John D. Pierce, would be a concern for state superintendents for many years to come.

The difficulties that the early Michigan Superintendent of Public Instruction encountered in “superintending” the decentralized Michigan Public School System should not be understated. The lack of the bureaucratic connection from the state to the local educational arena was a consistent theme in the early state superintendents’ reports. John D. Pierce’s successor, Franklin Sawyer (1841), reveals his frustration with the school district directors and township inspectors, whose statutory responsibilities were to report “in addition to the statistics enumerated ...such other facts and statistics in regards to schools and the subject of education, as the Superintendent shall direct” (Annual Superintendent’s Report, 1841, p. 244). Superintendent Sawyer (1841) had requested that the directors address a number of questions concerning the conditions of their schools in October, 1840. The response that Superintendent Sawyer received, or didn’t receive, from the local directors raised his ire. Sawyer (1841) commented in the Annual Superintendent’s Report:

In some instances, the questions did not reach the districts in season to be answered in the October report; in others, little attention was given to them; in a few, they were deemed officiously inquisitorial, but, in *three* or *four* only, sufficiently so, to induce an *uncivil* return; while in a very great number of cases, the responses were all that the most devoted public servant could wish. The *exceptions* bore upon their face conclusive evidence of the fact that *ignorance* is

the worst foe our school system has yet to combat. Many of the reports are prepared with the minuteness of detail that does credit to the head and heart of the officer. The object of the circular was fully apprehended-the facts sought to be elicited were furnished with a promptitude and good will that speaks volumes in the way of encouragement to future efforts of the kind-suggestions were made with a frankness becoming the dispenser and recipient of common school education-and pledges of co-operation were so given as amply to compensate for any amount of labor that a sense of public duty may impose upon this department. (pp. 244-245)

Superintendent Sawyer (1841) continued in his report to say,

That if the inspectors of every town would take pains to acquaint themselves with the local operation of our school system, its defects and obvious improvements, the degree of interest manifested by parents on the subject of education, the qualifications of teachers, the character of their schools, the modes of instruction and the discipline, the location and construction of school houses and various other details absolutely indispensable to through comprehension of our whole plan of public instruction, and communicate their knowledge and experience in the form of an annual report, educational legislation would cease to be guesswork, and our school laws, instead of being, as one director reports, a puzzle to [sic] perplexing for the wits of a Philadelphia lawyer to work out; and as another expressed it, like double geared machinery, costing more to work it than it comes to, would be to ordinary minds as intelligible as the simplest every day rules of common life. (Annual Superintendent's Report, p. 246)

Throughout the remainder of his report, Superintendent Sawyer reminds the inspectors and legislators of their “legal” and “moral” responsibilities to conduct their duties to the highest of standards. Superintendent Sawyer also requested that the legislature direct their attention to the state of New York, which had, in the past year, passed a law placing a Deputy Superintendent to supervise the schools in each county. These Deputy Superintendents were appointed by each county’s Board of Supervisors. Superintendent Sawyer (1841) concluded this aspect of his report by stressing that his proposal would “insure greater efficiency in our schools, higher interest and more harmonious action among parents, and greater economy” (Annual Superintendent’s Report, 1841, p. 259).

Michigan’s system of public schools continued to grow at a very fast pace. Superintendent Sawyer’s report (1841) reflected that there were 2,309 school districts in Michigan in 1840. He received reports from 1,486 of these districts that accounted for 51,254 “scholars” in attendance during some time of the school year. The length of the school year in 1840 ranged from 3 ½ to 5 ¼ months in session (Superintendent’s Report, p. 241). By 1845 there were reported to be 75,770 “scholars” attending school. Attendance during these early days of public education meant that the students had been accounted for at least once in school. Ira Mayhew (1845), Michigan Superintendent of Public Instruction, lamented the fact that, in the school districts reporting, there were 4,478 children between the ages of four and eighteen “who have not attended any school during the year, and who cannot read, write or cipher” (Annual Superintendent’s Report, pp. 7-8).

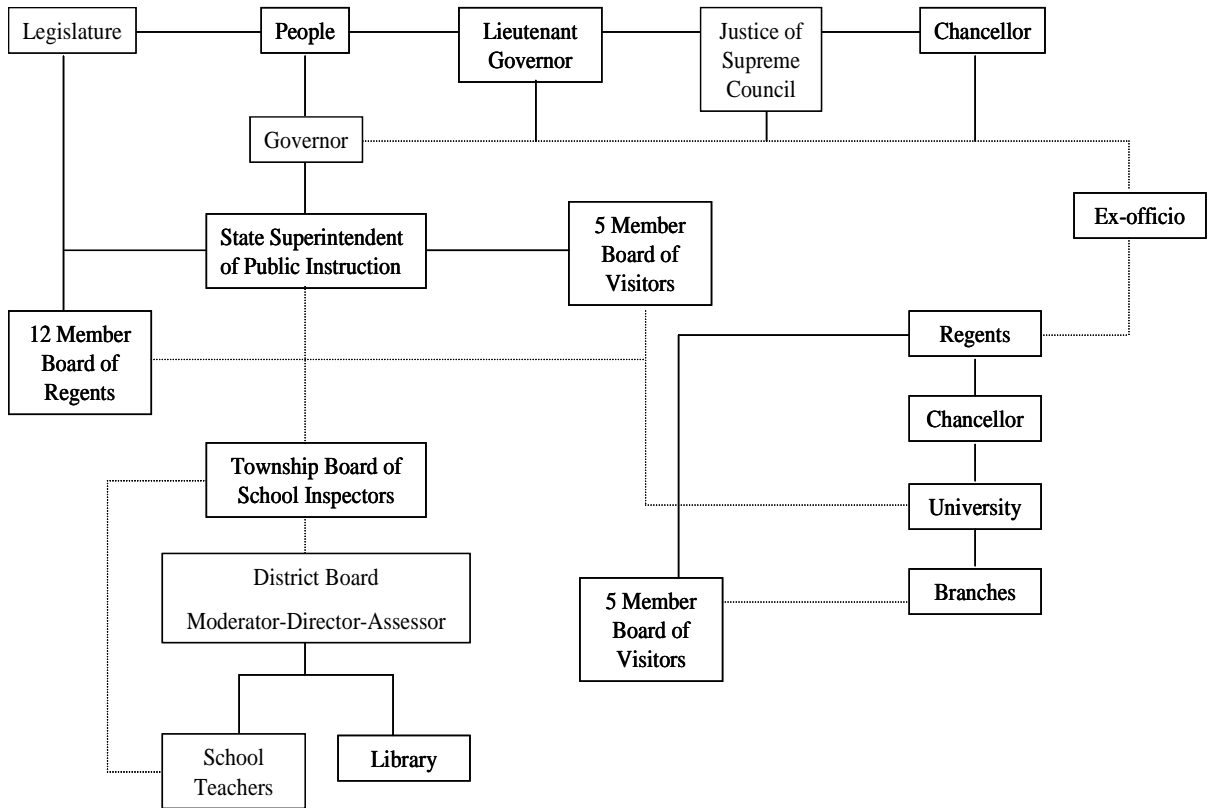


Figure 28: Organization of Michigan’s Public Education System, 1837.¹

Structure

University of Michigan

On March 18, 1837, the legislature passed a law creating the University of Michigan. This law, like that creating the system of common schools, was passed as essentially proposed by John D. Pierce. Like Judge Woodward’s plan of 1817, Pierce created a university with highly centralized powers, though the primary school was separate in its form of governance. The university was governed by a twelve member board of regents and a chancellor who served as its ex-officio President. All members of the board of regents were recommended by the Governor and appointed by the legislature. The Governor, Lieutenant Governor, Supreme Court judges, and chancellor

¹ Note: Adapted from *Public Education in Detroit*, by A. Moehlman, 1974, New York: Arno Press p. 59.

of the state served as ex-officio members of the board of regents. The university consisted of three departments: 1) literature, arts, and science 2) law, and 3) medicine. The law created numerous professorships and limited the board of regents ability to authorize any additional. Tuition at the university was free to Michigan residents though there was an admission charge of up to ten dollars. The board of regents was authorized to set the parameters surrounding the admission of students from out of the state.

The state superintendent of public instruction was required to appoint five persons annually to serve as visitors. These visitors were to personally examine the university, report on the results, and make recommendations to the superintendent of public instruction. The superintendent was required to transmit the report to the legislature at its next session. The board of regents was also required to submit to what was essentially an audit by the visitors. The university law also announced that the board of regents would proceed to plan for the erection of buildings, once funds were available and they were directed to do so by the legislature (Public Act No. LV, 1837, pp. 102-106, 1837).

The Monroe Branch of the University of Michigan

One of the most successful aspects of this first state university law was the creation of a system of local branches. The university law relative to the branches was very specific in terms of the curriculum requirements. Students were required to attend to their studies during terms as prescribed by the state. Students read scripture at the beginning of the day and attended worship as specified by their parents. Monitors were to be assigned by the principals to report absence or tardiness from worship. Tuition charges were \$10.00 per academic year for all branches except Detroit and Monroe, which were \$15.00.

The laws relative to the branches furthermore specified which courses were to be taken during the students' anticipated attendance of three years. Students could enroll in the English languages and literature department, classical studies department, or department for the education of teachers. Those students interested in teaching could specialize in English literature, mathematics, and physics; or intellectual, political, and moral sciences (Pierce, 1839, March). The textbooks to be used were specifically authorized by the University of Michigan Board of Regents.

Administration

Samuel Center was appointed principal of the Monroe Branch of the University of Michigan on February 19, 1838. It was reported in March of 1839 that 64 students were enrolled in the Monroe branch. A total of 204 students were reported as being enrolled in the University of Michigan branches throughout the state (Pierce, 1839, p. 7). The branches of the university would be short lived. In spite of the support of Superintendent Pierce, the board of regents began to withdraw support for the branches in 1841, and by 1846 eliminated their funding altogether. It was Pierce's view that the University of Michigan could not succeed without the branches. Superintendent Pierce proposed that "ten percent of the income from the Primary School Fund be used for the branches" (Shaw, 1942, p. 163). Pierce (1838) further proposed that the receipts from the sale of the salt spring lands be used to support the branches so that funds would not be derived from the university fund (pp. 29-31). The legislature did not act upon the Superintendent's proposals. Ultimately, in spite of their popularity in the minds of the citizens of Michigan, the University of Michigan Board of Regents removed their financial support to focus efforts and funding on meeting their responsibilities to build an elite university in Ann Arbor, Michigan, that would rival those of the eastern United States.

Originally, it was Pierce's intention to create these branches within a shared governance concept between the county board of supervisors and the university board of regents, but the legislature did not concur (Shaw, 1942). This was one of the few exceptions the lawmakers took with the ideas of Pierce while creating the Michigan Public School System. The University of Michigan Board of Regents would maintain the governance authority over the local branches within the state.

The local governance authority of the branches was placed in the hands of the principal and instructors, all appointed by the university board of regents. Together, they were designated as "the Immediate Government of the ____ Branch of the University of Michigan" (Pierce, 1839, No. 1, p. 7). The principal was required to preside over the meetings of the immediate government, record its acts, register the names and ages of all students, and file reports with the superintendent of public instruction and the board of regents. The board of regents was required to appoint a board of visitors consisting of five members. The board of visitors was responsible to "superintend" a public examination of the students each term, report the results to the regents, and make other recommendations toward the betterment of their branch of the university. The board of visitors was to be utilized to address concerns brought up by parents or by the immediate government. The principal had the authority to convene the board of visitors at any time. A treasurer was also to be appointed by the board of regents to each branch of the university to manage the financial affairs.

The law concerning branches required the education of females within the academies. This was an idea that amongst most people, was still generally "frowned upon" (Dunbar, 1971, p. 400). Though the law specified a separate "female department," Dunbar (1971) reported that "in actual practice in the branches young men and women

attended the same classes” (p. 400). The branches were also legally mandated to teach agriculture though “so far as is known no agricultural department was started in any of the branches” (Dunbar, 1971, p. 401). The law also made it mandatory that each branch establish a department “especially appropriated to the education of teachers for the primary schools” (Public Act No. LV, 1837, p. 105). Dunbar (1971) stated, “the plan appears to have been for students to undertake some studies at the collegiate level in the branches so that when the university was opened it might have men prepared to enter at the upper class level. The records show that when the university opened in Ann Arbor in 1841, some men already prepared in the branches were admitted as sophomores” (p. 401).

Flowers (2006) reported,

Pierce’s original plan called for a branch to be located in every county. However, having established a committee to determine the location of the branches in 1838, the regents resolved to establish only eight, based on the dispersion of the population and the needs of the people. The following year five branches were opened in Pontiac, Monroe, Kalamazoo, Detroit and Niles, enrolling 161 students. Over the lifetime of the branches, thirteen different schools would be in operation throughout the state. (p. 256)

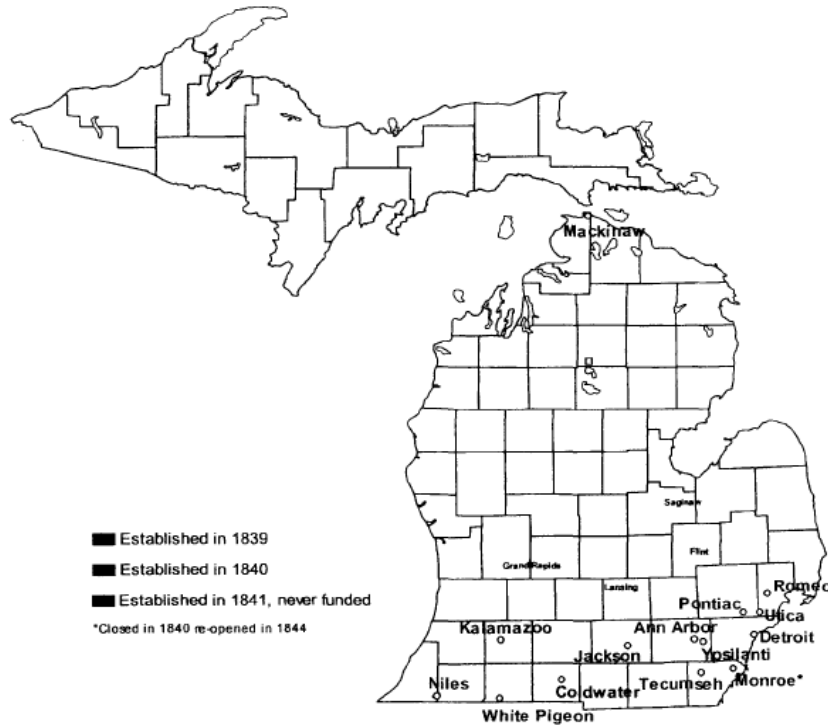


Figure 29: University of Michigan Branches.¹

Core Pedagogy

According to Katz (1987)

As they systematized the administration and grading of schools, these reformers argued for a softening of pedagogy. They wanted to reduce or eliminate interpersonal competition or (“emulation”) and corporal punishment as motivation and to substitute the arousal of interest, affection for the teacher, and the internalization of a desire to learn. (p. 49)

This softening of pedagogy was expressed by John D. Pierce (1838):

Let the children of our country receive proper instruction – let them be treated as human beings – let their physical, natural, and moral nature be properly cultivated – and when manhood arrives, they show themselves to be men, equal in

¹ Flowers, R. Eastern Michigan University. Ypsilanti, Michigan. 2006.

all respects to the most favored portion of our race. (Pierce, 1838. March, p. 2)

In a speech delivered at the “Detroit Convention of Teachers and Others Friendly to Universal Education” on January 3, 1838, Superintendent Pierce called upon teachers to reform their methods of discipline:

But there is one part of the human frame that ought, especially in children and youth, to be held sacred, and be carefully and religiously guarded. I mean the head. For whatever may be thought of phrenology as a science, facts make it clear as demonstration itself, that there is a vital connection between some portions of the head and the mental energies of the soul. A slight pressure of the skull upon the brain has been proved to be sufficient to induce mental alienation, which deprives man of the exercise and use of all his reasoning faculties. How preposterous and how vile the habit of inflicting blows upon the unformed and unconsolidated heads of children and youth! (Pierce, 1838, June Supplement, p. 12)

Clearly the State of Michigan was on a path to educational reform that would alter the pedagogy over time. The manner in which this would occur was not clear during these early days of Michigan’s Public education system. The system, though comparatively small, was geographically, politically, and becoming ever more so culturally diverse. There was little money, the infrastructure was still primitive, and the notions that people had about education were certainly not uniform, though the northeastern United States cultural influence was gaining momentum as people from this region of the country came to Michigan and formed the majority.

Pedagogical Roots

The basis of pedagogy, ushered in by the reformers such as John D. Pierce, was brought from Europe and especially Prussia. A transformation from education's traditional pedagogical moorings, established in Ptolemaic Alexandria in the third century B. C., began during the Renaissance in Europe. For centuries the focus of education was on the written word. The Renaissance period, which took place between approximately 1400 and 1600, was a time where intellectual and democratic ideas began to be pursued as a component of the higher schools. The printing press and the Protestant reformation were further advancements and events that revived educational thought. In particular, Martin Luther's focus on the importance of reading the Bible at the elementary school level using one's native language advanced the development of "progressive pedagogy" as advocated for by the nineteenth century education reformers in the United States. It is important to note that while Luther's view was that the state schools should be subservient to the church, others in the reformation movement, such as his close friend, Phillippe Melancthon, had a more expansive view that resulted in creating the "Modern German gymnasium" (Downs, 1975, p. 12). Books also began to be mass produced, which allowed for Greek, Latin, and other literature to become widely used (Downs, 1975, p. 11). In the seventeenth century, a new scientific approach to teaching and learning began to emerge.

Francis Bacon, in his *Novum Organum* ("new instrument") published in 1620, stressed the importance of natural inquiry outside of the classical studies (Graves, 1912, p. 12). Bacon professed that the laws of nature were not yet understood and that the traditions of only studying the society of the past was harming the advancement of man. Bacon believed that "the sciences we now possess are merely systems for the nice

ordering and setting forth of things already invented, not methods of invention or directions for new work” (Robertson, 1905, p. 260).

According to Graves (1912), Bacon “very properly rejected the contemporary method of attempting to establish *a priori*, the first principles of a science, and then deduce from them by means of the syllogism, all the propositions which the science could contain” (p. 17). Bacon’s methods of inductive thinking, as expressed in *Novum Organum*, overthrew “traditional prejudices” and “modes of thinking surrounding scientific inquiry” (Swift, 1971, p. 1).

Traditional pedagogy remained basically unchanged for young children until the time of the French Revolution. The elementary pedagogy, like that of secondary education, focused on developing the intellect and character through the teaching and learning of long established knowledge. Knowledge was “fixed” and the classic languages and literature were components of the “ideal education” (Swift, 1971, p. 12). All children were viewed as basically alike, and their learning was dependent upon their effort. Promotion was dependent upon mastery of prescribed and standardized material. “Lectures, drills, memorization, and recitation were principle methods of instruction” (Swift, 1971, p. 13). In the traditional classroom, teachers were strict and students were not to speak unless spoken to. School attendance was viewed as a choice and of secondary importance to the influence of home and church. There was no connection between the school and the community. These rules all began to change in the 18th and early nineteenth centuries. The traditional view concerning human nature – that all humans are sinful from birth – was challenged. Philosophers such as Jean Jacques Rousseau argued that “man is born neither bad nor good; it is only his environment which

makes him one or the other” (Swift, 1971, p. 16). Rousseau developed a tremendous sympathy and advocacy for the poor based on his personal experience.

It was through his book, *Emile*, that Rousseau had the most significant impact on education. Rousseau attacked the formal educational process with its emphasis on Latin grammar, words, and preparing children to live in a corrupt society. In fact, *Emile* (2003) begins with the phrase “Everything is good as it comes from the hands of the author of nature; but everything degenerates in the hands of man” (Rousseau, 2003, p. 1). *Emile* is a fictional character raised from infancy to manhood using Rousseau’s “naturalistic” philosophy. Rousseau’s basic premise was that education must conform to nature. *Emile* was moved to the country as an infant, away from the evils of civilization. No moral training was to be given to the child between the ages of five and twelve. Discipline was to be taught through natural consequences.

The last chapter of *Emile* is titled “Sophie” and addressed *Emile*’s need for a companion. Rousseau addressed the education of women by departing from the naturalistic training to be given to men. Rousseau defined the training of women as being that which is necessary to “please” and “be useful” to men (Swift, 1912, p. 96).

Rousseau’s primary gift to pedagogy was the importance of seeing the child and his development as the center of education. He professed the view that children are not inherently bad and thus began to build a psychological and humanistic view concerning the education of children. In *Emile*, Rousseau questioned the underlying philosophy of 18th century education, psychology, and morality (Chanover, 1973, p. 1148). “He criticized traditional education for forcing children into a manipulative and corrupt society” (Chanover, 1973, p. 1148). Rousseau also conceptualized “sense realism,” the idea that children learned through experiences involving touch, sight, hearing, smell, and

taste. Rousseau (2003) believed that education begins at birth and that fathers should be their children's teachers (p. 15).

A third leading proponent of progressive education was Johan Pestalozzi, born in Zurich, Switzerland, on January 12, 1746. Rousseau's *Emile* was only concerned with education of the upper classes, while Pestalozzi desired "to extend its concepts to the whole of humanity" (Downs, 1975, p. 13). In 1774 Pestalozzi realized a life-long dream to help poor children "live self respecting lives" when he and his wife, Anna, opened their home named Neuhof (new farm) at Birfield, Switzerland, as an industrial school to fifty poor and abandoned children (Downs, 1975, pp. 24-25). The Pestalozzis clothed them and began to teach these children the skills they would need to leave their lives of poverty. Pestalozzi believed that "education of the poor demands a deep and accurate knowledge of the real needs, limitations, and environment of poverty, and detailed knowledge of the probable situation in which they will spend their lives" (Heafford, pp. 9-10).

Pestalozzi provided his boys with practical instruction in farming and gardening. The girls at Neuhof received experience in domestic duties and needlework. Pestalozzi taught all students to read the Bible and write. There was great improvement noted after just a few months of enrollment with many of the children. Unfortunately, Pestalozzi had money problems and by 1780, he was bankrupt. The experiment was over, and Neuhof closed. Pestalozzi published his views, and one of his writings, *Leonard and Gertrude*, proved to be extremely popular.

Leonard and Gertrude focuses on a fictional couple and their children, struggling to survive, who, through the work of an ingenious woman (Gertrude) with a gift for children and for making wise decisions, reform a town. Soon she is able to reform the

entire country. Pestalozzi's educational pedagogy is sprinkled throughout the book. The connection between the school and the community, the importance of a woman's guidance and her heart in educating children, the goodness of poor people, and the importance to the rich that the poor be educated are all present in *Leonard and Gertrude* (Leonard and Gertrude, 1896). These were themes that were prominent in the educational reformers writings during the nineteenth century.

Later Pestalozzi was given charge of the educational program at an orphanage in Stanz, Switzerland, where he further developed his educational pedagogy. Pestalozzi "declined all assistants, books, and materials, as he felt that none of the conventional methods could be of service in his work, and he sought to instruct the children rather by experience and observation than by abstract statements and words. Religion and morals for example, were never taught by precepts, but through instances that arose in their own lives. He showed them the value of self control, charity, sympathy, and gratitude" (Graves, 1912, p. 128).

In 1801, a second book by Pestalozzi, *How Gertrude Teaches Her Children*, was published. This book did not mention Gertrude but consisted of fifteen letters to his friends expressing his educational philosophy and pedagogy. In *How Gertrude Teaches Her Children*, Pestalozzi stated:

Then I found, further, that all our knowledge flows from three elementary powers.

1) From the power of making sounds, the origin of language 2) From the *indefinite, simple sensuous power of forming images*, out of which arises the consciousness of all forms. 3) From the *definite*, no longer merely *sensuous power of imagination*, from which must be derived consciousness of unity and with it the power of calculation and arithmetic. (p. 89)

In January 1801, the government of Switzerland granted Pestalozzi a building and a stipend to operate a school at Burgdorf. Many came to Burgdorf to learn Pestalozzi's techniques and to spread them throughout the world. Perhaps most significantly, Pestalozzi, unlike Rousseau, believed that through education the poor could better their conditions. Through the work of Pestalozzi, the concepts of naturalism, psychology, humanism, and manual education had been further developed for the education of the young. The work of Pestalozzi, still evident in the pedagogy of today's schools, was known throughout the world, perhaps most notably by Freidrich Froebel.

Friedrich Wilhelm August Froebel was born on April 21, 1782, in Schuarzburg-Rudolstadt, Germany. In 1805, Froebel came into contact with Dr. Anton Grüner, a follower of Pestalozzi and headmaster of a Pestalozzi model school (Graves, 1912, p. 197). Grüner gave Froebel a teaching position in his school. At the beginning of his appointment, Froebel paid a visit to Pestalozzi at Yverdun, where he spent two weeks. Upon his return to Frankfort, he began teaching "arithmetic, drawing, geometry, and the German language" (Downs, 1978, p. 19). According to Downs (1978), Froebel "followed the Pestalozzian principle of stressing firsthand knowledge, rather than empty theory, and of proceeding from the near to the remote. His lessons on physical geography were based on trips of discovery which he and his pupils made in the vicinity of Frankfort – also one of Pestalozzi's favorite devices" (p. 19).

According to Graves (1912), "The education here aimed to develop the pupils harmoniously in all their powers through the exercise of their own activity in subjects whose relations with one another and with life had been carefully thought out" (p. 200). Froebel's students were encouraged to use their creativity, explore nature, and engage in

play as part of the learning process. Froebel expressed his school's philosophy, as practiced at Kailhau, in the *Education of Man* published in 1826.

In the *Education of Man*, Froebel built upon Pestalozzi's theories of sense perception, using the child's own interest to teach him, and beginning instruction from where the child is at. Froebel unified the subjects being taught with the student's mind. He believed in the importance of the connection between family, school, and instruction. Froebel (1896), stressed the importance of play as follows:

Play is the purest, most spiritual activity of man at this stage, and at the same time, typical of human life as a whole – of the inner hidden natural life in man and all things. It gives, therefore, joy, freedom, contentment, inner and outer rest, peace with the world. It holds the sources of all that is good. A child that plays thoroughly, with self-active determination, persevering until physical fatigue forbids, will surely be a thorough, determined man, capable of self-sacrifice for the promotion of the welfare of himself and others. (p. 55)

Froebel (1896) also connected specific methods to his beliefs. In observing nature, students were not just focused on any particular object but the surroundings, their senses, language, and grammar. Froebel left his model school at Kailhau for Switzerland where he eventually came to Berne and began training teachers. It was while he was at Berne, the Castle of Burgdorf, that he became interested in the "education of the nursery" (Graves, 1912, p. 203). Froebel began a school in Blankenburg, Germany, for children ages three to seven. His instruction included many of the materials and concepts he had developed in Switzerland, and word of his program, Kindergarten, soon spread around the world through the voices of influential friends who became aware of his work

(Graves, 1912, pp. 230-235). Froebel's body of work changed the pedagogy, indeed the structure, of education.

Curriculum

“At the inception of the common school movement, the ‘curriculum’ of the rural school was often whatever textbooks lay at hand” (Tyack, 1974, p. 19). While educational reformers such as John D. Pierce of Michigan, Horace Mann of Massachusetts, and Henry Barnard of Connecticut sought to standardize curriculum, the bureaucratic structure to do so simply did not exist. The remedies to having curriculum determined and implemented by untrained teachers and non-professional inspectors existed in the Prussian system, and these leaders shared this system at every opportunity through their writings and speeches. The reform these men advocated included a central board of education, grading of schools, standardized books, a superintendent for schools, and normal schools to train teachers (Katz, 1987).

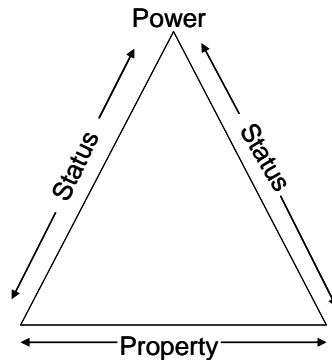
It was quite common that Mr. Pierce recommended books and lessons in the Educational Journal during its existence. Still there was no reason to believe that Superintendent Pierce's recommendations were implemented due to the remote and impoverished State of Michigan's citizens.

Summary and Analysis

Governance

As Michigan entered statehood, it continued its revolutionary movement away from the rule of monarchy. According to MacIver (1975), “The conception of the state as constituted by the whole people and the corresponding conception of government as the agency of the people, set up by them and responsible to them, inaugurated a new era in the history of government” (p. 85). Historically, government was controlled through

power derived from property ownership and class status (MacIver, 1975, p. 62). MacIver explained the triangular interaction between these elements of society; “authority is often defined as power, the power to command obedience. Property conveys both power and status, derived from its right to dispose of things. Status confers power and power confers status” (p. 62).



*Figure 30: Traditional Power Triangle.*¹

Michigan’s first Constitution of 1835 set forth the following in Article 1 of the Bill of Rights:

1. All political power is inherent in the people.
2. Government is instituted for the protection, security and benefit of the people; and they have the right at all times to alter and reform the same, and to abolish one form of government and establish another whenever the public good requires it.
3. No man or set of men are entitled to exclusive or separate privileges.

(p. 1)

¹ MacIver, 1975, p. 62.

Citizenship Rights

Marshall (1992) divided citizenship into three parts: “civil, political, and social” (p. 8). The civil aspect of citizenship involved those rights involving personal freedom such as freedom of thought, religion, and the right to own property. The political aspect of citizenship involves rights relating to the exercise of political power such as the right to be a member of a body with political authority or the right to be an elector. The third aspect of citizenship is the right to a “modicum of economic well-being and the right to share in the social heritage of the society” (Marshall, 1992, p. 8). In Marshall’s view, early societies had no collection of rights afforded to each person but rather afforded rights to some according to class status. Thus the early efforts to define the citizenship rights of Michigan residents were of great importance to its future directions, including those related to public education.

Table 12.

Citizenship Rights as Defined by Marshall

Civil	Political	Social
Individual Personal Freedom (speech, thought, faith)	Exercise of political power (suffrage, serve on legislative body)	Due process, assert rights exercise, political power

In addition, the Constitution of 1835 very significantly gave suffrage to every white male then living in Michigan and thereafter, who had resided therein for six months. The issue of suffrage was one of the few contentious issues at the Constitutional Convention. The fact that the Michigan Constitution adopted a broad suffrage right was a testament to the moderate class of men who dominated the delegation. Clearly, the

organizational bias of the first state constitution was to set up a government subservient to the will of the people. The rights afforded under a democratic government do not completely negate the historical trinity between power, property, and status as defined by MacIver (1965). The dynamics of this relationship, however, are altered as compared with a monarchical or dictatorial form of governance. In the words of Schattschneider (1975), “Organization is the mobilization of bias. Some issues are organized into politics while others are organized out” (p. 69). Iannacone (1977) has further expanded upon Schattschneider’s findings by noting that “changes in organization will change the values at issue” (p. 295). The citizenship rights organized into the State of Michigan’s first constitution were critical to the future development of its institutions.

Table 13.

The Pre-Industrial Cultural Environment in Michigan

Cultural Environment: Pre-Industrial America
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language (English) • Governance (Constitutional Republic) • Economy/Tasks (agriculture, natural resources) • Ideology (Protestant-republican reform) • Religion (Protestant) • Demographics (Eastern United States) • Myth-Complex (redeemer nation) • Conflict (borders)

A key finding of this researcher was the importance of the relationships that exist between the national, state, and local governments. The Michigan Public Education System is very much a part of this “federalist” system of government relations. At its very beginning, the national government left the states responsible for education. The United States Constitution is mute on the matter of education, and “the tenth amendment

to this document states that any power not given to the national government remains the authority of state government or the people” (Frantzich and Perry, 1994, p. 54). During the pre-industrial era there was little overlapping action taken by the different levels of government. This era of federalism was termed “dual federalism” (Frantzich and Percy, 1994, p. 60). During the nation’s early years, states were quite suspicious of the powers of the federal government and sought to limit them. The national government enabled the state’s establishment of public education through the granting of “Section 16” in each township to be sold or leased for the purpose of funding public schools. In Michigan, unlike other states, these funds were turned over to the state versus the local township or county. This greatly impacted the manner in which public education developed.

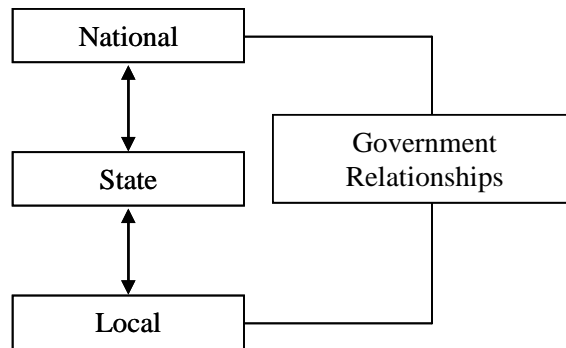


Figure 31: Federalist System of Governmental Relationships.

Educational Governance

Ideology

The ideological foundations of Monroe County’s system of public education were the result of a reform movement that swept across the United States and merged Protestant and republican beliefs about nation building and common schooling (Tyack and Hansot, 1980, p. 292). At the core of this ideology was the belief that common schools were essential to the creation of a righteous society that would lead its nation to greatness. According to Kaestle (1983), “The ideology centered on republicanism,

Protestantism, and capitalism, three sources of social belief that were intertwined and mutually supporting” (p. 76).

Kaestle (1983) referred to the most forceful and influential variant of this ideology as “cosmopolitan” (p. 77). This ideology “advocated government action to improve the economy, shape the morals, and unify the culture of mid-nineteenth century America” (Kaestle, 1983, p. 77). At a time of great social change, the Protestant ideology promised stability to the still-fragile republic. Indeed the tenets and homilies of Protestant theology stressed “unity, obedience, restraint, self sacrifice, and the careful exercise of intelligence,” all perfectly compatible with republican beliefs and needs (Kaestle, 1983, p. 80-81). For its part, “republicanism united concepts of virtue, balanced government, and liberty. By ‘virtue’ republican essayists meant discipline, sacrifice, simplicity, and intelligence” (Kaestle, 1983, p. 5). The condensation symbol for virtue in republican ideology was the yeoman “independent in means and judgment, but willing to sacrifice for the common good” (Kaestle, 1983, p. 79). The rural life and all of its symbolism was also seen as a great virtue in republican ideology. The proponents of this combined ideology were most certain of its righteousness. The only problem for both the republican and Protestant ideologies was whether their beliefs and vision would prevail in a nation undergoing vast changes brought on by immigration, changing economic conditions, and regional cultural differences. These men perceived public schooling as the key to success in making theirs the dominant ideology.

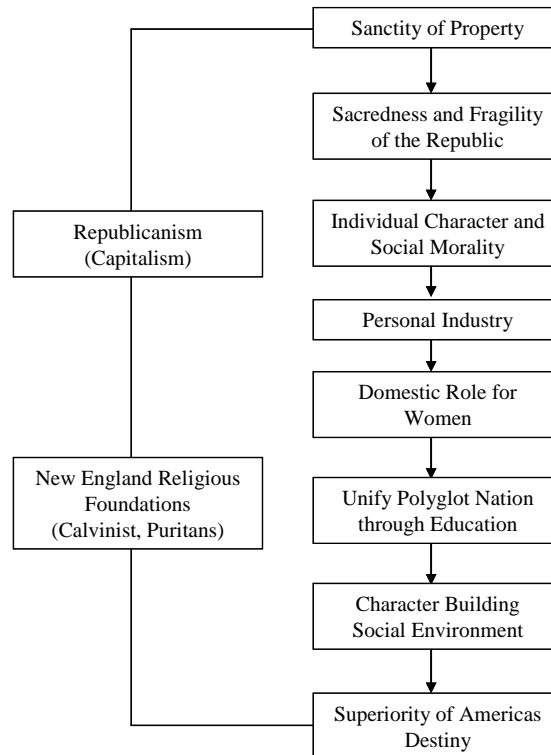


Figure 32: Central Principles of Protestant-Republican Ideological Reform Movement .¹

According to Kaestle (1983), the leaders of this ideological reform movement “were characteristically Anglo-American in background, Protestant in religion, and drawn from the middling ranks of American society. They shared views on human nature, nationhood, and political economy. These social beliefs provided the ideological context for the creation of the state school systems” (p. 75). These men took their duties with great zealousness. According to Tyack and Hansot (1980):

A large proportion of the common school crusaders of the nineteenth century were cosmopolitan, in touch with currents of thought and action beyond the local communities in which they worked. Linked to reform networks by voluntary associations of regional and even national scope, they looked beyond their

¹ From Kaestle, 1983. pp. 76-77.

immediate surroundings for guidance and tended to share the class culture of an emerging bourgeoisie. (pp. 295-296)

These factors resulted in a remarkable similarity in the public school systems that developed as a result of their efforts and in creating amongst the people high rates of literacy and “a strong sense of national identity” (Tyack and Hansot, 1980, p. 296).

The school reformers, or “crusaders,” as they called themselves, were more successful creating State Systems of Public Schools in the northeast and Midwest sections of the United States than in the south (Tyack and Hansot, 1980). Kaestle (1983), however, reported that, “In no region was there overwhelming consensus on state intervention in common schooling.... Geography, class structure, economic development, and cultural heritage combined to tip the scales in favor of state systems in the north and against them in the south” (p. 217).

Table 14.

Michigan State System of Public Education

State System of Public Education
• Language (English)
• Governance (centralized Prussia)
• Conflict (who decides?)
• Pedagogy (European)
• Ideology (Protestant-republican)
• Curriculum (standardized)
• Policy Entrepreneurs (Crary, Pierce)
• Myth-Complex (moral and civic order)

Education

Governance

In Michigan, the Protestant-republican ideological forces were brought together by John D. Pierce and Isaac E. Crary. Together these men planned, advocated for, and implemented a system of public instruction that was characterized by its heavily centralized organizational bias. The bias of Michigan's public education system can be found in the constitutional provision creating the first superintendent of public instruction in the United States. This appointed individual, John D. Pierce, had immense authority given to him by the legislature to create and implement the public education system. The superintendent of public instruction was embedded in the constitution to protect it from political whim. The organizational separation of educational government from general politics that occurred at the inception of the system was later strengthened, though it has been a source of conflict throughout history. Through the work of Congressman Crary, the funds received from the sale or lease of lands granted by the United States to Michigan for the purpose of promoting education were allocated to the state. Previous to Michigan, the monies from the sale of these properties were allocated to townships or local governments. These strong organizational biases towards separation of educational governance and centralization of funding significantly impacted the development of the Michigan System of Public Education.

In spite of the centralized organizational bias of the Michigan system of public education and the executive power inherent in the position of superintendent of public instruction, attempting to govern the system of public education was largely dependent on the good will of the local people. There was simply too much distance and too much suspicion of government amongst the people to effectively supervise a centralized

system. Michigan's schools beyond the cities and towns were largely without trained teachers, pedagogy, or curriculum with the exception of the Protestant version of the Bible, Webster's Dictionary, and whatever books the families might have in their possession. This caused great concern for Superintendent Pierce and his successors as Michigan's government was very small. There was no large bureaucratic structure to enforce the educational laws and promote the Protestant-republican ideology as Pierce and Crary had envisioned. Superintendent Pierce was dependent on his powers of persuasion, as were the educational leaders of other states. In spite of this, according to Tyack and Hansot (1982), "This social movement provided by the end of the century more schooling for more people than in any other nation and resulted in patterns of education that were remarkably, uniform in purpose, structure and curriculum, despite the reality of local control in hundreds of thousands of separate communities" (p. 17). The Michigan Superintendent of Public Instruction and legislature guided by the organizing bias of their centralized system, borrowed from Prussia, built a University of Michigan to rival the eastern colleges.

During the pre-industrial era, migration came ever more strongly from the eastern United States and especially from New York. These people came by boat, wagon, and foot to Michigan, and Monroe County was one of their first stops. While many moved deeper into the northwestern territories, those who stayed would forever impact the development of Michigan in every way imaginable. The influence of the eastern colonies could be seen in the many towns and streets with similar names to those of New York. In time, the state's fervent anti-slavery political posture, its laws, and educational system reflected those of the eastern United States and especially New York. It was these migrants from the east who began to build the roads, canals, and railroads that allowed

others to follow. At the dawn of the Industrial Revolution, every aspect of society, politics, and culture of Michigan was undergoing profound change. In the minds of Pierce and others of similar ideological persuasion, only a strong public school system could insure that such dramatic change was controlled and shaped for the good of the republic and for mankind.

Industrial America Era - 1860

Demographics

By 1860 Michigan's population had increased to 749,113 (Bald, 1954, p. 259). Immigration from Europe to Michigan accelerated significantly after the 1830s. The largest group of people came from the British Isles. The English, Scots, and Irish all assimilated fairly easily due to a common language. The Irish tended to be poorer than the others and were a bit more clannish. They located mostly in the large cities where they could find work as laborers or in jobs such as "digging canals or building railroads" (Bald, 1954, pp. 259-260). Indeed, a significant number of Irish settlers came to Monroe as a result of a planned canal.

Many Prussians also found their way from Europe to Michigan. The Reverend Frederich Schmid came to Michigan and, beginning in 1833, established churches in Washtenaw, Monroe, and Wayne counties. This first group of Prussian settlers were mostly farmers and able to purchase property or work the land until they were able to purchase their own. These settlers also found their way to Clinton County and the Saginaw Valley area, where they founded many communities in Michigan.

According to Hattstadt (1847), "The first German-Evangelical settlers came [to Monroe] in the year 1828. These were Simon Knobb, with his family, and Adam FreidrichVau, (at that time, still unmarried, but later on he married and settled down). They came from Langensteinbach near the Grand Dukedom Baden and they bought property here south of the city" (p. 184). Pastor Schmid served the congregation every eight weeks at first, then every six weeks later. Others soon came from Bavaria to Monroe. In 1839 the Zoars Church was opened. In the fall of 1844, Pastor Schmid was replaced by George Wilhelm Hattstadt, born in Langenzan, Bavaria. Following an

unsuccessful revolution in 1848, another group of German immigrants came to Michigan. These people were intellectuals and leaders. Dr. Edward Dorsch was one of these immigrants who came to Monroe. He became a prominent physician and an anti-slavery Republican, and it was said that his home was a stop on the Underground Railroad, which assisted slaves escaping to freedom from the south (Naveaux and Gruber, 2001, pp. 21-22). By 1860 this group of pioneers were leaving their own cultural mark through their “bands, orchestras, and singing societies” (Ida Area Centennial, 1968, p. 8). Monroe’s influence in this effort to increase German immigration was reported upon as follows (*German Immigrants*, 1869, November 4):

Mr. John W. Reisig, of this City, who, with Mr. Allardt, of Saginaw, went to Germany some months since as Immigrant Agents, under appointment from Governor Baldwin, has just returned with 42 immigrants. They arrived in Detroit at a late hour on Saturday night last. The most of these immigrants are from Bavaria, southern Germany, from which section there has been very little immigration during the last eighteen years, and on this account considerable difficulty was experienced, and the authorities placing every obstruction in his way. Mr. Reisig was placed under arrest five or six different times, but was kept in custody only a few hours. There were many more very desirous to come, but could not dispose of their property and get ready in so short a time.

Of the forty-two who came with Mr. Reisig sixteen, young men and young women, come to Monroe, two families stop in Detroit, one family of eight goes to Saginaw, a family of four goes to Three Rivers, and one family goes to Dearborn.

Mr. Alardt remains in Germany, and if the plan should be approved of by the Governor, Mr. Reisig will go out again in March, and return with another lot

of immigrants, when a much larger number will be ready to avail themselves of the opportunity to come with the reliable escort.

Most of those who came; the young men, as well as those with families, will purchase land, either wild or improved, as soon as they can make selections.

(p. 2)

In 1846, immigration to Michigan from the Netherlands began to take place.

These settlers were suffering from poor agricultural conditions in their home country and were fleeing their state's religion. They founded Holland, Michigan, and many other areas in Western Michigan. Many of these settlers were being led by their congregations' ministers (Bald, 1954).

As other people came from different lands, evidence of their organization at the local level can be observed through their beginning churches. In Monroe, St. Michael's Catholic Church was organized in 1855 to serve the German families of the community. St. John's Catholic Church, after two earlier attempts, was founded in 1877 for English-speaking families. Each of these congregations started schools. These are just a few examples of the congregations started by settlers who came to Monroe and brought their unique religious and cultural practices with them.

Governance

The politics of Michigan during its early days were dominated by the Democrats and Whigs. The Democrats, under the leadership of people such as Lewis Cass and Stevens T. Mason, usually dominated the early state elections.

It was the slavery question, however, that dominated the state and national politics of the United States, drove philosophical wedges between people who otherwise agreed, and made strange bedfellows of others who disagreed about most everything else. As a

result of British rule, there had been a small number of Indians and black slaves in Michigan during its early days. Michigan, with its strong northeastern cultural ties, was decidedly anti-slavery in its sentiment. “The Constitution of 1835 expressly prohibited slavery in the state. In 1837, one of the first anti-slavery societies in the west was organized in Detroit” (Burton, 1922, Vol. 1, p. 475). The citizens of Michigan were also a major part of the Underground Railroad, which rescued fugitive slaves to freedom. Thus, in December 1835, when the Congress of the United States sought to repeal the Missouri Compromise, which had halted the westward movement of slavery, the anti-slavery forces were moved to political action. “The State of Michigan would take the lead in this movement” (Burton, 1922, Vol. 1, p. 464).

On July 6, 1854, in Jackson, Michigan, several thousand Michigan citizens gathered to take political action and form a new party. They were essentially made up of “free Democrats,” “free Republicans,” and “free soilers,” all intensely anti-slavery in their sentiments and pushed to action by the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Act, which effectively repealed the Missouri Compromise (Dunbar, 1971, p. 419). The crowd was so large the meeting had to be held outside in an Oak grove. The organization formed was the Republican Party, and it changed Michigan politics. Isaac Christiancy, of Monroe, was one of the chief organizers of the Jackson Convention that resulted in the formation of the Republican Party. An ardent anti-slavery proponent, he was a teacher prior to studying law. Isaac Christiancy left the Supreme Court to become a United States Senator on February 27, 1875. Under the leadership of men such as Kingsley Bingham and Zachariah Chandler, the coalition of citizens who made up the Republicans dominated the Democrats in the 1854 election. “The election of 1854 was won by the voters of men who were of New England extraction, farmers, members of Protestant churches, backers

of denominational schools, and supporters of such reforms as abolition, prohibition, and women's rights" (Dunbar, 1971, p. 420).

Local Influences

Men of Monroe played a prominent part in Michigan's political scene during this period. In addition to Isaac Christiancy, two of the most prominent leaders were Robert McClelland and Alpheus Felch. McClelland was a member of the 1835 and 1850 constitutional conventions and served on the University of Michigan Board of Regents. Mr. McClelland was born in Greencastle, Pennsylvania, and moved to Monroe in 1833. He served in the Michigan state legislature as Speaker of the House and as a member of the Congressional House of Representatives prior to becoming Governor. McClelland, a Democrat, served as Governor of Michigan from 1851-1853. Governor McClelland was appointed President Franklin Pierce's Secretary of the Interior on March 4, 1853. Alpheus Felch, Democrat, was Michigan's fifth Governor, elected in November 1845. Mr. Felch was born in Limerick, Maine, and moved to Monroe in 1833. Felch had a distinguished career in Michigan politics. In addition to his Governorship, Mr. Felch served in the Michigan State House of Representatives, on the Michigan Supreme Court, and as a United States Senator.

Civil War

When the Civil War started on April 12, 1861, Michigan's sentiments were strongly on the side of maintaining the union. Prior to the attack on Fort Sumpter on January 2, 1861, Michigan's Governor Austin Blair declared,

While we are citizens of the State of Michigan, and as such deeply devoted to her interests and honor, we have a still prouder title. We are also citizens of the United States of America. By this title we are known among the nations of the

earth. In remote quarters of the globe, where the names of the States are unknown, the flag of the great republic, the banner of the Stars and Stripes, honors and protects the citizens. In whatever concerns the honor, the prosperity and the perpetuity of this great government, we are deeply interested. The people of Michigan are loyal to that government – faithful to its constitution and its laws. Under it they have had peace and prosperity; and under it they mean to allude to the end. (Fuller, 1926, Vol. II, pp. 436-437)

On April 29, 1861, the Smith guards, named in honor of General Joseph R. Smith, a Monroe veteran of the Mexican-American War, were organized in Monroe. Many other citizens of Monroe and throughout Michigan would follow. In total, approximately 2,270 Monroe County men served in the Civil War. This figure represented over 10% of the county's population at the time. Eight men from Monroe received the Congressional Medal of Honor during the Civil War. Loss of life during the Civil War was also heavy for those Monroe County men who served. In total, ninety-two men were killed and one-hundred and eighty-two died from disease during the conflict (Naveaux and Gruber, 2001, pp. 24-25).

According to Dunbar (1971), "Michigan contributed over 90,000 men to the union forces" (p. 441). The economic impact of the war on the State of Michigan was chiefly in the form of creating a labor shortage. Unlike the southern states, which were devastated economically, the northern tier of states actually saw economic expansion during the Civil War. There was some inflation as some farm prices and costs rose. Michigan mining, lumbering, and railroad building was strong during the war, and a significant change in the economic structure of the state began to accelerate. Still the cost

of the war was great in human loss of life. With word of the closing of the war on April 10, 1865, Monroe's church bells rang out at 4:00 a.m. (Naveaux and Gruber, 2001).

Following the Civil War, the Republican Party dominated Michigan's elections. The Republicans were heavily supported by Civil War veterans. The Republicans continued to dominate Michigan elections throughout the nineteenth and a substantial portion of the twentieth century.

During the years following the Civil War, Michigan's population grew tremendously. By 1900 the population of the state had reached 2,402,982 (Public Sector Consultants, 2002, p. 3). This population growth was largely fueled by the foreign-born residents who came to Michigan. The greatest increase in the number of immigrants between 1860 and 1890 were Canadian, followed by Germans, Englishmen, Scots, and Dutch. During this time, Scandinavians became numerous in the state for the first time. Immigrants from southern and eastern Europe also came to Michigan. Russians, Italians, Poles, and Bohemians now appeared in census data by the thousands (Bald, 1954).

State Economy/Tasks

After the Civil War, the State of Michigan would become the model for the Industrial Revolution. The Industrial Revolution, which began in the forests of Michigan and ultimately and unimaginably stripped it bare of one of its most substantive natural resources, would lead Michigan and the world into an automotive and manufacturing period that further changed every aspect of culture, society, politics, and education. The Industrial Revolution indeed changed everything in Michigan. A new dominant ideology based on mass production and manufacturing began to take hold.

The Industrial Revolution brought to prominence the concept of organization (Parsons, 1960, p. 2). According to Parsons (1960):

One of the most salient structural characteristics of such a society is the prominence of its relatively large-scale organizations with specialized functions, what rather loosely tend to be called “bureaucracies”. At the role level organizations are composed of relatively pure-type “occupational” roles where the status and responsibilities of the incumbents are relatively fully segregated from their “private” affairs in terms of premises, kinship relations, property, and the like. (p. 2)

Parsons (1960) further conceptualized that the defining characteristic that distinguishes an organization from other types of social systems is its “primary orientation to the attainment of a specific goal” (p. 17). Parsons believed the organizations achievement of its goals would be defined “as a *relation* between a system (in this case a social system) and the relevant parts of the external situation in which it acts or operates” (p. 17). This open system conceptualization is essential to understanding the development of the Monroe County Intermediate of Educational Government during the era of industrialization.

As Michigan emerged from the Civil War, it entered its lumber boom, which extended through the turn of the century. Northern Michigan’s many pine varieties became highly sought after throughout the United States. Early on, the boom depended on the huge stands of trees near rivers where the logs could be readily floated down to saw mills at the river mouth, cut, and transported over the Great Lakes. Later the railroads extended their lines throughout the state and proved that the rivers were not necessary to get the lumber cheaply to market (Catton, 1984). During the lumber era, logging camps flourished throughout Michigan, mostly above the 43rd parallel, and resulted in towns being built, immigrants coming to Michigan, railroad tracks being laid,

and, ultimately, the devastation of Michigan's once pristine forests. "In 1890 there were 1,957 sawmills that sawed some four-and-a-half billion board-feet of lumber. A board-foot of lumber is a piece of wood one foot long, one foot wide, and one inch thick" (Dunbar, 1971, pp. 469-470). "Between the Civil War and 1900 the State of Michigan laid over 10,048 miles of track. This was a major source of economic development for areas of the state that once were remote" (Dunbar, 1971, p. 485). In Western Michigan, Grand Rapids became the furniture capital of the world during the lumbering era.

Michigan's forests had always been harvested. The hardwood varieties of trees that existed in southern Michigan had been used by Michigan explorers, settlers, and militias to build forts, missions, ships, and windmills (Dunbar, 1971, p. 470). The Michigan lumber boom of the mid 1800s to 1910, however, was different. Catton (1984) comments as follows:

From the whispering pine trees in the remotest grove down to the lumber dealer's yard in Chicago or Omaha, lumber was on a production line. Machine shop efficiency had come to the wilderness, everybody prospered, and there was only one trouble. Just as they got everything perfected, they ran out of trees. (p. 147)

As Michigan's lumbering boom came to a close, two by-products of this era became apparent. The first was Michigan's pre-eminence as a producer of salt and its valuable by-products. The waste related to lumbering was tremendous. Logs often rejected for minor flaws were left to rot in the woods. The brush that grew after forests were cut was often highly flammable and fires became ever more frequent in the Michigan forests. As a result of these fires, it was decided that greater care needed to be taken with the scrap wood. The scrap would be used as fuel to evaporate brine. This lowered the cost of salt production. Soon, salt was being produced throughout the state,

and Michigan produced 42% of the nation's salt. The salt production spread to the Southeastern part of the state where it was known that a deep vein of rock salt existed. In 1910, a well was dug and the production of rock salt began. The chemical by-products of Michigan's salt became more valuable than the original product. The Dow Chemical Company of Midland is one of the prominent companies founded in Michigan because of this resource (Dunbar, 1971).

One other by-product of the lumbering era was the development of Northern Michigan as a resort area. As Michigan's lumbering boom came to a close, hotels were built throughout the Northern part of the state by railroad companies who then promoted their lines and the pleasures of Michigan's year around recreational opportunities.

Local Economy

In the midst of the forests, Michigan had entered the industrial age. The lumber industry in Monroe County in the mid-1800s consisted of many small custom mills along the River Raisin. They were operated by water power. The logs were cut and used to build homes and barns. There were several lumber yards for many years in the area. By 1870, only one saw mill was left in Monroe County. Monroe was home to woolen mills, commercial canning, and many nurseries. Monroe was also one of the oldest paper manufacturing cities in the country, but outside of the Monroe city proper, the county remained largely rural.

Manufacturing

During the early days of the Industrial Revolution in Michigan, manufacturing quickly began to expand. Lumber products, paints, varnishes, wagons, carriages, and shipbuilding flourished, especially in Detroit. Detroit also began to produce "locomotives," "steam engines," "stoves," and "freight cars" (Bald, 1954, p. 298).

According to Catton (1984), “In 1860, this area [Detroit] had just under 3,500 manufacturing establishments with a total invested capital of \$28,000,000; at the turn of the century, there were more than 16,000 factories, representing an investment of \$284,000,000. Detroit had burst at its seams” (p. 184). On the western side of the state, Grand Rapids became a manufacturing center for many of the same products. Electric street lights also began to be used instead of gas for outdoors. The Edison Illuminating Company of Detroit was organized in 1886. The chief engineer for the Edison Company during the 1890s was Mr. Henry Ford. In 1896 Mr. Ford completed his first automobile in Detroit. In 1899 the Detroit Automobile Company was organized, but in 1901, “Mr. Ford withdrew from the company and it was reorganized as the Cadillac Motor Company with Henry M. Leland as production manager” (Bald, 1954, p. 362). Ford then organized the Henry Ford Automotive Company, which failed in 1902. In 1903 the Ford Motor Company organized yet again with a \$100,000 investment. Among the investing partners were John F. and Horace E. Dodge. In return for manufacturing engines and other parts for the Ford car, the Dodge brothers would receive 25% of the common stock. Over the next few years, Ford would create his automobiles ever more inexpensively. Using mass production techniques, 200,000 cars were being turned out annually by 1913, and the cost had been reduced from “\$1,926.00 per vehicle in 1908” to “\$550.00 per vehicle in 1913” (Bald, 1954, p. 363).

In January 1914, Ford announced that he would begin to pay \$5.00 per day for an eight hour shift. Ford was attacked for his generous terms for employees by other manufacturers and even the New York Times (Bald, 1954, p. 363). It was later disclosed that the five dollars for a days work applied only to those who had worked for six months. In 1919, Ford bought out all the stakeholders, including the Dodge brothers.

In 1902 James H. Whiting of the Flint Wagon Works purchased the Buick Company from David Buick. Mr. Whiting moved the auto company to Flint, Michigan. Mr. Whiting sold the company to William C. Durant, a successful carriage manufacturer. Mr. Durant would later purchase the Olds Motor Works, Cadillac, Oakland, and the Chevrolet car companies to form General Motors. Chrysler Corporation was a later development and resulted when the Maxwell and Chalmers companies were reorganized in 1922 as the Maxwell Motor Corporation and again in 1925, as the Chrysler Corporation. In 1928 Chrysler acquired the Dodge Brothers Incorporated. Detroit truly earned the name of “The Motor City” during those times. “The Hudson,” “Packard,” “Saxon,” “Flanders,” and “Buick” were other cars produced in Detroit during the early twentieth century (Bald, 1954, pp. 365-366).

Business-Scientific Ideology

As the impact of the Industrial Revolution spread, new studies were conducted aimed at improving the efficiency of organizations. In 1910 Frederick Taylor became widely acclaimed as a result of his work concerning “scientific management” or the “Taylor System.” The basic principles of “scientific management” were to raise production, increase wages, and reduce costs. Taylor’s research findings revealed that “there was always one best method for doing any particular job and this best method could be determined only through scientific study” (Callahan, 1962, p. 25). With the help of the federal government, the principles of scientific management were soon widely acclaimed to be the panacea for improving nearly every aspect of life, including education (Callahan, 1962, pp. 19-25). Taylor’s system was predicated on the idea that every aspect of work could be measured, and workers could be trained to do their jobs properly once their jobs were properly measured. The Taylor system further called for a

further separation of the roles of managers and laborers. Taylor believed that those who did the work were inherently different from those who planned the work (Callahan, 1962, pp. 22-28). The classic symbols of the “Taylor Method” of “scientific management” were the “stop watch” and the “time and motion study” (Callahan, 1962, p. 28).

Simultaneous with Frederick Taylor’s work there was tremendous momentum being built by the technological advances and personal wealth being generated by men such as John D. Rockefeller, Andrew Carnegie, and J. P. Morgan. “The publicity surrounding these wealthy businessmen was increasing the prominence of their role in the minds of the American people” (Callahan, 1962, p. 2). What was “good” for business became “good” for every aspect of American society.

Municipal Reform Movement

The business-scientific ideology led to the municipal reform movement, which was used to reform government at all levels. The municipal reform movement began in the late nineteenth century and progressed throughout the twentieth century. The municipal reform movement was the societal response to the systemic stressors placed upon the public education and social systems by industrialization, immigration, and urbanization. The municipal reform movement was the product of the journalistic “muckrackers,” who exposed tremendous graft and dishonest practices within America’s large urban governments. Eventually the application of business methods to all social systems became a panacea to the problems of the cities and led to a new set of political myths concerning education. These myths, according to Iannaccone, were 1) the separation of politics and education, 2) the concept of a unitary community where an elite educational system will meet the needs of all, and 3) the belief in administrative neutral competency; the belief that professional administrators make decisions that are value-free

and apolitical (pp. 57-60). Gradually the new business-scientific ideology overcame the Protestant-republican reform ideology as the dominant force behind public education policy development.

The municipal reform movement ideology began in the late nineteenth century and was the primary source of the apolitical myth that has surrounded public education throughout its history. The municipal reform movement began as a response to the problems of urban America, widespread corruption, governmental poverty, and immigration. The reform's three major tenets were "the separation of public service from politics, the view of the community as unitary, and the belief in the neutral competency of professionals" (Iannaccone, 1977, p. 57). As a result of these tenets, there was a tremendous transfer of power evidenced during this investigation as the intermediate unit of government evolved.

Educational Ideology

The influence of the business-scientific ideology and the municipal reform movement soon crept into the "business" of education.

According to Tyack and Hansot (1980):

At the turn of the twentieth century the earlier evangelists were replaced, for the most part, by full time professional managers who saw their careers as building on the foundations laid by Horace Mann's generation but who had somewhat different views about the functions of schooling. Equally millennial in their own way, they believed that they stood at a point in history when experts could and should control the course of human evolution. The newer rhetoric shifted from religious to scientific language. They saw business efficiency as a social panacea. Instead of trying to mobilize local citizens to act in a broad-based social

movement, the twentieth century managers sought to “take schools out of politics” and to shift decision making upward and inward in hierarchical and buffered systems.” (p. 292)

These changes, though gradual, were observed by this researcher as the Monroe County Commissioner of Schools carried out their governance and service functions during the twentieth century.

Education

Pedagogy

American Pedagogy

As the United States moved into the twentieth century, John Dewey’s influence upon educational philosophy and pedagogy came to the forefront. John Dewey was born in Burlington, Vermont, in 1859. Upon graduating from Johns Hopkins University in 1884, he was employed by the University of Michigan as an assistant professor of philosophy in the Department of Philosophy in 1884. Dewey spent four years in Ann Arbor and then accepted a position, as a full professor, at the University of Minnesota in 1888. After a stay of less than a year, Dewey returned to the University of Michigan in 1889 following the death of Professor George S. Morris. In 1894 John Dewey became the head of the department of philosophy at the University of Chicago. In accepting this position, Dewey had insisted that pedagogy be included within his responsibilities. While at the University of Chicago, Dewey opened the “University Elementary School” in 1896 (Dykhuisen, 1973, p. 87).

The school was to be “a laboratory of applied psychology. That is, it has a place for the study of mind as manifested and developed in the child, and for the search after materials and agencies that seem most likely to fulfill and further the conditions of

normal growth” (Skillbeck Ed., 1970, p. 54). The school would be open for six and a half years and become widely acclaimed for its training of teachers and promotion of a “progressive” form of education. Eventually the “Department of Pedagogy” would become the Department of Education at the University of Chicago following the merger of The University Elementary School with The Chicago Institute. The Chicago Institute was a private normal school expanding progressive pedagogy in contrast to the conservative and publicly funded Chicago Normal School. The Department of Education continued under the direction of John Dewey and eventually added two secondary schools, the “Chicago Manual Training School” and the “South Side Academy” (Dykhuisen, 1973, p. 90).

John Dewey would leave the University of Chicago for Columbia University in 1905 where he would be associated for the remainder of his life. Dewey’s influence in philosophy, education, and politics would spread throughout the world.

Like Pestalozzi and Froebel, Dewey rejected the traditional notions that the mind was in a steady state simply to be filled with what was previously learned by mankind. His views on learning were that the mind was ever-evolving, that education was a social endeavor, and that teachers should guide their students along a journey determined by the experiences of the student within society. Dewey believed that education within a democracy must reflect the democratic values that it was expecting the students would eventually need to live. Dewey believed that education was preparation of getting ready for the responsibilities and privileges of adult life. He saw childhood as a “preparatory probation” for “another life” as an adult (Dewey, 1916, p. 63).

The purpose of education, according to Dewey, was to prepare students for the unpredictable nature of life.

At the very basis of Dewey's pedagogy was his philosophy that it was society's need, like all other living organisms, to renew itself (Dewey, 1916). In so doing, it was necessary that society communicate its "ideals, hopes, expectations, standards, and opinions" to the young (Dewey, 1916, pp. 3-4).

One of the key issues of Dewey's time was the Industrial Revolution and its impact upon society. Dewey was concerned about the vocational education movement. Dewey believed that vocational education should be pursued in a non-exclusive manner so that students would not be prepared for "only one line of activity" (Dewey, 1916, p. 359). According to Dewey (1916):

No one is just an artist and nothing else, and in so far as one approximates that condition, he is so much the less developed human being; he is a kind of monstrosity. He must, at some period of his life, be a member of a family; he must have friends and companions; he must either support himself, or be supported by others; and thus he has a business career. He is a member of some organized political unit, and so on. We naturally name his vocation from that one of the callings which distinguishes him, rather than from those which he has in common with all others. But we should not allow ourselves to be so subject to works as to ignore and virtually deny his other callings when it comes to a consideration of the vocational phases of education. (p. 359)

Dewey (1916) was concerned that "this movement would continue the traditional liberal or cultural education for the few economically able to enjoy it and would give the masses a narrow technical trade education for specialized callings, carried on under the control of others" (p. 373).

John Dewey's many published expressions of his philosophies on education, politics, and society in general, made him one of the twentieth centuries most significant and controversial figures. He was credited or blamed by many for his influence on American culture and education, much of which remains with us still today.

Ideology

Educationist's Ideology

The origin of the ideology concerning the County Intermediate Superintendent was found in the 1855 Superintendent's Annual Report. Ira Mayhew (1855), in his second stint as the superintendent of public instruction, called for "the establishment of a more thorough system of inspection of teachers, and provisions for a more efficient supervision of schools, and for granting different grades of certificates for teachers (p. 26). Mr. Mayhew (1855) advocated for "one school inspector in each township" and "one school commissioner in each Senatorial District of the State" (p. 26). Mr. Mayhew (1855) believed that the commissioner should have "general supervision of the schools" to "visit schools" and to "examine teachers" (p. 26). Mr. Mayhew would continue to recommend this addition to the educational governance system throughout his tenure as state superintendent of public instruction to 1858.

It was John Gregory, superintendent of public instruction from 1859-1864, who advocated most vociferously for a county superintendent's role within Michigan's Public School System to supervise the local school districts.

Superintendent Gregory (1861) recommended that the county superintendent's position be appointed by the township school inspectors, who would also set the position's salary within the state's prescribed parameters. Gregory also suggested that the county superintendents might be commissioned by the state superintendent of public

instruction and, thus, be subject to removal upon “proof of incompetency or unfaithfulness” (Gregory, 1861, pp. 22-24). The duties of the county superintendent under Gregory’s proposal would involve the examination and licensure of teachers, inspection of schools, establishment of school district boundaries, and transmittal of reports to the superintendent of public instruction (Gregory, 1861, pp. 22-24).

Local Administration

Though Mr. Gregory would leave the State Superintendency without seeing his vision realized, in 1866 the State of Michigan did indeed create the county superintendent’s position. Oramel Hosford, Mr. Gregory’s successor, in his 1866 report, continued to advocate to the legislature for the establishment of the county school superintendency. In doing so, he provided a summary of his perception of the township based status quo:

With the present arrangement for examining teachers and supervising the schools, persons are often placed over the schools, as instructors, who are notoriously incompetent. The examinations, as conducted in a multitude of instances, is [sic] simply a form; or, perhaps, to say that it was a mere farce, would be saying what was more nearly the truth, and not infrequently are certificates given without even the form of an examination. We are constantly receiving intelligence from different parts of the state that teachers are employed who are entirely incompetent for their work. A letter has just come to the office, stating that for years the Inspectors of a certain township had been in the constant habit of issuing certificates without even the formality of an examination, and no examination had ever been had, except one, when one of the citizens offered his services as examiner, but even then, a certificate was granted to one who was unable to

answer a single question, and not a single school had been visited for several years. I fear that it is true that a *thorough* visitation and examination of the schools is unknown, to the larger number of the schools of the State. The present system of examining teachers, so far as the securing of competent instructors by it is concerned, is a complete failure, and the system of school supervision, so far as the improvement of the schools by it is concerned, is equally a failure. But these examinations and this supervision are imperatively demanded. We can never have schools successful, in any true sense, without a constant and rigid system of supervision. It was a part of the plan, originally devised, that the schools should be constantly cared for. It was never intended that the schools should be neglected, and suffer in consequence of the neglect, as they have done, and are still suffering. (pp. 4-5)

Mr. Hosford (1866) also compared the positive experience and educational improvements of the large cities and towns that were “employing competent men to take the supervision of their schools” (p. 5).

Governance

Local District Organizational Structure

As Monroe County’s population continued to grow, the school districts continued to multiply. In 1856 there were 109 school districts in Monroe County, each with its own governing board, serving a potential of 7,217 children between the ages of 4 and 18 years. Of this total number of resident children, 4,261 had actually attended school at least once during 1856. The average number of months in session for Monroe County Schools was six in 1856 (Mayhew, 1858, p. 560).

In August of 1857, the citizens of Monroe met at a school in the 2nd district to discuss the formation of a union school (Shall We Have a Union School, 1857, August 13). On August 20 the *Monroe Commercial* ran an editorial “in favor of the Union School.” The paper cited the town for having just five schools, with a maximum capacity of only 375 pupils, when 1,153 pupils actually lived in the city limits. On August 20, 1857, the *Monroe Commercial* called for the Union School to be organized for the following reasons:

1. Because we have a strong desire to see Monroe on a par with other towns in the state.
2. We want the Union School because it can be made a better school than almost any other.
3. We want the Union School because it is cheaper than other schools. (p. 1)

The Union School District was soon organized with “the Honorable David A. Noble, elected as moderator, Franklin Johnson Esquire, director, and N.N. Kendall as assessor. The Monroe Union School opened on Monday, September 5, 1859, on a trimester basis. The Union School was very well received and highly acclaimed based on local newspaper accounts. According to the *Monroe Commercial* (Monroe Union School, 1859, September 1), the Monroe Union School, under the leadership of George W. Perry, “will be under the management and instruction of competent and experienced teachers in all departments, and the course of instruction will be thorough and practical, embracing all the branches usually pursued in the best male and female academies (p. 3).

On November 5, 1859, Principal Perry submitted his annual report to the state superintendent of public instruction. Mr. Perry indicated that there were 1,250 children between four and eighteen years of age residing in the district. He noted that

approximately one-third of the population consisted of “foreigners, whose children are mostly educated in their own schools” (Twenty Fifth Annual Superintendent’s Report, 1860, p. 291). Mr. Perry reported that there were 395 pupils enrolled at the Monroe Union School. Mr. Perry further reported that since the school was opened, sixty non-resident students had attended. There were eight teachers employed at the Monroe Union School in 1859, and the school was graded into four departments: “Primary, Secondary, Grammar, and High School” (Twenty Fifth Annual Superintendent’s Report, 1860, p. 295).

Schooling was also advancing in the outlying areas of Monroe County during this period. In the Ida area, west of the city of Monroe, a large group of German immigrants settled, and in 1868, a village was plotted sixteen miles north of the Ohio border (Ida Area Centennial, 1968, p. 8). Initially these families educated their children at home, but soon schools were begun in St. Joseph’s Catholic Church, West Ida German School, and the East Ida Immanuel Lutheran School. On December 20, 1872, the Ida Village School District was formed, and in 1876, the Ida Village School opened its doors. This school instructed approximately 30 boys in grades six through eight. Instruction therein “consisted of reading, penmanship, orthography, physical geography, United States History, and good morals” (Ida Area Centennial, 1968, p. 38).

In Dundee a Union School was built in 1861 (A Journey – 100 Years, 1986). Petersburg voters approved their Union School in 1866 and, “according to available records, was completed in 1871” (High School, Petersburg, Michigan, 1966, September 2). In 1907 the village of Ida would open its own Union School. The curriculum consisted of Latin, penmanship, recitation, science, art, and the basic 3 R’s (Ida Area Centennial, 1968, p. 40).

Local Educational Governance: Problems

In spite of these advancements in the more populated areas of the county, reports from the local school inspectors in 1865 reflected a somewhat grim picture. From Ash Township the inspector reported, “Our schools are not in the condition they ought to be in. To too great an extent they have been neglected. There has not been the interest taken by parents there ought to have been, but we hope to see a better state of things and means to bring it about” (Twenty Ninth Annual Superintendent’s Report, 1865, p. 242). The Exeter Township inspector reported that there were no apparatus in town, the district library books aren’t read, and “thoroughness in scholarship and regular attendance are wanting in most, if not all the schools” (Twenty Ninth Annual Superintendent’s Report, 1865, p. 242). The LaSalle inspectors reported the “general qualifications of teachers – good – that is, for the terms they taught, those of limited knowledge being confined to the summer schools. Adequacy of compensation is about as it should be. (Females average \$11.79 – which ought not to pay for a very good teacher.) The condition of most of the school houses – poor – as can be seen by their valuation (But one in eight is valued over \$100.00, while four are appraised from \$25 to \$40; Twenty Ninth Annual Superintendent’s Report, 1865). Monroe City’s visiting inspector, Charles Toll, in addition to his reporting that the public schools condition was “promising” and staffed with “competent teachers,” shared this thought in the Twenty Ninth Annual Superintendent’s Report:

“Eight private schools, with 800 pupils, are reported in Monroe City. With many of the old French inhabitants, there is a prejudice against the public schools, and they prefer to educate their own children in their own way. Thus it is, that, with a school hardly second to any in the state, but 536 out of 1,363 children are

reported attending the public school. The city, the past year, raised nothing by tax to pay teachers, (and but \$195.00 for all other purposes) and the result was \$438.71 rate bills. (p. 243)

The Whiteford School's inspector, A. B. West, reported on the district's schools as follows:

Female teachers have, as a general thing, done quite as well as males. Six of our school-houses are very comfortable, and most of them tolerably well arranged for convenience. Two are worthless, and new ones are soon to be built. The schools are generally deficient in apparatus. (Twenty Ninth Annual Superintendent's Report, 1865, p. 244)

The Origin of the Monroe County Superintendent

State Governance

State Law, Regulation, Structure

On March 13, 1867, the Michigan legislature passed Public Act No. 55 of 1867 to create the county superintendent of schools, thus placing an agent of the state into the counties to develop the local educational system.

This law required that the first popular election of the county superintendent of common schools take place on “the first Monday of April, one thousand eight hundred and sixty seven, and every two years thereafter” (Public Act No. 55, 1867, p. 74). The Superintendent, once elected by the people, would have an office at the county seat or at some other place as designated by the Board of Supervisors. The Superintendent’s compensation was determined by the county board of supervisors but “could not be less than \$3.00 or more than \$5.00 per day” (Public Act No. 55, 1867, p. 74). The number of days the superintendent would work was determined by the Board of Supervisors, but would not be less than the number of school districts, and one day for each township in the county.

Local Elections

The Republican Party nominated Captain Robert P. Ingersoll as its candidate for the first election of the Monroe County Superintendent. It was reported in the *Monroe Commercial* (Republican County Convention, 1867, March 28) that Captain Ingersoll “is an old teacher, and is well known in the county as a man of the strictest integrity. If elected he will be faithful and efficient in the discharge of his duties” (p. 2). The Democratic candidate was Charles Toll. The election results were Toll, 2,231, and

Ingersoll, 1,714. Charles Toll served two years as the county superintendent. Mr. Toll did not run for reelection in 1869.

In the 1869 election, Elam Willard, Democrat, defeated Dr. Charles N. Matoon, the Republican candidate, 2,174 to 1,903. Dr. Matoon was a minister who had resigned from his Presbyterian Church pastoral duties to run for the office of county superintendent (County Convention and County Nominations, 1869, March 22, p. 2). Prior to his election, Mr. Willard was an attorney and a local school inspector. Superintendent Willard would serve for three terms until 1875, when the legislature would eliminate his position.

Under the Law of 1867, which required a county superintendent in counties with 10 or more districts, there were a total of 46 Superintendents elected in April (Thirty First Annual Superintendent's Report, 1867, pp. 22-23).

County Superintendent Educational Services Function

Professional Development

From its earliest days, the county intermediate unit of government was addressing the needs for improving teachers' instructional skills. Public Act No. 55 of 1867 called for county superintendents to "promote by public lectures and teacher's institutes and by such other means as he may devise, the improvement of the schools in his county, and the education of the character and qualifications of the teachers thereof" (p. 77). This service was closely related to the certification responsibility of the county superintendents. Monroe County Superintendent Willard (Willard, 1870, September 15, p. 2) commented on the State Teachers' Institute:

No pains will be spared to acquaint every person with the time and place of holding this institute. The natives will be sent into every neighborhood and the

inducements are such that at least teachers enough to teach the schools in this county ought to be present. Remember it is to commence on the nineteenth of this month, at one o'clock at the Union School House, in Monroe. The State Superintendent of Public Instruction Oramel Hosford, with several experienced teachers will spend five days with us and devote their attention to instructing the teachers of this county for the better performance of their duties. Five days of instruction, and exercises just such as the teachers require, and furnished free. (p. 2)

Helen Whelply (Whelply, State Teacher's Institute, 1870, September 29) reported on the proceedings of the five days following her attendance:

On Monday afternoon, September nineteenth, at one o'clock, we teachers sallied forth to the "Union," to be taught something new. We were received by the county superintendent and Prof. D. P. Mayhew of the State Normal School, who extended to us a cordial greeting.

Professor Mayhew opened the Institute by reading a chapter from the Bible, and prayer.

He then commenced his lecture by putting the direct question "For what do we teach?" An audible whisper came from the audience, "For two dollars per week." The professor concluded that it was too apt to be the case, but hoped that higher motives had also an influence, without a word to say against the teachers' solicitude about wages. "What is it to educate?" was defined to be "the process of drawing out the powers of the human soul." Attention was drawn to the practical utility of the students to be taught, and the manner of developing the infant mind. (p. 2)

Whelply (State Teacher's Institute, 1870, September 29), further described the daily schedule for the five days:

The time was divided as follows:

Exercise from 9 to 12 in the forenoon and 2 to 5 in the afternoon. A lecture each evening in the Court House at half past seven. A recess of fifteen minutes was given at the end of each hour, which was something worth considering, for if older ones need so much recreation, (and we all felt that we did need it) how much more the little ones. We were required to move about, converse with each other, and take exercise which refreshed us ready for the next lecture. A signal from the bell required us to immediately stop talking, and moving, thus affording many *tableaux vivants* from nature. Another tap of the bell and all quietly take their seats. (p. 2)

The topics for the presentations included: "The Influence and Uses of Education," "Primary Instruction in Reading," "Maps and Map Drawing," "Evolution," "Atmospheric Currents," and "the Relations of the General Government to Education" (Whelply, State Teacher's Institute, 1870, September 29, p. 2). In total, 57 teachers were listed as being in attendance.

Student Attendance

Public Act No. 55 of 1867 required the county superintendent "to consult with the teachers and the school boards to secure the more general and regular attendance of the children in his county upon the public school" (p. 77). As there was no compulsory education requirement, this required the county superintendent to promote the virtues education to the communities' families and children. These men who served with the

county superintendent were essentially performing ministerial services on behalf of public education.

County Superintendent Educational Governance Function

Teacher Examinations

The county superintendent was required to examine all prospective teachers in a public setting. He was authorized to grant certificates to “all persons whom, on thorough and full examination, he shall deem qualified in respect to good moral character, learning, and ability to instruct and govern a school” (Public Act No. 55, 1867, p. 75). The successful teaching candidates would have to pass an examination in “orthography, reading, writing, grammar, geography, and arithmetic” (Public Act No. 55, 1867, p. 75)

Teacher Certification

The law establishing county superintendents forbade the employment or contracting “with any person to teach in any of the public schools in this state, who has not such a certificate in force” or a certificate provided by the State Normal School, or a certificate provided by the superintendent of public instruction (Public Act No. 55, 1867, p. 75). Three grades of certification could be granted by the county superintendent. The first grade certificate could be granted to any person of “approved learning, qualifications, and character” and with at least one year of successful teaching (Public Act No. 55, 1867, p. 76). The first grade certificate was valid for two years, anywhere in the county for which it was granted. The second grade certificate could be granted to any person meeting the same personal qualifications as previously mentioned but without any teaching experience. The second grade certificate was valid for one year, anywhere in the county in which it was granted. The third grade certificate, which carried no presumptions of qualifications, could be awarded to a person by the county

superintendent and used within a township for up to six months. The State Superintendent for Public Instruction had the authority to grant certificates that would only be revoked by him and that would permit the teacher to teach in any “primary or graded schools in the state” (Public Act No. 55, 1867, p. 77). The governance duties of the county superintendent under Public Act 55 of 1867 included:

First. To visit each of the schools in his county at least once in each year, to examine carefully into the discipline and the modes of instruction, and into the progress and proficiency of the pupils, and to make a record of the same, and to counsel with the teachers and district boards as to courses of studies to be pursued, and for the improvement of the instruction and discipline of the schools.

Second. To note the condition of the school-house and appurtenances thereto, and to suggest plans for new school-houses to be erected, and for warming and ventilating the same, and the general improvement of school-houses and grounds.

Third. To inquire into the condition of district and township libraries, and to counsel if necessary for the better management of the same, and to see that the money collected from fines is directed to the increase of such libraries. (p. 77)

Reports

Under Public Act 55 of 1867, the county superintendent would also receive and manage communications from the state superintendent of public instruction. The township school inspectors were now required to submit their mandatory reports to the county superintendents. The county superintendent was given authority to examine the reports from the township school inspectors and correct them prior to forwarding them to the state superintendent of public instruction and the county clerk.

In his report to the state superintendent of public instruction, Mr. Toll gave evidence of the local conditions of the schools. He reported there were 115 school houses in total, of which “38 were unfit for use,” “37 had no privy,” and just “nine were well ventilated” (Thirty First Annual Superintendent’s Report, 1867, p. 82). The schools were also short of teaching tools as “105 were without any apparatus” (Thirty First Annual Superintendent’s Report, 1867, p. 82). Mr. Toll assessed the overall condition of the school houses, as follows, “of these we have every extreme. Many crazy old veterans are tottering to the ground; they are an offense to the sight and an outrage to young humanity” (Thirty First Annual Superintendent’s Report, 1867, p. 83). Mr. Toll also reported on the status of the teachers (Thirty First Annual Superintendent’s Report, 1867):

Number of males employed, 52; number of females employed, 107; average age of teachers, (estimated,) 27; number who have had no previous experience, 17; number who have taught less than one year, 21; number who have taught more than five years, 17; number who have attended a Normal school, 3; number who have read any books on teaching, 30; number teaching who hold Normal Diplomas, 1; number teaching who hold State certificates, 0; number of total failures, 11. Number of teachers who have attended a State Institute, 64. Number of educational meetings held by the county superintendent in the county, 12. (p. 83)

Mr. Toll (1868) reported on some of the student related issues early schools were confronted with:

Irregularity of attendance is one of the greatest obstacles met within our schools. We have in the county, 9,402 children, between the ages of five and twenty – an

increase of 319 over last year; of these, I found sixty-one percent enrolled in the winter schools, and fifty-one percent of those enrolled were in attendance at the time of visitation. This could hardly be credited, did not observation made it apparent. To remedy this, compulsory attendance has been advocated by some; in the abstract, it might be right, providing the schools were what they should be, but there are serious and tenable objections to the adoption of such a measure, and the objections on both sides seem to nearly balance each other” (Thirty Second Annual Superintendent’s Report, 1868, p. 114).

Mr. Toll (1868) also reported on the Petersburg Union School building, which was still under construction and which he believed would “be creditable to the intelligence and enterprise of that village” (Thirty Second Annual Superintendent’s Report, 1868, p. 115).

The results of having the county superintendents were almost immediately reported in a most favorable light within the Annual Superintendent’s Report of Mr. Hosford. In his 1867 report, the Superintendent of Public Instruction, Hosford, credited this new position with “an increased interest on the part of the people in the public schools” (p. 5). He also remarked on “the evident anxiety exhibited by the teachers to more thoroughly prepare themselves for their work” (p. 5). Mr. Hosford addressed the work these superintendents were doing to assist schools to retain teachers longer, bring communities together to celebrate their schools, and improve their counties’ school buildings.

Conflict

The second primary function of any government – the political one – concerns managing the conflict that exists surrounding matters of public importance such as

education (Banfield and Wilson, 1963, p. 18). There was strong suspicion concerning centralized government of any kind and especially education. The conflict surrounding the county superintendent was observed by this researcher throughout this historical period.

Shortly after the county superintendency was passed into law, the *Monroe Commercial* (County Superintendent of Schools, 1867, March 21) again reported on the passage of the law,

“We fear there is considerable misapprehension throughout the county with regard to the law creating this office. We learn it is feared by many that its practical operations will result in depriving many of the poorer districts of schools, for the reason that they will not be able to pay teachers who are qualified to pass an examination and obtain a certificate in conformity with the requirements of the act. We hope and believe that it will not so result, and that no district will be deprived of a school for any such reason. The intent of the law is to improve the educational interests of both cities, villages and towns, and particularly of the latter. If it shall be found to result as we have heard some express their opinion it will, we shall certainly be strongly in favor of its speedy repeal. But we hope it will receive a fair trial before it is utterly condemned”
(p.2).

The “apprehension” addressed by the *Monroe Commercial* was a reflection of the distrust, still felt by many, towards centralized government. The cost of educational improvements brought about by county superintendents would eventually be used as the reason for eliminating them.

The simmering conflict over local educational governance at the county versus township level continued, as evidenced by the *Monroe Commercial* (County Superintendents of Schools, 1871, February 2), which reported as follows:

We notice that there is quite a strong demand, in some parts of the state, for the repeal of the law creating the office of county superintendent of Schools. For our part, we hope the law will not be repealed. In this county, at least, we believe the law has worked well, and that it has been quite beneficial to the schools-that it has resulted in improving them in many respects-and has been beneficial to the general course of education in the county. This may not have been the case in other counties, but if not, it seems to us it is not the fault of the law. Besides, the law has hardly been in operation long enough to give it a thorough test. If it has not been found to bear fruit sufficiently in some localities, dig around it and let it stand another term. Perhaps it may be found more productive in the future. (p. 2)

During his terms, Mr. Willard communicated frequently through a column in the *Monroe Commercial*. Through this column he kept the public, local school district inspectors, and teachers aware of important issues affecting the local schools, including when and where teacher examinations would be conducted, successful public student examinations (Common Schools, 1871, March 23, p. 1), the dedication of new school houses (Willard, 1870, December 29, p. 2), and recommended pedagogy and curriculum (Willard, 1870, December 5, p. 2).

On one such occasion, Superintendent Willard (*Common Schools*, 1871, March 2) addressed the role of his office, in light of the effort by some in the legislature to eliminate the law mandating the County Superintendency:

A county superintendent may not be the best agent to unite the varied elements, and establish something like system and order – having such an officer may not be the most feasible way to meet the requirements of the people, but some central influence must exist to save both schools and teachers from neglect, and to build up the system, by applying the advantages attained by the few to the whole. There are quite a number of districts in this County in which, I am free to admit, no improvement is perceptible, and the reasons are apparent. All objections or obstacles cannot be overcome at once. The principle cause that retards the improvement of schools at present is the lack of attention paid to them by district officers and parents. There is now no supervision that affects teachers or schools in a way to encourage and improve them except the Superintendent. Restrictions and fault finding disorganizes and harasses, but seldom aids. A favorable influence must be, such as to increase the teacher's confidence in him or herself, for no person can work as well when discouraged, and again the confidence of the pupils in their teacher is necessary to the healthy condition of the school – some uniform influence that is unaffected by local prejudice, is the only thing that can create general improvement.

The office of county superintendent is new, and comparatively untried – its legitimate influence is scarcely beginning to be felt. Probably no two Superintendents have taken the same course, but in some respects they all agree. In a few years they will know better how to work. I had no occasion to go back on anything that I have undertaken so far, but have come far short of succeeding satisfactorily with what I have undertaken. Last Winter I urged strongly the introduction of United States History into schools; ten or twelve schools have

them. I also recommended Wilson's Readers, for the purpose of introducing study of the natural sciences; three or four schools only have adopted them. In order to give the older pupils at least some knowledge of the general principles of our Government, I have asked teachers to give oral instruction from Alden's Citizens' Manual; some eighty teachers have procured the book. I attempted last Summer and the Winter previous to get a term report from each teacher, but failed to hear from one-fourth of them. The present Winter I have adopted a different form of report, and expect to hear from nearly all. I have urged teachers to procure books or periodicals treating upon education and schools, a few have done so, but the majority have not. In every consistent way I have tried to increase public interest in, and attract public attention to, our schools. In this respect I have succeeded better than in any other, for there is a much healthier public sentiment in relation to schools in this County than heretofore. The forty-two days more schools conducted last year over the year before, and the larger attendance the present Winter over any previous term, are the best evidence of it. There are at present a corp of teachers in this County that, with united effort, are able to bring the schools to a high standard, and with proper support, encouragement, and discretion, they will do it. I think the teachers with scarce an exception look favorably upon the Superintendent law, and that the Superintendent is a material aid to them. I have heard of but very little opposition to the law; on the contrary, have heard it heartily endorsed by leading an [sic] influential men in all parts of the County. It would be strange if the law were without opponents, for usually the most important improvements meet with the most violent opposition. (p. 2)

Those opposed to centralization with its higher standards and cost would not repeal the law during the 1871 session of the legislature, but the conflict would continue. On March 31, 1875, the county superintendents were replaced by the State of Michigan with a township-based educational governance system.

County Educational Changes

During Mr. Willard's terms in office, the County Schools significantly changed. Through 1874, student attendance had risen by 6%, the average number of months districts were in session increased from 5 $\frac{3}{4}$ to 7 months, and the value of school property increased significantly, thus indicating better facilities. In his final report to the State Superintendent, Mr. Willard reported improvements in school discipline to the point where "corporal punishment is almost totally abandoned" (Thirty-Eighth Superintendent's Report, 1874, p. 52).

According to Mr. Willard, there were many areas of weakness in these early schools including the lack of books, no teaching apparatus other than chalk and blackboards, and the lack of first class teachers.

State Salary Increases

At the state level, similar levels of progress were attained through the efforts of the county superintendents (Riegle, 1971). In particular, the salaries of female teachers showed a marked increase across the state from an average of \$19.48 per month to \$28.19 per month, a 45% increase. During the same time, the average salary of males increased from an average of \$44.03 per month to \$51.29 per month, a 16.5% increase.

Superintendent Briggs (Fortieth Annual Superintendents Report, 1877) hailed the work of the women who were gaining increasing prominence in the field of teaching when he stated the following:

Each year's observation bears increasing evidence of the competency and especial fitness of women as instructors of the primary grades. They now contribute the large majority in our Normal School, and in the normal training classes of our high schools, and bear off a large share of the scholarships and honors as they go to assume those positions of the teacher which are most difficult and responsible. (p. x)

The reported increase in female teachers' wages was a bit misleading.

Superintendent Briggs noted in his Annual Report of 1877 that the practice of "boarding around" had significantly changed. Early on in the common school movement, teachers drawn to distant places to teach would board with the families of their students for periods of time based on the number of students the family enrolled in their school. This cost was included as part of calculating and off-setting the "rate bill" parents paid. This expense however, was not included in the reported teachers' wages. With the advent of free public schools in 1869, there was no longer a "rate bill" and the cost of board was now included as part of the teachers' wages. Still, critics would point to increases, such as this, as excessive and attributable to the increased costs associated with the establishment of county superintendents.

TOWNSHIPS.	Census.		Attendance.		No. Months School.		Teachers' Wages.		Value of School Property.	
	1869.	1874.	1869.	1874.	1869.	1874.	1869.	1874.	1869.	1874.
Ash.....	559	616	382	410	56	65	\$379 58	\$1,866 90	\$2,050 00	\$5,550 00
Berlin.....	667	751	356	449	49½	67½	1,215 25	1,608 90	2,700 00	5,560 00
Bedford.....	512	594	416	471	57	65½	1,026 08	2,043 50	6,006 00	10,275 00
Dundee.....	750	847	625	615	72	77½	1,944 04	2,458 00	2,465 00	9,888 00
Eric.....	544	594	348	381	38	50	808 00	2,199 50	2,996 00	8,985 00
Exeter.....	884	474	254	347	26	44	642 75	1,085 80	1,801 00	4,075 00
Frenchtown.....	797	874	490	510	41½	81	981 00	1,918 50	3,075 00	7,675 00
Ida.....	390	441	226	280	49½	49 5-6	818 87	1,174 62	1,425 00	4,695 00
Lasalle.....	487	525	341	452	44½	64	798 00	1,811 50	2,765 50	5,800 00
London.....	873	432	280	342	44	55	645 20	1,110 05	2,266 00	6,100 00
City of Monroe.....	1,682	1,817	346	431	10	10	2,780 90	2,200 00	22,600 00	20,000 00
Monroe.....	402	367	272	210	39½	39½	750 79	814 80	1,600 00	2,579 00
Milan.....	507	552	414	397	56½	62½	1,149 90	2,754 25	4,749 06	5,100 00
Raisinville.....	710	795	472	545	62	74½	1,872 65	1,952 00	6,301 28	6,360 00
Whiteford.....	528	646	397	356	48	59	1,120 98	1,908 56	4,150 00	6,975 00
Summerfield.....	502	523	307	441	46	74½	790 15	1,892 91	12,040 00	16,627 00
Total.....	9,683	10,048	5,846	6,655	780½	958 5-6	\$17,662 57	\$27,791 77	\$32,833 60	\$130,026 00
Increase.....		365		809		209½		10,128 90		47,692 40

Figure 33: Monroe County Superintendent's Report.¹

Township Superintendents

Competing Ideologies

In spite of the significant educational changes in the public education system, or perhaps because of them, the educational governance and service functions of the county superintendent were transferred to the “local” township level. Government centralization was being rejected for its perceived wastefulness, and the county superintendents were caught in the reform politics of the day (Dilla, 1917). According to Katz (1987), “democratic localism” was one of the competing ideologies put forth by policy entrepreneurs (pp. 32-37), such as John C. Spencer, Secretary of State for the State of New York. This educational ideology viewed the bureaucratization of education, as proposed by people such as John D. Pierce, as an affront to the intelligence and freedom of man. They believed the school should be controlled by the families with children

¹ From the Thirty Eighth Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, p. 51.

therein. The proponents of democratic localism “subordinated both efficiency and organizational rationality to an emphasis on responsiveness, close public control, and local involvement” (Katz, 1987, p. 34). Tarbell (1878), state superintendent of public instruction, summed up the issue of supervision of the public school system within the broader political context of the state: “There is in Michigan, a feeling prevailing to a greater degree than in most other states, which abhors centralization and resents outside interference. This worked and would again work against county or district supervision” (Forty First Annual Superintendent’s Report, 1876, p. xxiv). Superintendent Tarbell would leave the matter of centralized county supervision, via an intermediate unit of governance, for another day.

As opposed to fifty-six county superintendents, the superintendent of public instruction now had 915 Superintendents of township schools reporting to him, with the repeal of the county superintendent’s law. State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Briggs (1876), reported that only 272 township officers returned reports, providing their local school districts’ data for 1875, to the State Superintendent as required by law. Ironically, the superintendent of public instruction reported that this new form of township educational governance had actually cost the state more than the county structure (Thirty Ninth Annual Superintendent’s Report, 1875, p. xxxiii).

Township Educational Services Function

The township system essentially transferred the duties of the county superintendent onto a township superintendent. There were no qualifications for the township superintendent, and the area of jurisdiction was so small that a full-time position was unwarranted. The townships paid little and reportedly attracted unqualified people to the position. The duties of the township superintendent were to examine and

license teacher candidates, visit schools in the townships, examine discipline and modes of instruction, and counsel teachers and district boards as to the course of study, discipline issues, and instructional needs of their schools. He was also an advisor on matters related to the condition of school buildings and grounds, the district and township libraries, and improving student attendance.

Conflict between Educational Governance and Service Levels

According to Edelman (1985):

For the spectators of the political scene every act contributes to a pattern of ongoing events that spells threat or reassurance. This is the basic dichotomy for the mass public. The very fact that the same act which one grouping favors looms ominously for another reinforces each side in its perceptions for it seems to make it all the more clear that the enemy is really there, fighting against the good life or against life itself. (p. 13)

Such an act was observed by this researcher when Superintendent Briggs' successor as state Superintendent of Public Instruction, Cornelius Gower, sounded the alarm that the forces in favor of decentralizing the governance of public schools had made a serious mistake when the county superintendent was eliminated.

Attendance at schools began to drop off, especially in the non-graded primary rural schools. Standards of qualifications for teachers were "lowered at least 50%" since the county superintendents were eliminated in 1875 (Forty Third Annual Superintendent's Report, 1880, p. xxxi). Teachers' wages, since 1875, had decreased 25 percent and during the previous year, 1879, there had been a decrease in the wages of female teachers of 15 percent. Gower (1880) stated,

Those who favored the abolition of the County Superintendency and the adoption of the present system that we might have “cheap schools” must certainly be abundantly satisfied with the result of their labors while all sensible people throughout the state are nearly unanimous in declaring that the township superintendency has wrought great evils, which can be remedied only by years of faithful effort under a latter system (Forty Third Annual Superintendent’s Report, 1879, p. xxxii).

Superintendent Gower proposed combining the best aspects of the township and county governance models that had, thus far, been implemented in Michigan. In justifying his proposal, Mr. Gower noted the lack of maps in district schools, the failure to keep any records, the lack of uniform lists of text books in district schools, and the siphoning off of library funds by district and township officials for other purposes. Mr. Gower (1881) stressed the “efficient” and “harmonious” aspects of his “scheme” of local supervision of the schools (Forty Fourth Annual Superintendent’s Report, 1880, p. 14). The forces for centralization had found their voice.

Shared Educational Governance Structure

In July 1881, a system of shared educational governance between the townships, the counties, and the state was implemented by the State of Michigan. State Superintendent of Public Instruction Cochran (1882) believed the new system represented “a combination of elements for the work which experience has taught should be brought to bear to secure the best results” (Forty Fifth Annual Superintendent’s Report, 1882, p. iv). The “new” three-tiered system created the county board of school examiners to be responsible for the testing and certification of teachers. The new law (Public Act No. 164, 1881), required the chairmen of the township boards of school inspectors to meet and

elect three school examiners on the first Tuesday of August in 1881. The officers would be sworn in and begin their duties the fourth Tuesday of August following their election. The first board members would have their terms staggered from one to three years. Each year thereafter, the township inspectors were to meet at the county clerk's office to elect a member to the county board of school examiners to a new three-year term. The county board of school examiners was responsible to elect a member as secretary who would serve as the executive officer of the board. The law specified that the officer whose term would "soonest expire" was to serve as chairman.

Township Educational Service Function

The township board of school inspectors (3) would be responsible for the day-to-day operations of the district. The services of the township board of school inspectors would be to visit each school during the term to examine the discipline, instruction, and student progress therein. It was the inspector's responsibility to counsel with teachers, report on the conditions of the schoolhouse, and promote the cause of education in his township. The township board of school inspectors was to notify the secretary of the county board of school examiners whenever there was a school within the township not being conducted in a "successful and profitable manner" (Forty-Fifth Annual Superintendents Report, 1882, p. VII).

County Educational Governance Function

The educational governance function of the county board of school examiners centered on the administration of teacher examinations on the last Friday of March and October. These two examinations would be held in the county seat. Special examinations could be held in other parts of the county at the county board of school examiners' discretion. Specific responsibilities were placed on the secretary of the township board of

school inspectors to publish the schedules in newspapers and with the township board of school inspectors at least ten days in advance of the examination. The county board of school examiners was to grant certificates in accordance with the directives of the state superintendent of public instruction. The county board of school examiners could license teachers only after full examination demonstrated they “were qualified in respect to good moral character, learning and ability, to instruct and govern a school...” (Public Act No. 164, 1881, p. 194). The law required the prospective teacher to pass a “satisfactory examination in orthography, reading, writing, grammar, geography, arithmetic, and the theory and art of teaching.” After 1881 the law required prospective teachers to also satisfactorily pass an examination in the “history of the United States and civil government” (Public Act No. 164, 1881, p. 195). The certificates had to be signed by the secretary and chairman of the board of school examiners. The county board of school examiners were authorized to grant three grades of certificates: the first grade certificate required one year of successful teaching and was valid for three years, the second grade certificate was to be granted to those who had six months, and the third grade certificate was for new teachers and was valid for one year. These three grades of certificates were valid for any school district in the county from which it was granted. The secretary of the county board of school examiners was authorized to grant, upon his personal examination, and as authorized by rules established by the county board of school examiners, special certificates to teach in a specific school district until the next public examination.

The Board of School Examiners could suspend or revoke teaching certificates for “neglect of duty,” “incompetency to instruct or govern a school,” and immorality” (Public Act No. 164, 1881, p. 195). A hearing was required prior to such action, unless

the accused individual failed to appear “after reasonable notice” had been given (Public Act No. 164, 1881, p. 196).

Visitations

The governance functions of the secretary and chairman of the School Board Examiners reflect the centralized authority of this law. The secretary was authorized to conduct visitations as follows:

To visit any school in the county and examine its condition whenever he shall receive notice from the chairman of the Board of School Inspectors of the township in which such school is being taught, that said, school is not successfully and profitably conducted and report the result of his investigation to the Board of School Examiners. (Public Act No. 164, 1881, pp. 196-197)

The county board of school examiners could revoke the teacher’s certificate if that person was determined to be “incompetent” (Public Act No. 164, 1881, p. 197).

Reports

The law required the secretary of the county board of school examiners to report on an annual basis to the state superintendent of public instruction concerning the board’s activities and the general condition and management of the schools (Public Act 1881, No. 164).

Supervision

Superintendent Cochran (1882) did not hide his ultimate vision concerning the relationship between the county board of school examiners and the township board of school inspectors when he expressed the following in the Forty Fifth Annual Superintendent’s Report of 1882:

But it is not alone in examinations that the county board should be a power for good. Its relations to the township inspectors, the teachers, and the schools are so intimate that its influence should be felt in all departments of supervisory work. I confidently look forward to the time when one member of the board in the larger counties may give his entire time and best efforts to general supervision with fitting pay for the best kind of service. (p. vii)

State Threats to Township Inspectors

The public education system would continue to evolve towards more centralized local governance. The township inspectors failed to meet the demands of the system in the critical eyes of the superintendent of public instruction. Superintendent Hershall Gass (1883) severely criticized the township inspectors for failing to visit schools in his annual report to the legislature (Forty Seventh Annual Superintendent's Report, 1883, p. xxx-xxxv). He stressed the inefficiency of the current system and the previous systems of supervision employed by the state government of Michigan. Superintendent Gass (Forty-Seventh Annual Superintendent's Report, 1883) attacked the lack of effort and the qualifications of the township inspectors when he stated:

In my official work I am constantly reminded of the weakness of our educational system in the local supervision and management of school affairs. The charge of general inefficiency on the part of those who are elected to inspect the schools is the complaint most frequently heard (p. xxx).

The Superintendent's Report of 1884 contained the opinions of educational and county governmental leaders from throughout the state calling for "a single [county] superintendent," "as being well pleased with the work of the examining board," and charging the township inspectors with "ignorance or indifference" (Forty Seventh Annual

Superintendent's Report, 1883, p. xxxiii). These criticisms would continue until 1887 when the county supervision of the rural schools was returned to the county board of school examiners. The Examiners would be appointed by the chairmen of the boards of township school inspectors for a two-year term.

The Return of the County Educational Executive

Educational Governance

State Law, Regulation, Structure

Public Act No. 226 of 1887 returned an executive officer to the county intermediate unit of educational government in the form of the secretary of the county board of school examiners. This act reduced the previous three-member board of school examiners to two. These two members would continue to be elected by the chairmen of the township school inspectors. The County Probate Court Judge would join the two members of the County Board of School Examiners annually and elect the Secretary of the Board of School Examiners.

The secretary was an ex-officio, non-voting member of the county board of school examiners on all matters except his removal of office by the board (Beem and James, 1956, p. 17). The services of the township board of school inspectors were essentially shifted to the secretary of the county board of school examiners under Public Act No. 266 (1887). These were the same duties formerly assigned to the county superintendent.

The return of centralized governance over the State of Michigan's rural schools was further strengthened with the passage of Public Act No. 147 of 1891. This act essentially confirmed the reinstatement of the county superintendent, which had been eliminated in 1875. The new law called the position county commissioner of schools.

There were several differences in the new law, one being that the county supervisors would now set the compensation for the position. The compensation was set not less than \$500.00 annually for a county commissioner of schools with at least 50 schools under his supervision, not less than \$1,000.00 annually with at least one hundred schools, and not less than \$1,200.00 if there were at least one-hundred and twenty-five schools. The law specified that two additional members of the county board of school examiners would also be appointed by the county board of supervisors. The term of the commissioner, who was to be appointed in 1891 and then elected by the people beginning in 1893, was for two years. Public Act No. 147 of 1891 was the first Michigan law requiring that the administrator hold professional credentials.

Public Act No. 147 (1891) required that:

No person should be eligible to the office of county commissioner of schools who shall not be a graduate in the literary department of some reputable college, university or State normal school, or hold a State teachers certificate, or who shall not have held a first grade certificate, within two years next preceding the time of his or her election, or shall have held the office of County Commissioner under this act; *Provided*, That in counties having less than fifty schools subject to the supervision to the county commissioner, a person holding at the time of his or her election a second grade certificate shall be eligible. (p. 184)

Teacher Certification

The State of Michigan began to take greater control of the licensure of teachers with the law establishing the secretary of the county board of school examiners as the executive officer of the public schools (Public Act No. 226, 1887). Michigan's law now mandated that teachers had to be at least sixteen years of age. The lawmakers required

that the examination taken by prospective teachers include, in addition to, those subjects previously required, “physiology and hygiene with particular reference to the effects of alcoholic drinks, stimulants, and narcotics upon the human system” (Public Act No. 266, 1887, p. 353). The law specified that “all examination questions shall be prepared and furnished by the superintendent of public instruction to said secretary, under seal, to be opened before the applicants for certificates on the day of examination.” The grades of certificates were also somewhat changed with the increased centralized state control of the system. Certificates of the first grade, requiring one year of successful practice, were now valid throughout the state for three years. Certificates of the second grade, requiring six months of previous successful practice, were now valid throughout the county for two years. Certificates of the third grade allowed the holder to teach for one year in the county in which the certificate was granted. Special certificates, outside of the grades, were now becoming very difficult to come by with permission by the secretary of the county board of school examiners being allowed for specific district assignments only until the next opportunity for a full examination availed itself. An individual once granted a special certificate, who failed to meet this requirement or failed to pass the exam, could still receive an additional special certificate if authorized by the county board of school examiners.

County Educational Governance Function

Reports

The secretary of the county board of school examiners would receive, review, and correct any local district reports prior to their submission to the superintendent of public instruction (Public Act No. 266, 1887, pp. 354-356). The authority of the township school inspectors was now limited to filing reports and conducting supervision of the schools as

directed by the county commissioner of schools and the state superintendent of public instruction. The state now had a chief executive school officer at the county level. The legislature had stripped the township board of school inspectors of their authority. Local control, at least as it pertained to rural primary schools, was fleeting. City schools with superintendents, and others with authority to inspect and grant certificates to teachers, were exempt from the supervisory examination and licensing aspects of this law. The governance function ascribed to the secretary of the county board of examiners was transferred to the county commissioner of schools in 1891.

Grading of Schools

The first person to be appointed Monroe County Commissioner of Schools was Tom Allen. “Mr. Allen was born September 18, 1850 in Albany, New York. Previous to his tenure as the Monroe County School Commissioner, Mr. Allen served as a member of the Monroe County Board of School Examiners and was secretary of the Board in 1890, the year prior to the establishment of the County Commissioner. Mr. Allen was a teacher-principal at the Carleton Schools from 1877 through the 1880 school year” (Lester, 1989, p. 149). During his term in office from 1891-1894, Mr. Allen reportedly accomplished the grading of the rural schools. According to Mr. Allen (1892),

The grading with us has now come to stay; a few croakers still remain to strengthen it by opposing it. I find that this fall the course is being as closely followed as is the course in the city schools of Monroe, with whose success, through the courtesy of Superintendent Honey, I am quite familiar (Fifty-Sixth Annual Superintendent’s Report, 1892, p. 43).

Teacher Examinations

Monroe County Commissioner of Schools Allen (Fifty-Sixth Annual Superintendent's Report, 1892), commented concerning the examinations of teachers:

I will say that of the 403 applicants who presented themselves for certificates, two hundred thirty-two received third grade certificates, five received second grade certificates, and one received a first grade certificate, leaving a little over forty per cent [sic] of failures. Many of these were pupils of the eighth grade of the country schools, who made a good record at the pupils' examination and were consequently anxious to measure their education at the third grade teachers' examination. The two hundred thirty-eight successful ones, with the Normal and first grade teachers, gives us a large supply of teachers. Though this is so, the demand for good teachers at fair wages is such that there are several districts not supplied at this writing. This speaks well for the educational interest among school officers. (p. 43)

Following his term in office, Mr. Allen remained active in educational affairs, eventually serving on the Carleton Village Board of Education.

School Visitations

The secretary of the county board of examiners was first required to visit every county school to examine the discipline, instruction, and student progress on an annual basis. It was the Secretary's responsibility to counsel teachers and school boards concerning courses of study and to report on the condition of the school facilities. The secretary could make recommendations concerning improvements of school buildings and grounds. This service function was transferred to the county commissioner of schools in 1891.

The county commissioners of schools quickly became interested in the models of instruction within their schools. In 1895, Tom Allen was succeeded by Arthur E. Ames. Commissioner Ames had been the Superintendent of the Carleton High School beginning in 1891 (Lester, 1989, p. 131). Commissioner Ames served two terms to 1899. During Ames' tenure as Monroe County Commissioner of Schools, the first Manual of Monroe County Schools (1897) was published. In this manual, Mr. Ames provided a glimpse of the visitations conducted by the Monroe County Commissioner of Schools, the students attending the schools, and the rural school teachers employed therein. Commissioner Ames (1897) shared with county educators his visit to "a perfect school:"

After tying my horse to the fence post, I entered the playgrounds. It was about fifteen minutes to nine and the children were at play. I came unannounced and was not seen until I appeared on the side of the school ground where they were playing ball with the teacher for second baseman. I did not find her at first, but I noticed that they were having a remarkably interesting game and that all scholars in the school were playing. This struck me as being rather peculiar. After getting the teacher's attention, we stood to one side and talked while the game went on, with now and then a sly glance or sentence regarding me. The teacher excused herself to me by saying: "They are all ball players here – boys, girls and the 'kindergarteners' – and I had to learn to play or be left out at recess. I found that they wanted me to play, and so I stipulated that all the little ones in school should be divided up and chosen on each side." But I remarked. [sic] "The little ones can't bat and catch the ball and I should think that there would be danger of getting hurt." "Well, both sides agree to 'pitch easy ones' and they are to have two more strikes than the larger ones, and they are not allowed to tend the bases

but are 'fielders'; and, any way, they play as well as I do. I am gaining, though, in my playing, although my education was neglected in that line; and do you know, Mr. Ames," she said naively, "I believe one should be educated to play as well as to teach, and I am chosen now in the game when they 'choose sides,' about the fifth choice. I was in mortal terror of the hard ball at first and so I used gloves and bought them a ball myself." By this time it was nine o'clock and the teacher, looking at her watch, started toward the school-house, the children and I following. At the first stroke of the bell, the children had begun to line up, come to the door and pass in, one by one, each hanging up his hat as he passed the nail. There was absence of crowding, shoving, or striking, and everything passed on very orderly. I was very well pleased I may assure you, and sat down thinking: "Well, if this teacher is as well in instruction as she is in managing, she'll certainly get an E plus mark in big capitals." As she walked from the entry to the desk and turned around and faced the school, I noted her especially. She was not dressed stylishly nor extravagantly, but trim and neat, with every article of dress fitting her. She looked buoyant, fresh; with a pleasant air of confidence around her that seemed to invite your own confidence. "Now, what will we sing this morning?" Immediately there were dozens of hands raised and fluttered in the air until she allowed one to choose a song, which was sung with a relish and time that started their blood. I noticed a curtain covering a part of the board and after the song the teacher pulled it back a short distance, disclosing the number work for the first four grades. I do not remember the order of her program, but I think the first class was the advanced arithmetic, followed by the reading classes in the order of the first grade, second grade, etc. I noticed that while the arithmetic class

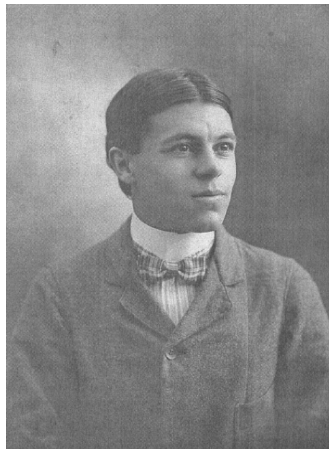
was reciting, the first grade and the others were busy studying their lessons. When the first grade was called I was surprised to see how well they answered the signals and were as well acquainted with their grade as the older ones. Another thing I noticed was the manner in which she called her classes. When one class was ready to be dismissed, she gave the signals: "One, two, three, pass;" at the signal one, the class that was on the recitation seat and the class that was at their seats and whose turn it was to recite, both made ready to rise; at the next signal they rose, at the following turned, and at the last they both passed, the one towards the recitation seat and the other towards their own seats which, when reached, they remained standing erect by until the teacher gave the signal, and then both classes sat down. The teacher at the time when the classes were changing was down in the primary seats, and I saw that she had the first grades all together and not scattered over the school-room so she could get to them at a moment's notice. After the class was in their seats, or rather while they were coming, she changed the work of the first grades; and I saw that she didn't allow the little ones to get tired or cloyed with the busy work, but that she changed it nearly every class. In only one class did she have a book to see what the lesson was and that was the reading classes.

In a very short time came the recess and the books were quietly put away, the signals given and the school [sic], after marching around the room once, took their hats and passed out quietly. During the first few moments of the recess the first grade brought their work up for the teacher's inspection. She glanced at each one and after a sentence or two, such as "That's pretty well," or "You were a little careless on this," or "I think you could do better," she handed the slate back to the

little one, who laid it on his desk and scampered out to play. It was now time for me to go, but I wished to to [sic] see her conduct the spelling and geography classes and so I requested her to hear them recite the lessons of yesterday, which she consented to do. The first class was the third grade and was given in connection with reading, the words being taken from the reader. Part of the class went to the board, while the balance wrote on tablets at their seats. Each word was divided into syllables and, after the lesson was written, each child was called upon to spell the work orally from his written list and use it in a sentence. The higher grades were conducted the same way. The teacher asked one question that seemed to me an excellent one; it was, "How many can use the first three words in a sentence?" After these were given she asked for a sentence containing four words, five words and finally the whole lesson in one sentence. None could give this, however, but many were the attempts, and the teacher finally gave it herself. The class in geography that she called at my request was the sixth and eight grades, the subject Europe, and the topics were position, surface and drainage. She used no book in this recitation as in the others, and I could see that she undarstood [sic] her subject thoroughly. In this recitation as in all others the time was divided into three parts. I should judge about a quarter of the time was given to the reviewing of yesterday's lesson, about half of the time to the hearing of the lesson of to-day, and another quarter of the time for an outline of the lesson for tomorrow. After this class it was imperative that I should leave, which I did, the teacher coming to the back part of the room with me. Not a head was turned to see what what [sic] we were doing, and I departed, feeling I had seen a model school and that this teacher should be continued in the ranks of teachers. (pp. 39-41)

Following his time as Monroe County Commissioner of Schools, Mr. Ames attended medical school and became a physician.

Following Commissioner Ames' two terms in office was Stephen Langdon, arguably "Monroe County's most famous scholar and a man of world-wide repute as an assyriologist" (*Dr. Stephen Langdon*, 1937, May 21). Prior to his election, Stephen Langdon served on the Monroe County Board of School Examiners and was a principal in the Ida Schools. In 1899 he was elected commissioner of schools and served one term from 1899-1901. Stephen Langdon ran for the state superintendent of public instruction, an elected position, but was defeated in 1901.



*Figure 34: Stephen Langdon.*¹

In her biography of his life, Golden (1961), who was a teacher in a Monroe County village school Langdon visited as required by law, gave a glimpse of his time as county commissioner of schools:

Young Langdon made the rounds of the country schools, mostly on a bicycle in summer and in a horse-drawn vehicle in winter. Langdon was as courteous on these visits as he had been in conducting examinations. Having taught country

¹ Retrieved from Monroe County Historical Museum Archives. September 13, 2008.

schools himself, he could better understand the trials and problems of the country teacher - the poor heating, ventilation, and lighting, the great diversity in books and equipment and in the ability of the pupils in nine different grades, ranging in age from five to seventeen.

I was teaching in a village school when Commissioner Langdon visited us. Enrolled were many problem children, a natural product of the villages of that day. The boys grew up without chores or home duties such as the farm boys had, and were mischievous, unambitious, quarrelsome, and undisciplined. Stephen Langdon's only comment was, "you look tired and do more of your teaching sitting down." He knew the helplessness of doing justice to all pupils in such a situation. (pp. 92-93)

After leaving the County Commissioner's position, Stephen Langdon would receive his Ph. D. from Columbia University and become a professor at Oxford University in England.

Local Governance Structure

During Stephen Langdon's term, the Monroe County School officers organized. The following resolutions, adopted by the county school officers, provided further evidence of the work Stephen Langdon (1900) with the local school districts:

Whereas, Co-operation in educational matters is much needed between school boards, teachers and others interested in schools, we recommend that this organization be made permanent, and that it proceed to lay the structure of a school system upon a uniform basis to secure a better understanding among school officers, and to further the interests of education in every practical way are the motives which bind us together and impel us to organize for mutual benefit,

earnestly trusting that our efforts to promote the interests of education among the people, to conduct our schools upon a more economical and practical system will meet with encouragement from those interested in schools everywhere. We respectfully submit the following resolutions for future adoption:

Resolved, That this organization lend its influence and work to secure a uniform system of grading throughout district, village and city schools in Monroe County.

Whereas, Much confusion and needless expense is at present incurred thro [sic] lack of uniformity in text books among our schools; be it resolved,

That an executive committee consisting of one school officer from each township, together with the County Commissioner recommend after due investigation of school books, a set of books for use in the first eight grades of our public schools, which list shall be made up with some reference to the books now most commonly used throughout the county. We do not recommend any radical or sudden changes, but that this list be regarded as a list approved by the county school officers which they hope to see adopted wherever any school board adopts a new set of books. Uniformity in this respect is very much desired, both to make the work of the commissioner more effective and to save expense on the part of citizens who move from one district to another.

Whereas, School boards and teachers are frequently urged to buy books, charts and other school supplies of doubtful value or of whose value they themselves have often neither the time nor experience to determine; be it

Resolved, That we encourage school boards and teachers not to buy of agents until said agent or agents secured the endorsement of the entire executive committee upon the wares for which they are canvassing.

Resolved, That we urge school boards to hire teachers by the year; that is to assure each teacher at the beginning of the school year that if his or her work is satisfactory their position be permanent throughout the year.

Resolved, That this organization meet at least once a year between the 15th of February and the 15th of March subject to the call of county commissioner of schools. (pp. 31-32)

County Educational Services Function

School Improvement

Among the legislated responsibilities of the Secretary of the Board of School Examiners and later the county commissioner of schools was to “promote” the “improvement of schools” and the “evaluation of the character and qualifications of the teachers and officers therein” (Public Act No. 266, 1887, p. 355). This service was closely related to the Protestant-republican reform ideology, which called for a public school evangelist in each county.

Professional Development

In December 1884, the State Teachers’ Association adopted a resolution to appoint a committee “to devise and report a scheme for ‘Teachers Reading Circles’” (Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1884, p. 196). A plan was ratified by the State Teachers’ Association in December 1885. “The county organization was to consist of a County Council of five members composed of the Secretary of the Board of School Examiners and four others appointed by the State Council from a list of six nominated by the Secretary” (Starring and Knauss, 1969, pp. 83-84). A three year course of study was attained for the Reading Council students to complete. According to

Starring and Knauss (1969), those who enrolled in the Reading Circle were required to complete the following studies:

For the first year, those who enrolled in the reading circle were required to study David P. Page's *Theory and Practice of Teaching*, William Swinton's *Studies in English Literature* with supplementary reading, and the *General History* published by A. S. Barnes to page 312. The second year's work consisted of a study of the *Outlines of the Theory and Art of Teaching*, published by G. P. Putnam, Barnes' *General History* from page 312 to the end of the book, and Swinton's *Studies in English Literature* (completion). For the third year the prescribed books were Alexander Bain's *Education as a Science*, Joseph Haven's *Mental Philosophy*, and Gabriel Compayre's *History of Pedagogy*. (p. 84)

Monroe County teachers would also receive 5% extra credit towards their examination "score" for participating in the reading circle work (Marvin, 1905-06, p. 2).

Office of Commissioner of Schools
Monroe, Mich.

September 27, 1904.

DEAR TEACHER:

In accordance with the wishes of many teachers, it is thought best to organize the county this fall for the purpose of doing the Reading Circle Work. Meetings will be held the second Saturday of each month, from 1 p. m. to 4 p. m., and the names of conductors and places of meeting are as follows:

Samaria, C. A. Harwick; Whiteford Centre, James Opdyke; Ida, Myron Winters; Petersburg, D. R. Rix; Dundee, Scott Jackson; Azalia, Anna Knowles; Maybee, George Householder; Carleton, H. D. McDougall; Monroe, A. C. Marvin.

PROGRAM FOR THE YEAR.

October 15, 1904: "The Art of Study," pages 1 to 88.

Nov. 12, 1904: "The Social Spirit in America," pages 1 to 100 and review of last lesson.

December 10, 1904: "Silas Marner," and review of last lesson.

January 14, 1905: "The Art of Study," pages 88 to 169 and review of last lesson.

Feb. 11, 1905: "The Social Spirit in America," pages 100 to 216 and review of last lesson.

March 11, 1905: "The Legend of Sleepy Hollow," "Thanatopsis" and review of last lesson.

April 15, 1905: "The Art of Study," pages 169 to 260 and review of last lesson.

May 13, 1905: "The Social Spirit in America," pages 216 to 327 and review of last lesson.

The work is to be based on the Reading Circle Books which may be had from the local managers or from the Commissioner. Teachers are urged to get the books at once and prepare for the first lesson.

The Superintendent of Public Instruction recommends that boards of examiners give proper credit for Reading Circle Work, and in compliance with this recommendation the Board of Examiners of Monroe County has passed the following resolution:

"RESOLVED, That in the future the Board of School Examiners for Monroe County give teachers definite credit for doing reading circle work— this year as follows: 50 per cent credit in Theory and Art, Reading, and Civil Government— and that second grade renewals be granted only to such teachers as do the professional work outlined by the Board of Examiners, which shall consist of:

1. Doing the State Reading Circle Work.
2. Taking and reading at least one good educational paper.
3. Attending institutes and teachers' meetings.
4. Making reports to Commissioner and School Director.
5. Responding promptly when asked to write papers or discuss topics in teachers' associations."

A. C. MARVIN, }
JAMES OPDYKE, } Board of School Examiners
FRANK PARTLEN, }

Truly yours,

A. C. MARVIN, Commissioner of Schools.

Figure 35: Letter to Monroe County Teachers from A. C. Marvin, Monroe County Commissioner of Schools.¹

¹ Retrieved from Monroe County Historical Museum Archives on 9/13/08.

County Institute

The county commissioner of schools served at the Assistant Conductor of the County Teachers' Institute under Public Act 147 of 1891. Ames (1897) addressed the success of the institutes:

We have had two institutes this year. The first was held in August. The attendance was large, but I hardly believe we received the good we have at other institutes.

The next institute was held in March, at Dundee. F.R. Hathaway conducted it, and it was a rouser, and I think one of the best that was ever held in the county. It was an Inspiration Institute and came just the time of the year when teachers, worn out by the year's work, needed more enthusiasm. I hope during the next year we may be able to hold others. I sent cards to the directors asking that they allow school to be closed that day, and I found all but three directors willing (Ames, 1897, p. 9).

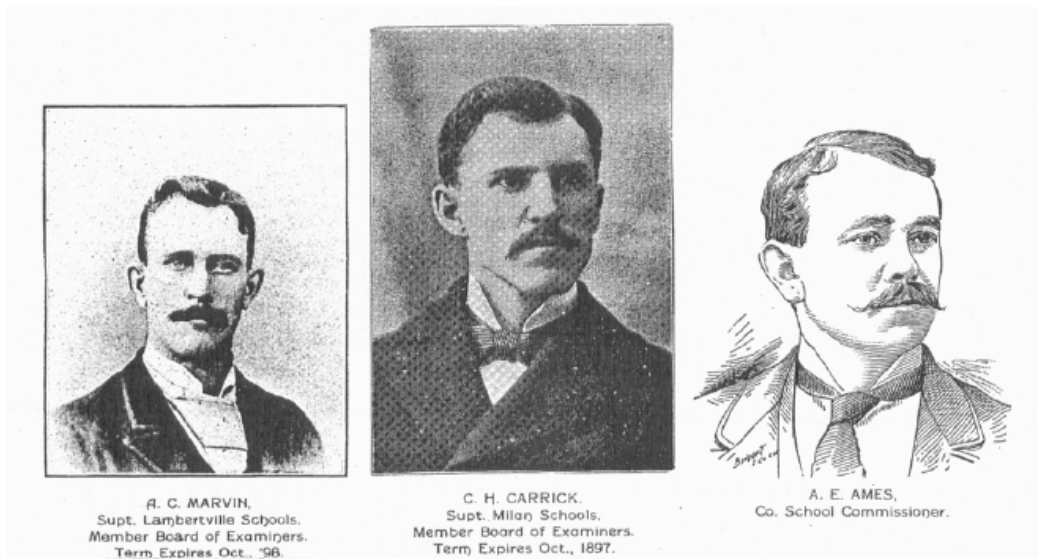


Figure 36: Monroe County Board of Examiners.¹

¹ A. E. Ames. Monroe County Schools. 1897-98. Retrieved from Monroe County Library System.

Teachers attending the Teachers' Institute eventually received five percent credit on their examination according to Marvin (1905-06, p. 2). The Teachers' Institutes, which began in 1855 (Public Act No. 70), would be a service of the Monroe County Intermediate Unit of Educational Government until 1962 when it was discontinued due to a lack of attendance (Monroe County Intermediate School District Meeting Minutes, Book 2, May 6, 1963, p. 3, 5).

Mr. Ames also spoke of the Teachers' Association, which was started during these early days of public education. The state law, which allowed a teacher to receive just three third grade certificates before advancing to a second grade certificate, was problematic for Monroe County teachers and school districts, so Commissioner Ames started a summer normal school that was followed by an institute to prepare teachers for the second grade examination. The Commissioner divided the county into "four divisions," and appointed conductors for each to take up to two branches, one to enable them to pass a second grade examination, the other to keep up a professional interest in their work" (Ames, 1897, p. 9). This model reflected the efforts at the state level to create teacher associations and reading circles in each county.



Figure 37: Summer Normal School Graduation Program.¹

County Normal School

Still another aspect of the county commissioner of school's work was preparing teachers via the county normal school. In 1905 the county normal school was created and the county commissioner of schools was made a member of the Board of Education (Sixty Seventh Annual Superintendents Report, 1904, p. 71). In 1915 the legislature required that all teachers had to be graduates of the county normal school or take six weeks of professional training at one of the state normal schools. The 1918-1919 Monroe County Teachers' Manual lists the Monroe County Normal School faculty and curriculum. The board of control consisted of Fred L. Keeler, state superintendent of public instruction; John G. Schafer, county commissioner of schools; and D. S. Spencer, Monroe Superintendent of Schools (Schafer, 1918, p. 5). Later the Monroe and Lenawee Counties joined together to operate a normal school.

County Curriculum

In 1901 A. C. Marvin, a member of the Monroe County Board of School Examiners and the former principal at the Carleton and Lambertville Schools, was

elected as the Monroe County Commissioner of Schools. Marvin would serve as county commissioner of schools until 1907. Commissioner Marvin, in the Teacher Directory for Monroe County, Michigan (1903), provided the listing of “the books recommended by the Committee of School Officers” (p. 4). Commissioner Marvin (1903) suggested that these books be used to replace others and warned against allowing “agents or dealers to substitute other books – and thereby prevent our securing uniform textbooks in the rural schools of Monroe County” (p. 4).

James J. Kelley was elected county commissioner of schools in 1907. In the Monroe County Teachers’ Manual, Commissioner Kelly (1907) advised the County School Boards as follows:

A Word to School Boards.

Have you a live progressive teacher? If so encourage her. Has she fallen into a rut? Then pry her out. Does she make mistakes? If not, you have an angel. If she does, advise her. If a dispute arises is she ever wrong? Possibly but not probably. Do not censure a teacher before the parents or scholars of her school. One of the essentials of a good teacher is the power to win the confidence and respect of her scholars. If you destroy this confidence, you destroy the school. Is your school furnished with all the appendages required by law? These are: A set of wall maps, a globe, a dictionary, a reading chart, a case for library books, a looking glass, comb, towels, water pail, cup, ash pail, poker, stove shovel, broom, dust pan, duster, wash basin and soap. Every director is required by law to provide those appendages and may be removed for not doing so. Does the teacher say she can

¹ Retrieved from the Monroe County Historical Museum Archives. 9/13/2008.

“get along without them?” Then you have reason to be on your guard. Are the closets separated? If not do it now. Do the schoolboys use tobacco or lounge in saloons? Read the law relating to that, which is given below. If you do not wish to make complaint, please notify this office. Do you wish to be honored by an intelligent and vigorous generation? Then do your duty. Do you point with pride to your school when you have visitors, because it is beautiful, clean and homelike? If so, may every blessing be yours. If not, may Providence protect your children, who live there eight or nine months during the year. The Michigan Manuals and State Superintendent’s Report are in my office. Your school is entitled to one of each. See that it has one. (pp. 38-39)

After leaving office in 1915, James J. Kelley became an attorney and practiced law in Monroe County for many years (James J. Kelley, 1954, p. 1A).

Not many schools have all the grades. If your school has, combine as many classes as you can, but do not have classes on alternate days.

JAMES J. KELLEY

Monroe, Mich., Sept. 30, 1911.

The following may be helpful to those who find it hard to arrange a program.

The Seventh and Eighth grades may be combined in Reading. If this can not be done conveniently, combine Sixth and Seventh; and Fourth and Fifth.

See State Course of Study for Geography in Sixth and Seventh grades and Grammar in Fifth and Sixth; and Seventh and Eighth grades.

Begin and end each session exactly on time, and be sure that your time is correct.

A. M.

Opening	9:00
First Grade Reading	9:05
Second Grade Reading	9:15
Seventh and Eighth Reading	9:25
Third Grade Reading	9:40
Fifth and Sixth Reading	9:50
Fourth Grade Reading	10:05
Eighth Grade History	10:15
First Numbers	10:25
Recess	10:30
Second Numbers	10:45
Third Numbers	10:50
Seventh Arithmetic	11:00
Eighth Arithmetic	11:15
Fourth Arithmetic	11:30
Sixth Arithmetic	11:40
Fifth Arithmetic	11:50

Noon.

P. M.

Opening	1:00
First Grade Reading	1:05
Second Grade Reading	1:15
Seventh and Eighth Grade Grammar	1:25
Third and Fourth Language	1:40
Fifth and Sixth Grammar	1:50
Seventh Physiology	2:05
Penmanship (all grades)	2:15
Recess	2:30
Eighth Orthography of Civ. Govt.	2:45
Third and Fourth Geography or Physi- ology	2:55
Sixth and Seventh Geography	3:00
Fifth Geography	3:10
Eighth Agriculture	3:20
Fifth Physiology <i>3:25</i>	3:30
Seventh History	3:40
Fourth and Fifth Spelling	3:50
Sixth, Seventh and Eighth Spelling	3:55
Close	4:00

Figure 38: 1911 Monroe County Teachers' Manual Program Schedule.¹

¹ Retrieved from the Monroe County Historical Museum Archives 9/13/08.

Enrichment Services

As the twentieth century progressed, the county commissioner of schools served as an organizing agent for countywide enrichment services for students.

The Monroe County Teachers' Manual (Schafer, 1916-1917) listed field days as being held at Monroe on June 2 and at Dundee on June 9, 1917. The field day events were listed as follows:

- Boys' 100 Yard Dash
- Boys' 50 Yard Dash (under 13)
- Boys' Potato Race (under 13)
- Boys' High Jump
- Boys' 50 Yard Marble Race (under 10)
- Boys' ¼ Mile Relay Race (3)
- Boys' Running Board Jump
- Girls' 50 Yard Dash
- Girls' 25 Yard Dash (under 12)
- Girls' Potato Race
- Girls' 50 Yard Marble Race (under 10)
- Girls' 120 Yard Relay Race (3) (p. 3)

During the 1930s the Monroe County Commissioners built this event into a tradition. In 1937, more than 800 students were involved in the "School Day" which combined the County Spelling Bee Championship with numerous track and field events at Monroe's Navarre Field. The headline in the May 7, 1937, Monroe Evening News was shared by Miss Catherine Ackerman of St. Joseph's Catholic School in Maybee, winner of the County Spelling Bee, and the "Hindenburg" disaster. For many years the spelling

bee and the track and field competition filled column space and headlines in the local paper for weeks leading up to the event.

Summary and Analysis

Demographics

By 1860, Michigan's population had increased to 749,113 (Bald, 1954, p. 259). Immigration from Europe to Michigan accelerated significantly after the 1830s. The largest group of people came from the British Isles. The English, Scots, and Irish all assimilated fairly easily due to a common language. The Irish tended to be poorer than the others and were a bit more clannish. They mostly located in the large cities where they could find work as laborers or in jobs such as "digging canals or building railroads" (Bald, 1954, pp. 259-260). Indeed a significant number of Irish settlers came to Monroe as a result of a planned canal.

Many Prussians also found their way from Europe to Michigan. The Reverend Frederick Schmid came to Michigan, and beginning in 1833, established churches in Washtenaw, Monroe, and Wayne counties. This first group of Prussian settlers were mostly farmers and able to purchase property or work the land until they were able to purchase their own. These settlers also found their way to Clinton County and the Saginaw Valley area where they founded many communities in Michigan.

The politics of Michigan during its early days were dominated by the Democrats and Whigs. The Democrats, under the leadership of people such as Lewis Cass and Stevens T. Mason, usually dominated the early state elections.

It was the slavery question, however, that dominated the state and national politics of the United States. This drove philosophical wedges between people who otherwise agreed, and made strange bedfellows of others who disagreed about most everything else.

As a result of British rule, there had been a small number of Indians and black slaves in Michigan during its early days. Michigan, with its strong northeastern cultural ties, was decidedly anti-slavery in its sentiment. “The Constitution of 1835 expressly prohibited slavery in the state. In 1837, one of the first anti-slavery societies in the west was organized in Detroit” (Burton, 1922, Vol. 1, p. 475). The citizens of Michigan were also a major part of the Underground Railroad, which rescued fugitive slaves to freedom. Thus, in December 1835, when the Congress of the United States sought to repeal the Missouri Compromise, which had halted the westward movement of slavery, the anti-slavery forces were moved to political action. “The State of Michigan would take the lead in this movement” (Burton, 1922, Vol. 1 p. 464).

On July 6, 1854, in Jackson, Michigan, several thousand Michigan citizens gathered to take political action and form a new party. Following the Civil War the Republican Party dominated Michigan’s elections. The Republicans were heavily supported by Civil War veterans. The Republicans continued to dominate Michigan elections throughout the nineteenth and a substantial portion of the twentieth century.

After the Civil War, the State of Michigan would become the model for the industrial revolution. The Industrial Revolution, which began in the forests of Michigan and ultimately and unimaginably stripped it bare of one of its most substantive natural resources, would lead Michigan and the world into an automotive and manufacturing period that further changed every aspect of culture, society, politics, and education. The industrial revolution indeed changed everything in Michigan. A new dominant ideology based on mass production and manufacturing began to take hold.

Table 15.

The Industrial American Cultural Environment in Michigan

Cultural Environment: Industrial America
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language (English) • Governance (municipal reform) • Ideology (business-scientific) • Religion (Protestant) • Economy/Tasks (manufacturing) • Myth-Complex (scientific method) • Conflict (Civil War) • Demographics (rural, European, and southern migration)

Educational Governance

In 1867 the State of Michigan took a step towards further centralizing its public education system when it implemented an intermediate unit of educational government in the form of the county superintendent. This unit of educational government systemically positioned between the state superintendent of public instruction and the common schools essentially placed an educational reformer, or crusader, in every county of Michigan. These local educational reformers activities largely reflected those of their leaders at the state level. According to Tyack and Hansot (1982), “The chief goal of common school crusaders was to attract citizens to support and send their children to public schools. They sought to adapt their arguments to many groups and to avoid alienating people. Thus they sought a common denominator of values and interests” (p. 73). The efforts of the common school crusaders at the state levels, as described by Tyack and Hansot (1982), were observed at the county level in the writings and reported actions of the early Monroe County Superintendents between 1867 and 1875. Charles Toll and Elem Willard, elected by the people of Monroe County, were educational crusaders and reformers in

every sense of these terms. Neither of these men were “professional educators,” still another characteristic of the state educational reformers such as John D. Pierce and Horace Mann. The county superintendents service and governance functions are provided in Tables 16 and 17.

Table 16.

County Superintendent Educational Services Function, 1867-1875

- | |
|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promote school improvement • Conduct professional development • Improve student attendance |
|--|

Table 17.

County Superintendent Governance Function, 1867-1875

- | |
|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Examine teacher candidates (orthography, reading, writing, grammar, geography, and arithmetic) • Grant certificates to qualified individuals (good moral character, learning, and ability) • Conduct county school visitations • Counsel teachers and district boards • Examine and submit reports to Superintendent of Public Instruction • Oversee library resources • Manage conflict |
|--|

Conflict

Early tensions between centralized state and local control forces can be observed in the decision to make the county superintendent an elected position as opposed to an appointed one, as was recommended by Superintendent of Public Instruction John Gregory. The fundamental tension “over the issue of relative power of professionals and lay citizens” has existed throughout the history of public instruction in the United States and is “unresolvable” according to Iannaccone (1977, p. 56). These “tensions” or

“controversies” could not be pursued to their ultimate conclusion because “the political order could not survive continued debate about them” (Iannaccone, 1977, p. 56). Thus they are temporarily suppressed only to rise up again at later times. The partisan election of the county superintendent, a position that was intended to represent the supervisory authority of the state, placed control in the hands of the local people who held centralized government with great suspicion. With the exception of a brief period of time, 1875-1891, the chief officer of the local intermediate unit of government, during this period, was subject to the will of the people they governed.

In 1875 the march towards educational reform and centralized governance of the public education system took a step backwards. The county superintendents had made the system “too expensive” due to their reforms and were eliminated. This loss by the professional educational policy entrepreneurs, and especially the state superintendents, advocating for centralization and professional management, was temporary. Soon criticism of the allegedly “cheaper” and “amateurish” part-time township governance, via the township board of school inspectors, began. This political advocacy, especially by the State Superintendent’s of Public Instruction, would gradually return county educational governance to the local schools through the “secretary” of the county board of school examiners in 1887. The secretary was the head of a governing board consisting of three examiners, appointed by the probate court judge, and the two examiners elected by a representative from each school district.

In 1891 the secretarial position would become the county commissioner of schools, a term not so incidentally used in the eastern United States. The county commissioner of schools, like the county superintendent before, would be subject to the politics of the community as an elected position and be attached to the county

government structure. The county commissioner of schools became the first administrative position in Michigan to carry professional credentials, requiring the individual to be a college graduate or hold a state teachers certificate or a first grade certificate. Thus evidence of a change in the ideology influencing public education was first revealed in the governance structure of public education.

Table 18.

Michigan State System of Public Education in Michigan during the Industrial American Era

State System of Public Education
• Language (English)
• Governance (centralized)
• Pedagogy (American)
• Curriculum (standardized)
• Myth-Complex (efficiency)
• Conflict (who decides?)
• Policy Entrepreneurs (professionals)
• Ideology (business scientific)

CHAPTER 5: POST-WORLD WAR I ERA – 1918

Standardization, Efficiency and Professionalism

The End of the Protestant-Republican Reform Era

In 1917 the United States entered World War I against Germany with the patriotic fervor of the Protestant-republican ideological reform movement that had begun in the mid-nineteenth century. As influenced by this ideology, the nation's purpose was to fight evil and make the world a better place to live. The resulting stalemate and loss of life during World War I, coupled with the failed ratification of the Treaty of Versailles and the League of Nations by the Congress of the United States, left the nation hungry to be left alone. During World War I, the substantial German population of Monroe County fell under unfounded suspicion and was subjected to discrimination. At the time the war ended on November 11, 1918, Monroe County had lost 60 men in the "war to end all wars" (Naveaux and Gruber, 2001, pp. 32-33).

State Demographics

Michigan's population continued to grow as its manufacturing factories increased and new workers were demanded. By 1920 Detroit had nearly a million inhabitants, which was approximately five times the number it had in 1890. Bald (1954) summarized the nuances of this growth:

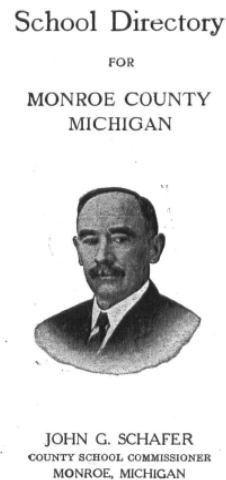
During the same thirty years, the population of Flint increased ninefold, that of Pontiac fivefold, and of Kalamazoo and Grand Rapids twofold. It is significant that the greatest growth appeared in cities which made automobiles. Saginaw and Monroe grew slowly, while Manistee and Menominee declined in population." (pp. 370-371)

It is also significant that “in 1890, only 35% of the people of the state lived in towns or cities of 2,500 or more and 65% lived in villages or farms. By contrast, in 1920, the ratio was almost reversed. Sixty-one percent were living in towns or cities, and thirty-nine percent in villages and on farms” (Bald, 1954, p. 371). This shift had a significant impact on the city’s capacity to grow so fast and to meet the safety, health, education, and economic needs of its population.

State Cultural Shift

One of the most significant factors of the twentieth century impacting Michigan was the phenomenal growth in the number of African Americans migrating to Michigan from southern states. In 1900 there were 15,816 African Americans residing in Michigan. By the 1930 census, there were 169,453 African American living in Michigan. During World War I, immigration from Europe had ceased to exist and the manufacturing plants needed workers. African Americans were recruited and brought to Michigan by the trainload. Others soon joined them, attracted by economic opportunities. Subjected to low pay and discrimination, the African Americans were forced into poor living conditions in the urban areas, primarily Detroit (Bald, 1954, p. 396).

State Educational Governance
Standardization and Consolidation



*Figure 39: John G. Schafer, Monroe County School Commissioner, 1917.*¹

State Accreditation: The Standard School

Michigan State Superintendent of Public Instruction Keeler (1914) put forth his initiative of the “standard school” in his annual report “to arouse the spirit of improvement” for “better rural schools” (p. 18-23). Keeler assured school leaders that he or “his representative” would be present to award the plate and diploma that went to the deserving rural school marking this achievement. According to Keeler (1914), “A certain degree of excellence in environment, in comfortable and sanitary conditions, and in the ability and character of the teacher is fixed upon as necessary for the proper efficiency of the school” (Seventy Seventh Annual Report of the Superintendent, 1914, p. 18).

John G. Shafer succeeded James Kelley as the Monroe County Commissioner of Schools in 1915 and served 16 years in the position. Prior to his election, Mr. Shafer had

¹ Retrieved from the Monroe County Historical Museum Archives on 9/13/08.

been a teacher at Ida and Superintendent at the Carleton School (*John G. Shafer, 1935, April 7*).

Monroe County teachers and school officers were encouraged by Commissioner of Schools Shafer (1915) to attain to the state system of standardization which required the following:

1. A school year of nine months.
2. A suitable salary for teachers.
3. School grounds of one half acre, with shade trees.
4. Two well kept, widely separated outbuildings, or inside toilets.
5. A school house in good repair, well painted and decorated inside.
6. A school house with proper lighting.
7. Hardwood floors in the school. A well and a sanitary drinking fountain.
8. A heating and ventilating system.
9. Seats and desks suitable for all ages of children.
10. A library of 80 volumes, suitable for all grades.
11. Good blackboards, with some being accommodating to small children.
12. A school with a dictionary, flag, maps, charts, globe, organ and pictures.
13. The teacher of the standard school had to have experience, and hold at least a second grade certificate or county normal certificate, and have the endorsement of the county school commissioner.

14. Standard high schools had to employ high school instructors holding first grade or life certificates.
 15. In order to qualify as a standard school teacher candidates for county normal certificates had to have completed eleven grades in a standard high school and be at least 18 years of age at time of graduation, or be the holder of a third grade or second grade certificate, or had taught two years in the rural schools in the county.
- (p. 3)

It was reported that between 1915 and 1919 there was just one standard school in Monroe County, though five new school buildings were built during that period (Eighty-Second Annual Report, 1919, p. 50). In spite of this apparent lack of enthusiasm for this early form of “accreditation,” the movement towards standardization and consolidation moved forward.

Consolidation of Rural Schools

State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Fred Keeler, cast a critical light on Michigan’s rural schools and the need for their consolidation (Eighty Second Annual Report, 1919). In his report, Keeler (Eighty-Second Annual Superintendent’s Report, 1919) cited the rural schools for their inadequacy:

The educational training of the country school has lagged behind in the onward march of rural progress. The ideals of the teacher, the desire of parents, and the ambitions of the youth have contributed to the movement of our boys and girls from rural to city life. If this movement is to be checked so that we may retain on the farm the boys and girls who are best fitted to do this part of our country’s work, the rural school must be reorganized upon a basis that will cause it to be a

force in bringing the boy and girl of the country to appreciate its possibilities. (p. 51)

At the time of Keeler's report, Michigan had, according to the Eighty-Second Annual Report of 1919, four different laws that provided a method for the consolidation of rural schools:

1. The Graded School Act
2. The Township Unit Act for the Upper Peninsula in Michigan
3. The General Township Unit Act
4. The Rural Agricultural School Act (p. 51)

Keeler (Eighty-Second Annual Superintendent's Report, 1919) further cited the "natural limitations and the inherent weaknesses of the one-room school" as follows:

With as many as eight grades to teach, with nearly thirty recitations daily, with an average class of less than ten minutes for the actual class work of each class the teacher of such a school cannot hope to do much of the kind of teaching that the boys and girls should receive. (pp. 91-92)

Superintendent Keeler stressed that in order for the rural community to meet more fully the educational needs of the country, it must provide a larger and more efficient school organization" (Eighty Second Annual Report, 1919, p. 92). Keeler further put the responsibility of improving the rural schools upon each local community, stating, "The solving of the whole rural school problem rests with the people who support the rural school. How well they will solve the problem depends to a large degree upon their open-mindedness toward the problem and their desire for better school opportunities" (Eighty Second Annual Report, 1919, p. 92).

Superintendent G. N. Otwell also reported on the “progress in rural education in Michigan” (Ninetieth Report, 1929, pp. 46-53). Otwell reported that since 1919, when consolidated schools were first reimbursed for maintenance and transportation of students, 61 consolidated school districts were established, replacing 308 one-room schools. Through the increased consolidation of rural schools, the following improvements in efficiency were noted by Superintendent Otwell (Ninetieth Report, 1929):

Michigan Has Made the Following Additional Provisions for Rural Education:

1. Provided not only an effective compulsory attendance law but a continuous census and uniform child accounting system.
2. Provided a uniform grading system and for an accumulative education record of each child.
3. Provided for a 9-month school year.
4. Provided special state aid for districts having excessive tax rate.
5. Provided for payment of school tuition.
6. Provided for use of school buildings as community and recreational centers for residents of the district. (p. 52-53)

Michigan’s movement toward larger, more efficient and professional school organizations would continue to intensify.

Special Education

The issue of educating children with disabilities was an increasing source of policy focus for the state superintendent of public instruction holding office during the twentieth century. The State of Michigan’s first effort in the area of special education was

the establishment of an “asylum” for the deaf and blind in 1848. In 1854 and 1871, separate facilities for these children were created in Flint, Michigan, for the deaf, and Lansing, Michigan, for the blind (Ninety Fifth Report of the Superintendent, 1940). The State of Michigan first began providing for the education of students with disabilities within local districts in 1899 with the passage of legislation allowing for the education of students with deafness. This evolution intensified with the creation of a Department of Vocational Rehabilitation within the Michigan Department of Public Instruction in 1921. The idea of rehabilitating citizens with disabilities was borne from the knowledge gained from disabled veterans following the First World War. The State of Michigan’s efforts had historically been to provide “vocational guidance and education designed to re-establish disabled persons into remunerative employment” (Ninetieth Report of the Superintendent, 1930, p. 78). In 1923, the legislature approved funding and guidelines allowing for education of “the crippled,” “the Deaf or Hard of Hearing,” and the “Blind or Partially Sighted” (Ninetieth Report of the Superintendent, 1930, p. 86). These laws were permissive and capped the state’s contribution towards added costs at \$200.00 per student in 1929. The policies concerning these laws were very general but did require “in all cases the blind, deaf, or crippled must be given separate instruction” (Ninetieth Report of the Superintendent, 1930, p. 86).

The special education laws (Eighty Ninth Annual Report, 1927) allowed local boards of education to provide services to the physically handicapped under the following provisions:

1. A special class may be started if there are five or more children between the ages of five and twenty who cannot be profitably or safely educated by attending regular classes.

2. In all cases, the blind, deaf, and crippled children must be given separate instruction.
3. Rooms must be properly located, equipped, and lighted.
4. Necessary equipment such as books, appliances, and apparatus must be provided.
5. Courses of study, methods of instruction, qualifications of teachers, equipment, and special services must comply with the requirements prescribed by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction.
6. All teachers before being approved shall have had at least one year's successful teaching experience with normal children, a state life certificate or its equivalent, and one year's special training in the field selected, in addition to the two years mentioned above.
7. The Board of Education maintaining such classes shall make a detailed annual report to the State Department of Public Instruction on blanks especially prepared for such purpose.
8. The state reimburses a local school district the difference between the average per capita cost of instruction for other children in the first eight grades and the average per capita cost of educating the children enrolled in the special class. In no case shall the amount of state aid exceed \$200 per child.
9. A Board of Education which does not maintain a special class may pay tuition of any child to a school maintaining such schools and classes.
10. The State Superintendent of Public Instruction has general supervision over the work. (p. 77)

County Educational Governance Function

Professional Administration

Mr. Clyde O. Hatter succeeded Mr. Shafer, and significant changes can be seen in the County Commissioners office holder. Mr. Hatter was a professional educational administrator. Prior to his election, Mr. Hatter had resided in Monroe County and taught in the Milan Schools. Mr. Hatter had also served as the Superintendent of the South Rockwood School before becoming principal of a 12-grade school in Berkley, Michigan, and then teaching in Detroit. During Mr. Hatter's tenure as the Monroe County Commissioner, a time of great financial depression took place in the state and county. The Great Depression was a brutal time in Michigan. Nearly fifty percent of its non-agricultural workforce was unemployed. His circular of 1933, a simple memorandum, reflects the harsh financial times in which he served. Mr. Hatter's communication to the school districts (August 14, 1933), begins as follows:

Since my last letter to you many startling events have occurred. Old, well established institutions have been forced to cease functioning, and many that continue to exist are seriously weakened. No social institution or individual has escaped unaffected. So great is the crisis through which we are passing that it has threatened our schools. In some places schools have been closed and in all places they have been reduced in effectiveness. Moreover, in some portions of the state and nation, there are alarmists who seek to excite the public by magnifying our difficulties.

The school officers of Monroe are to be congratulated. They are living in the most prosperous section of the state. We have a lower tax rate than any other county in Michigan. We have the wealth to keep our schools open and we should

feel proud of the fact. In some places it has become impossible to continue the school because of the excessive tax, but we have been fortunate in escaping due to the fact that our average tax for rural schools is less than one half of the average for the rural school [sic] of the state. (p. 1)

In spite of his rhetoric, Mr. Hatter (1933) essentially eliminated the listing of required books for the rural schools due to the difficult economic conditions (Hatter, 1933, September, pp. 3-4). During the difficult economic times of the depression, schools would do as best they could in maintaining quality instruction.

Student Promotion

In 1933 County Commissioner of Schools Hatter shared a new directive by the state superintendent of public instruction governing “the promotion of pupils in rural schools” (Hatter, 1933, September 22):

In order to make provisions for the granting of eighth grade pupils in primary school districts, in graded school districts not having a superintendent of schools, and in graded school districts not maintaining approved high school classes, I wish to announce the following rules and procedure [sic] to be observed during the school year of 1933-34.

A mid-term test for eighth grade pupils as written, designed [sic] administered by the teacher will be given in Arithmetic, History, Civics, and English in the third week of January, 1934. Upon completion of these mid-term tests the teacher will send a copy of the test questions in each subject, together with the test papers as written by the pupils, to the County School Commissioner who will retain them for the use of the Board of School Examiners. The teacher

will grade these mid-term test papers before sending them to the County Commissioner.

The State test to be given on or before the third week in May will be prepared by the office of the Supt. of Public Instruction. These state tests will be conducted by the teacher in her own school and should be distributed over the full week. Instructions as to how the tests should be conducted will accompany the tests.

The teacher will without delay send the state test papers as written by the pupils to the county commissioner who will retain them for the use of the county board of school examiners. The teacher should also send the results of any other tests, actual test papers, exhibits of daily work, and any other evidence which could rightfully be considered by the board of school examiners in determining the question of whether or not the particular child has satisfactorily completed the work of the eighth grade. This additional data is especially recommended in the cases of children who might otherwise be judged as failures in the absence of such supporting data.

The county commissioner will present the results of the mid-term and the state tests and such other evidence that may accompany these tests to the county board of school examiners which Board will examine and give weight to all such evidence and will make final determination in the matter of the granting or withholding of diplomas. (p. 1)

County Educational Services Function

Pedagogy

Hatter passed away suddenly on March 20, 1937, and was replaced by the Monroe County Board of Supervisors after deliberations that took 24 ballots to decide among 13 candidates applying for the position. The law required that, in case of the Commissioner's death, the Monroe County Board of Supervisors appoint the person to conclude the term of office. Miss Berneth Noble, a second grade teacher from Alma, with Monroe County family ties, was ultimately selected. Mrs. Noble-McKercher left the position at the end of the term. Mrs. Noble-McKercher would be the only female Monroe County Commissioner of Schools. In the "Units of Instruction for Rural Schools" (1938), Commissioner Noble-McKercher quoted the Instructional Guide, published by the Department of Public Instruction:

The new concept of education is best conveyed by what is often spoken of as the 'Child Centered School'. Here the attempt is made to bring about a perfect correlation of the curriculum and the child's growing stream of life experiences. Subject matter is regarded as a means to an end and not an end in itself. Provision is made for the development of the whole child through varied and real life experiences. The child is encouraged to be active, to work with others, and to use his initiative. In this new school the teacher no longer drives unwilling pupils to the accomplishment of disagreeable tasks, but the teacher's role is one of sympathetic friendship, of wise guidance, and of constructive counsel. Pupils and teachers are joint adventurers in learning about this fascinating world we live in. Because of his wider experience the teacher directs and guides the activities so that continuous child growth and adjustment to life may result. (p. 1)

In Commissioner Noble-McKercher's directive, one can observe the changing pedagogical foundations being promoted by twentieth century reformers such as John Dewey. During Commissioner Noble-McKercher's term in office, she also promoted relationships with agencies outside of education such as "The Monroe Evening News, Junior Red Cross, 4H Club, [and] the County Dental Clinic (*Mrs. McKercher*, 1939, July 1, pp. 1, 7).

Following her service in Monroe County, Mrs. Noble-McKercher would become an author and a professor at Michigan State University.

Instructional Technology

William Eiker was elected Monroe County Commissioner of Schools in 1939 to replace Berneth Noble-McKercher, who did not run for reelection. Prior to his election, Commissioner Eiker had spent his entire career within Monroe County's Schools. His first three years of teaching were spent at the Columbian School in Exeter Township. He later spent eight years at the Golden School in Frenchtown Township.

During his tenure as Monroe County Commissioner of Schools, William Eiker's (1941) "Monroe County Teachers Guide" reflected the increasing influences of technology and business ideology upon the local public schools. Less attention is given to ethical and moral matters, stressing the importance of public schooling, as promoted by the early school reformers and county commissioners. In place of the dialogue concerning scholarly virtues are topics such as "The Making and Filing of Attendance Reports," "Individual Cumulative Record," "Compulsory School Attendance," "Who is Qualified to Teach?," and "Substitute Teachers" (Eiker, 1940, pp. 1-6).

The role of technology in the classroom can also be seen in Commissioner Eiker's (1940) instructions to teachers:

Many excellent education programs are found on the air today. An NBC Bulletin will be mailed to you each month upon request to the broadcasting company. You should use the radio with judgment for, even though these teachers are experts, the radio can be overdone. (p. 9)

Mr. Eiker left the Monroe County Commissioner’s office on September 1, 1946, to become the Superintendent of the Romulus Township Schools.

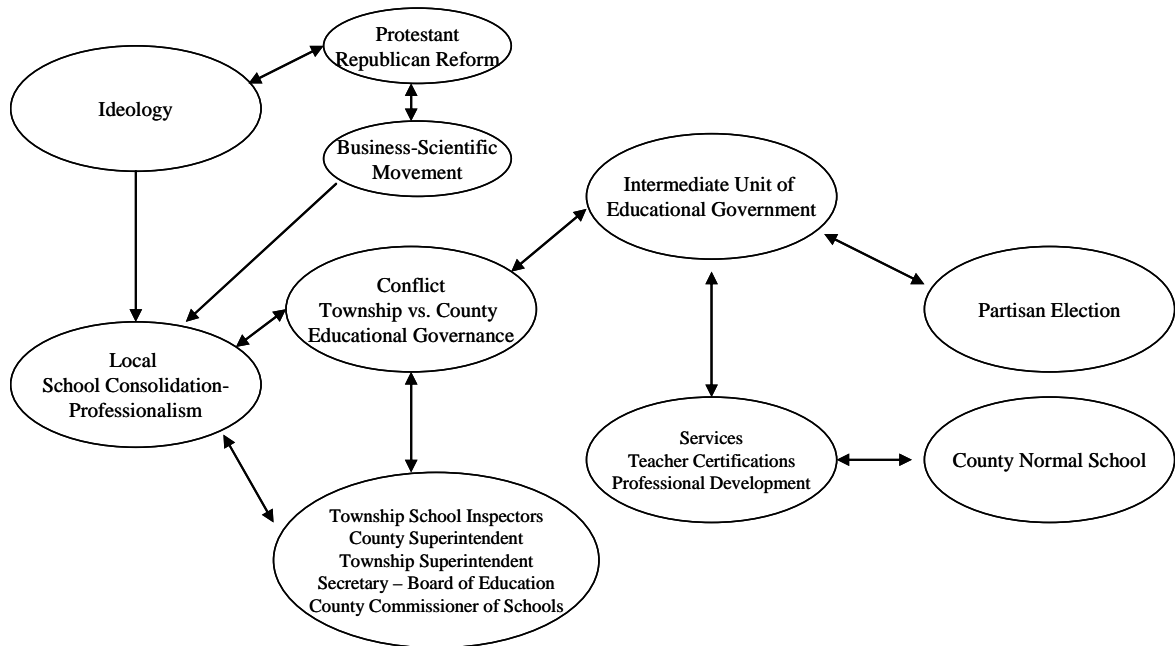


Figure 40: The Intermediate Unit of Educational Government prior to the Establishment of the Monroe County School District, 1867-1946.

Summary and Analysis

Soon, most everything would change as the effects of the Industrial Revolution impacted society, the cultural myth-complex it held as reality, and the ideology it promoted through public education.

The Industrial Revolution brought prominence to the concept of organization (Parsons, 1960, p. 2). According to Parsons (1960):

One of the most salient structural characteristics of such a society is the prominence in it of relatively large-scale organizations with specialized functions, what rather loosely tend to be called “bureaucracies.” At the role level these organizations are composed of relatively pure-type “occupational” roles where the status and responsibilities of the incumbents are relatively fully segregated from their “private” affairs in terms of premises, kinship relations, property, and the like. (p. 2)

Parsons (1960) further conceptualized that the defining characteristic that distinguishes an organization from other types of social systems is its “primary orientation to the attainment of a specific goal” (p. 17). Parsons believed the organizations achievement of its goals would be defined “as a *relation* between a system (in this case a social system) and the relevant parts of the external situation in which it acts or operates” (p. 17). This open system conceptualization is essential to understanding the development of the Monroe County Intermediate Unit of Educational Government during the era of industrialization.

As the impact of the Industrial Revolution spread, new studies were conducted aimed at improving the efficiency of organizations. In 1910 Frederick Taylor became widely acclaimed as a result of his work concerning “scientific management” or the “Taylor System.” The basic principles of “scientific management” were to raise production, increase wages, and reduce costs. Taylor’s research findings revealed that “there was always one best method for doing any particular job and this best method could be determined only through scientific study” (Callahan, 1962, p. 25). With the help of the federal government, the principles of scientific management were soon widely acclaimed to be the panacea for improving nearly every aspect of life, including

education (Callahan, 1962, pp. 19-25). Taylor's system was predicated on the idea that every aspect of work could be measured and workers could be trained to do their jobs properly once their jobs were properly measured. The Taylor System further called for a further separation of the roles of managers and laborers. Taylor believed that those who did the work were inherently different from those who planned the work (Callahan, 1962, pp. 22-28). The classic symbols of the "Taylor Method" of "scientific management" were the "stop watch" and the "time and motion study" (Callahan, 1962, p. 28).

Simultaneous with Frederick Taylor's work, there was tremendous momentum being built by the technological advances and personal wealth being generated by men such as John D. Rockefeller, Andrew Carnegie, and J. P. Morgan. The publicity surrounding these wealthy businessmen was increasing the prominence of their role in the minds of the American people (Callahan, 1962, p.2). What was "good" for business became "good" for every aspect of American society.

Soon "business values," because they were now part of the "myth-complex" of the American people, began to infiltrate the political debate surrounding American schools. Public schools came under increasing scrutiny and criticism by those extolling "modern business methods and efficiency" (Callahan, 1962, p. 5). Gradually schools, especially those in urban areas, were reformed in ways to reflect the business model. Consolidation of school districts, the at-large election of school board members (usually "businessmen"), and the Superintendent as chief executive officer were several changes effecting the governance of schools that grew out of the industrialized society and its emphasis on business values and efficient methods of operation. Perhaps most significant was the manner in which the training programs for school administrators were altered to no longer reflect the importance of scholarship but rather the executive nature of the

“education business.” “By 1918, the idea of a separate profession of school administration was firmly established” (Callahan, 1962, p. 219). These changes were observed in the communications of the Monroe County Commissioners of Schools as the twentieth century proceeded.

The activities within the schools also changed as a result of the scientific management’s focus on efficiency as it was implemented within education. Teacher certification by subject area, platoon schools, Carnegie units, compulsory attendance, grading of schools, and standardized testing changed the classroom experience of students and teachers alike. By mid-century the specialization, role separation, and centralized bureaucratic tendencies would lead to a strengthened state department of education and the county board of education. According to Tyack and Hansot (1980):

At the turn of the twentieth century the earlier evangelists were replaced, for the most part, by full time professional managers who saw their careers as building on the foundations laid by Horace Mann’s generation but who had somewhat different views about the functions of schooling. Equally millennial in their own way, they believed that they stood at a point in history when experts could and should control the course of human evolution. The newer rhetoric shifted from religious to scientific language. Equally millennial in their own way, they believed they stood at a point in history when experts could and should control the course of human evolution. The newer rhetoric of reform shifted from religious to scientific language. They saw business efficiency as a social panacea. Instead of trying to mobilize local citizens to act in a broad-based social movement, the twentieth century managers sought to “take schools out of politics” and to shift

decision making upward and inward in hierarchical and buffered systems.” (p. 292)

During the twentieth century, once the matter of securing supervision of the rural schools was resolved via the county commissioner of schools, the Michigan State Department of Education grew immensely. This reflected the business-scientific ideology fueled by the Industrial Revolution. In 1924, the Superintendent’s annual report for the years 1921-22 reflected this bureaucratic trend. In addition to the “superintendent of public instruction,” there was listed a “deputy superintendent,” “three assistant superintendents,” “twelve support staff,” a “division of rural education,” a “statistical division,” the “board of control for vocational education,” and ten “executive staff” (Eighty-Fifth and Eighty-Sixth Annual Reports of the Superintendent, 1924, pp. 7-8). These figures excluded the “state schools” such as the Michigan School for the Deaf established at Flint in 1854, the Michigan School for the Blind established in 1871 at Lansing, the State Industrial Home for Girls established in 1879 at Adrian, the State Industrial School for Boys established in 1855 at Lansing, and the State Public School established in Coldwater in 1871. This burgeoning state bureaucracy and expanding authority was coupled with the growing size of consolidated local school districts led by professional superintendents. Again, the state gradually took over control of teacher training via its normal schools in Ypsilanti (1849), Mount Pleasant (1895), Kalamazoo (1904), Marquette (1899), and other universities. The state normal Schools in Kalamazoo and Mount Pleasant were specifically created to train teachers for the rural schools (Ninetieth Annual Superintendent’s Report, 1927-29, p. 51). In 1921 the state required teachers to possess post-high school training from approved institutions of higher learning. In 1923, the statutes of the State of Michigan “required graded school districts

employing six or more teachers to employ a superintendent” (Beem and James, 1956, pp. 19-20). Gradually, in many areas of the state the County Commissioner’s post was being reduced to mere clerical work. In addition to being squeezed out by the growth of the State Department of Education, the larger consolidated districts, and the higher levels of professionalism of local school leaders, the County Commissioners found themselves strapped by county politics. As an elective post subject to the county board of supervisors budgetary priorities, the county commissioners ability to lead suffered (Beem and James, 1956, p. 21). Their salary also suffered and by 1930, over 50% of the counties in Michigan and the county commissioners of Schools was a part-time position. The changes brought on by the “science and business” ideologies of the Industrial Revolution have been observed by this researcher in the growth of the Michigan State Department of Education, the State of Michigan’s educational policies, rules and regulations, and the communications of the Monroe County Commissioner of Schools during the early to mid-twentieth century (Tyack and Hansot, 1980, p. 313). This ideology set the stage for the reorganization of the intermediate unit of governance.

POST-WORLD WAR II ERA – 1945

Cultural Environment

Economy/Tasks

During World War II, Detroit became the “arsenal of democracy,” wielding its manufacturing might to supply the allied armies with the tools to defeat the axis powers. Following the war, the 1950s was Michigan’s economic heyday. “In 1955, Michigan’s per capita income was 16 percent above the U.S. average – and by 1960 the state probably had the nations broadest middle class” (Public Sector Consultants, 2002, pp. 3-4).

According to Dunbar (1971), “In the 1860’s probably 85% of the people of Michigan depended upon agriculture for their subsistence” (p. 619). By 1960, “only about 5% of the families in Michigan were dependent on farm income for their support” (Dunbar, 1971, p. 620).

For those still living in rural areas, the automobile and related advances in manufacturing and communication technologies rapidly changed their lives. During most of the nineteenth century, the farmer was an independent and self-sustaining sort, who was largely isolated from others outside of his immediate neighbors or local community. Most of his food was home-grown. “His house contained no bathroom or running water, no radio, few magazines, no refrigerator, no telephone, [and] no vacuum sweeper. His sons and daughters learned to read and write in a one-room school, they were not likely to go to high school and even less likely to go to college” (Dunbar, 1971, p. 609).

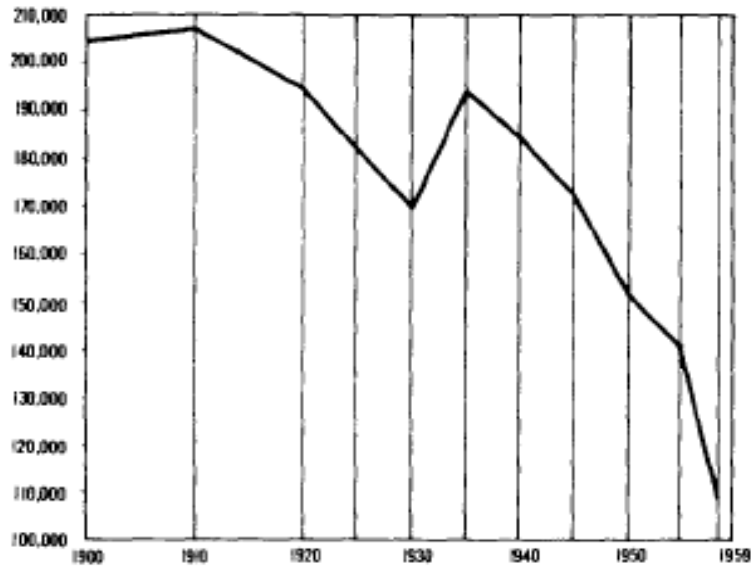


Figure 41: Number of Farms in Michigan in 1900-1959.¹

¹ From: Michigan: A History of the Wolverine State, 1965, by W. F. Dunbar, Grand Rapids, Michigan: William B. Eerdmans Publishing Company.

The changes brought by the new modes of transportation meant that farmers could get their products to market more readily. Children could go to consolidated schools with others who were not related or living in the same immediate vicinity. It meant that the farmer no longer had to churn his own butter, had mail delivered to him, could use the telephone to communicate, and, through the use of machinery, the work in the field was made much less strenuous. As electricity came to the farm, conveniences such as lights, radios, televisions, incubators, and other technologies could be integrated to make the farm-family less isolated and exposed to a much broader world. Scientific knowledge was also brought to the Michigan farmers. Michigan State was the first agricultural college in the United States. Prior to the research done, therein, the farmer learned his trade from his father and his neighbors. “In 1875 extension work began. In towns all over the state ‘Farmers’ Institutes’ were held, where experts from East Lansing talked to the farmers about how scientific findings might help them better their lot” (Dunbar, 1971, p. 617).

As the automobile came to rural areas, the railroad depot, which had been the center of rural small town activity, disappeared. Garages took the place of blacksmith shops; filling stations took the place of stables. The influence of the auto manufacturers, suppliers, and workers on the world’s political, social, and economic development and fortunes has been profound. Detroit, Michigan, was the poster child for the industrial revolution.

The Founding of the Monroe County School District

State Laws, Regulations, Structure

As the State of Michigan approached the midway point of the twentieth century, the business-scientific ideology was dominating educational policy making. The systemic

role of the county commissioner of schools was diminished and threatened with extinction due to the increasing professional management now existing in consolidated rural schools and the ever-advancing state educational bureaucracy. The county intermediate unit of educational governance was at a political crossroad. It would either disappear into historical oblivion, a vestige of the past Protestant-republican reform ideology of the nineteenth century, or be reorganized in accordance with the era's dominant business-scientific ideology and the closely related municipal reform movement.

The structure of school governance in Michigan began to change when Public Act No. 117 of 1935 allowed counties with populations of more than 250,000 citizens to form a county district. In order to become a county school district, voters had to first approve a referendum. In 1943 Public Act No. 212 extended the opportunity to become a county school district to counties with a population of less than 250,000 citizens. In 1947 Public Act No. 269 created county school districts in every county in the state with a population of more than 15,000 citizens. The County Commissioner was completely eliminated from Michigan's system of school governance in 1949.

In place of the County Commissioner, the State of Michigan established a Board of Education to be elected by representatives from the local school districts of the county. The election would take place on the first Monday in June on a biennial basis. The establishment of the county board of Education began to remove the control of the intermediate unit of governance and the rural schools away from the general government of the county and townships. The people would no longer have a direct vote on the officers of the county's intermediate unit.

Appointed County Superintendent

At the same time the state legislature created the county board of education, it reestablished the county superintendent. It was the county board of education's responsibility to appoint the county superintendent. No longer would this position be directly elected by the people. The county board of education could also employ a deputy to assist the superintendent in carrying out the services related to the position. The costs related to the services of the county board of education and the county superintendent were to be paid by the county treasurer. First, however, the budget had to be approved by the county board of education and appropriated by the county board of supervisors, which frequently created conflict. The county superintendent was also required to meet professional standards to be qualified for the office. This was the first administrative position in Michigan requiring professional credentials. The county superintendent had to possess, at minimum, forty-five months' teaching experience within the public schools. The position also required the person to hold a Michigan teaching certificate, be a college graduate, and hold a Master's Degree if the county had over 30,000 citizens. Salaries for the county superintendents were set by the State of Michigan as follows by Public Act No. 269 (1947, p. 414):

<u>Population Range</u>	<u>Salary</u>
15,000 – 25,000	\$4,000.00
25,000 – 35,000	\$4,250.00
35,000 – 50,000	\$4,500.00
50,000 – 75,000	\$4,750.00
75,000 – 125,000	\$5,000.00
125,000 – 150,000	\$5,250.00
150,000 – 175,000	\$5,500.00

175,000 – 200,000	\$5,750.00
200,000 – 225,000	\$6,000.00
225,000 – 250,000	\$6,250.00
250,000 – 275,000	\$6,500.00
275,000 – 300,000	\$6,750.00
more than 300,000	\$7,000.00

The State of Michigan directly paid the county superintendent. This law also made it permissible to pay the county superintendent in excess of these amounts from county funds (Public Act No. 269, 1947, p. 414).

Reorganization of the Monroe County Commissioner of Schools

With the resignation of William Eiker, Isaac Grove was appointed to the position of Monroe County Commissioner of Schools of September 24, 1946, by a panel consisting of Monroe County Clerk, J. Golden Zabel; Monroe County Probate Court Judge, John J. Beck; and Monroe County Prosecutor, Foster D. Luse (*Grove Sworn In*, 1946, September 24, p. 1). Grove would serve twenty-six years in the roles of Monroe County Commissioner of Schools, Monroe County Superintendent, and the Monroe County Intermediate School District Superintendent as the role of the intermediate level of school governance was reorganized within the State of Michigan's public education system. During this period, Monroe County's Intermediate Unit of Educational Governance evolved from the elected office of commissioner of schools within general county government to the appointed superintendent of the county school district under the governance of a fiscally semi-independent county board of education elected by representatives of the local school districts to the appointed superintendent of the intermediate school district governed by a board of education and elected by representatives of the local school districts. Mr. Grove, who was reelected to a new four-

year term as commissioner of schools in April of 1947, was a math teacher at Monroe Lincoln Junior High at the time of his appointment. Previous to this, he had started his career in a one-room schoolhouse in Kalkaska and held numerous teaching and administrative positions throughout Michigan. Those County School Commissioners elected in 1947 were allowed to fulfill their four-year terms under the conditions of the new law. Mr. Grove did so and was granted a three-year contract by the Monroe County Board of Education upon the expiration of his term in 1951.

On August 4, 1947, the first Monroe County Board of Education was elected by the representatives of Monroe County's school districts. The election was held at the Monroe County Courthouse. Elected were Forrest Bird of Petersburg, Carl Smith of Erie, William Weipert of Monroe, Delmont Chapman of Newport, and Norman Capaul of Ida. According to the Monroe Evening News (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, August 5, 1947, p. 1), the meeting was attended by 50 electors from local districts and "50 other interested spectators from the county [who] witnessed the voting by secret ballot." The organizational meeting of the board was held four days later. William Weipert was elected as President and Norman Capaul as Vice President. At this meeting, the board notified the public that district "boundary lines can be changed by the county board of education" (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, August 8, 1947, p. 1). The board also decided to adopt the Oakland County Board of Education By-Laws, with some changes. It was decided that quarterly meetings would be held the second Friday of each quarter at the Monroe County Courthouse (January, April, July, and October; Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, August 8, 1947, pp. 1-2).

The business-scientific ideology and the municipal reform movement officially came to Monroe County on August 4, 1947. On that date, at the Monroe County Courthouse, fifty electors representing Monroe County school districts elected a five-member non-partisan Board of Education. The ideological significance of this vote can be seen in comparing the number of electors voting for the county superintendent in the previous election of 1947, which was 6,740. The elected social elites would now select the intermediate unit of government. The men who constituted the Monroe County Board of Education met four days later to organize and to publicly announce their ability to change school district boundaries. With this announcement, the governance function of the Monroe County intermediate unit of educational government shifted to implementing the state government's long-professed desire to consolidate rural school districts. The consolidation movement was closely associated with the business-scientific ideology value of efficiency. With this change, the governance function of the Monroe County School District was strengthened in other ways. The county board of education would now adopt its own budget, independent of the county board of supervisors. The county board of supervisors, however, still was required to allocate a portion of the monies. This financial arrangement would be a source of conflict throughout the county board of education's existence.

The Monroe County Board of Education would also appoint the Monroe County Superintendent of Schools. Isaac Grove, the first county superintendent under this new governance structure, was previously elected by the people. Significantly, the county board of education was authorized to furnish services for any district when requested to do so by the local board of education. The county board could evolve beyond the mandates of the regulations and negotiate to provide services within the local educational

environment. This provision of the law gave the county board of education authority to develop interorganizational resource dependencies with schools beyond those services required by statute.

The county intermediate unit of governance originally created as a supervisory arm of the state was beginning its evolution into an educational service agency.

Table 19.

Functions of the Monroe County Board of Education, 1947-1962

<u>Services Functions</u>	<u>Governance Function</u>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Professional Development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consolidation of Rural Schools
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Maps and Census 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Special Education Resources
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Permissive Services when requested by a local Board of Education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Audits
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Determine Local Tax Revenues
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Maintain Libraries

County School District Services Function

Secretary

The county superintendent served as the secretary of the county board of education. His duties were to “put into practice the educational policies of the state and the county board of education” (Public Act No. 269, 1947, p. 415).

Professional Development

The county superintendent was the assistant conductor of the county institutes and was responsible for collecting the related fees and submitting them to the county treasurer. The county superintendent also could audit records, upon the direction of the Michigan Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Libraries

The county board of education was also responsible for recommending books and instructional equipment to be purchased for school libraries in schools not employing a Superintendent.

Maps and Census

It was the county board of education's responsibility to ensure that a map of the county was produced and distributed with the boundaries of all the school districts therein. These maps were to be updated as school districts were reorganized. The county board of education was also required to conduct a school census on an annual basis.

Permissive Services

Perhaps most significantly, the county board of education was "empowered to furnish services on a consultant or supervisory basis to any school district employing a superintendent of schools upon request of the board of education of that district" (Michigan Public Acts No. 269, 1947, pp. 412-413).

County School District Governance Function

Supervision

The county superintendent had administrative duties related to those primary school districts without superintendents. He recommended teachers for hiring, supervised, and reported to those local boards not having superintendents.

Resources

Under the "County School District Act" (Michigan Public Acts No. 269, 1947, p. 411) the county treasurer was required to report to the county board of education concerning delinquent taxes. The county board of education would, in turn, determine the amounts available to each district and notify them accordingly. The county board of

education was now authorized to adopt its budget independent of county government though the county board of supervisors appropriated the money. Costs, thus approved, were to be submitted to the county clerk and the tax allocation board or board of county auditors, where appropriate, and paid from county taxes.

Consolidated Schools

The county board of education was given the authority to alter school district boundary lines and organize new districts. In fact, the role of the townships concerning school districts was eliminated. In essence, the county superintendents' primary responsibilities were to supervise the rural school districts, to bring about their consolidation, and to manage the resulting conflict.

The business-scientific ideology called for the efficient consolidation of rural schools. Tyack (1974) explained that "beginning in the 1890s and gaining momentum in the early twentieth century, reformers mounted an attack on the Rural School Problem" (p. 21). This attack, which focused on the shortcomings of the small rural school at the exclusion of its strengths, was observed in the writings of the Michigan State Superintendents of Public Instruction in their annual reports throughout the late nineteenth and early mid-twentieth centuries. These reports generally supported the need to prepare students for a future in a changing community different than the one in which the student lived.

The solutions for the perceived shortcomings of the small rural one-room school were consolidated districts, standardized curriculum, professional supervision, and vocational training. The first order of business for the county board of education was to oversee the reduction in the number of primary school districts. The county board's first actions signaled its authority to change boundary lines and served as a condensation

symbol. The schools belonged to the state, and, in a form of educational federalism, the county intermediate unit would carry out its duty of setting boundaries.

On January 9, 1948, Mr. George Cantrick, Superintendent of Monroe Public Schools, addressed the Monroe County Board of Education to address concerns about Monroe Public Schools' willingness to continue to accept non-resident students. Mr. Cantrick expressed his views that while non-resident students "would not be refused in the foreseeable future," neither was Monroe Public Schools interested in extending [its] boundaries" (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, January 9, 1948). The meetings concerning the alteration of boundaries through annexation or consolidation were often contentious as citizens held strong beliefs about their schools. Property transfer requests by owners heavily impacted districts, particularly primary schools, due to the loss of tax base and even the loss of the children in the families, should the property be transferred. Traditions, familial relationships, and race all came into play when school district reorganization was the issue.

COMMISSIONER of SCHOOLS
ISAAC GROVE
COUNTY AUDITOR
J. EMMETT KIRBY
COUNTY CLERK
J. GOLDEN ZABEL
COUNTY TREASURER
ANTON W. MUNCH
DRAIN COMMISSIONER
MELVIN W. BASTIAN

County of Monroe
Monroe, Michigan

JUDGE of PROBATE
JOHN J. BECK
PROSECUTING ATTORNEY
POSTER D. LUSE
REGISTER of DEEDS
CLAIR B. ROE
SHERIFF
RAY GENSLER
SURVEYOR
ORRY A. CASE

County Superintendent
of Schools
Monroe, Michigan

October 9, 1947

Monroe County Auditor
Monroe
Michigan

Dear Mr. Kirby:

The following budget for the County Superintendent of Schools office for 1948 is being submitted to you for your presentation to the Monroe County Board of Supervisors during the October session of 1947.

Officer's Salary.....	\$240.	
Clerk's Salary.....	1820.	
Extra Help.....	800.	(Delinquent tax reports, Annual Report to Lansing, and a school girl)
Postage.....	200.	
Telephone & Telegram	150.	
Printing & binding.....	100.	
Office supplies.....	250.	
Travel.....	400.	(incl. Co. Board of Education)
Maintenance Equip.	50.	
Capitol Outlay.....	240.	
Child Accounting.....	250.	
Lenawee Co. Normal.....	2500.	
Total.....	<u>7000.</u>	

Isaac Grove
County Superintendent
of Schools

Figure 42: 1948 Budget.¹

An example of the importance the local people placed upon the reorganization of their schools and the intense conflict governed by the Monroe County Board of Education and the Monroe County Superintendent during this era was a consolidation involving the primary school districts of Whiteford Township.

¹ From: Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1.

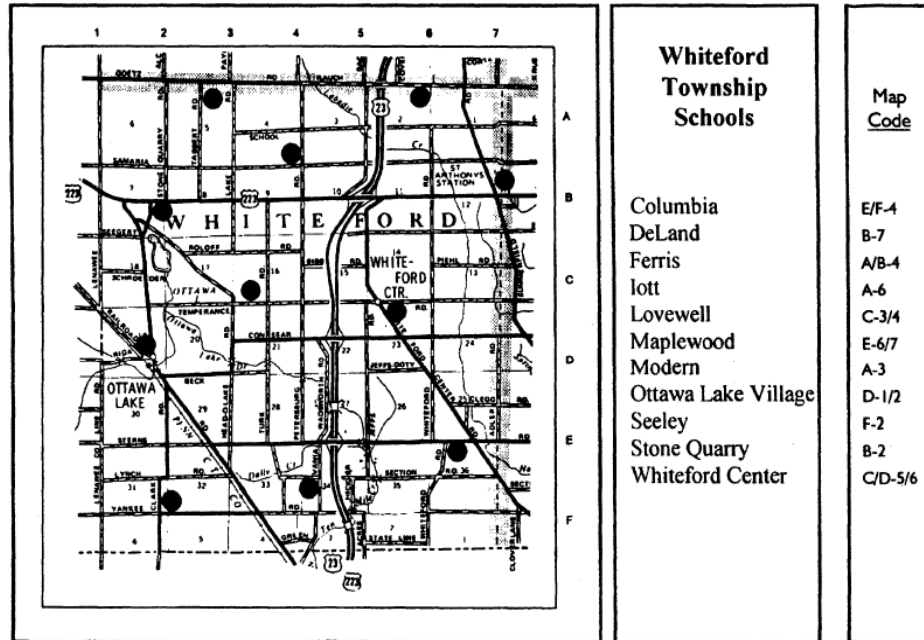


Figure 43: Whiteford Township Schools.¹

The Monroe County Board of Education (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, May 10, 1954) held a special meeting on May 10, 1954 to consider the “legal petitions calling for a school reorganization in the following districts:

- Whiteford No. 1, Monroe County [Stone Quarry School]
- Whiteford No. 2, Monroe County [Ottawa Lake]
- Whiteford No. 3, Monroe County [Columbus]
- Whiteford No. 4, Monroe County [Ferris School]
- Whiteford No. 5, Monroe County [Seeley]
- Whiteford No. 6, Monroe County [Whiteford Center]
- Whiteford No. 7, Monroe County [Maplewood]
- Whiteford No. 9, frl. [fractional]; Monroe County [Modern]
- Riga No. 2, Lenawee County
- Riga No. 7, Lenawee (p. 107)

¹ From: Country Schools of Monroe County Michigan, 2001, by H. W. Hartline et al., Meyers and Robert Trace.

The requested vote required the approval of Mr. Claire Taylor, Michigan State Superintendent of Public Instruction. Superintendent Taylor had informed Mr. Grove that he would not approve the vote until he received the petitions from a proposed consolidation that involved the Blissfield Schools, the Deerfield Schools, and 31 primary school districts. The Blissfield Schools' consolidation involved the majority of districts in the Monroe County plan and was being organized by the Lenawee County Board of Education. At the meeting on May 10, 1954, the Monroe County Board of Education voted to forward a letter to Superintendent Taylor requesting that he approve the Whiteford Township reorganization it was pursuing for the following reasons:

1. There is no plan, except the Whiteford plan, whereby three districts, Whiteford 3, 6, and 7, would be included. These three districts involving over 300 elementary pupils do not seem to be wanted by any other reorganization. It may be that Whiteford No. 7 is not wanted because of mixed races in the district.
2. It is too far under the alternative plan for a large part of Whiteford Township. It would be as much as 15-20 miles for a large part of Whiteford under the other [Lenawee] plan.
3. The Whiteford area will be big enough anyway when the lower grades get into the high school.
4. The area will grow because of better schools and school bus transportation.
5. The St. Lawrence seaway will build up Monroe and Toledo, and Monroe County will be a settling ground.

6. If part of this area is lost from the Whiteford area, what is left might be too small.
7. Practically all of Whiteford Township is for the consolidation; there appears to be no opposition to the proposed Whiteford consolidation anywhere in Monroe County.

On June 18, 1954, the Monroe Evening News reported on the Whiteford Township

Reorganization, which called for a high school building “to house grades 7 to 12, at a central location on a site of at least 40 acres, and at a cost of approximately \$20,000.00” (School merger plans, 1954, June 18, pp. 1, 16).

On July 1, 1954, the Monroe Evening News reported on the proposed Lenawee County consolidation of the Blissfield and Deerfield School Districts, along with 31 other primary districts. Included in these primary school districts were three Monroe County School Districts, “Whiteford Township, 1, Stone Quarry School; 4, Ferris School, and 9 fractional, Modern School” (Two County School Merger Petitions filed, 1, July, 1954). The controversy centered on the fact that residents from five of the districts included in the proposed reorganizations, the three previously mentioned and two primary districts located in Lenawee County’s Riga township (Riga 2 and 7), signed petitions approving both reorganization proposals consisting of these five, in addition to Ottawa Lake, 2, Columbus, 3, Suley, 5, Whiteford Center, 6, and Maplewood, 7. It was the intention of the Whiteford (Monroe County) consolidation to form an agricultural school with a high school. Monroe County officials maintained that there were not enough students for a high school program if the five districts involved in the Blissfield merger were to be excluded from Monroe County’s plans.

Initially Mr. Taylor compromised and made the county line the boundary, thus the Lenawee County Schools (Riga Township 1 and 2), would be part of the Blissfield consolidation (Lenawee County), and the Monroe County Schools (Whiteford Townships 1, 4 and 9) would be part of the Whiteford consolidation. Soon, however, he changed his position, apparently at the urging of local citizens from Riga Township, who traveled to Lansing to present their petitions. Superintendent Taylor reversed himself and decided to allow the three Monroe County Districts to participate in the Blissfield consolidation (County districts again included, 1954, July 22, p. 1). A special session of the Monroe County Board of Education was called on July 19, 1954. The Monroe Evening News reported that Mr. Grove's "survey of the Whiteford area" revealed "alleged untruths" (School Board Seeking Election, 1954, July 20, pp. 1, 16). These "alleged untruths" included "rumors allegedly circulated" to get residents to sign a petition requesting consolidation with Blissfield (School Board Seeking Election, 1954, July 20, pp. 1, 16). During the July 19, 1954, meeting, the Board of Education discussed the "alleged misstatements" made by those petition carriers seeking support for the Blissfield consolidation (p. 121). These "alleged misstatements" (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, July 19, 1954) were documented as follows:

1. There would be no school bus transportation if the Whiteford area reorganized.
2. There would be no high school in Whiteford Township or it would only be through the tenth grade.
3. The high school pupils would have to go to Petersburg, and that Petersburg was bringing about the Whiteford consolidation with a selfish

motive in mind (some of the people do not want their children to go to Petersburg).

4. That the Whiteford Township school would be a small school and would have to hire the scum of the teachers.
5. The school taxes would be 10 % (percent) of the valuation each year.
6. The petitions to reorganize the township that had been sent to Isaac Grove had been lost, or were not now effective.
7. It was further misstated that Isaac Grove, Monroe County School Superintendent, is in favor of reattaching the three districts in question to Blissfield and had made out the petitions.
8. That the Whiteford area had never been approved anyway and they should join Blissfield or they might be forever left out of a consolidated school.

(p. 122)

The county board and superintendent categorically denied the allegations. They directed Superintendent Grove to contact Superintendent Taylor and ask for immediate approval of the Monroe County Board of Education's Whiteford Township plan for reorganization and election.

The Monroe County Board of Education officially voiced its disapproval in a letter on July 3, 1954. The letter referred to the Whiteford protest petition that had resulted in the state superintendent of public instruction's change of mind regarding the matter as "regrettable and highly unethical" (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, July 23, 1954, p. 127). Nevertheless, the election considering the Lenawee County plan was held and the Blissfield proposal was defeated. The state law required that the proposed consolidation carry amongst the Blissfield voters, the

Deerfield voters, and the voters within the 31 primary districts affected. The Blissfield proposal was approved only in Blissfield. According to the Monroe Evening News, “Action to resume the consolidation plan involving eight districts in Whiteford Township and two in Riga Township, Lenawee County will start immediately” (*Voters Defeat Lenawee County*, 1954, p. 1). It was now the Monroe County Board of Education’s plan that would be voted upon.

Mr. Grove reportedly met with school officials in each of the ten primary school districts through September (*School Merger Vote*, 1954, August 27, p. 1). The petitions were approved and a vote was held on Friday, October 1, 1954.

The merger of the ten schools was approved 891 yes to 253 no. The number of total ballots cast, 1,164, was 117 higher than the number of registered voters in the districts. Prior registration was not required to vote in a school election at that time (*Whiteford Decides*, 1956, October 2, p. 1).

SCHOOL REORGANIZATION
BALLOT
OCTOBER 1, 1954

Shall a rural agricultural school district be established by uniting all of the territory of the following districts into one rural agricultural school district?

School District No. 1, Whiteford Township, Monroe County, Michigan.
School District No. 2, Whiteford Township, Monroe County, Michigan.
School District No. 3, Whiteford Township, Monroe County, Michigan.
School District No. 4, Whiteford Township, Monroe County, Michigan.
School District No. 5, Whiteford Township, Monroe County, Michigan.
School District No. 6, Whiteford Township, Monroe County, Michigan.
School District No. 7, Whiteford Township, Monroe County, Michigan.
School District No. 9 frl., Whiteford Township and Summerfield Township, Monroe County, Michigan.
School District No. 2, Riga Township, Lenawee County, Michigan.
School District No. 7, Riga Township, Lenawee County, Michigan.

INSTRUCTIONS: If you are in favor of the school reorganization place a cross (X) in the square to the left of the word "YES". If you are opposed to the school reorganization place a cross (X) in the square to the left of the word "NO".

YES
 NO

(Printed by Authority)

Figure 44: School Reorganization Ballot.¹

¹ From the Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, p. 140.

The reorganization took effect with the election victory on October 1, 1954, but a group of Whiteford residents favoring the Blissfield consolidation sought to stop it via court action (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, November 8, 1954, pp. 147-148). The case was appealed to the State Supreme Court, which ruled on Monday, September 30, 1956, that the election was legal. The contested election essentially put the Whiteford consolidation plan on hold while the case proceeded. The district could not seek funding for the planned new high school. Prior to the Supreme Court ruling, the consolidation issue continued to be contested locally with the residents of the Whiteford Township area seeking property transfers through the processes allowed in the state school code. Board of Education decisions regarding these matters were put on hold during the progression of the case through the court. With the Supreme Court ruling, a bond issue was passed by Whiteford and Riga Township voters, and on January 17, 1958, the Whiteford High School was opened (Fetzer, 1976, p.125).

End of the Consolidated Schools Era

In 1968, the last Monroe County primary school, Scofield, closed its doors for the final time. Its students were attached to the Monroe Public and Airport Community Schools. The Monroe County Board of Education and its county superintendent, Isaac Grove, had done their job well. “In 1945 there were 141 school districts in Monroe County, according to Superintendent Grove, and by 1955 the number had been reduced to 21” (End of Education Era, 1968, August 21, p. 1). It would take twelve additional years for the number of local districts to be further reduced to the current number, nine.

Summary and Analysis

The underlying conflict over the control of education between the state and the local community intensified and culminated in the removal of the primary rural school

from the Michigan system of public education. During the mid-twentieth century the Monroe County Board of Education, elected by the local social elites, and its appointed Superintendent carried out the State of Michigan's long professed policy of improving schools through consolidation. By 1955 the number of Monroe County districts was reduced from 141 to 21. In 1968 its last primary school district closed. The state's business-scientific ideology and the municipal reform movement had professionalized the administration and centralized the policy making structure of Michigan's System of Public Education.

Still, the political myth of local control of education would survive but certainly within a different context in the future. The consolidated school district was a first step in taking schools away from the people whose children attended them (Iannaccone and Lutz, 1995, p. 45). According to Iannaccone and Lutz (1995), "The policy premise was that increasing the size of the district would produce more efficient schools and save money" (p. 45). This was in alignment with the business-scientific ideology. Of course, consolidation would also mean "job enhancement" and "universal salaries for administrators and support staff" (Iannaccone and Lutz, 1995, p. 45). The improved status of the professional classes was aligned with the municipal reform movement. Iannaccone and Lutz (1995) further stated, "Consolidation reflected two forces: (1) organized professional demands and (2) demographic mobility toward urbanization of the whole society" (p. 45). Like the rural community, the county school was losing its traditional identity. Industry and business organizations were the forces of change in the economy and in education. Initially, virtually every meeting of the Monroe County Board of Education was consumed by the issues of consolidation, annexation, property transfers, and boundaries.

The governmental function of controlling conflicts was in ample evidence as the county board of education and superintendent redrew school boundaries and children were assigned to attend schools beyond walking distance. This distancing of schools, while popular with many professionals, was wrought with conflict in the local arena. The successful management of this conflict was of critical importance to county residents, the State of Michigan, and public education. This importance of the county boards of education's services was evidenced by the actions people took to preserve their "right" to choose which school their children would attend and the measures to which the board would go to invoke its authority.

The Michigan Supreme Court's decision to uphold the Whiteford Township School's consolidation illustrated the limits of parental choice that would come with rural school consolidation. The power of the state to set boundaries and determine which schools children would attend was firmly established by the county board of education's actions. The rural school consolidations which had been moving too slowly in the eyes of the state's professional educational leaders and policy entrepreneurs would move forward.

In spite of its faults, particularly in the large cities, the results of consolidation of school governance was characterized by Iannaccone (1995) as follows:

After all the sophisticated sneering of the intelligentsia in a life-time career in world-class universities has been suffered through, all the popular plaints of political losers have been heard and all the cynical pleas on behalf of the poor by wealthy media, movie and sports millionaires has been appropriately discounted, it is still a fact that more citizens come closer to day-to-day government and have

more opportunities to influence public decisions in the typical school district arena than in any other governing body. (p. 49)

The consolidation of schools had impacted the participation of the local citizens in the operation of rural local schools but certainly not eliminated it.

State Special Education

Gradually, the cultural and societal myth-complex concerning who should attend school began to change. In 1944 the Visiting Teachers Program was instituted in Michigan to address the needs of students with emotional and behavioral problems. In 1949, the state authorized local districts to provide certain programs for “mentally handicapped children” (One Hundred and Fifth Annual Superintendent’s Report, 1961, p. 46). These legislative actions were permissive and not mandatory in their effect.

Superintendent Thurston (Ninety Ninth Annual Superintendent’s Report, 1948), reflected an evolving myth-complex in his report defining “exceptional children” as follows:

The term **exceptional children** is applied to those children who, because of physical, mental, or emotional deviations, need additional services not required by non-exceptional children. The home-bound or hospitalized children, those suffering from crippling conditions, the cardiopathic, the acoustically or visually handicapped, or those of lowered vitality are the physically handicapped. Children who are mentally defective or slow or those who have brain injuries are included in the mentally handicapped group. Children with behavior problems, including not only the delinquent or pre-delinquent but also those who are overly aggressive or recessive, are considered as emotionally disturbed. Those having several types of handicaps are classified as the multiple-handicapped children. (p. 10)

Superintendent Thurston (Ninety-Ninth Annual Report of the Superintendent, 1948) stated that, “In many cases the exceptional child should attend the classes for non-exceptional children, but specialized services and thoroughly trained consultants should be available to the regular teacher. In other instances the child should attend regular classes for normal children part- time and go to other classes for specialized services” (p. 11). The following programs were available to students when districts chose to provide them (Michigan Department of Public Instruction, Circular No. 12, 1960):

- a. Type I Programs – These programs were designed for the “physically handicapped.” Type I Programs were classes for the “deaf or hard of hearing,” classes for the “blind,” classes for “sight saving,” classes for “crippled,” and classes for the “epileptic.”
- b. Type II Programs – These programs were for those students “homebound” [or] “hospitalized.”
- c. Type III Programs – These programs were provided by the “speech correctionist.”
- d. Type IV Programs – these programs were provided by “teacher counselors” for the “physically handicapped.”
- e. Type A Classes – These classes were for the “mentally handicapped” who were “potentially socially competent.” Pupils enrolled in Type A Classes could be integrated into regular classes “in all but one session each day.”
- f. Type B Classes – These classes were for the “mentally handicapped” who “may be only partially socially competent.” Students within these classes were given two years to demonstrate that they could be served in the public school.

- g. Type C Teacher Consultant Programs – These teacher consultants would counsel with teachers, parents and students on behalf of “mentally handicapped” students who could be integrated into classes with non-handicapped students.
- h. School Diagnosticians of the Mentally Handicapped – These staff worked with a “screening committee” to determine whether “mentally handicapped” students entered into “Type A,” Type B,” or “Type C” programs.
- i. Visiting Teachers – These staff worked with students, teachers, parents, and others in assisting students with personal and social adjustment problems. (pp. 3-4)

The law allowed for room and board, transportation, and tuition under certain circumstances for districts when approved by the state superintendent of public instruction. County districts under Michigan’s permissive legislation were allowed to receive state aid for services to the homebound and hospitalized, speech correctionists, visiting teachers, teacher counselors for the physically handicapped, teacher consultants for the mentally handicapped, and diagnosticians for the mentally handicapped.

Resources

Pfeffer and Salancik (2003) have studied the manner in which organizations survive within the context of their environment. These researchers view “the ability to acquire and maintain resources” as the most important aspect of an organization’s survivability (Pfeffer and Salancik, 2003, p. 2). Thus, one of management’s key roles is to “guide and control” the organization by manipulating the environment (Pfeffer and Salancik, 2003, p. 18). Organizational actors create linkages within the environment that result in mutual interdependencies, thus creating less uncertainty in the environment

(Pfeffer and Salancik, p. 143). One of the earliest examples of these efforts of linkage and interdependence within the environment was observed in the area of special education services.

On Friday, April 6, 1956, at the Custer School in Monroe Township, a meeting of the Monroe County Board of Education was held to discuss a countywide vote as was allowed just several months before by the Michigan Legislature (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, April 6, 1956, p. 237). This special meeting was called to address a request by the Monroe County Mental Health Committee to vote on the question of whether Monroe County would fall under sections 309-327 of the 1955 school code. The Mental Health Committee, led by Dr. Barrett, asked the Monroe County Board of Education to levy ½ mil for fifteen years. After a separate deliberation that began at 11:15 p.m., the Monroe County Board of Education adopted a resolution calling for an election to be held either on June 11 or July 9, 1956, to determine whether Monroe County would fall under the provisions of Act No. 269 on the Public Acts of 1955, as amended. In addition, the question requesting that the people of Monroe County tax themselves one-half of one mil from 1956 to 1970 for purposes of funding special education services was placed on the ballot.

The county board of education (Grove, 1956) was ultimately required by law to place the special education matter on the ballot in the form of two propositions.

Proposition No. I – “Shall the County School District of Monroe County, State of Michigan, come under the provisions of Sections 309 to 327, inclusive, of the School Code of 1955 which are designed to encourage the education of handicapped children; Provided, That any annual property tax levied for

administration shall be limited to one-half of one mill from 1956 to 1970 inclusively?"

Yes _____

No _____

Proposition No. II – “Shall the limitation on the total amount of taxes which may be assessed each year against all property in the County School District of Monroe County, Michigan, for all purposes except taxes for the payment of interest and principal on obligations incurred prior to December 8, 1932, be increased as provided in Section 21, Article X of the Constitution of the State of Michigan of 1908 for the years 1956 to 1970, both inclusive, by one-half of one mill (50c per \$1,000.00) of the assessed valuation as equalized, the proceeds of the levy thereof to be used for the purpose of carrying out the provisions of Sections 309 to 327, inclusive, of Act No. 269 of the Public Acts of 1955, as amended, which sections are designed to encourage the education of handicapped children?” (p. 266)

Yes _____

No _____

One unique aspect of Monroe County’s vote was that it would be held on two different days, depending on the date of the school election. Schools had two dates to choose from and Monroe County’s districts moved to vote on June 11 or July 9 in 1956.

An extensive campaign was put forth under the leadership of Isaac Grove and many others in the community. Dr. David Thams, Special Education Director of the Oakland County Board of Education, came to Monroe County to discuss that community’s experience, as the first in Michigan, and one of the first in the nation, to

implement special education under Michigan's permissive legislation. At the time of the election, Oakland County was the only county in Michigan to have passed a millage for this purpose. Presentations were done throughout the community concerning the need for special education services. The Monroe County Board of Education conducted a study that estimated that there were 2,000 public and parochial school students in need of special education support due to emotional problems (*2,000 Students Need Help*, 1956, June 6, p. 1). At the time of the vote, only Monroe City Schools offered any classroom programming for students with disabilities. Monroe City Schools had one orthopedic and three "other" special education classrooms serving 53 children. In addition, Monroe City Schools employed 1 ½ visiting teachers who addressed the needs of students with behavioral and emotional disorders. Monroe City Schools also offered a countywide homebound program. Monroe, Jefferson, and the Custer Districts offered "speech correction" (Grove, 1956, p. 22). The vote would be decided on the plurality of the total county vote. According to Grove (1956), approximately 304 students with "handicaps" were being served, with another 1,820 needing services. Grove (1956) included the following data in describing the need for special education services:

<u>Estimated Number in Monroe County</u>	<u>Now Receiving Special Education</u>
46	Blind or partially Sighted 8
346	Deaf or Deficient Hearing 15*
462	Other Handicaps (Epilepsy, Rheumatic fever, etc.) 18
231	Crippled or Heart Cases 14
735	Speech Defects 249
420	Mentally Handicapped 39
--	Emotionally Disturbed – (now being studied)

Proposition I passed 2,178 yes to 627 no, thus approving that Monroe County's schools would come under the special education laws contained in Provisions 309 to 327 of Michigan's School Code of 1955. Proposition II passed 1,865 yes to 773 no, which meant that Monroe County's Schools would levy ½ mill from 1956 to 1970 to support the special education programs enacted. The Monroe County Board of Education, Monroe County Superintendent Isaac Grove, and the local districts of Monroe County were prepared to act. At its July 20, 1956 meeting, the Monroe County Board of Education unanimously voted that the first special education budget would be 2/3 for capital outlay and 1/3 for operating expenses. The county board also agreed to request an advance of funds from the Monroe County Supervisors in anticipation of the tax collection. On August 17, 1956, the mandatory Special Education Advisory Board was appointed by the Monroe County Board of Education (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, 1954, August 17, p. 271). Those appointed were:

<u>District</u>	<u>Name</u>	<u>Position</u>
Monroe	Mr. Fred Strong	Superintendent
Ida	Mr. Harry Firestone	Superintendent
Jefferson	Mr. Harold Sordt	Superintendent
Custer	Mrs. Florence Merkle	Board Member
Airport	Mr. Loyal Boulton	Board Member
Dundee	Mr. Edward Rath	Board Member
Whiteford	Mrs. O. Graser	Layman
Bedford	Mrs. Edwin Hainey	Layman
Summerfield	Mrs. Keith Larzelere	Layman

The Monroe County Intermediate School District successfully passed Special Education millage levies in 1970, 1971, 1976, 1977, 1980, 1983, 1986, and 1991. In 2008-09, the Monroe County Intermediate School District special education budget is \$40,319,668.00. These funds are used to operate special education programs operated by the Monroe County Intermediate School District and to partially reimburse local districts for those programs which they operate.

Special Education Administration

On December 21, 1956, Mr. Walter Wend of Grand Rapids was hired as the Monroe County Director of Special Education (p. 319). On January 25, 1957, the Monroe County Board of Education passed a motion that all special education programs of Monroe County would be subject to the approval of the Monroe County Board of Education (pp. 321-322). The first special education “center” was formed by Summerfield, Ida, and Dundee to provide speech correction (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, 1957, p. 323).

The Monroe County Board of Education set reimbursement policies that limited the amount districts would expect to receive from the county for the salaries of special education employees. The amount of reimbursement was set according to staff experience and levels of educational attainment as recommended by the Monroe County Special Education Advisory Committee. Districts could pay their employees more but they would be responsible for the amount spent above the salary levels set by the Monroe County Board of Education.

The Monroe County Board of Education also established Diagnostic Service Centers based on the locations and the student population of districts. Staff would be assigned to districts based on their location and population. Considerable attention was paid during these early days of special education as to whether enough rooms existed to educate the students with disabilities, many of whom were not currently attending the local schools or were simply in general education classes with support services. Decisions also had to be made concerning who would pay for specialized equipment, who would pay to transport students, and how students with disabilities would be identified. The beginning of a separation of special education services and the students served therein from general education began almost immediately.

The Monroe County Board of Education, in cooperation with the local district school boards and Superintendents, decided to emphasize the development of programs for the “mentally handicapped,” “speech correction,” and “visiting teacher programs” (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, 1957, April 22, p. 355). They also went on record at this time as wanting to do “something” for “blind or deaf, if at all possible, this fall” (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, 1957, April 22, p. 355).

On May 3, 1957, the Monroe County Board of Education approved “the recommendation that a room for the deaf be established at the start of the 1957-58 school year in the Ida School District, the center of the county, with all non-resident district students” (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, p. 358). Soon the local school districts were building classrooms, which they would be reimbursed for by the Monroe County Board of Education. By the beginning of the 1958 school year, thirteen students were scheduled to attend the Ida Deaf Program, and a second teacher was hired.

By 1961 the Monroe County Board of Education had made significant progress in implementing special education programs and services in the community. Mr. Richard Kaminska, the Monroe County Special Education Director, delivered the following report (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, 1961, January 16):

Mr. Kaminska told the board 21 rooms have been built in the county or are under construction for special education purposes.

Two each are in use at Airport Community, Bedford Public, Custer, Jefferson, Mason Consolidated and Summerfield Schools for Type A mentally retarded children. Dundee Community Schools has one room.

For the physically handicapped, Ida Public School had two rooms and Monroe Public has three.

Jefferson, Mason and Whiteford Agricultural Schools each have applied for an additional room.

Airport has 2 programs for mentally retarded children, Custer 3, Dundee 1, Ida 2, Jefferson 1, Mason 2, Monroe 4, and Summerfield 1. Some 240 children are serviced.

Mason and Bedford cooperate in one of the county's speech correction programs. Ida, Dundee and Summerfield cooperate in another as do Jefferson and Custer and Airport and primary districts. Monroe has one program. The combined programs serve some 500 children.

A diagnostician program is offered at Ida, Custer, Dundee and Summerfield. Mason, Bedford and Whiteford cooperate in another as do Jefferson, Airport, and rural schools. One also is available at Monroe. About 800 children are served.

Monroe has two visiting teachers who serve 160 children, Mr. Kaminska pointed out. Three teachers handle the hard of hearing. There are 21 children in this classification, and they are taught at Ida.

A teacher and physical therapist handle 10 orthopedically handicapped children at Monroe.

Teachers for the homebound children programs serve 18 children.

Mr. Kaminska told the board that in order to provide services so they are available to the county according to population, 6 additional visiting teachers, 4 speech correctionists, 8 to 10 teachers for the mentally retarded and a diagnostician are needed.

Other programs needed in the county include a class for the emotionally disturbed, Type B programs for the mentally handicapped and a program for the visually handicapped.

Building needs for the future are four rooms in Ida, three at Bedford, two at Dundee and one at Custer, Mr. Kaminska explained. (pp. 162-163)

The County School District Special Education Act allowed county school districts to operate programs where local programs were not available. In these cases, county school districts could employ teachers and other personnel, provide transportation, provide equipment and supplies, and count children for state aid purposes. The dollars generated by the county tax, if levied, could be used to support constituent districts in financing added costs above the general per pupil state aid, build classrooms, purchase land, and provide equipment.

The 1963 budgets for special and general education reflected the growing dominance of special education in the activities of the Monroe County Intermediate School District. The general education budget was \$24,575.00, and the special education budget was \$306,138.00.

Conflict

Finding classrooms for special education students raised tensions amongst the Monroe County Board of Education and local superintendents. The Monroe County Board of Education meeting minutes (April 22, 1957) reported the following exchange between Superintendents Grove and Scheltema, of Bedford Schools, at the County School Boards Association Meeting “as a matter of information and record:”

Mr. Scheltema, on April 23 [sic], 1957, informed Mr. Grove that there is presently no space available in Bedford for special education rooms, and there will be none this fall, under present conditions, except two antiquated rural school rooms located in the same site at Banner Oak [a school built in 1871 and no longer used]. Mr. Grove informed Mr. Scheltema that if 2 rooms for the mentally handicapped are established at Banner Oak that this would be almost segregation of the pupils from the other boys and girls, and that such a situation might not

receive the approval of the State Department of Public Instruction. Mr. Grove asked Mr. Scheltema if he would be willing to send 2 rooms of normal pupils to the Banner Oak location in order to make room for 2 rooms for the mentally handicapped in the main buildings. (This would segregate the normal children, which are divided by grades, for the period of only one year each, while if the mentally handicapped were placed at Banner Oak it might very well end up being for their school lifetime.) Mr. Scheltema stated that he could not make a statement that he would send normal children to the Banner Oak School until he had taken the problem to the Bedford Board of Education and determined their desires regarding this subject. (p. 354)

The issue of transportation for special education students came to the forefront at the beginning of the 1958 school year. A county-wide meeting was held on September 3, 1958, "to discuss the transportation of the deaf and hard of hearing children to special education rooms in Ida" (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, p. 463). The following record of the meeting reflects the problems existing for the parents, educators, and students during these early days of educating children with disabilities (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, 1958, September 3, pp. 463-464):

Mr. Wend presented some of the difficulties in transporting these children to Ida. A long discussion followed which was participated in by everyone. The question was considered as to whose responsibility it was to transport these children to Ida. It was pointed out that the legal responsibility was clearly that of the parents, but that there might be a question as to the moral responsibility. It was pointed out that it could be considered that of the county board of education in its relationship

with special education and that it could also be considered the responsibility of the local districts as well as the parents. The possibility [sic] of a county vehicle was considered which could be purchased from the special education fund or possibly contributed by an organization.

The cost of the program on a county basis received careful consideration and it was pointed out by a county board member that the cost of this program could run as high as 10% of the total budget. It was also agreed by several county board members that the transportation of the deaf and hard of hearing children could establish a precedent for transportation of special education children that would be impossible to follow.

Mr. Weipert made the motion that the county should attempt to purchase the rooms and let the local districts and/or the parents be responsible for transporting the handicapped children. The motion was supported by Mr. Smith, voted on, and carried unanimously. This closed this subject for the time being and most of the guests left.

Mr. Wend was asked to check into the number of handicapped children that should be transported and report on this to the county board of education. (pp. 463-464)

The law also required an appointive board to advise the county board concerning special education. The board at minimum consisted of two school superintendents, three school board members, and the superintendent of public instruction or his agent.

The Formation of the Monroe County Intermediate School District

Ideology

State Educational Policy Entrepreneurs

The emerging prominence of organizations in the development of public policy was observed by this researcher in 1953 when the Michigan Association of County School Superintendents sponsored a study of the County Superintendency. The study was conducted by the Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago. Harlan D. Beem, Assistant Director of the Midwest Administration Center, and Thomas James, who replaced Mr. Beem, conducted a number of surveys throughout Michigan and worked with a screening committee made up of county superintendents, representatives of the Michigan Department of Public Instruction, and numerous professional associations with a stake in the future of the intermediate unit of educational governance in Michigan. The committee chairman was Charles Brake, Deputy Superintendent of Wayne County Schools. The report of the committee was completed in December of 1955. According to Beem and James (1956), the study sought to answer the questions: 1) should there be an intermediate unit of school administration? and 2) if so, what should be its nature?

One of the conclusions Beem and James (1956) reached was that the duties of the county boards of education were scattered throughout the law, “woven into the whole fabric of school law in the state” (Beem and James, p. 23). Beem and James (1956) reported,

The county superintendency is an old agency in our public school system, well established and well defined as to role in many states long before the city superintendent evolved to its present form. Because the office developed during the period when public education meant elementary education, the county

superintendent was identified firmly with elementary education. The development of secondary education, on the other hand, became identified with the growth of the independent city school system and the city superintendent of schools. The result has been that the county superintendent has come to be associated nationally with rural elementary education and it is only the occasional exception that has developed the staff and the vision to serve the twelve grades now recognized as constituting the public school system. One of the major problems in improving the effectiveness of the county superintendency—and it is largely a psychological problem—lies in identifying the office not only in the mind of the average citizen, but also in the minds of a great many county superintendents who do not now do so, with responsibilities for the whole twelve-grade educational program in the areas served. Until this coming-of-age can be realized in a great many more county superintendencies than it now is, efforts toward improvements will continue to falter and break against a very real and solid wall of different expectations of the role and function of the county superintendent held both by citizens shaping policy and by practicing incumbents of the office.” (Beem and James, p. 24)

The surveys returned showed that Michigan’s county superintendents were better trained than county superintendents in the Midwest in general. Nearly 70 percent of those answering questions (62) on the study concerning educational attainment had five years of college education (Beem and James, 1956, p. 25). At the time of the study, the salary range for county superintendents was from \$3,000-\$3,999 to \$12,000 and over. In eight counties, at the time of the study, the county superintendent was not a full-time job (Beem and James, 1956, p. 30). The study showed that the average county

superintendent's salary was about three-fifths of the average of the state's highest paid local district superintendents (Beem and James, pp. 30-31). "The percent of the county budget devoted to the county school office ranged from one-tenth of one percent to five and four-tenths percent. Counties appropriating the least proportion of their funds to the school office were the very rich and the very poor" (Beem and James, p. 33). The study found that county superintendents were "burdened with a tremendous amount of formal meetings" (Beem and James, p. 35). The study found that the county superintendents formed "a convenient line of communication for many community tasks (Beem and James, p. 38). The committee felt that the "intermediate unit could provide the following services in the future (Beem and James):

Services of the Intermediate Unit

1. Visual Aids. Film strips, projectors, motion pictures, maps, globes, charts, clipping services, magazines.
2. Central purchasing.
3. Direct services to exceptional children. Speech correction; schools for partially deaf, partially blind, mentally deficient, emotionally handicapped, homebound, gifted children.
4. Psychological services, Psychiatrists, interviewers, testing services.
5. Social casework.
6. Mental health clinics.
7. Transportation. Routing, training of drivers, cooperative repair and maintenance, cooperative purchasing, setting standards, county planning.
8. In-service training. General; special teachers where there are few in one district; administrators and supervisors; cafeteria workers; bus drivers.

9. Public relations. Work with citizens' groups, publicity, planning bond issues, planning rate referenda and other campaigns, radio-television and handbooks.
10. School building services. Planning and maintenance, clinics, architectural services.
11. Adult education. Trade and industrial education, itinerant [sic] teachers, cooperative community adult programs (training in social and cultural activities).
12. Coordination of supervision. Cooperative planning of curriculum construction, supervision, teacher improvement by resources from various units under direction of cooperating superintendents.
13. Financial services. Accounting, auditing, financial counseling, reporting.
14. Health services. School nurse, doctor, dental health, and hygiene.
15. Professional personnel services. Teacher placement service, substitute teacher pool, salary schedule development, coordination, sick leave policies. (pp. 53-54)

Beem and James (1956) encouraged the development of additional opportunities via permissive legislation. The permissive special education law that had been passed in 1955 was given as an example of this type of legislation. The committee made the following recommendations for "further research toward the solution of the problems of the intermediate unit" (Beem and James, 1956):

1. Wherever possible, newer practices in the intermediate unit should be tested and demonstrated before an attempt is made to promulgate them statewide.

2. The intermediate office will develop to full fruition only when there is general recognition of the need for some of the services which are not now being rendered by local districts. This implies a need for wide dissemination of the knowledge gained from successful experimentation. Solution of the problems of the intermediate unit office demands public awareness of the issues involved.
3. A method of continuous evaluation of the work of the intermediate school district should be developed.
4. Leadership offered by administrators in the intermediate office has a major bearing on the future development of that office.
5. Those who are to receive the services from the intermediate office should have a major voice in determining what those services are and in training the leadership to offer them.
6. Improvement of the intermediate school office should be geared to efforts to improve the state school system in general. (p. 60)

In addition, Beem and James (1956) developed a "Forecast of Action" which follows:

1. The development of an efficient intermediate office is an essential ingredient of the preservation of local control.
2. Since the initiative and leadership offered by the administration in the intermediate office have a major bearing on the future development of that office, means should be provided to:
 - a. make the office attractive to educational leaders;

- b. institute through the state department and colleges and universities an in-service growth program for those responsible for the intermediate district, both lay and professional;
 - c. provide a means for local organizations of administrators, school boards, citizens' committees and others to have a part in the development of this program.
3. The intermediate office will develop to full fruition only when there is general recognition of the need for some of the services not now offered.
4. Solution of the problems of the intermediate office demands better methods of arousing public interest, better methods of communication, and methods of evaluating progress.
5. Improvement of the intermediate school office depends upon improvement of the state school system in general.
6. The evolution of a better intermediate school office should start from the county district, and move gradually toward whatever unit is found to be desirable. A first step strongly urged by the Committee is experimentation with combining several counties into a single intermediate unit. (p. 61)

In its report, *The Intermediate Office of Education in Michigan* (1956), the committee, which came to be referred to as "The Michigan Advisory Committee on the Intermediate Unit," concluded:

The task given the intermediate unit in Michigan is more challenging than has been supposed. The county superintendent's interest in and responsibility for rural elementary education, though important, is but one of his concerns. In addition, there is a strong conviction that control should

be kept close to the people served. The above conclusions led to an early agreement: *an intermediate office will be needed in Michigan for an indefinite period of time.* (p. 2)

On December 1, 1958, the Monroe County Board of Education took the opportunity to review “the new chapter on the proposed intermediate school district” (Monroe County Intermediate School District Meeting Minutes, Book 1, December 1, 1958):

There was considerable strong objection to changing the present method of election of the county board members on the basis that the present method is satisfactory and that, therefore, a change is unnecessary and not advisable. It was mentioned that many of the county boards, and the county superintendents of the state, are opposed to local and county school reorganization. It was countered that the law requires the county superintendent to act on local reorganization requests and must do so regardless of personal prejudices. The question was also raised as to the number of counties that seem dissatisfied with the present method of selection of the county board of education members. Mr. Grove reported that he thought that there are a few, but only a few, according to reports, that are dissatisfied with the present method. The question was raised as to the number of counties boards of education in the state that may want a change in the present method of election. Mr. Grove replied that he had not heard of any dissatisfaction of the county boards themselves concerning their present method of election. It was also stated that this might eventually lead to the election of county board members becoming a political election, and it was unanimously agreed that the election of county board members should not get into politics.” (pp. 495-496)

*Educational Governance**State Laws, Regulation, Structure*

In 1962 Public Act No. 190 created the “intermediate school district” (Public and Local Acts of the Legislature, 1962). The act essentially transferred the educational services and governance functions of the County School District to the newly created intermediate school district. The act expressly prohibited the Intermediate School District from superseding or replacing the board of education of any constituent district. The law separated the governance of the intermediate school district from the county board of supervisors. No longer would the county intermediate unit of governance have its budget appropriated by the general county government. The special education funds were to be paid out upon order of the intermediate board. General fund monies would be distributed by the county tax allocation board, an independent body from the county supervisors. On March 15, 1963, the county board of education adopted the name Monroe County Intermediate School District. With the consolidation of schools, the educational professionals and local social elites were in firm control of the intermediate unit of educational government. Electors, chosen by the local district Boards of Education, would now elect the Trustee of the Monroe County Intermediate School District Board of Education. On January 8, 1970, the Monroe County Intermediate School District Board of Education conducted its first meeting at the administration building located at 1101 South Raisinville Road (Monroe County Intermediate School District Board of Education Minutes). This was significant in that since its establishment as an intermediate school district the board of education had secured control of its budget from the Monroe County Board of Supervisors and entered into ownership of its administrative facilities.

In 1971, Public Act No. 198 mandated every school district in Michigan to provide special education services to “handicapped children.” Public Act No. 198 (1971) broadened the definition of “handicaps” to “include, but are not limited to, mental, physical, emotional, behavioral, sensory, and speech handicaps” (p. 637). Public Act No. 198 (1971) prescribed specific “special education personnel” to educate “handicapped persons” including teachers, aides, social workers, diagnostic personnel, physical therapists, occupational therapists, audiologists, speech pathologists, instructional media curriculum specialists, mobility specialists, consultants, supervisors, and directors (p. 639). In accordance to the business-scientific ideology, specific and measurable diagnostic criteria would be used to determine the eligibility of students to receive special education services.

Summary and Analysis

With the successful consolidation of the primary schools, the county board of education and the county superintendent essentially eliminated their supervisory and rural school consolidation services. Likewise, the related governance responsibilities were eliminated by their successful work surrounding consolidation and the ever burgeoning state bureaucracy. In anticipation of this, policy entrepreneurs had successfully advocated for regulatory changes within the State of Michigan to provide opportunities for the county boards of education to create resource interdependencies within the local environment. In 1953 a statewide study was conducted by the Michigan Association of County School Superintendents. The study found that the county superintendents were identified with elementary education, well-qualified but under-funded by the county government. The study established a link between the county superintendent and many community tasks (Beem and James, 1956, pp. 25-38). The report encouraged the

development of permissive legislation to allow for additional opportunities to create resource interdependencies within the local education environment. Beem and James (1956) developed a “forecast for action” which follows:

1. The development of an efficient intermediate office is an essential ingredient of the preservation of local control.
2. Since the initiative and leadership offered by the administration in the intermediate office have a major bearing on the future development of that office, means should be provided to:
 - a. Make the office attractive to educational leaders;
 - b. Institute through the state department and colleges and universities an in-service growth program for those responsible for the intermediate district, both lay and professional;
 - c. Provide a means for local organizations of administrators, school boards, citizens’ committees and others to have a part in the development of this program.
3. The intermediate office will develop to full fruition only when there is general recognition of the need for some of the services not now offered.
4. Solution of the problems of the intermediate office demands better methods of arousing public interest, better methods of communication, and methods of evaluating progress.

5. Improvement of the intermediate school office depends upon improvement of the state school system in general.
6. The evolution of a better intermediate school office should start from the county district, and move gradually toward whatever unit is found to be desirable. A first step strongly urged by the Committee is experimentation with combining several counties into a single intermediate unit. (p. 61)

One of the issues the Beem and James (1956) committee failed to reach consensus on was the matter of how the lay board would be selected. One of the first areas the state authorized the county board of education to create resource interdependencies in was the education of students with disabilities. In December 1955, Public Act 299 was enacted to allow the County School District to receive permission from the voters to provide special education programs and to levy millages on a countywide basis to fund such programs. In 1956 the Monroe County Board of Education requested and received permission from voters to provide special education programs and to levy $\frac{1}{2}$ mills across the county for fifteen years to fund them.

Role and Governance Functions of the Monroe County Intermediate School District

State Regulation

In 1962 the successful consolidation of Michigan's school districts once again led to a change in the role of the intermediate unit of educational government in Michigan. The consolidation and professional administration of the rural schools allowed the state to supervise the local school districts without the intermediate unit of governance. In its place, the state would give the intermediate school districts expanded responsibilities relative to special education and vocational education services. These new governance

and service responsibilities reflected the dominant business-scientific and municipal ideologies in that they emphasized efficiencies, the consolidation of services, and professional management of school districts. The intermediate school district also controlled the approval and appropriations of its financial budget. No longer would the special education financial resources be subject to the general budget allocation process of the Monroe County Board of Supervisors. This resource control further separated the Monroe County Intermediate School District from general government.

Intermediate School District as a Policy Entrepreneur

The Monroe County Board of Education gave evidence of their roles as local policy entrepreneurs in the establishment of the Monroe County Community College. On June 6, 1955, a letter from Mrs. Mildred May, President of the Business and Professional Women's Club, requested "favorable consideration" of the following resolution (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, June 6, 1955):

WHEREAS, the costs of attending college have risen to a point which prevents many boys and girls in our community from gaining a college education; and

WHEREAS, many of these young people would be able to attend college if the first two years were offered locally; and

WHEREAS, our community would be improved by an increase in the educational opportunities offered to its citizens; therefore,

RESOLVED, that our community shall provide, as soon as possible, college facilities at first and second year levels for students who qualify, using the existing buildings and faculty from Monroe and surrounding schools.

RESOLVED, that this resolution be adopted by the Monroe County Council of Women's Organizations and placed in the Minutes of the June 8, 1955, meeting.

RESOLVED, that copies of this resolution be sent to the
BOARD OF EDUCATION OF THE CITY OF MONROE
THE MONROE CITY COMMISSION
MONROE COUNTY BOARD OF EDUCATION
MONROE COUNTY BOARD OF SUPERVISORS (pp. 173-174)

The county board of education elected to take no action but stated its agreement with the letter in principle, deciding that “further study would be necessary regarding the financing of such a program” (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, June 6, 1955, p. 174). According to DeVries (1984), “The first instance of record of local interest in the first two years of college” was this resolution “adopted by the Monroe Business and Professional Women’s Club at their April 13, 1955 meeting” (p. 7). There was little initial movement; however, Superintendent Grove was active in a State of Michigan study of Southeastern Michigan’s community college needs and on March 16, 1958, convened a meeting of Monroe citizens to discuss the possibility of such an entity for Monroe County (DeVries, 1984, p. 8). In 1958 the Martorana Study was released, which researched the needs of southeastern Michigan relative to community colleges. The report indicated that Monroe County “ranked 14th in per capita income” but “79th out of 83 counties in Michigan in the rate of high school graduates continuing with their education. Only 11.5 percent of Monroe County’s eligible youth were attending college” (DeVries, 1984, p. 8).

In spite of the need, neither the Monroe County Board of Education nor the Monroe County Chamber of Commerce took any immediate action. In January of 1961, in a joint meeting between the Monroe County Board of Education and Monroe County Supervisors, the needs for a community college were discussed (Monroe County Board

of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, January 9, 1961, p. 161). On July 21, 1961, Superintendent Grove reported the following request from the Monroe County Chamber of Commerce (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 2, July 21, 1961);

“...the Monroe County Board of Education, in cooperation with the other Boards of Education of Monroe County, and with any help needed from the Greater Monroe Chamber of Commerce, to sponsor a Citizens’ Committee to gather information that will lead to a vote by the electorate of Monroe County on the question of organizing a Community College District.” (p. 210)

On September 22, 1961, the Monroe County Board of Education approved the establishment of a county wide “Citizens’ Committee” with representatives from “various groups throughout the county including all school districts and all townships” (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 2, September 22, 1961, p. 220). Over the next several months following this meeting, the Monroe County Board of Education heard presentations from the Mayor of Monroe, Lawrence Frost, concerning his views of why the county needed a community college (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 2, October 20, 1961, pp. 224-225); Gerald Boicourt of Wayne State University, concerning a sixth county-wide study he was conducting (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 2, November 3, 1961, pp. 227-228); and Dr. Raymond Young of the University of Michigan, who presented a proposal on how to structure and conduct a study of the community concerning the community college (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 2, December 4, 1961, pp. 230-231). At the conclusion of this Monroe County Board of Education meeting, Dr. Young was “tentatively” hired to conduct a study “with a definite agreement

to be reached within about a month” or as soon as the funding could be secured to pay for it (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 2, December 4, 1961, pp. 230-231). It was estimated that the study would cost approximately \$4,000.00 to cover travel costs. All other costs were to be paid by the University of Michigan (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 2, December 4, 1961, pp. 230-231). On January 5, 1962, a meeting of representatives of all the county schools was held and the school districts were asked to help pay for the survey based on their districts state equalized valuation. The county board presented a model resolution, which each local board was requested to adopt, requesting the study and agreeing to contribute towards its cost based on their state equalized valuation. Districts were asked to recommend four people to serve on the advisory committee. It was noted in the minutes that districts without Superintendents would have less representation (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 3, pp. 236-237). In July 1963, the Citizens Committee, made up of 49 recognized participants, produced a 155-page “Citizens Survey of Monroe County” (1963). The “Citizens Survey of Monroe County” (1963) concluded with seventy-six points of “summary and conclusion” with the final being:

Data contained in this survey report support the recommendation that the Monroe County Board of Education take appropriate action as rapidly as possible to establish a public community college designed to serve the needs which exist for post high school level education. (p. 153)

The events surrounding the establishment of the community college intensified when Michigan’s new constitution passed in November 1963. According to DeVries (1984), “The new constitution did not contain adequate enabling provisions for the formation of a community college district” (p. 26). The constitution called on the

legislature to “provide by law for the establishment and financial support of public and junior colleges” (Constitution of the State of Michigan, 1963, p. 38). Unfortunately, the legislature had not done this. This problem was made even more immense due to the work already put forth by a Citizens Campaign Committee led by Louis M. Mclure of the Monroe County Chamber of Commerce, which had targeted the spring of 1964 for the election to take place. Isaac Grove was in Lansing the day the law was passed on April 27, 1964, and returned to attend a meeting of the Monroe County Intermediate School District Board of Education at 3:00 p.m. that day. With the passage of enabling legislation, as required by the constitution, the Board of Education approved the necessary resolution and petitioners had just three days to get 1,000 valid signatures supporting the resolution to the County Clerk.

The local and state policy entrepreneurs continued to work together to see that the community college proposal would be on the ballot. On April 17, 1964, the Monroe County Intermediate School District’s Board of Education approved the request of the Monroe County Chamber of Commerce to have the following statement on the leaflets to be circulated promoting the matter of the establishment of the community college on the ballot: “The project approved by the Monroe County Intermediate School District Board of Education” (Monroe County Intermediate School District Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 2, April 17, 1964, p. 426).

On April 29, 1964, 6,949 petition signatures were submitted to the Monroe County Clerk, requiring a special election to be called on the community college issue by June 29, 1964 (Monroe County Intermediate School District Board of Education Meeting Minutes, May 4, 1964, Book 2, p. 433). On May 4, 1964, the Monroe County Intermediate School District approved the necessary resolution putting the issues of 1)

forming a community college district for Monroe County, and 2) levying up to 1.25 mills to finance and operate the college on the June 29, 1964, ballot. On that day, the vote was 4,487 yes to 2,501 no votes in favor of creating the college and 4,228 yes to 2,587 no votes in favor of providing the requested funds.

Mandatory Special Education

The intermediate school district board of education had extensive duties assigned to it in implementing mandatory special education under Public Act No. 198. Under this law (Public Act No. 198, 1971), the law stated

“That the Intermediate Board shall:”

- a. Develop, establish and continually evaluate and modify in cooperation with its constituent school districts, a plan for special education which shall provide for the delivery of special education programs and services designed to develop the maximum potential of every handicapped person of which the board is required to maintain a record under subdivision (f). The plan shall coordinate the special education programs and services operated or contracted for by the constituent school districts and shall be submitted to the state board of education for its approval. (p. 640)

The intermediate school district board of education was required to contract for or directly provide special education or related services in accordance with the county plan. The intermediate school district board of education was mandated to employ a county director of special education who would meet state standards. The county intermediate school district was responsible for maintaining records on all handicapped persons up to 25 years of age. Michigan’s special education law mandated special education services

from birth to age 25 years of age, unless the student graduated from high school. The intermediate school district board of education could place any “handicapped” person into “appropriate special education programs or services” (Public Act No. 198, 1971). Public Act 198 (1971) mandated that transportation services be provided to students who required it. The intermediate school district board was now authorized to investigate constituent school districts and report any failures to comply with Michigan’s law or the intermediate school districts special education plan. The state would now also allow the intermediate school district to own facilities in which special education programs could be operated (pp. 639-640). The intermediate school district board would have responsibility for the implementation of mandatory special education. In 1973, the Monroe County Intermediate School District opened the Monroe County Educational Center for the purpose of educating students with moderate to severe cognitive disabilities.

County Technology Enhancement Resources

With the passage of Proposal A in March of 1994, Michigan’s citizens shifted the funding of public education away from local property taxes. According to Arsen and Plank (2003), “Proposal A marks an unprecedented shift of power in Michigan’s education system, from local communities to state officials” (p. ii). Under Proposal A, the only local general operating revenue available to local school districts is through the intermediate school district. This millage source is an enhancement millage. Under this provision of Proposal A, school districts can levy up to three additional mills on property within the ISD with the approval of local voters. The enhancement millage must be approved by a majority of voters in the ISD, and the new revenues must be distributed

across all of the constituent school districts in the ISD on a uniform basis (Arsen and Plank, 2003. p. 34)

On February 18, 1997, the Monroe County Intermediate School District passed a resolution placing an enhancement millage for educational technology on the June 9, 1997, ballot (Monroe County Intermediate School District Meeting Minutes Book 9, 1997, February 18). This millage request of one mill, the first of its kind in Michigan, was approved for five years by a vote of 3,847 yes to 3,544 no. On June 11, 2001, and May 2, 2006, the regional enhancement millage was renewed by voters for additional five-year periods. Though the entirety of these funds is distributed to the nine local school districts, the intermediate school district's control of these scarce financial resources has strengthened the interdependency between these organizations. This interdependency has contributed to instructional and informational technology becoming services provided by the Monroe County Intermediate School District. During the period of 1997-2007, the technology enhancement millage generated \$52,845,971 for Monroe County's local school districts. Providing distance learning and information technology services also became an important service function of the Monroe County Intermediate School District during this period.

The Role and Educational Services Function of the Monroe County Intermediate School District

Consolidation of Services

With the successful consolidation of the rural local school districts, the county intermediate school districts were given the ability to consolidate educational services in cooperation with their local school districts. This "enablement" was in keeping with the dominant business-scientific ideology.

Student Enrichment

The successful consolidation of schools changed the scope of the enrichment services offered by the Monroe County Intermediate School District. No longer would the organized athletics, offered as part of the countywide Youth Day be provided. The Monroe County Spelling Bee, however, remained as an enrichment activity. Other enrichment activities were developed by the Monroe County Intermediate School District, including the Monroe County Science Fair, Young and Secondary Authors, Student Leadership Conference, Quiz Bowl Competition, and numerous summer academic related camps.

Data Processing

On November 7, 1962, the Monroe County Board of Education and Superintendent Grove met with representatives of local school districts, county agencies, and IBM to discuss the possibility of joining together to form a “data processing center in Monroe County” (Board of Education Meeting Minutes, November 7, 1962, p. 307). Over the next several years, the Monroe County Intermediate Board of Education would begin to explore the possibilities of providing data processing services to its local school districts. In May 1968, the Monroe County Intermediate School District Board of Education employed a “data processing coordinator” and purchased an IBM key punch machine for each district. The Monroe County Intermediate School District Board of Education entered into a contract with the Washtenaw Intermediate School District to provide data processing in 1968. On October 9, 1969, the Monroe County Intermediate School District Board of Education decided to operate its own data processing services. For some time, beginning in 1971, the school districts of Flat Rock, Gibraltar, Grosse Isle, Southgate, Woodhaven, and all of Monroe County, were part of a technology

consortium with the Monroe County Intermediate School District. The Monroe County Community College also was served via the consortium. On February 17, 1976, the Monroe County Intermediate School District purchased a Burrough's Model B 1726 computer system at a cost of \$239,688.00. Payroll, secondary report cards, and media center booking were being shared through the Monroe County Intermediate School District. Other school districts, both private and public, in the Detroit and Toledo areas joined the consortium. On October 19, 1993, the Monroe County Intermediate School District Board of Education accepted a study done by the Michigan School Business Officials of its data processing services. The district would eventually change systems and in 1995 entered into an agreement with the Lenawee Intermediate School District to operate a data processing consortium. In 1999 the Monroe County Intermediate School District Board of Education, under the leadership of Gerald Wing, Superintendent, would construct a fiber optic network to each of Monroe County's nine local school districts. The local school districts then connected their buildings to the intermediate school district's fiber. Monroe County's schools were now on the digital highway.

Instructional Technology

With the construction of the fiber network, the Monroe County Intermediate School District and its local school districts formed a distance learning consortium in 2005. This consortium now provides distance learning classes over the internet among its local school districts, the Monroe County Community College, the Mercy Memorial Hospital System, and the Monroe County Historical Museum.

Professional Development

Following the 1954-55 school year, the Lenawee-Monroe County Normal School closed as mandated by the State of Michigan. The normal school had served its purpose;

Isaac Grove reported that from 1947 to 1949, 17 of 20 Monroe County teaching positions were filled with Lenawee-Monroe County Normal School graduates. The state was now completely responsible for pre-service teacher training through its normal colleges. The Monroe County intermediate unit of government's commitment to providing professional development services would reassert itself following its reorganization as an intermediate school district.

Soon after its establishment, the Monroe County Intermediate School District met and considered "the need to build up a supply of reading materials at the intermediate office" (Monroe County Intermediate School District Meeting Minutes, Book 2, 1963, May 6, p. 344). With the inception of mandatory Special Education, the intermediate school districts were given significant responsibilities and categorical funding for professional development. The local school districts would also eventually direct federal funding to the Monroe County Intermediate School District on a voluntary basis for professional development purposes. In 1997 a county-wide in-service was created to once again provide an annual professional development activity for Monroe County educators.

In 1998, following the loss of a lawsuit, the State of Michigan agreed to pay the school districts of Michigan for its failure to fund special education in accordance with the Headlee amendment to the state constitution. This settlement of the lawsuit resulted in the Monroe County Intermediate School District receiving \$5.9 million over a ten-year period. A portion of these funds were used by the Monroe County Intermediate School District to construct a professional development center. The creation of this facility would greatly strengthen the professional development services of the Monroe County Intermediate School District.

Summary and Analysis

Services Function

With the creation of the county intermediate school district in 1962, the State of Michigan changed the role of the intermediate unit of government. The Monroe County Intermediate School District would change from consolidating rural school districts to consolidating educational services within the negotiated local educational environment.

Special Education Services

The Monroe County Intermediate School District and its local districts have negotiated a special education delivery system that shares the operational control of special education classroom and support personnel. This delivery system has been developed in alignment with the dominant business-scientific ideology's value of efficiency.

Data Processing

Since 1994 the Monroe and Lenawee County Intermediate School Districts have formed a consortium to provide internet access and software to the twenty-three school districts within the two counties. These intermediate school districts have connected their districts to a fiber optic network.

Instructional Technology

The Monroe County Intermediate School District and its constituent local school districts formed a distance learning consortium in 2005. Interactive classes are provided over the internet involving students from all of Monroe County's school districts.

Student Enrichment

The Monroe County Intermediate School District offers student enrichment services ranging from the county spelling bee to the science fair to summer camps that involve students from throughout Monroe County.

Professional Development

In 2001 the Monroe County Intermediate School District opened its Professional Development Center. This facility serves as the focal point for offering shared professional development services to teachers, support personnel, and administrators.

Table 20.

Services Function of the Monroe County Intermediate School District

<p>Negotiated Environment</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Consolidated Services• Special Education• Data Processing• Instructional Technology• Professional Development• Enrichment

Governance Function

The Monroe County Intermediate School District would still maintain governance functions. These functions would be state mandated and also evolve within the negotiated educational environment.

Mandatory Special Education

In 1971, with the passage of Public Act 198, intermediate school districts were given extensive authority to oversee the delivery of services. The Monroe County Intermediate School District was required to employ a director of special education, develop a “local plan” for the delivery of services, investigate citizen complaints, and

directly provide services if it was required within the plan. The law, very significantly, allowed the Monroe County Intermediate School District to seek financial resources within the county to support special education programs and services to students from birth through twenty-five years of age.

The Monroe County Intermediate School District successfully passed Special Education millage levies in 1956, 1970, 1971, 1976, 1977, 1980, 1983, 1986, and 1991. In 2008-09 the Monroe County Intermediate School District special education budget is \$40,319,668.00. These funds are used to operate special education programs operated by the Monroe County Intermediate School District and to partially reimburse local districts for those programs which they operate.

County Technology Enhancement Resources

In addition to the ability to secure special education resources, county intermediate school districts were authorized in 1994 to seek financial resources, for operational purposes, when requested by the local school districts. Proposal A, in effect, removed educational funding from the responsibility of the local community and placed it at the state level of government. The only local operational resources available would be through the county-wide enhancement levy, via the intermediate school district.

On February 18, 1997, the Monroe County Intermediate School District passed a resolution placing an enhancement millage for technology on the June 9, 1997 ballot (Monroe County Intermediate School District Meeting Minutes Book 9, 1997, February 18). This millage request of one mill, the first of its kind in Michigan, was approved for five years by a vote of 3,847 yes to 3,544 no. On June 11, 2001, and May 2, 2006, the regional enhancement millage was renewed by voters for additional five-year periods. Though the entirety of these funds is distributed to the nine local school districts, the

intermediate school district’s control of these scarce financial resources has strengthened the interdependency between these organizations. This interdependency has contributed to instructional and informational technology becoming services provided by the Monroe County Intermediate School District. Between 1997-2007 the technology enhancement millage had generated \$52,845,971 for Monroe County’s local school districts.

Table 21.

Monroe County Intermediate School District Governance Function

<p>Negotiated Environment</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financial resources • Special education • Policy entrepreneurs • Creation of the Monroe County Community College • Consolidation of educational services • Conflict management • Reports

Vocational Education

State

Vocational education was a gradual development in Michigan beginning in the late 1800s. By 1880 the classes in commercial and industrial education began to occur in the larger city schools. Instruction in home arts and manual training began to take place. Manual training was traditionally viewed as “tool work” for boys and “sewing and cooking” for girls. The advocates for this method of instruction, however, viewed manual training as a means of using hands-on manipulation of real life objects “such as measurements” to expand one’s capacity to reason. As the need for industrial age workers expanded, the call went out to the schoolmen to prepare students for the world of work as it was evolving in the twentieth century.

Act 189 of the Public Acts of 1917 was passed so the State of Michigan could qualify for federal funds. As required by the federal law, the state established a “State Board of Control for Vocational Education” who would oversee the states implementation of the federal vocational funds. Though the funds were to be used in the K-12 system, the board of control consisted of the superintendent of public instruction, the president of the state board of education, the president of the University of Michigan, and the president of the Michigan Agricultural College. This board of control was mandated to “formulate plans for the development and conduct of vocational education within the state” (Eighty-First Annual Report of the Superintendent, 1918, p. 36). The State Board of Control designated the Michigan Agricultural College as the institution that should train the teachers for agricultural and trade schools. The Michigan Agricultural College and the Michigan State Normal School would train the teachers of home economics (Eighty-First Annual Report of the Superintendent, 1918, p. 36). Monroe Superintendent E. E. Gallup was appointed State Supervisor of Agricultural Education in May 1918 (Eighty-First Annual Report to the Superintendent, 1918, pp. 39-40).

Vocational education became an ever-more emphasized component of the State Superintendents Annual Reports as the twentieth century proceeded. Clair Taylor, Michigan State Superintendent for Public Instruction (Ninety Ninth Annual Report of the Superintendent, 1954), stated the following in calling for increased state involvement in vocational education:

Increasing awareness on the part of school people, business, industry, and labor groups that secondary school youths are not being adequately prepared occupationally leads to the necessity for increased activity in this responsibility

and privilege of the Department of Public Instruction. The recent life adjustment education movement states that local schools are providing fairly adequate education for the 20 percent who go to college and for the 20 percent who are being trained for the skilled trades, but that the remaining approximately 60 percent [sic] do not have educational programs which satisfy their needs. This movement has brought into greater light the necessity for assistance and encouragement to local schools in the development of programs which will more nearly satisfy the life adjustment needs of youth. It has been clearly demonstrated that these needs involve largely work experience and occupational training. In addition, this does not take into consideration the 40-odd per cent [sic] of youth in Michigan who drop out of school before completing the secondary program.

It seems apparent that the increasing pressures for expanded services in the area of occupational training will make it necessary for Michigan to respond realistically in terms of leadership and assistance. (p. 37)

County Proposal

On December 22, 1964, Monroe County Superintendent Isaac Grove reported that the “school administrators and school boards of Monroe County are concerned about the vocational education move” (Monroe County Intermediate School District Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 2, December 22, 1964, p. 473). A superintendent’s committee had been appointed “to study vocational education possibilities separately and in conjunction with the community college” (p. 473). The superintendents recommended the intermediate school district employ a vocational consultant. Alva Mallory was employed on May 3, 1965, to serve as Monroe County’s Intermediate School Districts Vocational Consultant. In July of 1965, the intermediate school district board of

education authorized a survey “of the needs and desires of the people of Monroe County concerning vocational education” (Monroe County Intermediate School District Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 3, July 6, 1965, p. 10). The survey was completed and reviewed by the Monroe County Intermediate School District Board of Education on January 13, 1966 (Monroe County Intermediate School District Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 3, January 13, 1966, p. 39).

The survey report, “A Systematic Survey of the Vocational Technical and Adult Education Need in Monroe County” (July, 1966), listed an executive committee consisting of seven Monroe County educational leaders, a policy committee consisting of nineteen local and intermediate school district superintendents and board members, and an advisory committee consisting of twenty-seven businessmen, educators, and board members. The foreword of the study states, “Our businesses and industries are desperately in need of trained workers. Yet, our youth are being subjected to an increased amount of regimentation of curriculum, social status, and professional image that is, for the most part, incompatible with the needs and desires of the students” (A Systematic Survey, July, 1966, p. VII).

On April 13, 1966, the legislature amended Act No. 269 of the Public Acts of 1955 and allowed county intermediate school districts to seek voter approval to come under legal provisions governing vocational education. The law also allowed county intermediate school districts to seek operational millages for vocational programs. The county intermediate school districts could not directly operate the vocational-technical educational programs. The county intermediate school districts could now, however, borrow money and issue bonds related to building and equipping a facility. The intermediate school district could not purchase or construct a site for a vocational

program unless the local district board of education approved it (Public Act, No. 114, 1966, pp. 133-134).

On March 28, 1967, the Monroe County Intermediate School District Board of Education voted to conduct a vocational education millage election seeking to levy an amount of money “not to exceed 1.5 mills” (\$2,400,000.00; Monroe County Intermediate School District Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 3, March 28, 1967, p. 122). The vote was scheduled to be held on June 12, 1967, at the annual school election. As the election approached, the centralizing aspect of the vocational-technical center created tensions. The plan called for the students enrolled from area high schools to attend ½ day sessions in their local high schools (public or parochial) and ½ day sessions at the vocational center. It was estimated that 1,600 students would attend the vocational-technical center program. The building specifications called for a facility of 122,000 square feet. The cost of the facility, equipment, and related expenses was \$4,183,616.00, with approximately one-half the cost being covered by federal grant dollars (National Vocational Educational Act, 1963). Projected enrollment for Monroe County high schools at the 11th and 12th grade levels for 1969-1970 was 3,912. It was estimated that the cost per student would be about \$350.00 for a half-day program. The total operating budget was set at \$560,000. A \$100,000 income was also anticipated in the budget to be received by Monroe Public Schools, which would operate an adult education program on a fee basis (*New Type School Proposed*, 1967, May 3, pp. 1, 18). The promotional booklet suggested “that only the practical arts, exploratory, and pre-vocational preparatory courses would continue to be offered in the facilities of most schools” (*1 ½ Mill Asked*, 1967, June 1, p. 20). The promotional booklet also stated “should the area school become a reality, planning for extensive facilities and equipment required for

vocational and technical training programs would be eliminated from the plans being developed for the new Monroe High School” (*1 ½ Mill Asked*, 1967, June 1, P. 20). Ownership of the building would remain with the intermediate school district but a constituent district could operate the program on a contractual basis.

The friction over the vocational education proposal was expressed in the community on June 3, 1967 (*Teachers Oppose Center*, p. 1, 11). This article essentially expressed the views in opposition to the vocational – technical center by the “directors of the Dundee Teacher’s Professional Association.” The article (*Teachers Oppose Center*, 1967, June 3) was prepared by Eugene Wilcox, Industrial Arts Teacher at Dundee High School and attacked the ideas behind the proposed vocational – technical center as follows:

The Dundee Teacher’s Professional Association is opposed to the establishment of an Area Vocational Center as proposed by the Monroe County Intermediate School District, for the following reasons:

1. As educators, we do feel that it is not educationally sound for 10th grade students to restrict their vocational futures by an occupational choice at this early age, as would be necessary if they were to participate in the proposed program.
2. Time spent in transportation from the home school to the vocational center and back during school hours would be too restrictive in the proposed program.
3. In an increasingly complex society our young people need at least as much, not less, time to develop their communication skills, their awareness of their responsibilities as citizens, their development of

a good sense of values, and an opportunity to mature, know themselves, and be better prepared to make intelligent occupational decisions.

4. We feel that one of the purposes of the community college financed by the people of the county was to offer skill training courses for those in the county who wished such training. A duplication of facilities and administration is unwarranted.
5. We feel that the funds (present and future) necessary to finance such an institution could be better used for the education of all students. (pp. 1, 11)

On June 10, 1967 (Vocational Center Millage), it was pointed out that “the facility was designed with 37 vocational laboratories, lecture demonstrations rooms, and auxiliary areas” (pp. 1, 14). The proposal was endorsed by Nistor Potcova Jr. of ACE Paper Products Co., John Graham of the Ford Motor Company, U.S. Representative Marvin Esch R-Ann Arbor, and Monroe Mayor Morton Cohn. Local school district opposition was also expressed by Harold Stotz of Ida, president elect of the Monroe County School Officers Association, in a statement reported in the Monroe Evening News as follows (*Vocational Education*, 1967, June 10):

“Though I am not opposed to vocational education, I am opposed specifically to the timing and to some phases of this proposal.” Mr. Stotz emphasized he was not issuing the statement as the official position of the MCSOA [Monroe County School Officers Association], but was stating his own views. Mr. Stotz said, “I asked a cross-section of members of the group the question. ‘How are you going to vote on the vocational education issue?’ and –

a majority of them said 'No' even some from the districts that would benefit the most.

“Most of them said the vocational education issue must be considered as an expansion of educational programs of each district and the districts must consider their own local programs first.

“All the districts in the county are faced with the problem of survival. In order to meet competition of other school districts, we are going to have to raise salaries and the 1-½ mills that the vocational program would cost would help the individual districts.

“The timing of the proposal is terrible not just because of financial problems but because many persons would like to wait until the Monroe County Community College is firmly established and has a chance to develop.

“Perhaps the greatest area of concern is that most persons are under the impression the college would handle many areas specified to be handled by the proposed center.

“Also, there is some feeling that the present proposition is slanted toward passage at any cost. How much federal and state money really will be available? The feeling is that it is just not there, and if not, what happens to the mill and a half levy?

“Another question concerns plans for the building. Some persons I have talked with have the feeling that the building may be built and the education programs arranged to fit the building.” (pp. 1, 14)

That the educational community was split was evidenced by the letter sent by the vocational education staff of Monroe High School. Two excerpts of the letter follows (*Center Millage*, 1967, June 10, p. 1, 14):

The Dundee Teachers Association indicated [vocational] choices should be made at maturity, however, no two people mature at the same time and who is to say when one has reached maturity? It should also be pointed out that we have had many years experience in the education of youth and we find that when students do have an opportunity to participate in an occupational training program which meets their needs, interest and ability to perform, the experience seems to ignite sparks of learning – frequently this success encourages the student, thereby resulting in an improvement in the academic subjects as well as the vocational area...

In reading the five points brought out by the Dundee Teachers' Professional Association in opposition to the area vocational center, we too offer five statements which we feel are in the best interest of our students.

1. **As educators we feel that** it is educationally sound for 10th and 11th grade students to be able to make a vocational choice as long as there are adequate offerings from which to choose.
2. **From the furthest point** in the county, time spent in transportation to and from the proposed area vocational school would not exceed one hour or the equivalent of one study hall. We feel that many of the students that would benefit from this type of program are presently enrolled in at last [sic] two study halls during the normal school day.

3. **In our complex technical** society we feel that many students will not be able to develop the communication skills, responsibilities and attitudes until they become physically involved and see the need through personal work experience.
4. **We feel the college-**bound student has received the ‘lions share’ of our financial pie in that secondary programs are primarily geared to college bound students. In our society we cannot afford to forget about the majority of average students that will become the majority of our labor force and play an untold role in keeping America the No. 1 industrial nation in the world.
5. **We feel that the student** should have the opportunity, on the secondary level, to become acquainted with basic vocational skills.

(pp. 1, 14)

On June 12, 1967, the voters defeated the Monroe County Vocational-Technical Education proposal 2,031 yes to 5,695 no. The proposal lost in every district except the Herkimer Primary district, where it carried 10 yes to 0 no (*Vocational Center Loses*, 1967, June 13, pp. 1, 18). The effort to secure vocational funding was repeated in 1971 and 1981 with similar results. The negotiated educational environment of the Monroe County Intermediate School District and the local school districts would not consolidate vocational education services.

Conflict Management

The management of conflict is still another governance function of the Monroe County Intermediate School District as it carries out both policy mandates as dictated by the State of Michigan and serves as a potential policy entrepreneur in the eyes of its local

school districts. This conflict may be created by mandates directly assigned to the county intermediate school district to govern areas such as special education or by mandates that affect only the local school districts, such as curriculum requirements, which local school districts may wish to change by creating new policy. Still other sources of conflict may be locally generated. This was observed in the area of vocational education. At issue during this conflict was the matter of who governs which services in the negotiated educational environment. On three separate occasions, this researcher observed the Monroe County educational elite and community determine that the local school district would maintain governance over vocational education services. This political function, which is constantly evolving, is a major source of political tension within the negotiated local educational environment.

Summary and Analysis

During the twentieth century, vocational education services gained prominence as a means to prepare students for the world of work that was evolving in the twentieth century. The prominence of this movement was evidenced by the words of Claire Taylor, Michigan State Superintendent of Public Instruction (Ninety-Ninth Annual Report of the Superintendent, 1954): “It seems apparent that the increasing pressures for expanded services in the areas of occupational training will make it necessary for Michigan to respond realistically in terms of leadership and assistance” (p. 37). In 1967, the Monroe County Intermediate School District answered this need, which was supported by local business leaders, and submitted a millage request to the citizens of Monroe County to build a vocational-technical center. The millage request was for 1 ½ mills.

The request was publicly attacked by the Dundee Teacher’s Professional Association and the President-elect of the Monroe County School Officer’s Association.

Though the millage request was publicly supported by the Monroe Public Schools vocational education staff, it was soundly defeated by Monroe County voters 2,031 yes to 5,695 no. The effort to secure local funding for a vocational-technical center was repeated in 1971 and 1981 with similar results. The negotiated environment of the Monroe County Intermediate School District would not consolidate vocational education services.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to understand the Monroe County Intermediate School District in order to inform educational leadership. In developing this understanding, this researcher examined the ideological foundations of Michigan's system of public education and the manner in which ideology has impacted the educational governance and service functions of the Monroe County Intermediate School District.

The researcher used a case study design within the tradition of interpretive research in conducting this study of the Monroe County Intermediate School District.

The conceptual framework for this historical, longitudinal case study of the Monroe County Intermediate School District was the researchers design based upon the writings of George Pettitt (1946). Dr. Pettitt studied indigenous education in North America. The conceptual framework focused upon the role of education in the perpetuation of culture. The conceptual framework recognizes the universal compulsion of every culture to perpetuate itself through education.

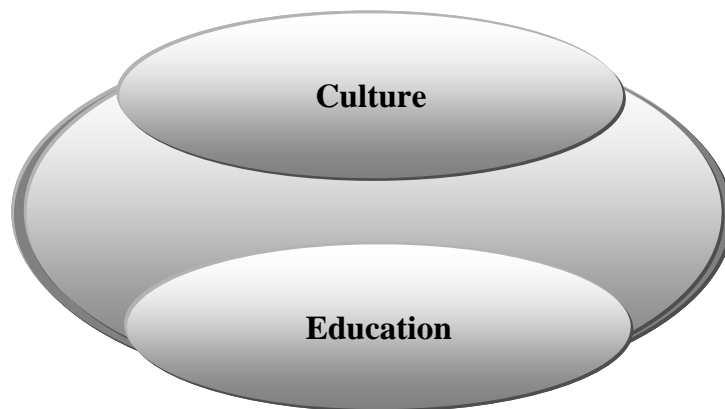


Figure 45: The Perpetuation of Culture through Education.

The researcher analyzed each era by utilizing the following framework:

Table 22.

Conceptual Framework for the Study of the Cultural Environment

Cultural Environment
• Language
• Governance
• Economy/Tasks
• Myth-Complex
• Religion/Ideology
• Politics
• Conflict

The researcher next addressed the manner in which the culture perpetuated itself through the educational system using the following conceptual framework during each cultural era previously outlined:

Table 23.

Conceptual Framework for the Study of the Educational System

Education
• Language
• Governance
• Conflict
• Core Pedagogy
• Ideology
• Curriculum
• Policy Entrepreneurs
• Services

As the data emerged via the researcher's analysis, it was organized into eight cultural and educational eras:

ERA I: Indigenous – Pre-1634

ERA II: French – 1634

ERA III: British – 1760

ERA IV: American Territorial – 1805

ERA V: American Pre-Industrial – 1834

ERA VI: American Industrial – 1865

ERA VII: Post-World War I – 1918

ERA VIII: Post-World War II – 1945

The first four eras are those during which the historical foundations of public education were laid. These eras occurred prior to Michigan's statehood.

This researcher relied upon knowledge found in the literature relating to the fields of political science, educational politics, organizational and institutional theory, sociology, and history in conducting this political study of the Monroe County Intermediate School District.

The following research questions were the subject of this investigation:

1. What was/is the nature of educational governance in Michigan?
2. What are the ideological foundations of Michigan's public education system at the national, state, and local levels?
3. What was the origin of the Monroe County Intermediate School District?
4. How has the Monroe County Intermediate School District evolved?
5. What are the dominant conflicts and ideological clashes that have impacted the Monroe County Intermediate School District?
6. What was/is the educational governance role of the Monroe County Intermediate School District?

7. What was/is the role of the Monroe County Intermediate School District in the delivery of educational services?

What was/is the role of the Monroe County Intermediate School District in the delivery of educational services?

Purposeful, within-case sampling was utilized in conducting this research. The researcher utilized the sampling framework illustrated in the following table.

Table 24.

Sampling Framework

<u>Sampling Parameters</u>	<u>Choices</u>
Settings	Monroe County Intermediate School District administrative archives, Monroe County Historical Museum Archives, Monroe County Commissioners archives, Monroe County Library System, State of Michigan Library, Eastern Michigan University Halle Library Archives, University of Michigan Libraries, Michigan State University Library
Events	Minutes of board meetings, records from millage campaigns, archival administrative memorandums, newspapers articles, program records, newsletters, and teacher manuals, brochures
Processes	Linkages to community college, linkages to community organizations, development, implementation and extinction of services, linkages to local school districts, consolidation of rural schools, development of special education, vocational education conflict, election and appointment of district officers and administrators, development of public schools, and educational organizations

The researcher reviewed the Monroe County Board of Education and the Monroe County Intermediate School District minutes from 1947 through the present and summarized each month's meeting focusing on governance and services decisions. These decisions were then coded and organized according to the policy and service functions they represented. The archives of the Monroe County Intermediate School District, the Monroe County Historical Museum, the Monroe County Commissioners Office, the

Monroe County Library System, the University of Michigan Library System, the State of Michigan Library System, the Michigan State University Library, and the Halle Library at Eastern Michigan University were utilized to review historical data related to the county intermediate unit of educational government and the State Superintendents of Public Instruction. Additional archival materials were reviewed related to the implementation of public acts, administrative policy, and elections. The public records available through area newspapers concerning policy entrepreneurs and implementers were also studied.

One of the greatest challenges for the researcher in conducting this case study was managing the tremendous amount of data in an organized way that allowed me to engage in the necessary iterative process of analysis. Data were gathered from multiple sites and in various forms, ranging from legal documents to historical writings to newspaper articles that were more than 175 years old. This process of data analysis was both inductive and deductive.

This researcher engaged in the process of triangulation to ensure that the case analysis was credible. According to Eisenhardt (1995), “Triangulation made possible by multiple data – collection methods provides stronger substantiation of constructs and hypotheses” (p. 73). The “within case analysis” included the coding of archival records and the development of timelines and flowcharts to aid in pattern recognition. Extensive field notes and a diary were also maintained by the researcher to aid in the documentation of theories and conceptualizations as they evolved. Perhaps most significant were the independent study groups organized under the direction of Dr. James Barott. These sessions were conducted in small groups and on an individual basis and provided the researcher ample opportunity to review and synthesize the data.

Data displays were utilized to assist this researcher in identifying governance and service themes, ideological transitions, and policy entrepreneurs' actions. According to Miles and Huberman (1994), "A display is an organized, compressed assembly of information that permits conclusion drawing and action" (p. 11). This tool was extremely important in identifying the eras into which these research findings were ultimately organized.

The underlying conflict and temporary resolutions surrounding these research questions have been the central focus of this researcher's data analysis.

Findings

This study began with the indigenous people who lived in the area of Monroe, Michigan, at the time the first French explorers arrived. To understand the Monroe County Intermediate School District required the researcher to explore the very nature and beginnings of government in Michigan. The beginning of government was found in the families of the indigenous people who lived in the Great Lakes region before the Europeans arrived. In the indigenous culture, with their extended familial relationships, the rules were enforced and the culture was perpetuated through the education provided within the immediate tribal groups. It was here that the nature of educational governance was also found by this researcher. The organic nature of this governance and of all governments are the myths or belief systems of the people and the ideological techniques used to control the environment. According to MacIver (1965), "By *myths* we mean the value-impregnated beliefs and notions that men hold, that they live by and live for. Every society is held together by a myth-system, a complex of dominating thought-forms that determines and sustains all of its activities" (p. 4). Every society and nation has "its characteristic myth-complex," according to MacIver (1965, p.4). This myth-complex

allows people to interpret reality, define familial relationships, and determine the ideological techniques used to control the environment, including the people. These myths and ideological techniques are interdependent and ever evolving. A society's cultural myths can also be manipulated for purposes of control by other cultures. The myth-complex of the indigenous people was very different from the Europeans who would conquer and come to dominate Michigan. The indigenous tribe was egalitarian, valued each part of nature equally, and its myth-complex was intertwined with the immediate environment. These people defined the universe within the concept of family. Their leaders were not determined by kinship but by intelligence, process, and skill as demonstrated within their immediate cultural grouping, the tribe.

Table 25.

The Indigenous Cultural Environment in Michigan

Cultural Environment: Indigenous

- Language (Algonquin)
- Governance (Tribe)
- Economy/Tasks (hunter/gatherer)
- Religion/Ideology (earth maker)
- Myth-Complex (egalitarian)

The Indigenous form of educational governance, pedagogical techniques, and curriculum reflected their myth-complex. In spite of their different myths, there was also commonality amongst people. According to Pettitt (1946), "It may be accepted as a truism that every culture, regardless of its simplicity, must successfully condition its future carriers if it is to maintain itself" (p. 4). If one accepts this as a universal "social necessity," it leaps to the acceptance of a "universal educative compulsion," which can be useful in understanding the very similar modes of "cultural growth processes" amongst

highly divergent cultures and societies (Pettitt, 1946, pp. 4-5). During the course of this study, this researcher has determined that the indigenous people of Monroe County sought to perpetuate their culture using pedagogy, similar to what one sees in classrooms today. The indigenous myth-complex was transferred to the young via precise dances, elaborate stories, and developmentally appropriate “hands-on” experiences. The primary difference in curriculum reflects the culture the people sought to perpetuate. Their myth-complex meant that they would seek to perpetuate themselves, the Pottawatomie culture. The indigenous people held the education of their children in the highest regard. Nothing was left to chance by the child’s extended family in assuring that he/she was prepared to perpetuate the cultural tasks, economy, and religion of the tribe. Immediate and long-term survival depended on a highly educated tribe in indigenous cultural terms.

“Who decides” concerning educational matters is of great importance in all societies and cultures. The “myth-complex” of local control has been the mantra of public educators and communities throughout the late twentieth and early twenty-first centuries, even as any vestiges of it have been stripped away by the ever-encroaching movement towards centralization of educational governance. It was the indigenous people who truly had “local control” of the education of their children. The social status of indigenous parents was determined ultimately by their success in preparing their child for his/her adult role. There was no federal or state government to take responsibility for the child’s education within the indigenous society. Neither was there any bureaucracy nor ruling class within the tribe. There was no certified teacher, principal, or superintendent to tend to the tasks of pedagogy, discipline, or curriculum. There were no taxes. There was just the environment that gave the people everything, along with the extended family, who taught the children how to take what the environment gave them and to give back so it

would continue to give life to the people. The lack of governance beyond the tribe would soon end after the coming of the Europeans.

Table 26.

Historical Foundations of Education in Michigan

Education: Indigenous
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language (Algonquin) • Governance (extended family) • Pedagogy (stories, dances) • Curriculum (wilderness) • Ideology (perpetuate own culture) • Myth-Complex (egalitarian)

With the French dominance in the Great Lakes region, indigenous culture began to change, though it was gradual at first. The first Europeans in Michigan were seeking refuge from the stifling conditions of feudal France. These men, with their French language, entered the wilderness and for the most part lived harmoniously with the Indians. Their profit motive was mostly personal. Soon these men, the “Coureurs de Bois,” were followed by others seeking greater financial gain for their king and country. These later French “voyageurs” were the first to introduce formal “European” education onto the shores of Michigan via their teachings of Christian salvation. The voyagers were usually accompanied by the Jesuit Priests who played a critical role in transferring the existing egalitarian social myth-complex of authority that the kin-bound indigenous people maintained into the more hierarchical and centralized concept of authority that was the social myth-complex of the western European people. At the very center of this western European myth-complex was the conceptualization of God, “liberated from the *mores* of family, given greater amplitude, and for the first time, a kind of transcendence” (MacIver, 1965, p. 29).

Table 27.

*The French Cultural Environment in Michigan***Cultural Environment: French**

- Language (French)
- Governance (monarchy)
- Economy/Tasks (fur traders)
- Religion/Ideology (Catholicism)
- Myth-Complex (hierarchical)

With the migration of the French religion and monarchical government, the cultural myth-complex in southeastern Michigan began a revolutionary change that took government outside the immediate family and tribe. Gradually, the education in the Michigan region became centered upon the French religion (Catholic) and culture. The indigenous people initially tolerated this as the teaching of this new myth-complex came with European weaponry, food, and clothing. The early French trader, Cadillac, advocated for schools to teach the Indians to be French but it was to no avail. Cadillac, who promoted education with the French and Indian children integrated together, was up against the fur traders who, for reasons of profit, wished the region to remain remote, and the powerful Jesuits, who believed the indigenous people must be separated to be protected from the evils of liquor. Gabriel Richard, Sulpician priest, later advocated for and even started a school for the indigenous people. These early efforts by the Europeans were to teach the Indians to be French. The goal of this first approach to education in Michigan was to perpetuate a culture from another land. There was little support for it amongst the native people or the early French “habitants.”

Table 28.

Historical Foundations of Education in Michigan

Education: French
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language (French) • Governance (Catholicism, personal) • Pedagogy (stories, Bible) • Curriculum (European) • Ideology (perpetuate European culture) • Myth-Complex (hierarchical)

On September 8, 1760, the British dominance over Michigan began with the fall of Montreal. Like the French, the British rule was motivated by the search for riches, primarily through the fur trade. Unfortunately, for the Indigenous people, the British, unlike the French, did not respect their way of life and their rule was marked by great conflict. Michigan remained occupied by the British even after the Revolutionary War. After defeating Pontiac and the French, the British eventually allied themselves with the Shawnee leader Tecumseh in an attempt to prohibit the tide of Americans coming from the east. For the British, this fight was a last ditch effort to prolong their economic monopoly over the fur trade. The British would lose their monopoly but eventually establish relationships with the United States national government. Tecumseh would be killed during the War of 1812, his movement and culture exterminated from their nativelylands. For Tecumseh and his confederation of tribes, the fight was a last ditch effort to reject the dominance of the American culture and to maintain the indigenous people's control of their destiny. The indigenous leaders and holy men were ultimately "forced" to adapt their myth-complex to accept the government of the United States, but it was not done without great conflict and bloodshed on both sides. The battles occurring in Monroe County left the people in extreme poverty and their property abandoned.

Table 29.

The British Cultural Environment in Michigan

Cultural Environment: British
• Language (English)
• Governance (monarchy)
• Economy/Tasks (fur traders)
• Religion/Ideology (Protestant)
• Myth-Complex (hierarchical)

Very little purposefully changed concerning the education of children during the British conquest and rule of Michigan. The state of war, in all probability, must have impacted the curriculum taught by the indigenous people to their children. The French, in all probability, were able to continue their religious teachings though the hostile environment most certainly affected the education of the few children who were now in “Le Detroit.” There were no known advocates and certainly no policy entrepreneurs for bringing formal education to the Territory of Michigan amongst the British.

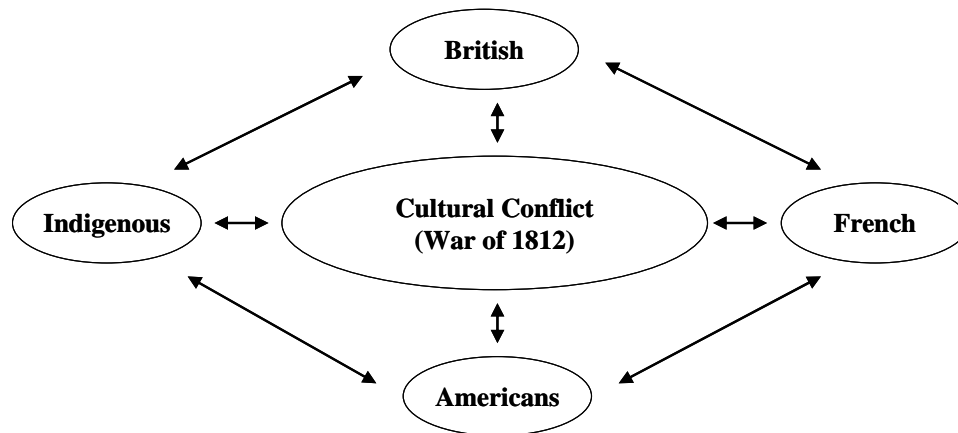


Figure 46: Cultural Conflicts.

As America organized itself, the Michigan Territory remained remote and largely neglected by the fledging national government. Since the French dominance of Michigan began, it had been ruled by a monarchy and its military. This form of governance in

which one person, “under authority of God and birthright,” ruled, would eventually give way to a comparatively free society ruled through democratic, republican, and federalist notions of governance. This shift in cultural dominance, political form, and government would not come without great conflict. Little changed as Michigan became governed under the provisions of the Ordinance of 1787.

Governments are formed as a result of political conflict, and this was certainly the case in Michigan. The government ruling Michigan was appointed during the territorial years. Those men serving were from the east and southern cultural areas and were politically at odds with one another. Michigan’s reputation as a hostile territory consisting mostly of swamplands restricted its growth in a manner that significantly impacted its future development. Instead of the government-owned lands in Michigan being given to the War of 1812 veterans, the lands of Indiana and Illinois were opened for their restitution. This meant that Michigan’s early migration would come from primarily the northeast and especially New York.

Table 30.

The American Territorial Cultural Environment in Michigan

Cultural Environment: American Territorial

- Language (English)
- Governance (appointed)
- Economy/Tasks (natural resources)
- Religion/Ideology (Protestant)
- Myth-Complex (hierarchical)
- Cultural Migration (east)

Educational Governance

During the American Territorial period of Michigan's development, the first efforts to organize a system of public education occurred.

Kingdon (1995) labeled advocates "for proposals or for the prominence of an idea" as "policy entrepreneurs" (p. 122). Policy entrepreneurs may advocate for proposals for personal gain or to promote their own values (Kingdon, 1995, p. 123). The first efforts to implement a state system of public education in Michigan were championed by policy entrepreneurs of both the Roman Catholic and Protestant faiths. Father Gabriel Richard, a Sulpician priest, and the Reverend John Monteith, a Presbyterian minister, aided by political leaders such as Territorial Governor Lewis Cass and Territorial Judge Augustus Woodward, created a highly centralized system of public education, apparently based on the French system of education. While the symbolism of having a non-sectarian system of public education created via the collaboration of a Catholic priest and a Presbyterian minister was significant for the future public school system, the Catholepepemiad, or the University of Michigania, as it was named, failed. Still, this first effort to implement a system of public education established several important concepts that were incorporated into Michigan's public education system that still maintain today. These concepts, according to Bald (1958), are:

1. the state's responsibility to provide a system of education
2. tax support for such a system
3. tuition for higher education should be kept low
4. that schools should be non-sectarian (p. 178)

Parsons (1960) defined organizations as "a system which, as the attainment of its goal, 'produces' an identifiable something which can be utilized in some way by another

system; that is the output of the organization is, for some other system, an input” (p. 17). Despite the heroic efforts of many, especially the teachers, and the increasing popularity of the primary school, the Catholepestimiad or University of Michigan was repealed in 1821 after just four years of existence. The short-lived effort to bring a system of public education was too expensive, too centralized, and too difficult to comprehend for the impoverished people fighting for survival in the wilderness. There was simply no use for its product by the culture it was to serve. Still, a similar system was in Michigan’s future.

In 1827 the Territory of Michigan enacted the “Act for the Establishment of Common Schools” (Rosalita, 1928, p. 205). This law was Michigan’s first attempt to enact a “free” public school system. The law allowed for instruction in English or French. It called for the election of a township board of school inspectors to govern the schools and a local Board of Trustees to oversee the daily operations. Very significantly, the “Act for the Establishment of Common Schools” provided for the general taxation of inhabitants to maintain the school building and to pay the teachers’ salary. The law called for financial penalties against townships that failed to comply. Townships could exempt themselves from compliance by a two-third’s vote at the annual township meeting. The 1827 Common School Law was largely ineffective.

Table 31.

American Territorial Era: System of Public Education

American Territorial Era: System of Public Education
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language (English/French) • Governance (centralized French to decentralized eastern United States) • Policy Entrepreneurs (Montieth, Richard) • Pedagogy (British, Lancastrian) • Curriculum (classical to reading, writing, arithmetic) • Myth-Complex (hierarchical) • Local Policy Entrepreneurs (Sortor, Turner) • Cultural Conflict (education vs. survival)

Governance

As Michigan entered statehood, it continued its revolutionary movement away from the rule of monarchy. According to MacIver (1975), “The conception of the state as constituted by the whole people and the corresponding conception of government as the agency of the people, set up by them, and responsible to them, inaugurated a new era in the history of government” (p. 85). Historically, government was controlled through power derived from property ownership and class status (MacIver, 1975, p. 62). MacIver (1975) explained the triangular interaction between these elements of society, saying, “Authority is often defined as power, the power to command obedience. Property conveys both power and status, derived from its right to dispose of things. Status confers power and power confers status” (p. 62).

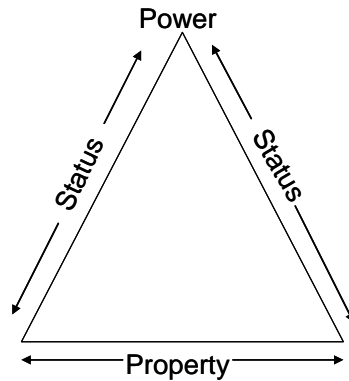


Figure 47: Traditional Power Triangle.¹

Michigan's first Constitution of 1835 set forth the following in Article 1 of the Bill of Rights:

- a. All political power is inherent in the people.
- b. Government is instituted for the protection, security and benefit of the people; and they have the right at all times to alter and reform the same, and to abolish one form of government and establish another whenever the public good requires it.
- c. No man or set of men are entitled to exclusive or separate privileges. (p. 1)

Citizenship Rights

Marshall (1992) divided citizenship into three parts: "civil, political, and social" (p. 8). The civil aspect of citizenship involved those rights involving personal freedom such as freedom of thought, religion, and the right to own property. The political aspect of citizenship involves rights relating to the exercise of political power, such as the right to be a member of a body with political authority, or the right to be an elector. The third aspect of citizenship is the right to a "modicum of economic well-being and the right to

share in the social heritage of the society” (Marshall, 1992, p. 8). In Marshall’s view, early societies had no collection of rights afforded to each person but rather afforded rights to some according to class status. Thus the early efforts to define the citizenship rights of Michigan residents were of great importance to its future directions, including those related to public education.

Table 32.

Citizenship Rights as Defined by Marshall

Civil	Political	Social
Individual Personal Freedom (speech, thought, faith)	Exercise of political power (suffrage, serve on legislative body)	Due process, assert rights exercise, political power

In addition, the Constitution of 1835, very significantly, gave suffrage to every white male then living in Michigan and thereafter, who had resided therein for six months. The issue of suffrage was one of the few contentious issues at the Constitutional Convention. The fact that the Michigan Constitution adopted a broad suffrage right was a testament to the moderate class of men who dominated the delegation. Clearly, the organizational bias of the first state constitution was to set up a government subservient to the will of the people. The rights afforded under a democratic government do not completely negate the historical trinity between power, property, and status as defined by MacIver (1965). The dynamics of this relationship, however, are altered as compared with a monarchical or dictatorial form of governance. In the words of Schattschneider (1975), “Organization is the mobilization of bias. Some issues are organized into politics

¹ MacIver, 1975, p. 62.

while others are organized out” (p. 69). Iannaccone (1977) has further expanded upon Schattschneider’s findings by noting that “changes in organization will change the values at issue” (p. 295). The citizenship rights organized into the State of Michigan’s first constitution were critical to the future development of its institutions.

Table 33.

The Pre-Industrial Cultural Environment in Michigan

Cultural Environment: Pre-Industrial America
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language (English) • Governance (Constitutional Republic) • Economy/Tasks (agriculture, natural resources) • Ideology (Protestant-republican Reform) • Religion (Protestant) • Demographics (eastern United States) • Myth-Complex (redeemer nation) • Conflict (borders)

A key finding of this researcher was the importance of the relationships that exist between the national, state, and local governments. The Michigan Public Education System is very much a part of this “federalist” system of government relations. At its very beginning, the national government left the states responsible for education. The United States Constitution is mute on the matter of education and “the tenth amendment to this document states that any power not given to the national government remains the authority of state government or the people” (Frantzich and Perry, 1994, p. 54). During the pre-industrial era, there was little overlapping action taken by the different levels of government. This era of federalism was termed “dual federalism” (Frantzich and Percy, 1994, p. 60). During the nation’s early years, the states were quite suspicious of the powers of the federal government and sought to limit them. The national government

enabled the state's establishment of public education through the granting of "Section 16" in each township to be sold or leased for the purpose of funding public schools. In Michigan, unlike other states, these funds were turned over to the state versus the local township or county. This greatly impacted the manner in which public education developed.

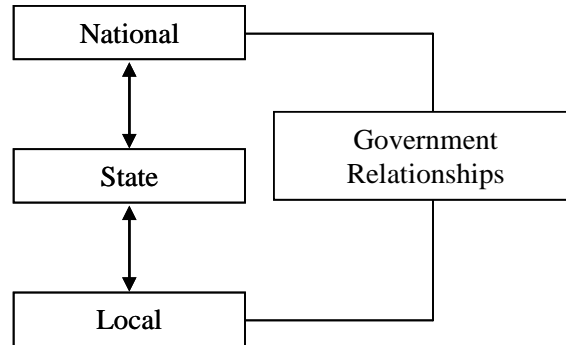


Figure 48: Federalist System of Governmental Relationships.

Educational Governance

Ideology

The ideological foundations of the Monroe County, Michigan, system of public education were the result of a reform movement that swept across the United States and merged Protestant and republican beliefs about nation building and common schooling (Tyack and Hansot, 1980, p. 291). At the core of this ideology was the belief that common schools were essential to the creation of a righteous society that would lead its nation to greatness. According to Kaestle (1983), "The ideology centered on republicanism, Protestantism, and capitalism, three sources of social belief that were intertwined and mutually supporting" (p. 76).

Kaestle (1983) referred to the most forceful and influential variant of this ideology as "cosmopolitan" (p. 77). This ideology "advocated government action to improve the economy, shape the morals, and unify the culture of mid-nineteenth century

America” (Kaestle, 1983, p. 77). At a time of great social change, the Protestant ideology promised stability to the still fragile republic. Indeed the tenets and homilies of Protestant theology stressed “unity, obedience, restraint, self-sacrifice, and the careful exercise of intelligence,” all perfectly compatible with republican beliefs and needs (Kaestle, 1983, pp. 80-81). For its part, the ideology of “republicanism united concepts of virtue, balanced government, and liberty. By *virtue* republican essayists meant discipline, sacrifice, simplicity, and intelligence” (Kaestle, 1983, p. 5). The condensation symbol for virtue in republican ideology was the yeoman “independent in means and judgment, but willing to sacrifice for the common good” (Kaestle, 1983, p. 79). The rural life and all of its symbolism was also seen as a great virtue in republican ideology. The proponents of this combined ideology were most certain of its righteousness. The only problem for both the republican and Protestant ideologies was whether their beliefs and vision would prevail in a nation undergoing vast changes brought on by immigration, changing economic conditions, and regional cultural differences. These men perceived public schooling as the key to success in making theirs the dominant ideology.

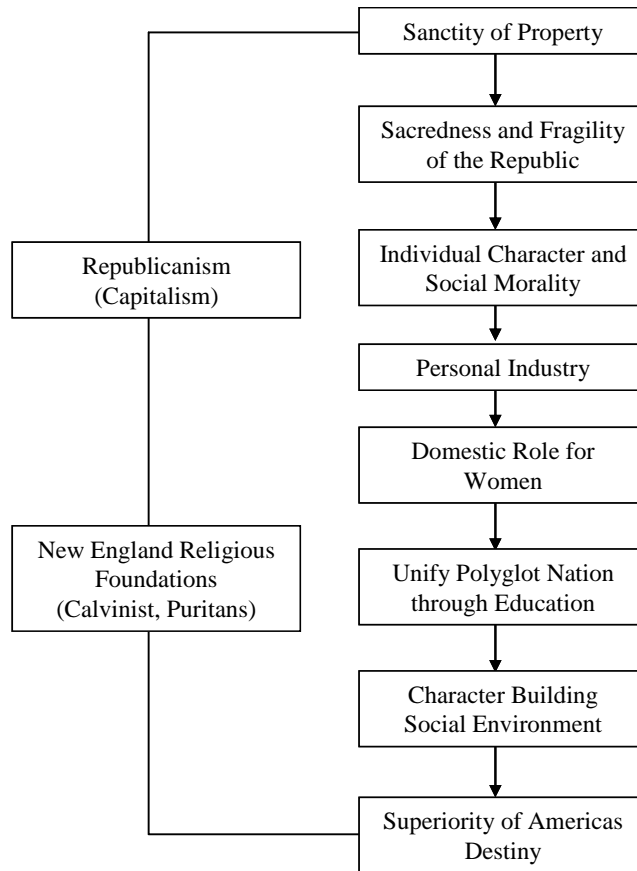


Figure 49: Central Principles of Protestant-Republican Ideological Reform Movement.¹

According to Kaestle (1983), the leaders of this ideological reform movement “were characteristically Anglo-American in background, Protestant in religion, and drawn from the middling ranks of American society. They shared views on human nature, nationhood, and political economy. These social beliefs provided the ideological context for the creation of the state school systems” (p. 75). These men took their duties with great zealously. According to Tyack and Hansot (1980):

A large proportion of the common school crusaders of the nineteenth century were cosmopolitan, in touch with currents of thought and action beyond the local communities in which they worked. Linked to reform networks by voluntary

¹Adapted from Kaestle, 1983. pp. 76-77.

associations of regional and even national scope, they looked beyond their immediate surroundings for guidance and tended to share the class culture of an emerging bourgeoisie. (pp. 295-296)

These factors resulted in a remarkable similarity in the public school systems that developed as a result of their efforts and in creating amongst the people high rates of literacy and “a strong sense of national identity” (Tyack and Hansot, 1980, p. 296).

The school reformers, or “crusaders,” as they called themselves, were more successful creating State Systems of Public Schools in the northeast and Midwest sections of the United States than in the south (Tyack and Hansot, 1980). Kaestle (1983) however, reported that, “in no region was there overwhelming consensus on state intervention in common schooling.... Geography, class structure, economic development, and cultural heritage combined to tip the scales in favor of state systems in the north and against them in the south” (p. 217).

Table 34.

Michigan State System of Public Education

State System of Public Education
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Language (English) ● Governance (centralized Prussia) ● Conflict (who decides?) ● Pedagogy (European) ● Ideology (Protestant-republican) ● Curriculum (standardized) ● Policy Entrepreneurs (Crary, Pierce) ● Myth-Complex (moral and civic order)

For the French citizens of Monroe, education was certainly a local and personal affair, restrained by the desolation of war and poverty. Formal educational opportunities,

like those in Detroit, were initially tied to the religious community. Following the War of 1812, during which the Monroe area was deserted by the French inhabitants, the people returned and soon the area flourished as a result of the arrival of new immigrants from the east. These people brought their values, laws, and ideas concerning education and religion with them. The first formal schools were private. Soon, however, the people gathered to build their own public schools. These policy entrepreneurs at the local level were represented by people such as George Sortor and Jacob Turner, who organized two of Michigan's first public schools in Monroe County.

Table 35.

American Territorial Era: System of Public Education

American Territorial Era: System of Public Education
• Language (English)
• Governance (centralized French)
• Policy Entrepreneurs (Montieth, Richard)
• Pedagogy (British, Lancastrian)
• Curriculum (classical)
• Myth-Complex (hierarchical)
• Local Policy Entrepreneurs (Sortor, Turner)
• Cultural Conflict (education vs. survival)

Demographics

By 1860, Michigan's population had increased to 749,113 (Bald, 1954, p. 259).

Immigration from Europe to Michigan accelerated significantly after the 1830s. The largest group of people came from the British Isles. The English, Scots, and Irish all assimilated fairly easily due to a common language. The Irish tended to be poorer than the others and were a bit more clannish. They mostly located in the large cities where they could find work as laborers or in jobs such as "digging canals or building railroads"

(Bald, 1954, pp. 259-260). Indeed, a significant number of Irish settlers came to Monroe as a result of a planned canal.

Many Prussians also found their way from Europe to Michigan. The Reverend Frederich Schmid came to Michigan and, beginning in 1833, established churches in Washtenaw, Monroe, and Wayne counties. This first group of Prussian settlers were mostly farmers and able to purchase property or work the land until they were able to purchase their own. These settlers also found their way to Clinton County and the Saginaw Valley area, where they founded many communities in Michigan.

The politics of Michigan during its early days was dominated by the Democrats and Whigs. The Democrats, under the leadership of people such as Lewis Cass and Stevens T. Mason, usually dominated the early state elections.

It was the slavery question, however, that dominated the state and national politics of the United States, drove philosophical wedges between people who otherwise agreed, and made strange bedfellows of others who disagreed about most everything else. As a result of British rule, there had been a small number of Indians and black slaves in Michigan during its early days. Michigan, with its strong northeastern cultural ties, was decidedly anti-slavery in its sentiment. "The Constitution of 1835 expressly prohibited slavery in the state. In 1837, one of the first anti-slavery societies in the west was organized in Detroit" (Burton, 1922, Vol. 1, p. 475). The citizens of Michigan were also a major part of the Underground Railroad, which rescued fugitive slaves to freedom. Thus, in December 1835, when the Congress of the United States sought to repeal the Missouri Compromise, which had halted the westward movement of slavery, the anti-slavery forces were moved to political action. "The State of Michigan would take the lead in this movement" (Burton, 1922, Vol. 1 p. 464).

On July 6, 1854, in Jackson, Michigan, several thousand Michigan citizens gathered to take political action and form a new party. Following the Civil War, the Republican Party dominated Michigan's elections. The Republicans were heavily supported by Civil War veterans. The Republicans continued to dominate Michigan elections throughout the nineteenth and a substantial portion of the twentieth century.

After the Civil War, the State of Michigan would become the model for the industrial revolution. The Industrial Revolution, which began in the forests of Michigan and ultimately and unimaginably stripped it bare of one of its most substantive natural resources, would lead Michigan and the world into an automotive and manufacturing period that further changed every aspect of culture, society, politics, and education. The industrial revolution indeed changed everything in Michigan. A new dominant ideology based on mass production and manufacturing began to take hold.

Table 36.

The Industrial American Cultural Environment in Michigan

Cultural Environment: Industrial America
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language (English) • Governance (municipal reform) • Ideology (business-scientific) • Religion (Protestant) • Economy/Tasks (manufacturing) • Myth-Complex (scientific method) • Conflict (Civil War) • Demographics (rural, European, and southern migration)

Educational Governance

In 1867 the State of Michigan took a step towards further centralizing its public education system when it implemented an intermediate unit of educational government in the form of the county superintendent. This unit of educational government, systemically positioned between the state superintendent of public instruction and the common schools, essentially placed an educational reformer, or crusader, in every county of Michigan. These local educational reformers activities largely reflected those of their leaders at the state level. According to Tyack and Hansot (1982), “The chief goal of common school crusaders was to attract citizens to support and send their children to public schools. They sought to adapt their arguments to many groups and to avoid alienating people. Thus they sought a common denominator of values and interests” (p. 73). The efforts of the common school crusaders at the state levels as described by Tyack and Hansot (1982) were observed at the county level in the writings and reported actions of the early Monroe County Superintendents between 1867 and 1875. Charles Toll and Elem Willard, elected by the people of Monroe County, were educational crusaders and reformers in every sense of these terms. Neither of these men were “professional educators,” still another characteristic of the state educational reformers such as John D. Pierce and Horace Mann. The county superintendent’s service and governance functions are provided in Tables 37 and 38.

Table 37.

County Superintendent Educational Services Function, 1867

- | |
|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Promote school improvement• Conduct professional development• Improve student attendance |
|--|

Table 38.

County Superintendent Governance Function

- | |
|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Examine teacher candidates (orthography, reading, writing, grammar, geography, and arithmetic) • Grant certificates to qualified individuals (good moral character, learning, and ability) • Conduct county school visitations • Counsel teachers and district boards • Examine and submit reports to Superintendent of Public Instruction • Oversee library resources • Manage conflict |
|--|

Conflict

Early tensions between centralized state and local control forces can be observed in the decision to make the county superintendent an elected position as opposed to an appointed one, as was recommended by Superintendent of Public Instruction John Gregory. The fundamental tension “over the issue of relative power of professionals and lay citizens” has existed throughout the history of public instruction in the United States and is “unresolvable” according to Iannaccone (1977, p. 56). These “tensions” or “controversies” could not be pursued to their ultimate conclusion because “the political order could not survive continued debate about them” (Iannaccone, 1977, p. 56). Thus they are temporarily suppressed only to rise up again at later times. The partisan election of the county superintendent, a position that was intended to represent the supervisory authority of the state, placed control in the hands of the local people, who held centralized government with great suspicion. With the exception of a brief period of time between 1875 and 1891, the chief officer of the local intermediate unit of government, during this period, was subject to the will of the people they governed.

In 1875 the march towards educational reform and centralized governance of the public education system took a step backwards. The legislature perceived that the county superintendents had made the system “too expensive” due to their reforms and were eliminated. The county superintendents were caught in the political cross currents of the conflict between local versus centralized state control of the system of public education. This loss of the county superintendents by the state policy entrepreneurs, and especially the state superintendent of public instruction, was temporary. Soon criticism of the allegedly “cheaper” and “amateurish” part-time township governance via the township board of school inspectors began. This political advocacy, especially by the State Superintendent’s of Public Instruction, would return county educational governance to the local schools through the county board of school examiners in 1881, and the “secretary” of the county board of school examiners in 1887. Initially, the county board of school examiners was only responsible for the examination and certification of teachers. Gradually, the county superintendent’s governance and services functions were placed into the secretary’s position. The secretary of the county board of school examiners was the chief executive officer of the rural school districts of Monroe County. The secretary was the head of a governing board consisting of three examiners, appointed by the probate court judge, and the two examiners elected by a representative from each school district.

In 1891 the secretarial position would become the county commissioner of schools, a term often used for positions of authority in the eastern United States. The county commissioner of schools, like the county superintendent before, would be subject to the politics of the community as an elected position and be attached to the county government structure. The county commissioner of schools became the first

administrative position in Michigan to carry professional credentials, requiring the individual to be a college graduate or hold a state teachers certificate or a first grade certificate. Thus evidence of a change in the ideology influencing public education was first revealed in the governance structure of public education. This ideological change was aligned with the “business-scientific” and “municipal reform movements” ideological tenet of the “neutral competency” of professionals (Iannaccone, 1997, p. 278).

Table 39.

Michigan State System of Public Education in Michigan during the Industrial American Era

State System of Public Education
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language (English) • Governance (centralized) • Pedagogy (American) • Curriculum (standardized) • Myth-Complex (efficiency) • Conflict (who decides?) • Policy Entrepreneurs (professionals) • Ideology (business- scientific)

Soon, most everything would change as the effects of the Industrial Revolution impacted society, the cultural myth-complex it held as reality, and the ideology it promoted through public education.

The Industrial Revolution brought prominence to the concept of organization (Parsons, 1960, p. 2). According to Parsons (1960):

One of the most salient structural characteristics of such a society is the prominence in it of relatively large-scale organizations with specialized functions,

what rather loosely tend to be called “bureaucracies.” At the role level these organizations are composed of relatively pure-type “occupational” roles where the status and responsibilities of the incumbents are relatively fully segregated from their “private” affairs in terms of premises, kinship relations, property, and the like. (p. 2)

Parsons (1960) further conceptualized that the defining characteristic that distinguishes an organization from other types of social systems is its “primary orientation to the attainment of a specific goal” (p. 17). Parsons believed that the organization’s achievement of its goals would be defined “as a *relation* between a system (in this case a social system) and the relevant parts of the external situation in which it acts or operates” (p. 17). This open system conceptualization is essential to understanding the development of the Monroe County Intermediate Unit of Educational Government during the era of industrialization.

As the impact of the Industrial Revolution spread, new studies were conducted aimed at improving the efficiency of organizations. In 1910 Frederick Taylor became widely acclaimed as a result of his work concerning “scientific management” or the “Taylor System.” The basic principles of “scientific management” were to raise production, increase wages, and reduce costs. Taylor’s research findings revealed that “there was always one best method for doing any particular job and this best method could be determined only through scientific study” (Callahan, 1962, p. 25). With the help of the federal government, the principles of scientific management were soon widely acclaimed to be the panacea for improving nearly every aspect of life, including education (Callahan, 1962, pp. 19-25). Taylor’s system was predicated on the idea that every aspect of work could be measured and workers could be trained to do their jobs

properly once their jobs were properly measured. The Taylor system called for a further separation of the roles of managers and laborers. Taylor believed that those who did the work were inherently different from those who planned the work (Callahan, 1962, pp. 22-28). The classic symbols of the “Taylor Method” of “scientific management” were the “stop watch” and the “time and motion study” (Callahan, 1962, p. 28).

Simultaneous with Frederick Taylor’s work, there was tremendous momentum being built by the technological advances and personal wealth being generated by men such as John D. Rockefeller, Andrew Carnegie, and J. P. Morgan. The publicity surrounding these wealthy businessmen was increasing the prominence of their role in the minds of the American people (Callahan, 1962, p.2). What was “good” for business became “good” for every aspect of American society.

Soon, “business values,” because they were now part of the “myth-complex” of the American people, began to infiltrate the political debate surrounding American schools. Public schools came under increasing scrutiny and criticism by those extolling “modern business methods and efficiency” (Callahan, 1962, p. 5). Gradually schools, especially those in urban areas, were reformed in ways to reflect the business model. Consolidation of school districts, the at-large election of school board members (usually “businessmen”), and the Superintendent as chief executive officer were several changes affecting the governance of schools that grew out of the industrialized society and its emphasis on business values and efficient methods of operation. Perhaps most significant was the manner in which the training programs for school administrators were altered to no longer reflect the importance of scholarship but rather the executive nature of the “education business.” “By 1918 the idea of a separate profession of school administration was firmly established” (Callahan, 1962, p. 219). These changes were observed in the

communications of the Monroe County Commissioners of Schools as the twentieth century proceeded.

The activities within the schools also changed as a result of the scientific management's focus on efficiency as it was implemented within education. Teacher certification by subject area, platoon schools, Carnegie units, compulsory attendance, grading of schools, and standardized testing changed the classroom experience of students and teachers alike. By mid-century the specialization, role separation, and centralized bureaucratic tendencies would lead to a strengthened state department of education and the county board of education. According to Tyack and Hansot (1980):

At the turn of the twentieth century the earlier evangelists were replaced, for the most part, by full time professional managers who saw their careers as building on the foundations laid by Horace Mann's generation but who had somewhat different views about the functions of schooling. Equally millennial in their own way, they believed that they stood at a point in history when experts could and should control the course of human evolution. The newer rhetoric shifted from religious to scientific language. Equally millennial in their own way, they believed they stood at a point in history when experts could and should control the course of human evolution. The newer rhetoric of reform shifted from religious to scientific language. They saw business efficiency as a social panacea. Instead of trying to mobilize local citizens to act in a broad-based social movement, the twentieth century managers sought to "take schools out of politics" and to shift decision making upward and inward in hierarchical and buffered systems." (p. 292)

During the twentieth century, once the matter of securing supervision of the rural schools was resolved via the county commissioner of schools, the Michigan State Department of Education grew immensely. This reflected the business-scientific ideology fueled by the industrial revolution. In 1921 the Superintendent's annual report reflected this bureaucratic trend. In addition to the superintendent of public instruction, there was listed a deputy superintendent, three assistant superintendents, twelve support staff, a "Division of Rural Education," a "Statistical Division," the "Board of Control for Vocational Education," and ten "Executive Staff" (Eighty-Fifth and Eighty-Sixth Annual Superintendent's Reports, 1921-22, pp. 7-8). These figures excluded the "state schools" such as the Michigan School for the Deaf established at Flint in 1854, the Michigan School for the Blind established in 1871 at Lansing, the Michigan State Industrial Home for Girls established in 1879 at Adrian, the Michigan State Industrial School for Boys established in 1855 at Lansing, and the State Public School established in Coldwater in 1871. This burgeoning state bureaucracy and expanding authority was coupled with the growing size of consolidated local school districts led by professional superintendents. Again, the state gradually took over control of teacher training via its normal schools in Ypsilanti (1849), Mount Pleasant (1895), Kalamazoo (1904), Marquette (1899), and other universities. The state normal schools in Kalamazoo and Mount Pleasant were specifically created to train teachers for the rural schools (Ninetieth Annual Superintendent's Report, 1927-29, p. 51). In 1921 the state required teachers to possess post-high school training from approved institutions of higher learning. In 1923, the statutes of the State of Michigan "required graded school districts employing six or more teachers to employ a superintendent" (Beem and James, 1956, pp. 19-20). Gradually, in many areas of the state, the county commissioner of schools' post was being reduced to

mere clerical work. In addition to being squeezed out by the growth of the Michigan State Department of Education, the larger consolidated districts, and the higher levels of professionalism of local school leaders, the county commissioners of schools found themselves strapped by politics. As an elective post subject to the county board of supervisors budgetary priorities, the county commissioners of schools' ability to lead suffered (Beem and James, 1956, p. 21). Their salary also suffered, and by 1930, in more than 50% of the counties in Michigan, the county commissioners of schools was a part-time position.

The changes brought on by the "business-scientific" ideology of the industrial revolution have been observed by this researcher in the growth of the Michigan State Department of Education, the State of Michigan's educational policies, rules and regulations, and the communications of the Monroe County Commissioner of Schools during the early to mid-twentieth century (Tyack and Hansot, 1980, p. 313). This new ideology set the stage for the reorganization of the intermediate unit of educational government.

The business-scientific ideology and the municipal reform movement officially came to Monroe County on August 4, 1947. On that date, at the Monroe County Courthouse, fifty electors representing Monroe County school districts elected a five-member non-partisan board of education. The ideological significance of this vote can be seen in comparing the number of electors voting for the county superintendent in the previous election of 1947, which was 6,740. The elected social elites would now select the intermediate unit of educational government. The men constituting the Monroe County Board of Education met four days later to organize and to publicly announce their ability to change school district boundaries. With this announcement, the governance

function of the Monroe County intermediate unit of educational government shifted to implementing the state government's long professed desire to consolidate rural school districts. The consolidation movement was closely associated with the business-scientific ideologies value of efficiency. With this change, the governance function of the Monroe County School District was strengthened in other ways. The county board of education would now adopt its own budget, independent of the county board of supervisors. The county board of supervisors, however, still was required to allocate a portion of the monies. This financial arrangement would be a source of conflict throughout the county board of education's existence.

The Monroe County Board of Education would also appoint the Monroe County Superintendent of Schools. Isaac Grove, the first county superintendent under this new governance structure, was previously elected by the people. Significantly, the county board of education was authorized to furnish services for any district when requested to do so by the local board of education. The county board could evolve beyond the mandates of the regulations and negotiate to provide services within the local educational environment. This provision of the law gave the county board of education authority to develop interorganizational resource dependencies with schools beyond those services required by statute.

The county intermediate unit of governance originally created as a supervisory arm of the state was beginning its evolution into an educational service agency.

Table 40.

Functions of the Monroe County Board of Education, 1947-1962

<u>Services Functions</u>	<u>Governance Function</u>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Professional development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consolidation of rural schools
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Maps and census 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Special education resources
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Permissive services when requested by a local board of education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Audits
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Determine local tax revenues
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Maintain libraries

The underlying conflict over the control of education between the state and the local community intensified and culminated in the removal of the primary rural school from the Michigan system of public education. During the mid-twentieth century, the Monroe County Board of Education, elected by the local social elites, and its appointed Superintendent carried out the State of Michigan's long professed policy of improving schools through consolidation. By 1955 the number of Monroe County districts was reduced from 141 to 21. In 1968 its last primary school district closed. The state's business-scientific ideology and the municipal reform movement had professionalized the administration and centralized the policy-making structure of Michigan's system of public education.

Still, the political myth of local control of education would survive but certainly within a different context in the future. The consolidated school district was a first step in taking schools away from the people whose children attended them (Iannaccone and Lutz, 1995, p. 45). According to Iannaccone and Lutz (1995), "The policy premise was that increasing the size of the district would produce more efficient schools and save money" (p. 45). This was in alignment with the business-scientific ideology. Of course,

consolidation would also mean “job enhancement” and “universal salaries for administrators and support staff” (Iannaccone and Lutz, 1995, p. 45). The improved status of the professional classes was aligned with the municipal reform movement. Iannaccone and Lutz (1995) further stated that, “consolidation reflected two forces: (1) organized professional demands, and (2) demographic mobility toward urbanization of the whole society” (p. 45). Like the rural community, the country school was losing its traditional identity. Industry and business organizations were the forces of change in the economy and in education. Initially, virtually every meeting of the Monroe County Board of Education was consumed by the issues of consolidation, annexation, property transfers, and boundaries.

The governmental function of controlling conflicts was in ample evidence as the county board of education and superintendent redrew school boundaries and children were assigned to attend schools beyond walking distance. This distancing of schools, while popular with many professionals, was wrought with conflict in the local arena. The successful management of this conflict was of critical importance to county residents, the State of Michigan, and public education. This importance was evidenced by both the actions people took to preserve their “right” to choose which school their children would attend and the extensive measures county board would take to invoke its authority.

The Michigan Supreme Court’s decision to uphold the Whiteford Township School’s consolidation illustrated the limits of parental choice that would come with rural school consolidation. The power of the state to set boundaries and determine which schools children would attend was firmly established by the county board of education’s actions. The rural school consolidations, which had been moving too slowly in the eyes

of the state's professional educational leaders and policy entrepreneurs, would move forward.

In spite of its faults, particularly in the large cities, the results of the consolidation of school governance was characterized by Iannaccone and Lutz (1995) as follows:

After all the sophisticated sneering of the intelligentsia in a life-time career in world-class universities has been suffered through, all the popular complaints of political losers have been heard and all the cynical pleas on behalf of the poor by wealthy media, movie and sports millionaires has been appropriately discounted, it is still a fact that more citizens come closer to day-to-day government and have more opportunities to influence public decisions in the typical school district arena than in any other governing body. (p. 49)

The consolidation of schools had impacted the participation of the local citizens in the operation of rural local schools but certainly not eliminated it.

State Special Education

Gradually, the cultural and societal myth-complex concerning who should attend school began to change. In 1944, the Visiting Teachers Program was instituted in Michigan to address the needs of students with emotional and behavioral problems. In 1949, the state authorized local districts to provide certain programs for "mentally handicapped children" (One Hundred and Fifth Annual Superintendent's Report, 1961, p. 46). These legislative actions were permissive and not mandatory in their effect.

Superintendent Thurston (Ninety-Ninth Annual Superintendent's Report, 1948), reflected an evolving myth-complex in his report defining "exceptional children" as follows:

The term **exceptional children** is applied to those children who, because of physical, mental, or emotional deviations, need additional services not required by non-exceptional children. The home-bound or hospitalized children, those suffering from crippling conditions, the cardiopathic, the acoustically or visually handicapped or those of lowered vitality are the physically handicapped group. Children who are mentally defective or slow or those who have brain injuries are included in the mentally handicapped group. Children with behavior problems, including not only the delinquent or pre-delinquent but also those who are overly aggressive or recessive, are considered as emotionally disturbed. Those having several types of handicaps are classified as the multiple-handicapped children. (p. 10)

Superintendent Thurston (Ninety-Ninth Annual Report of the Superintendent, 1948) stated that, "In many cases the exceptional child should attend the classes for non-exceptional children, but specialized services by thoroughly trained consultants should be available to the regular teacher. In other instances the child should attend regular classes for normal children part-time and go to other classes for specialized services" (p. 11). County districts under Michigan's permissive legislation were allowed to receive state aid for services to the homebound and hospitalized, speech correctionists, visiting teachers, teacher counselors for the physically handicapped, teacher consultants for the mentally handicapped, and diagnosticians for the mentally handicapped.

Resources

Pfeffer and Salancik (2003) have studied the manner in which organizations survive within the context of their environment. These researchers view "the ability to acquire and maintain resources," as the most important aspect of an organization's

survivability (Pfeffer and Salancik, 2003, p. 2). Thus, one of management's key roles is to "guide and control" the organization by manipulating the environment (Pfeffer and Salancik, 2003, p. 18). Organizational actors create linkages within the environment that result in mutual interdependencies, thus creating less uncertainty in the environment (Pfeffer and Salancik, p. 143). One of the earliest examples of these efforts of linkage and interdependence within the environment was observed in the area of special education services.

On Friday, April 6, 1956, at the Custer School in Monroe Township, a meeting of the Monroe County Board of Education was held to discuss a countywide vote as was allowed just several months before by the Michigan Legislature (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, April 6, 1956, p. 237). The Monroe County Board of Education adopted a resolution calling for an election to be held either on June 11 or July 9, 1956, to determine whether Monroe County would fall under the provisions of Act No. 269 on the Public Acts of 1955, as amended. In addition, the question requesting that the people of Monroe County tax themselves one-half of one mill from 1956 to 1970 for purposes of funding Special Education Services was placed on the ballot.

An extensive campaign was put forth under the leadership of Isaac Grove and many others in the community. Dr. David Thams, Special Education Director of the Oakland County Board of Education, came to Monroe County to discuss that community's experience, as the first in Michigan and one of the first in the nation to implement special education under Michigan's permissive legislation. At the time of the election, Oakland County was the only county in Michigan to have passed a millage for this purpose. Presentations were done throughout the community concerning the need for

special education services. The Monroe County Board of Education conducted a study which estimated that there were 2,000 public and parochial school students in need of special education support due to emotional problems (*2,000 Students Need Help*, 1956, June 6, p. 1).

Proposition I passed 2,178 yes to 627 no, thus approving that Monroe County's schools would come under the special education laws contained in Provisions 309 to 327 of Michigan's School Code of 1955. Proposition II passed 1,865 yes to 773 no, which meant that Monroe County's Schools would levy ½ mill from 1956 to 1970 to support the special education programs enacted.

Special Education Administration

On December 21, 1956, Mr. Walter Wend of Grand Rapids was hired as the Monroe County Director of Special Education (p. 319). On January 25, 1957, the Monroe County Board of Education passed a motion that all special education programs of Monroe County would be subject to the approval of the Monroe County Board of Education (pp. 321-322). The first special education "center" was formed by Summerfield, Ida, and Dundee to provide speech correction (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, 1957, p. 323).

The Monroe County Board of Education set reimbursement policies that limited the amount districts could expect to receive from the county for the salaries of special education employees.

The Monroe County Board of Education also established Diagnostic Service Centers, based on the locations and the student populations of districts. Staff would be assigned to districts based on their location and population. Considerable attention was paid during these early days of special education as to whether enough rooms existed to

educate the students with disabilities, many of whom were not currently attending the local schools or were simply in general education classes with support services.

Decisions also had to be made concerning who would pay for specialized equipment, who would pay to transport students, and how students with disabilities would be identified. The beginning of a separation of special education services and the students served therein from general education began almost immediately.

The Monroe County Board of Education in cooperation with the local district school boards and Superintendents decided to emphasize the development of programs for the “mentally handicapped,” “speech correction,” and “visiting teacher programs” (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, 1957, April 22, p. 355). They also went on record at this time as wanting to do “something” for “blind or deaf, if at all possible, this fall” (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, 1957, April 22, p. 355).

On May 3, 1957, the Monroe County Board of Education approved “the recommendation that a room for the deaf be established at the start of the 1957-58 school year in the Ida School District, the center of the county, with all non resident district students” (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, p. 358). Soon the local school districts were building classrooms, which they would be reimbursed for by the Monroe County Board of Education. By the beginning of the 1958 school year, thirteen students were scheduled to attend the Ida Deaf Program and a second teacher was hired.

The County School District Special Education Act allowed county school districts to operate programs where local programs were not available. In these cases county school districts could employ teachers and other personnel, provide transportation,

provide equipment and supplies, and count children for state aid purposes. The dollars generated by the county tax, if levied, could be used to support constituent districts in financing added costs above the general per pupil state aide, build classrooms, purchase land, and provide equipment.

The 1963 budgets for special and general education reflected the growing dominance of special education in the activities of the Monroe County Intermediate School District. The general education budget was \$24,575.00, and the special education budget was \$306,138.00.

Conflict

Finding classrooms for special education students raised tensions amongst the Monroe County Board of Education and local superintendents. The Monroe County Board of Education meeting minutes (April 22, 1957) reported the following exchange between Superintendent's Grove and Scheltema, of Bedford Schools, at the County School Boards Association Meeting "as a matter of information and record:"

Mr. Scheltema, on April 23, [sic] 1957, informed Mr. Grove that there is presently no space available in Bedford for special education rooms, and there will be none this fall, under present conditions, except two antiquated rural school rooms located in the same site at Banner Oak [a school built in 1871 and no longer used]. Mr. Grove informed Mr. Scheltema that if 2 rooms for the mentally handicapped are established at Banner Oak that this would be almost segregation of the pupils from the other boys and girls, and that such a situation might not receive the approval of the State Department of Public Instruction. Mr. Grove asked Mr. Scheltema if he would be willing to send 2 rooms of normal pupils to the Banner Oak location in order to make room for 2 rooms for the mentally

handicapped in the main buildings. (This would segregate the normal children, which are divided by grades, for the period of only one year each, while if the mentally handicapped were placed at Banner Oak it might very well end up being for their school lifetime.) Mr. Scheltema stated that he could not make a statement that he would send normal children to the Banner Oak School until he had taken the problem to the Bedford Board of Education and determined their desires regarding this subject. (p. 354)

The issue of transportation for special education students came to the forefront at the beginning of the 1958 school year. A countywide meeting was held on September 3, 1958, "to discuss the transportation of the deaf and hard of hearing children to special education rooms in Ida" (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, p. 463). The following record of the meeting reflects the problems existing for the parents, educators, and students during these early days of educating children with disabilities (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, 1958, September 3, pp. 463-464):

Mr. Wend presented some of the difficulties in transporting these children to Ida. A long discussion followed which was participated in by everyone. The question was considered as to whose responsibility it was to transport these children to Ida. It was pointed out that the legal responsibility was clearly that of the parents, but that there might be a question as to the moral responsibility. It was pointed out that it could be considered that of the County Board of Education in its relationship with special education and that it could also be considered the responsibility of the local districts as well as the parents. The possibility [sic] of a

county vehicle was considered which could be purchased from the special education fund or possibly contributed by an organization.

The cost of the program on a county basis received careful consideration and it was pointed out by a county board member that the cost of this program could run as high as 10% of the total budget. It was also agreed by several county board members that the transportation of the deaf and hard of hearing children could establish a precedent for transportation of special education children that would be impossible to follow.

Mr. Weipert made the motion that the county should attempt to purchase the rooms and let the local districts and/or the parents be responsible for transporting the handicapped children. The motion was supported by Mr. Smith, voted on and carried unanimously. This closed this subject for the time being and most of the guests left.

Mr. Wend was asked to check into the number of handicapped children that should be transported and report on this to the County Board of Education.
(pp. 463-464)

The law also required an appointive board to advise the county board concerning special education. The board at minimum consisted of two school superintendents, three school board members, and the superintendent of public instruction or his agent.

The Formation of the Monroe County Intermediate School District

With the successful consolidation of the primary schools, the county board of education and the county superintendent essentially eliminated their supervisory and rural school consolidation services. Likewise, the related governance responsibilities were eliminated by their successful work surrounding consolidation and the ever burgeoning

state bureaucracy. In anticipation of this, policy entrepreneurs had successfully advocated for regulatory changes within the State of Michigan to provide opportunities for the county boards of education to create resource interdependencies within the local environment. In 1953 a statewide study was conducted by the Michigan Association of County School Superintendents. The study found that the county superintendents were identified with elementary education, well-qualified, but under-funded by the county government. The study established a linkage between the county superintendent and many community tasks (Beem and James, 1956, pp. 25-38). The report encouraged the development of permissive legislation to allow for additional opportunities to create resource interdependencies within the local education environment. Beem and James (1956) developed a “forecast for action,” which follows:

1. The development of an efficient intermediate office is an essential ingredient of the preservation of local control.
2. Since the initiative and leadership offered by the administration in the intermediate office have a major bearing on the future development of that office, means should be provided to:
 - a. Make the office attractive to educational leaders;
 - b. Institute through the state department and colleges and universities an in-service growth program for those responsible for the intermediate district, both lay and professional;
 - c. Provide a means for local organizations of administrators, school boards, citizens’ committees and others to have a part in the development of this program.

3. The intermediate office will develop to full fruition only when there is general recognition of the need for some of the services not now offered.
4. Solution of the problems of the intermediate office demands better methods of arousing public interest, better methods of communication, and methods of evaluating progress.
5. Improvement of the intermediate school office depends upon improvement of the state school system in general.
6. The evolution of a better intermediate school office should start from the county district, and move gradually toward whatever unit is found to be desirable. A first step strongly urged by the Committee is experimentation with combining several counties into a single intermediate unit. (p. 61)

One of the issues the Beem and James (1956) committee failed to reach consensus on was the matter of how the lay board would be selected. One of the first areas the state authorized the county board of education to create resource interdependencies in was the education of students with disabilities.

Consolidation of Services

Services Function

With the creation of the county intermediate school district in 1962, the State of Michigan changed the role of the intermediate unit of government. The Monroe County Intermediate School District would evolve from consolidating rural school districts to consolidating educational services within the negotiated local educational environment.

Special Education Services

The Monroe County Intermediate School District and its local districts have negotiated a special education delivery system that shares the operational control of special education classroom and support personnel. This delivery system has been developed in alignment with the dominant business-scientific ideology's value of efficiency.

Data Processing

Since 1994 the Monroe County Intermediate School District and the Lenawee County School Districts have formed a technology consortium. The consortium provides internet access, business, student, and administrative related software to the twenty-three school districts within the two counties. These intermediate school districts have connected their districts to a fiber optic network.

Instructional Technology

The Monroe County Intermediate School District and its constituent local school districts formed a distance learning consortium in 2005. Interactive classes are provided over the internet, involving students from all of Monroe County's school districts.

Student Enrichment

The Monroe County Intermediate School District offers student enrichment services ranging from the county spelling bee to the science fair to summer camps that involve students from throughout Monroe County.

Professional Development

In 2001 the Monroe County Intermediate School District opened its Professional Development Center. This facility serves as the focal point for offering shared professional development services to teachers, support personnel, and administrators.

Table 41.

Services Function of the Monroe County Intermediate School District

Negotiated Environment
• Consolidated Services
• Special Education
• Data Processing
• Instructional Technology
• Professional Development
• Enrichment

Governance Function

The Monroe County Intermediate School District would still maintain governance functions. These functions would be state mandated and also evolve within the negotiated educational environment.

Mandatory Special Education

In 1971, with the passage of Public Act 198, intermediate school districts were given extensive authority to oversee the delivery of mandatory special education services. The Monroe County Intermediate School District was required to employ a director of special education, develop a “local plan” for the delivery of services, investigate citizen complaints, and to directly provide services if it was required within the plan. The law, very significantly, allowed the Monroe County Intermediate School District to seek financial resources within the county to support special education programs and services to students from birth through twenty-five years of age. In 1973, the Monroe County Intermediate School District opened the Monroe County Educational Center for the purpose of educating students with moderate to severe cognitive disabilities.

The Monroe County Intermediate School District successfully passed Special Education millage levies in 1956, 1970, 1971, 1976, 1977, 1980, 1983, 1986, and 1991.

In 2008-09 the Monroe County Intermediate School District special education budget is \$40,319,668.00. These funds are used to operate special education programs operated by the Monroe County Intermediate School District and to partially reimburse local districts for those programs which they operate.

County Technology Enhancement Resources

In addition to the ability to secure special education resources, county intermediate school districts were authorized in 1994 to seek financial resources.

Proposal A, in effect, removed educational funding from the responsibility of the local community and placed it at the state level of government. The only local operational resources available would be through the countywide enhancement levy, via the intermediate school district.

On February 18, 1997, the Monroe County Intermediate School District, at the request of the local school districts, passed a resolution placing an enhancement millage for technology on the June 9, 1997, ballot (Monroe County Intermediate School District Meeting Minutes Book 9, 1997, February 18). This millage request of one mill, the first of its kind in Michigan, was approved for five years by a vote of 3,847 yes to 3,544 no. On June 11, 2001, and May 2, 2006, the regional enhancement millage was renewed by voters for additional five-year periods. Though the entirety of these funds is distributed to the nine local school districts, the intermediate school district's control of these scarce financial resources has strengthened the interdependency between these educational organizations. This interdependency has contributed to instructional and informational technology becoming services provided by the Monroe County Intermediate School District. During the period of 1997-2007 the technology enhancement millage generated \$52,845,971. for Monroe County's local school districts.

Table 42.

*Monroe County Intermediate School District Governance Function***Negotiated Environment**

- Financial resources
- Special education
- Policy entrepreneurs
- Creation of the Monroe County Community College
- Consolidation of educational services
- Conflict management
- Reports

Vocational Education

During the twentieth century, vocational education services gained prominence as a means to prepare students for the world of work that was evolving in the twentieth century. The prominence of this movement was evidenced by the words of Claire Taylor, Michigan State Superintendent of Public Instruction (Ninety-Ninth Annual Report of the Superintendent, 1954): “It seems apparent that the increasing pressures for expanded services in the areas of occupational training will make it necessary for Michigan to respond realistically in terms of leadership and assistance” (p. 37). In 1967 the Monroe County Intermediate School District answered this need, which was supported by local business leaders, and submitted a millage request to the citizens of Monroe County to build a vocational-technical center. The millage request was for 1 ½ mills.

The request was publicly attacked by the Dundee Teachers Professional Association and the President-elect of the Monroe County School Officer’s Association. Though the millage request was publicly supported by the Monroe Public Schools vocational education staff, it was soundly defeated by Monroe County voters, 2,031 yes to 5,695 no. The effort to secure local funding for a vocational-technical center was

repeated in 1971 and 1981 with similar results. The negotiated environment of the Monroe County Intermediate School District would not consolidate vocational education services.

Conclusions: Research Questions and Answers

The researcher began this study of the Monroe County Intermediate School District by asking a number of research questions. Below is a listing of each research question followed immediately by its answer:

What was/is the nature of educational governance in Michigan?

Throughout the history of Monroe County, Michigan, the governance, organizational structure, and delivery of educational services have been determined by the dominant cultures ideology. The organic nature of educational governance, and of all governments, is found in the myths or belief systems of the people and the ideological techniques used to control the environment. During the Indigenous Era, this ideology was found locally within the family and tribe. The ideology reflected the history, the natural environment, and the myth system within which the indigenous people lived. The language, cultural tasks, myth system, and ideology of the family and tribe were perpetuated through indigenous education, which was governed therein. During the indigenous period, the myth of local control was reality. The nature of the system of educational governance was to perpetuate the local culture.

The first Europeans in Michigan were French. Their early efforts to educate the people who lived in the area of southeastern Michigan reflected the conflict concerning whose culture should be perpetuated through education. Cadillac believed the French settlers and indigenous people should be educated together. He believed in this way the indigenous people could be made French. The Catholic Jesuit priests resisted Cadillac's

efforts. They believed the Indians needed to be separated so as to not be influenced by the evils of French culture, especially liquor. The French national government was not interested in doing anything with this part of “New France” other than exploiting the tremendous fur trade. The result of this conflict was stalemate, and little was done concerning formal education during the early French period. Here, once again, this researcher observed that the nature of education was to perpetuate the culture. Unfortunately, it could not be determined whose culture would be perpetuated, or indeed, whether any culture would be perpetuated. The matter of whose culture was to be perpetuated via the educational system has been a source of conflict throughout Michigan’s history. It is closely aligned with the dominant conflict of “who decides?” concerning educational matters.

What are the ideological foundations of Michigan’s public education system at the national, state and local levels?

With statehood, a new ideology emerged, led by the New Englanders migrating to Michigan, mostly from New York. This ideology, termed Protestant-republican Reform by this researcher and others, viewed America as a redeemer nation with a millennial destiny. “Schools and churches were institutions designed to produce a homogenous moral and civic order and a providential prosperity” (Tyack and Hansot, 1982, p. 19). The Protestant-republican reform ideology was the original foundation upon which Michigan’s system of public education was built, as designed by John D. Pierce and Isaac Crary. The Protestant-republican reformers, led by men such as these, stressed the importance of teaching a common set of Protestant religious values and democratic principles to preserve the republic from anarchy and promote their religion. The organizational bias of the Michigan state system of public education was observed by this

researcher in its centralized funding scheme and the constitutional separation of the superintendent of public instruction from general government in Michigan's first constitution.

Gradually, the Protestant-republican reform ideology gave way as the dominant political ideology during the twentieth century. It was replaced by the business-scientific ideology, which stressed professionalism, the separation of duties, standardization, and efficiency. The business-scientific ideology was interconnected with the municipal reform movement's ideology, which reformed local governments. The municipal reform movement was a response to mass immigration and the perceived graft of the inner cities at the turn of the nineteenth century. This ideology called for non-partisan local government and professional managers, and it viewed the community's needs as unitary. These two ideologies and the regulations that resulted from them led to the intermediate unit of educational government being buffered from the citizenry and placed into the control of the professional managers and social elites. In 1947, the Monroe County Commissioner of Schools, an elected position, was replaced by the Monroe County Board of Education as the intermediate unit of educational government. The net effect of the municipal reform movement was observed by the researcher by the fact that 6,740 electors had participated in selecting the Monroe County Commissioner of Schools in April of 1947 versus 50 electors, representing local school boards, selecting the five-member Monroe County Board of Education some four months later (Monroe County Board of Education Meeting Minutes, Book 1, August 5, 1947, p. 1). The Monroe County Board of Education then appointed county commissioner of schools Grove as the county superintendent with their cumulative five votes. The political conflict surrounding "who

decides” in the matter of the intermediate unit of educational government was thus temporarily resolved.

What was the origin of the Monroe County Intermediate School District?
How has the Monroe County Intermediate School District evolved?

The federalist system is the term used to describe the relationships between the national, state, and local levels of government. The Monroe County Intermediate School District is part of the federalist system. Since the inception of public education, the State of Michigan has maintained a three-tiered governance system. These tiers lie at the state, intermediate, and local school district levels.

To understand the evolution of the Monroe County Intermediate School District, one must first understand the organizational bias of the Michigan State System of Public Education, which was organized in 1835 and implemented in 1837, once Michigan achieved statehood. That this bias was heavily centralized was evidenced by the Prussian model, upon which it was built, and which was very bureaucratic and state controlled. In Michigan, the founders of the system, John D. Pierce and Isaac Crary, secured the federal lands which were to be used to fund local schools for the state government to control. This was contrary to what had been done in other states, where these lands had been given to local communities. In addition, the founders separated the position of superintendent of public instruction from the control of the state legislature’s politics by embedding it into the State of Michigan’s first constitution as a constitutional officer.

In spite of this centralizing bias, the state system was spread out and difficult to control. The early state system had an intermediate unit of governance at the township level in the form of the Board of Inspectors. This system was too remote and too difficult to control for the State Superintendents of Public Instruction. The origin of the Monroe

County Intermediate School District can be traced to 1867 when the county superintendent for common schools was created. This person had supervisory and ministerial duties as his primary responsibilities. Public education was a new phenomenon, and central government was held in great suspicion by the citizenry of the fledgling democracy. The county superintendents set out to convince people that children should attend school and that quality teachers and good school buildings were important aspects of a civilized and democratic society. These early Monroe County Superintendents were primarily a governance arm of the state. During this period, significant changes in the conditions of local public education was noted. These changes included modernized facilities, extended school year calendars, and increased salaries.

In 1875 the county superintendents were replaced with township superintendents. Almost immediately the state superintendent of public instruction began to report on the regression in the condition of the public schools. In 1881, a county board of school examiners was created to oversee the examination and certification of teachers. These three men would share the governance of local schools with the township board of school inspectors. The township board of school inspectors would carry out the visitation governance function.

In 1887 the secretary of the county school examiners would regain the role of the chief executive officer and, in 1891, receive the title *county commissioner of schools* to go along with it. The county commissioner of schools was clearly a governance arm of the state. The governance function of the Monroe County Commissioner of Schools included submitting reports concerning the schools, to the state superintendent of public instruction, providing oversight of the grading of the rural schools, conducting teacher examinations and awarding certificates, and consulting teachers and local school boards

concerning their schools. The Monroe County Commissioner of Schools was also instrumental in organizing the first county school board's organization consisting of local district school board members.

The Monroe County Commissioner of Schools was involved in providing a number of service functions to the local school districts. These educational services included teacher reading circles, the county teachers' institute, and the county normal school service. As the twentieth century progressed, the Monroe County Commissioner of Schools also began to organize student enrichment services, which originally focused on the spelling bee and county field day.

Gradually, the state bureaucracy, school district consolidation, and the ever-increasing professionalization of public education infringed on the duties of the county commissioner of schools. The state normal colleges assumed the training and certification of teachers. The Michigan State Department of Education provided oversight on matters concerning agricultural and rural education. These changes were aligned with the business-scientific ideology of the industrial revolution and the municipal reform movement. There was still, however, an issue that had to be addressed in the critical eyes of the state superintendents of public instruction, and that was the consolidation of the rural schools.

In 1947 the intermediate level of educational governance was buffered from its environment when the Monroe County Board of Education was founded. The Monroe County Board of Education was elected by the representatives of the local school district's boards of education. The county board of education would now appoint the county superintendent. The social elites and professional managers controlled the local education environment. This electoral and appointive process was in direct alignment

with the ideology of the municipal reform movement. The primary governance responsibility of the Monroe County Board of Education and the Monroe County Superintendent was to consolidate the rural schools.

These men very successfully fulfilled their roles. Between 1947 and 1955, the number of Monroe County school districts was reduced from 141 to 21. The successful consolidation of rural schools was still another “victory” for the business-scientific ideology and its emphasis on efficiency. Very significantly, the Monroe County Board of Education was also authorized to provide services to any school district when requested to do so by the local district board of education. In 1955, the county school districts were given permission to generate scarce financial resources in the area of special education. In 1956 the Monroe County Board of Education received permission from the voters to provide special education services and to levy $\frac{1}{2}$ mill for fifteen years to fund them.

With the successful consolidation of rural schools, the State of Michigan again changed the role of the intermediate unit of educational government. In 1962 the Monroe County Intermediate School District was created. With the rural school districts now consolidated, the county intermediate school district was given the authority to consolidate services. In addition to control over scarce financial resources in the area of special education, the county intermediate school district was given governance authority over the mandatory special education delivery system in 1971. Both of these governance functions reflected the dominant business-scientific ideology.

In creating the intermediate school district, the State of Michigan established a negotiated educational environment. The Monroe County Intermediate School District and the local school districts could now create organizational interdependencies. These interdependencies created a more stable environment for the educational organizations.

In 1962, the Monroe County Intermediate School District served in the role of state policy entrepreneur when it advocated for legislation that was enacted and led to the approval and funding for the Monroe County Community College. These activities were in partnership with the local chamber of commerce and closely aligned with the business-scientific ideology of professional management. This role of policy entrepreneur would continue to be a governance function role of the Monroe County Intermediate School District.

With the passage of “Proposal A” in 1994, school funding was centralized at the state level, with the exception of the county intermediate school district’s ability to seek local tax levies for special education, vocational education, and operational enhancement. In 1997 the Monroe County Intermediate School District passed the first county enhancement millage in Michigan to fund technology within the nine local school districts.

One of the areas of conflict between the Monroe County Intermediate School District and its local school districts concerned the governance of vocational education. On three occasions the Monroe County Intermediate School District requested millage levies that were defeated amidst significant public rancor. The community of Monroe County has, thus far, determined that it will not centralize the governance of vocational services.

What are the dominant conflicts and ideological clashes that have impacted the Monroe County Intermediate School District?

Throughout this study, the researcher observed the conflicts within the society and culture of Michigan over the control of education. This struggle has been and continues to be viewed as being of utmost importance due to education’s role in the perpetuation of

culture. At the core of this conflict is the question of “who decides” about educational matters. Every cultural group has answered this question based on its ideology. Thus ideology, too, is at the center of this conflict that has impacted education since the Europeans came to Michigan’s shores nearly four centuries ago.

In man’s natural environment, when the indigenous people were one with nature, the extended family made the decisions concerning education. There was no conflict concerning man’s compulsion to perpetuate his own culture. In fact, the child’s education was viewed as so important to the survival of the tribal culture that it would have been unthinkable for anyone else to make educational decisions for the family.

During Michigan’s period of European conquest, the decisions concerning education began to be made by governments in far away places. This was because the culture being considered for perpetuation through education was different from the one that existed in Michigan. The European culture, with its ideology being closely tied to its religion’s hierarchical myth-complex, was brought first by the Catholic missionaries. Due to the European powers’ singular focus on the riches that could be gained by exploiting Michigan’s natural resources, state-sponsored education did not occur. Thus, formal state sponsored education would be left to the Americans.

During the territorial period, this researcher observed the first formal state-sponsored educational system. This system was championed by an unusual, for the times, partnership between a Protestant minister, John Monteith, and a Catholic priest, Gabriel Richard. Their system with its European (French) structure, foreign pedagogy (British), and elite curriculum (classical) was of little interest to the poor settlers and indigenous people struggling for survival. This effort was significant as it was the first in Michigan

that attempted to perpetuate a foreign culture through state education. It would be the model for the future.

Michigan's next great state effort was fueled by the Protestant-republican reform ideological movement that began in New York but had its roots planted in the religious beliefs of the New England Puritans. The leaders of this movement saw education as a means to produce a "homogenous moral and civic order and a providential prosperity" (Tyack, 1982, p. 19). The matter of "who decides about educational matters" was of extreme importance to the leaders of this ideological movement, many of whom were ministers. They saw the Prussian system of education with its centralized structure and Protestant religious moorings as the perfect model for their intended purpose. The Protestant-republican reformers were certain their view of America was correct – the only question was whether it would prevail. The Prussian system offered their best hope. In the Michigan system of public education, developed by John D. Pierce, a Protestant clergyman, and Isaac Crary, a politician, the superintendent of public instruction was set apart from the whims of the legislature by making it a constitutional office. Thus, the matter of "who decides" matters of public education was settled at the state level very early in statehood.

In spite of the nation's and state's historical agreement that education was a state responsibility, the people of Michigan, with their deep suspicion of government, were hesitant. They distrusted state government. The structured Prussian educational system was very controversial in a state that had a very firm belief in local control. The State of Michigan's superintendents of public instruction, in spite of their constitutional authority, had difficulty implementing the system in a democratic environment more concerned with its own survival than the cultural change that the state educational system promised.

The state solution was to place an agent of the state into each county to supervise the local education system, to report on the programs, and to improve it. Thus the position of the county superintendent of public instruction was created in 1867. Over the next twenty years, struggle would occur between the local culture and the State of Michigan as it attempted to establish a presence and influence over the local school districts. The matter of “who decides” educational matters was temporarily resolved when the State of Michigan established the role of county commissioner of schools in 1891. The state once again had a chief executive officer in every county.

The conflict over “who decides” matters of education has continued even as the ideological dominance of the Protestant-republican reformers gave way to the business-scientific ideology. This “new” ideology with its emphasis on measurement, standardization, and professionalism moved educational decisions farther away from the local people. The consolidation of local schools, carried out by the now buffered Monroe County School District on behalf of the state system of public education, prevailed in spite of public protests at the local levels. In 1994 educational funding was moved to the state level. The only local operational funding left was placed in the hands of the intermediate unit of educational governance in 1994, the Monroe County Intermediate School District.

Many conflicts and ideological clashes observed by this researcher have centered on the increasing state control of education and the attempts to perpetuate a culture other than the one that exists in the local community. The question of “who decides” matters of education have continued to slide ever more increasingly to the answer of “state government.” Still, the cultural myth of local control of education persists amongst the people and so it is that the conflict of “who decides” matters of education continues to

play out in the local educational environment though the conflict has long been settled based on the policy actions of the State of Michigan.

What was/is the educational governance role of the Monroe County Intermediate School District?

With the successful consolidation of schools and the establishment of the Monroe County Intermediate School District in 1962, the governance role of the intermediate unit of educational government has been limited by the State of Michigan and reflective of the negotiated local educational environment that exists in Michigan.

The largest governance role of the Monroe County Intermediate School, and the one that is consistent throughout the state, is its authority over the mandatory delivery of special education services to students with disabilities. Within this governance function, the Monroe County Intermediate School District has the authority to develop a plan for the delivery of special education services, secure local financial resources to fund special education services, investigate citizen complaints, and provide services. The special education millage levy in Monroe County generated approximately \$20,304,644.78 in 2007-08.

Within the negotiated educational environment, the Monroe County Intermediate School District also can seek operational enhancement financial resources for the local school districts. The Monroe County Intermediate School District was approved to levy one mill for technology enhancement in 1997. The mill was renewed in 2001 and 2006 for five years. This millage levy generated \$5,756,627 in 2007-08.

As evidenced by its actions in advocating for the creation of the Monroe County Community College, the Monroe County Intermediate School District has acted and is

viewed as an educational policy entrepreneur by its local school districts and community at large.

The management of conflict within the negotiated educational environment is still another governance function of the Monroe County Intermediate School District. The management of conflict has occurred over issues such as the state-mandated education of students with disabilities and the governance responsibility over vocational education programs. The Monroe County Intermediate School District serves in a dual role as a governance arm of the state and as a policy entrepreneur on behalf of its local school districts. This dual role places it in the political cross currents when political conflicts arise over educational matters.

What was/is the role of the Monroe County Intermediate School District in the delivery of educational services?

The Monroe County Intermediate School District delivers educational services in cooperation with its local school districts. The “educational services function” has continued to evolve and includes student enrichment, data processing, instructional technology, professional development, and special education services.

Implications for Educational Leadership

Within our society, “what is” is too often assumed to be “what must be” or “what always has been,” that is, a constant state. In conducting this interpretive study I have found that education is in a constantly evolving state, historically driven by the ideologies of dominant cultural groups at the state and local levels. This research has documented the historic roles played by the intermediate unit of educational government in the State of Michigan’s public education system. These findings have significant implications for Michigan’s educational leaders.

First and foremost, these research findings can be utilized in the professional development of educational leaders. The drift of educational governance of Michigan's system of public education has been towards centralization and away from local control. As the state has assumed more control of educational governance, the intermediate school district, originally an arm of the state, has evolved into an educational policy entrepreneur acting on behalf of local school districts.

Within the locally negotiated environment, the intermediate and local school districts have created resource interdependencies that have resulted in increased organizational certainty. Changes in the dominant educational ideology that result in regulatory changes will alter the conditions existing in the educational environment and increase uncertainty for all educational organizations. This information is vital to educational leaders of the intermediate and local school districts alike.

Since the year 2000, there has been a tremendous turnover in intermediate school district superintendents. During that period, 49 of 57 intermediate school districts have changed superintendents. This turnover has occurred at a time when the intermediate school districts have been under increasing attack by the state level public policy entrepreneurs with agendas to change the governance structure of education via the consolidation or reduction of intermediate school districts. Any such changes will greatly alter the locally negotiated educational environment. Recently, there have been efforts to have the boards of education of the intermediate school districts elected by popular vote. Such a change would greatly politicize and socialize the educational conflicts at the local levels. Given the control of the media and resources by elite policy entrepreneurs, such actions could result in the seizing of even greater authority by the state elites under the premise of increasing "local control." It is imperative that intermediate school district

leaders understand the ideological nature of the political conflict and organizational bias inherent in the Michigan Public Education System. This study will assist leaders in gaining the necessary understanding and can be utilized in preparing and mentoring leaders of intermediate school districts.

Since the inception of the intermediate school district in 1962, the state level government has continued to erode local control of educational policy making. “Proposal A” of 1994 centralized operational funding at the state level, with the exception of the intermediate school district’s ability to raise local tax levies for special education, vocational, and operational enhancement millages. This ability to generate scarce financial resources across the county and distribute them to local school districts has brought interdependency and legitimacy to the Monroe County Intermediate School District. As the last vestige of the local control of financial resources, the leaders of the intermediate and local school districts must understand the historical implications of the bias of Michigan’s public education system towards stronger centralization. This will enable them to make future management and leadership decisions in the best interest of public education and the children they serve.

Suggestions for Future Research

This study has answered the researcher’s questions concerning the Monroe County Intermediate School District’s role in the governance system of public education. Given the significance of the governance role of the intermediate school district, future sources of scientific inquiry could focus on the impact of technology and the virtual environment on the business-scientific ideology and regulations.

In recent years, the Michigan Department of Education and the Michigan Association of Intermediate School Administrators have embarked on a “darkening the

dotted lines” initiative. The intent of this initiative is to strengthen the relationship between the state department of education and Michigan’s intermediate school districts. Future research could focus on changes to the intermediate school districts governance and services functions and their impact on the relationships with local school districts that exist in the negotiated educational environment. Educational leaders and researchers must give Michigan’s intermediate school districts continued study for the benefit of Michigan’s public education system and the children served therein.

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APPENDIX A

THE TERRITORY OF MICHIGAN'S FIRST PUBLIC EDUCATION SYSTEM

Following is the first public act ever implemented creating a public education system in
Michigan

An Act to Establish the Catholepistemiad, or University of Michigania.

“Be it enacted by the Governor and the Judges of the Territory of Michigan, that there shall be in the said Territory a Catholepistemiad, or university, denominated the catholepistemiad, or the University of Michigania. The catholepistemiad or university of Michigania shall be composed of thirteen didaxiim or professorships: first a didaxia, or professorship of catholepistemia, or universal science, the didactor, or professor of which shall be president of the institution; second, a didaxia or professorship of anthropoglossica or literature, embracing all the epistemiim or sciences relative to language; third, a didaxia or professorship of mathematica or mathematics; fourth, a didaxia or professorship of physiognostica or natural history; fifth, a didaxia or professorship of physiosophica or natural philosophy; sixth, a didaxia or professorship of astronomia or astronomy; seventh, a didaxia or professorship of chymia or chemistry; eighth, a didaxia or professorship of iatuca or medical sciences; ninth, a didaxia or professorship of aconomia or economical sciences; tenth, a didaxia or professorship of ethica or ethical sciences; eleventh, a didaxia or professorship of polemitactica or military sciences; twelfth, a didaxia or professorship of diegetica or historical sciences; and thirteenth, a didaxia or professorship of ennoeica or intellectual sciences, embracing all the epistemiim or sciences relative to the minds of animals, to the human mind, to spiritual existence, to the Deity,

and to religion; the didactor or professor of which shall be vice-president of the institution. The didactors, or professors, shall be appointed and commissioned by the Governor. There shall be paid from the Treasury of Michigan in quarterly payments, to the president of the institution, and to each didactor or professor, an annual salary, to be from time to time ascertained by law. More than one didaxia or professorship may be conferred upon the same person. The president and didactors or professors, or a majority of them assembled, shall have power to regulate all the concerns of the institution, to enact laws for that purpose, to sue, to be sued, to acquire, to hold and to alien property, real, mixed and personal, to make, to use and to alter a seal, to establish colleges, academies, schools, libraries, museums, athenoeums, botanic gardens, laboratories, and other useful literary and scientific institutions, consonant to the laws of the United States of America, and of Michigan, and to appoint officers, instructors and instructri, in, among and throughout the various counties, cities, towns, townships, and other geographical divisions of Michigan. Their name and title as a corporation shall be *The Catholepistemiad or the University of Michigania*. To every subordinate instructor and instructrix, appointed by the catholepistemiad or university, there should be paid from the Treasury of Michigan, in quarterly payments, an annual salary, to be from time to time, ascertained by law. The existing public taxes are hereby increased fifteen per cent; and from the proceeds of the present and all future public taxes, fifteen percent are appropriated for the benefit of the catholepistemiad or university. The Treasurer of Michigan shall keep a separate account of the university fund. The catholepistemiad or university may prepare and draw four successive lotteries, deducting from the prizes in the same fifteen

per cent for the benefit of the institution. The proceeds of the preceding sources of revenue, and of all subsequent, shall be applied in the first instance, to the acquisition of suitable lands and buildings, and books, libraries and apparatus, and afterwards to such purposes as shall be from time to time by law directed. The honorarium for a course of lectures shall not exceed fifteen dollars; for classical instruction, ten dollars a quarter, and for ordinary instruction, six dollars a quarter. If the judges of the court of any county, or a majority of them, shall certify that the parent or guardian of any person has not adequate means to defray the expense of suitable instruction, and that the same ought to be a public charge, the honorarium shall be paid from the treasury of Michigan. An annual report of the state, concerns, and transactions of the institution shall be laid before the legislative power for the time being. This law, or any part of it, may be repealed by the legislative power for the time being.

Made adopted, and published from the laws of seven of the original states, to wit: the State of Connecticut, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Virginia, so far as necessary and suitable to circumstances of Michigan, at Detroit on Tuesday, the 26th day of August, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and seventeen.”

William Woodridge, Secretary of Michigan, and at present acting governor thereof.

A.B. Woodward, Presiding Judge of the Supreme Court of the Territory of Michigan

John Griffin, Judge of the Supreme Court of the Territory of Michigan

APPENDIX B

THE STATE OF MICHIGAN'S FIRST PUBLIC EDUCATION SYSTEM

[No. LXIII.]

An act to provide for the organization and support of primary schools.

Article 1

Primary school districts, their powers and duties.

Sec. 1. Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the State of Michigan, That whenever any school district shall be formed in any township by the board of school inspectors, it shall be the duty of said board to deliver a notice in writing, describing the boundaries of said district, and the time and place of the first meeting, to a taxable inhabitant of such district.

Sec. 2. It shall be the duty of such inhabitant to notify every qualified voter of such district, either personally or by leaving a written notice at this place of residence, of the time and place of said meeting, at least five days before said meeting.

Sec. 3. In case the inhabitants of the district fail to organize the same, or if any district after formation shall be dissolved for any cause, such notice shall be renewed in the manner prescribed in the preceding section.

Sec. 4. Whenever such inhabitant shall neglect or refuse to serve the notice as required, he shall forfeit to the district, for the use of its library, the sum of twenty-five dollars, to be recovered in an action of debt by the district board, when said district shall be organized, before any court of competent jurisdiction.

Sec. 5. Every white male inhabitant of the age of twenty-one years, residing in such district, liable to pay a school tax, shall be entitled to vote at any district meeting.

Sec. 6. The qualified voters, when assembled pursuant to such previous notice, and also at each annual meeting, shall choose a moderator, director and assessor.

Sec. 7. Special meetings of the district may be called by its officers, or by any one of them, on the written request of five legal voters of the district, by giving the required previous notice; but in all such cases, the object of the meeting shall be clearly stated in said notice.

Sec. 8. Whenever lawfully assembled, the qualified voters of each district shall have power,

1. To adjourn from time to time, as may be necessary.
2. To designate a site for a school-house, and to change the same by a vote of two-thirds at any regular meeting.
3. To purchase or lease an appropriate site, and to build, hire or purchase a school-house, and to impose such tax on the inhabitants as shall be sufficient for the payment thereof: Provided, That the amount of such tax shall not exceed in any one year the sum of five hundred dollars.
4. To impose from time to time such tax as may be required to keep the school-house in repair and provide for the necessary appendages and fuel for the same time.
5. To impose a tax sufficient for the purchase of a suitable library case; also, a sum not exceeding ten dollars annually for the

purchase of books, to be selected by a vote of the district, or by the district board when so directed.

5. To designate the place where the library shall be kept, and the person by whom it shall be kept; and the superintendent of public instruction shall establish the necessary rules for the regulation of the library.
6. To determine at each annual meeting the length of time, which shall not be less than three months, the school shall be kept; and to fix the amount of money, in addition to its apportionment, which may be raised for the support of its schools the ensuing year; the sum so voted, not to exceed in any one year ninety dollars.

Sec. 9. All notices for district meetings, except such as provided for in the first three sections of this act, whether annual or special, shall set forth the day and hour and place of meeting, and given at least six days previous to such meeting, by being posted up in three of the most public places in the district.

Sec. 10. The annual meeting of each school district shall be on the first Monday of October.

Sec. 11. Each school district organized under this act, shall be a body corporate by the name and style of "School district, number, of the township of, in the county of, and State of Michigan; and in that name capable of suing and being sued, and of holding such real and personal estate, as is authorized to be purchased by the provisions of this act.

Article II

District Officers, their powers and duties.

Sec. 12. The moderator, director and assessor, shall hold their respective offices until the annual meeting next following their appointment, and until others are chosen.

Sec. 13. Every person elected to any one of the above offices, who without sufficient cause shall neglect or refuse to serve, shall forfeit to the district for the use of the library the sum of ten dollars, to be recovered by an action of debt, at the suit of the district board, before any court of competent jurisdiction.

Sec. 14. The moderator shall have power, and it shall be his duty, to preside at all meetings of the district, to sign all warrants for the collection of taxes, and all orders for the payment of moneys to be disbursed by the district, and countersign all warrants of the director upon the township board of school inspectors, for the moneys apportioned to the district by said board of school inspectors.

Sec. 15. The assessor shall have power, and it shall be his duty,

1. To obtain within thirty days of his election a transcript of so much of the last assessment roll of the township or townships as relates to his district, and shall add to such transcript all the property of persons who may have become residents since the last assessment roll was made, and all the property purchased by non-residents since the making of said roll; said property to be related according to the rule of valuation adopted in making our the township assessment roll: *Provided*, That no property shall be twice assessed, and said transcript, together with such additions as shall be made as aforesaid, shall be the assessment

roll of said district; And all taxes to be raised in such district, shall be levied upon the taxable property thereof, in proportion to such valuation.

2. To post up, whenever any tax shall have been assessed upon the inhabitants or property of his district, in the most frequented and central place, a list of persons so taxed, with the amount set opposite their respective names, at least thirty days previous to the same being offered for collection.
3. To call a meeting for the district board, in case any person shall complain to him during the above named period, of being ground of said complaint, and revise, alter or confirm said assessment, as in their adjudgement justice shall require; And at the end of the time specified, he shall certify the same upon the tax list, and present it to the moderator for his warrant.
4. It shall be the duty of the assessor to collect all taxes assessed upon the inhabitants and taxable property of his district, and pay them over on the warrant of the moderator; and in case any person shall neglect or refuse to pay such tax when called upon, it shall be the duty of the assessor, to collect the same by distress and sale of the goods and chattels of such persons, wheresoever found in said district, having first published such sale for at least ten days, by posting up notices thereof in three of the most public places in the district: And in the collection of taxes upon lands and tenements, said assessor shall make returns to the treasurer of the county in the same manner as township

collectors; and it shall be the duty of the treasurer to sell the lands and tenements for the collection of said school tax in the same manner as is required for the collection of township and county taxes.

Sec. 16. The director shall have power, and it shall be his duty,

1. To record all the proceedings of the district in a book to be kept for that purpose, and preserve copies of all reports made to the board of school inspectors.
2. To employ, by and with the advice and consent of the moderator and assessor, or either of them, qualified teachers, see them examined and paid by a draft upon the township board of school inspectors, said draft not to exceed the amount due said district on account of the apportionment of the board of school inspectors.
3. Whenever the apportionments shall not be sufficient to pay for the services of any such teachers, it shall be the duty of the director to call a meeting of the district board for the purpose of levying the balance upon the taxable property of the district, the amount so levied not to exceed the sum voted by the district at its annual meeting.
4. Within ten days of the time of his appointment, the director shall take the census of his district, by registering the names of all belonging to it, between the ages of five and seventeen years inclusive.
5. A copy of this list he shall furnish to each of every teacher employed within the district, and require every such teacher care-taxed beyond his due proportion, which shall examine into the fully to note the time

of the attendance of each and every scholar, and to make a return of the same to the director.

6. It shall be the duty of the director to provide the necessary appendages for the school-house, and keep the same in good condition and repair, during the time of school, and an accurate account of all expenses incurred.
7. He shall present said account to the district board, to be assessed and collected in the manner hereinbefore prescribed.
8. At the end of the year, the school director shall report to the township board of school inspectors the number of scholars in his district; the number who have attended school; the amount of money received from the township board of school inspectors; the amount raised within the district; and for what purposes, and the books used in said school; said report to be forwarded to the office of the township clerk, on or before the day of the annual meeting of said district.

Sec. 17. The moderator, director and assessor shall constitute the district board, and they shall have power, and it shall be their duty,

1. To levy and assess upon the taxable property all moneys voted by the district, and the sums requisite for the necessary appendages and fuel for the school-house, during the continuance of any school.
2. To purchase or lease a site, as designated by the district for the school-house, in the corporate name thereof; and to build, hire or purchase such school-house out of the funds collected for that purpose.

3. To divide the public moneys received by the district for the year into not more than two parts; and to assign and apply one of such portions to each term a school may be kept, in payment of the teacher or teachers for services for the same.
4. To require of the assessor a bond, to be given to the district, in double the amount of taxes to be collected in the district, with two sufficient sureties, to be approved by the moderator and director, conditioned for the faithful appropriation of all moneys that may come into his hands by virtue of his office; said bond to be lodged in the hands of the moderator; and in case of a non-fulfilment of the condition thereof, the moderator and director, or either of them, may cause a suit for the penalty of said bond to be commenced in the name of the district before any court of competent jurisdiction.

Sec. 18. The district shall have power to fill by appointment any vacancy that shall occur by death, removal or disability to act; and it shall be the duty of the board to supply such vacancy within ten days after the time of its occurrence.

Sec. 19. Each member of the district board shall receive such compensation for his or their services as shall be voted in district meeting.

Article III
District libraries

Sec. 20. Each and every district that shall comply with the fifth provision of the eighth section of this act, shall be entitle to its proportion of the clear proceeds of all fines collected within the county for any breach of the penal laws; and also its

proportion of the equivalent for exemption from military duty, according to the number of children between the ages of five and seventeen years inclusive.

Article IV

Township board of school inspectors, their powers and duties.

Sec. 21. There shall be chosen at each annual township meeting, three school inspectors, in the same manner as in other township offices are chosen.

Sec. 22. Said inspectors shall have power, and it shall be their duty, to meet within ten days of their election, at the office of the township clerk, who shall be ex-officio clerk of the board, and organize by choosing one of their number chairman, who shall preside at their meeting.

1. To divide the township into such a number of districts, and to regulate and alter the boundaries of said school districts, as may from time to time be necessary.
2. To describe and number the school districts of their township.
3. To apply for and receive from the county treasurer, all moneys appropriated for the primary schools, in their townships, and from the collector of the township all moneys raised therein from the same purpose, as soon as the same shall be due.
4. To apportion the school moneys received by them on or before the first March of each year, among the several school districts, and parts of districts in their township, in proportion to the number of scholars in each, between the ages of five and seventeen years, as the same shall be shown by the last annual report of the director of each district; Provided, No money shall be apportioned to any district, from which a

report shall not have been received, nor to any district in which a school shall not have been kept, at least three months during the year immediately preceding, by a qualified teacher.

Sec. 23. The chairman of the township board of school inspectors, shall be the treasurer of said board; and it shall be the duty of the inspectors to require of said chairman a bond, to be given to the township, in double the amount to be received by him, in two sufficient sureties, to be approved by the supervisor or township clerk, conditioned for the faithful appropriation of all moneys that may come into his hands by virtue of his office; said bond to be lodged with the township clerk, who is hereby authorized, in case of the non-fulfillment of the condition of said bond, to sue for the penalty thereof, before the court of competent jurisdiction.

Sec. 24. On or before the fifteenth day of October of each year, they should make out a transmit to the county clerk a report setting forth,

1. The whole number of districts in their township.
2. The number of districts from which reports have been made, within the year.
3. The length of time a school has been kept by a qualified teacher.
4. The amount of public money paid to each.
5. The number of children taught in each, and the number of belonging to each district, between the ages of five and seventeen years.
6. The amount of moneys received from the school fund, and also the amount raised in the township, for the support of primary schools, and the manner in which the same has been appropriated.

Sec. 25. If the board of school inspectors shall neglect or refuse to make such report by the time set forth in the preceding section, they shall forfeit to the use of the schools of their townships, the sum of fifty dollars, and the full amount of money lost by their failure, with interest on the same, to be recovered in an action of debt by the township collector before any court having competent jurisdiction of the same.

Sec. 26. Whenever it may be necessary or convenient to form a district from two or more adjoining townships, the inspectors or majority of them, from each of such adjoining townships may form a district, regulate and alter the same: And the director of such district so formed, shall make returned from each township from which said district is formed, specifying in said returns that only which belongs to said township.

Sec. 27. It shall be the duty of the inspectors to examine annually all persons offering themselves as candidates for teaching primary schools in the township, in regard to moral character, learning and ability to teach school; and if satisfied that such candidates possess the requisite qualifications, they shall deliver to the person so examined a certificate, signed by them in such form as shall be prescribed by the superintendent of public instruction, which certificate shall be in full force only one year from the date thereof.

Sec. 28. Whenever the inspectors shall deem it necessary, they may re-examine any teacher of any primary school in their township. And if found wanting in the requisite qualifications, they may annul any certificate given to such teacher, by given to such person ten days' written notice to that effect, and filing the same in the office of the clerk of the township.

Sec. 29. It shall be the duty of the inspectors to visit all such schools in their township, at least twice in each year, as shall be organized according to law, to enquire into their condition, examine the scholars, and given such advice to both teachers and scholars as they shall deem proper.

Sec. 30. In case of the death, or removal, or disability to act of any one of the inspectors the board shall fill such vacancy by appointment.

Sec. 31. Whenever any district board shall fail to supply any vacancy within the time limited in section eighteen, the township board of school inspectors shall fill the same by appointment.

Sec. 32. The inspectors shall be entitled to receive for their services the sum of one dollar per day, to be audited and paid.

Sec. 33. Any person elected or appointed school inspector, who shall neglect or refuse, without sufficient cause, to serve as such, shall forfeit to the use of the school fund of his townships, the sum of twenty-five dollars, to be recovered as prescribed in the twenty-third section of this act.

Article V
Of certain duties of the township clerk.

Sec. 34. The township clerk shall be ex-officio clerk of the board of school inspectors, and shall have power, and it shall be his duty,

1. To attend all meetings of the inspectors, and to prepare under their direction all their reports, estimates and apportionments of school moneys, and to record the same and all their proceedings in a book to be kept for that purpose.

2. To receive and keep all reports made to the inspectors from the directors of the school district, and all the books and papers belonging to the inspectors, and file the same in his office.
3. To receive all such communications as may be directed to him from the superintendent of public instruction, and dispose of the same in the manner directed therein.
4. To transmit to the clerk of the county, all such reports as may be made for such clerk, by the inspectors; and generally to do and execute all such things as belong to his office and may be required of him by the inspectors.

Article VI
Of certain duties of the county clerk.

Sec. 35. It shall be the duty of the clerk of each county, on or before the first of November of every year, to make and transmit to the superintendent of public instruction, a report in writing, containing the whole number of townships in his county, distinguished townships from which the required reports have been made to him by the inspectors of schools, and containing a certified copy of all their reports; and the board of supervisors of each county are hereby authorized, to allow to the clerk of their counties such compensation as they may deem proper for the services he may perform under and by virtue of the provisions of this act.

Sec. 36. Any clerk who shall neglect or refuse to make such report, by the time so limited, shall, for each offence, forfeit the sum of one hundred dollars to the use of the schools of said county, to be recovered in an action of debt, to be commenced forthwith, by and in the name of the superintendent of public

instruction; and the money so recovered shall, when received by the superintendent, be paid into the treasury of the county to the credit, and for the use of the district or districts which may suffer out by the proper authority of said district or districts.

Article VII

Distribution of the income of the school funds.

Sec. 37. The moneys to be hereafter distributed annually for the support of primary schools, shall be payable on the first Monday of September in each year, on the warrant of the auditor general, to the treasurer of the several counties.

Sec. 38. The treasurers of the counties shall apply for and receive such moneys as are apportioned to their respective counties, when the same shall become due.

Sec. 39. The treasurer of each county, when he shall receive such moneys, shall give notice in writing to the chairman or clerk of the board of school inspectors of each township in his county, of the amount apportioned to such township, and shall hold the same subject to the order of the inspectors.

Sec. 40. In case any moneys apportioned to any township shall not be applied for by such inspectors, the moneys so remaining shall be added to the moneys next received by the treasurer for distribution from the superintendent of public instruction, and in the same proportion distributed.

Sec. 41. Whenever the clerk of any county shall receive from the superintendent notice of the apportionment of moneys for his county, he shall file the same in his office, and within one week submit a certified copy thereof to the county treasurer, and to the clerk of the board of supervisors; and said clerk shall lay such copy before the supervisors at their next meeting.

Sec. 42. It shall be the duty of the supervisors, at such meeting, to add to the sums of money to be raised in each of the townships of the county, a sum equal to that which shall have been apportioned to such township, to be levied and collected in the same manner as other moneys are directed to be raised in the township.

Sec. 43. The supervisors shall cause and require in the collector of each township, by their warrant, to pay such moneys when collected, to the chairman of the board of school inspectors in such township, for the use of school therein.

Sec. 44. Should any township neglect or refuse to elect a board of school inspectors, the collector shall pay the moneys so collected to the county treasurer, to be apportioned among the several townships, as provided in the fortieth section of this act.

Article VIII

Officers required to transmit to their successors in office.

Sec. 45. Each and every officer created by the provisions of this act, who shall receive, by virtue of his office, any books, papers or moneys, and shall refuse to deliver the same to his successor in office, or shall willfully mutilate or destroy the same, or any part thereof, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and liable to a fine not less than fifty dollars, nor more than five hundred, at the discretion of the court.

Sec. 46. This act shall take effect on and after the first of April next.

Approved March 20, 1837 (Public Act No. LV, 1837, pp. 116-126).

APPENDIX C

THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN ACT

An Act to provide for the organization and government of the “University of Michigan.”

Sec. 1. Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the State of Michigan, That there shall be established in this state an institution under the name and style of “The University of Michigan.”

Sec. 2. The objects of the university shall be to provide the inhabitants of the state with the means of acquiring a thorough knowledge of the various branches of literature, science, and the arts.

Sec. 3. The government of the university shall be vested in a board of regents, to consist of twelve members and a chancellor, who shall be ex-officio president thereof; which board shall be nominated by the governor, and appointed by and with the advice and consent of the senate.

Sec. 4. The governor, lieutenant governor, judges of the supreme court and chancellor of the state, shall be ex-officio members of said board. A secretary shall be appointed by said board, whose duty it shall be to record all the proceedings of the board, and carefully preserve all its books and papers.

Sec. 5. The regents appointed by the third section of this act, shall, on their first meeting, be divided by the secretary into four classes of three each, to be numbered one, two, three and four; and of four ballots, so to be numbered, the class which shall draw years; number three; and number four, four years.

Sec. 6. The regents to be appointed pursuant to the third section of this act, and their successors in office, shall constitute a body corporate, with the name and

title of the “Regents of the University of Michigan;” with the right as such of suing and being sued, of making and using a common seal and altering the same at pleasure.

Sec. 7. The regents shall have power, and it shall be their duty, to enact laws for the government for the university; to appoint the prescribed number of professors, and the requisite number of tutors; also to determine the amount of their respective salaries; and also to appoint a steward and fix the amount of his salary.

Sec. 8. The university shall consist of three departments.

1st. The department of literature, science and the arts.

2d. The department of law.

3d. The department of medicine.

In several departments there shall be established the following professorships:

In the department of literature, science and arts, one of ancient languages; one of modern languages; one of rhetoric and oratory; one of philosophy of history, logic and philosophy of the human kind; one of moral philosophy and natural theology, including the history of all religions; one of political economy; one of mathematics; one of natural philosophy; one of chemistry and pharmacy; one of geology and mineralogy; one of botany and zoology; one of fine arts; one of civil engineering and architecture: In the department of law, one of natural, international and constitutional law; one of common and statute law and equity; one of commercial and maritime law: In the department of medicine, one of anatomy; one of surgery; one of physiology and pathology; one of practice of physics; one of obstetrics and the diseases of women and children; one of material and medical jurisprudence; provided, That in the first organization of the

university, the regents shall so arrange the professorships, as to appoint such a number only as the wants of the institution shall require; and to increase them from time to time, as the income of the fund shall warrant, and the public interests demand: Provided, that always, That no new professorships shall be established without the consent of the legislature.

Sec. 9. The immediate government of the several departments shall be entrusted to their respective faculties; but the regents shall have power to regulate the course of instruction, and prescribe, under the advice of the professorship, the books and the authorities to be used in the several departments; and also to confer such degrees and grant such diplomas as are usually conferred and granted in the other universities.

Sec. 10. The regents shall have power to remove any professor or tutor, or other officers connected with the institution, when in their judgment the interest of the university shall require it.

Sec. 11. At their first meeting the board of regents shall appoint a secretary, librarian and treasurer, who shall hold their offices during the pleasure of the board. The treasurer shall give such bonds as the regents may direct, for the faithful performance of the duties of his office; and shall keep a true and faithful account of all moneys received and paid out.

Sec. 12. The fee of admission to the university shall never exceed ten dollars; and it shall be open to all persons resident in the state, who wish to avail themselves of its advantages, without charge of tuition, under the regulations prescribed by the regents, and to all others under such restrictions and regulations as said regents shall prescribe.

Sec. 13. The moneys thus received shall go into the hands of the treasurer; and so much of such moneys as are needed for the purpose; shall be expended by the regents in keeping the university buildings in good condition and repair; and the balance be appropriated for the increase of the library.

Sec. 14. A board of visitors, to consist of five persons, shall be appointed annually by the superintendent of public instruction, whose duty it shall be to make a personal examination into the state of the university, in all its departments, and report the result to the superintendent, suggesting such improvements as they may deem important, which report shall be transmitted to the legislature at its next session.

Sec. 15. It shall be the duty of the regents to make an exhibit of the affairs of the university each year to the board of visitors, setting forth the university, the amount of expenditures, the number of professors and tutors, and the salaries of each; the number of students in the several departments and in the different classes; the books of instruction used, and such other information as the board may require, together with an estimate of expenses for the ensuing year.

Sec. 16. As soon as the state shall provide funds for that purpose, the board of regents shall proceed to the erection of the necessary buildings for the university, on the ground to be designated by the legislature, and in such manner as shall be prescribed by law.

Sec. 17. The regents shall have power, and it shall be their duty, faithfully to expend all moneys which may be from time to time appropriated for books and apparatus, for the use and benefit of the university.

Sec. 18. It shall be the duty of the board of regents, together with the superintendent of public instruction, to establish such branches of the university in the different parts of the state, as shall be from time to time authorized by the legislature; also to establish all needful rules and regulations for the government of such branches; Provided always, That nothing in this act shall be so construed as to grant to any such branch the right of conferring degrees; and that said branches so to be established, shall not be in more than one in any one organized county of the state.

Sec. 19. In connection with every such branch of the university, there should be established an institution for the education of females in the higher branches of knowledge, whenever suitable buildings shall be prepared, to be under the same general direction and management as the branch with which it is connected.

Sec. 20. In each of the branches of the university, there shall be a department of agriculture, with competent instructors in the theory of agriculture, including vegetable physiology and agricultural chemistry, and experimental and practical farming and agricultural. Whenever such branch shall be formed, there shall also be established in each a department especially appropriated to the education of teachers for the primary schools, and such other departments as the regents shall judge necessary to promote the public welfare.

Sec. 21. Whenever the branches of such university, or any of them, shall be established, as hereinbefore provided, there shall be apportioned to each, in proportion to the number of scholars be apportioned to each, in proportion to the number of scholars therein, such sums for the support of its professors and

teachers, and also such other sums for the purchase of books and apparatus, as the state of the university fund shall warrant and allow.

Sec. 22. The first meeting of the regents of the university shall be held within three months of the time of their appointment, at such time and place as the governor of this state shall designate; and it shall be the duty of the governor of this state to give reasonable notice to each member of the board of the time and place of such meeting; subsequent meetings may be called in such manner as the regents at the first meeting may prescribe; and seven of them so assembled, shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business, and a less number may adjourn from time to time.

Sec. 23. The board of regents are hereby authorized and required, on or before the first Monday of January next, to procure the best and most appropriate plan for the university buildings, which plan, if approved of by the governor and superintendent of public instruction, shall be adopted by the regents of the university.

Approved March 18, 1837

APPENDIX D

ARTICLE X OF THE STATE OF MICHIGAN'S FIRST CONSTITUTION

ARTICLE X

EDUCATION

Superintendent of public instruction, appointment, term.

1. The Governor shall nominate, and, by and with the advice and consent of the legislature in joint vote, shall appoint a superintendent of public instruction, who shall hold his office for two years, and whose duties shall be prescribed by law.

Perpetual fund for support of schools.

2. The legislature shall encourage, by all suitable means, the promotion of Intellectual, Scientifical and Agricultural improvement. The proceeds of all lands that have been, or hereafter may be, granted by the United States to this state, for the support of schools, which shall hereafter be sold or disposed of, shall be and remain a perpetual fund; the interest of which, together with the rents of all such unsold lands, shall be inviolable appropriated to the support of schools throughout the State.

Common school system, yearly term.

3. The legislature shall provide for a system of Common Schools, by which a school shall be kept up and supported in each school district, at least three months in every year; and any school district neglecting to keep up and support such a school may be derived of its equal proportion of the interest of the public fund.

Libraries

4. As soon as the circumstances of the state will permit, the legislation shall provide for the establishment of Libraries, one at least in each township; and the money which shall be paid by persons as an equivalent for exemption from military duty, and the clear proceeds of all fines assessed in the several counties for any branch of the penal laws, shall be exclusively applied for the support of said libraries.

University Fund

5. The legislature shall take measures for the protection, improvement or other disposition of such lands as have been, or may hereafter be, reserved or granted by the United States to this state for the support of a University; and the funds accruing from the rents or sale of such lands, or from any other source, for the purpose aforesaid, shall be and remain a permanent fund for the support of said University, with such branches as the public convenience may hereafter demand, for the promotion of literature, the arts and science, and as may be authorized by the terms of such grants; and it shall be the duty of the legislature, as soon as may be, to provide effectual means for the improvement and permanent security of the funds of said University.

(Constitution of the State of Michigan, 1835, pp. 15-16)

APPENDIX E

SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

The duties of the superintendent of public instruction were outlined by the legislature on July 26, 1836 as follows:

Sec. 1. Be it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the State of Michigan, That it shall be the duty of the superintendent of public instruction, to make out an inventory of all the lands, and all other property, if there be any, according to the best information he can obt in [sic] without personally viewing the same, which have been or may be set apart, and reserved for the purposes of education in this state, with a statement of the condition and location of said property.

Sec. 2. The superintendent shall give his views in writing to the legislature, on or before the second Monday of January, one thousand eight hundred and thirty-seven, relative to the further disposition of said property.

Sec. 3. He shall prepare and suggest a system for the organization and establishment of common schools, and a university and its branches.

Sec. 4. It shall be his duty to require of commissioners or trustees of common schools or other officers who have been or may be appointed, to take charge of said property, not only a statement of the location and condition, but an appraisalment of the same.

Sec. 5. He shall in like manner require of the directors of school districts, reports of their respective districts, embracing a statement of all the property belonging to said district, its condition and valuation, the number of children between the ages of five and sixteen years within each district, the length of time a school has been

kept, the number of scholars who have attended, the branches taught, and the amount paid for such school for the year ending first of September next, and it is hereby made the duty of the said commissioners, trustees, directors or other proper officers to perform the duties specified in this and the preceding section.

Sec. 6. He shall arrange and embody all the said reports under proper heads and titles, in a condensed form, and lay the same before the legislature on or before the second Monday of January, one thousand eight hundred and thirty-seven.

Sec. 7. He shall hold a correspondence with such members of literary institutions as he may deem proper.

Sec. 8. He shall take charge of all those lands which have been or may be set apart and reserved for the purposes of education, in those counties and townships where no commissioners or trustees have been appointed; he shall have power to preserve them from waste or trespass, the same as commissioners or trustees empowered by statute laws now in force relative to them.

Sec. 9. He shall receive the money which shall be paid by any person or persons as an equivalent for exemption from military duty, and the clear proceeds of all fines assessed in the several counties for any branch of the penal laws of this state; which said moneys the said superintendent shall retain subject to the further order of the legislature.

Sec. 10. The superintendent shall, before entering upon duties of his office, give a bond to the treasurer of the state, with two or more sufficient sureties to be approved of by the treasurer, in the penal sum of ten thousand dollars conditioned that he shall pay over on demand all moneys which he may receive by virtue of his office, to the treasurer or other officer authorized by law to receive the same.

Sec. 11. He shall receive for his services the sum of five hundred dollars per annum, payable quarterly, out of any moneys in the treasury not otherwise appropriated.

Sec. 12. Said superintendent shall not, during his continuance in office, hold any other office or attend to the business of any other profession except that of instruction.

APPENDIX F

CIRCULAR OF THE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

(1)

*Circular of the Superintendent of
Public Instruction.*

(No. 1.)

Office of Superintendent of
Public Instruction,
Marshall, July 15, 1837

To the Clerk of the Township of Monroe:

Sir—Pursuant to the third provision of the thirty-fourth section of the School Act, approved March 21, 1837, I have the honor herewith to transmit to you the blank Reports for your Township, which, together with the following communication, I trust you will forward to the several officers to which they respectively belong.

Respectfully, your ob^d servant
John S. Peery
Superintendent of Pub. Inst.

(No. 2.)

Office of Superintendent of
Public Instruction,
Marshall, July 15, 1837

To the Inspectors of Primary Schools of the Township of Monroe:

Gentlemen—The part you occupy in the School System of our State is one to which much responsibility is attached. You will be called upon to form new Districts, as well as change the boundaries of those already formed—to decide upon the qualifications of Teachers—to visit and examine the several School Districts—to apportion the public money derived to your Township from the School Funds, and make annually a report of your doings, and the condition of the districts in your Township. On a faithful discharge of these duties, and others required by law, will depend in a great measure the success of the school system of this State. It will be highly important to pursue such a course as may tend to conciliate all interests and unite the hearts and hands of all classes in putting the Schools of our State upon high and elevated grounds of permanent usefulness.

2
 Whether the standard of Education in your Township shall be elevated, or depressed, will depend greatly on the doings of your Board. In this view of the subject, you will doubtless deem it of immense and vital importance to insist, by your act, with the legal qualification of Teacher such only as possess the acquirements, moral character, learning and ability, to do honor to the profession. Cheap School Teachers are to be considered the scourge of all earthly commodities—involving a waste of time and a waste of intellect; and their employment ought to be regarded, as an outrage upon the sacred rights of a new and rising generation.

As soon as the School Law shall have passed under the hand of the Governor, to conform it to the contemplated, revised code, it will be published separately, with such forms as the act requires, and forwarded to the Township and District officers connected with the School System.—In the mean time the Superintendent has the honor herewith to transmit blank Reports, and the form of a Certificate for Teachers.

Respectfully, your ob't servant,

John S. Pierce,

Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Copy of Circular of the Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Circular of the Superintendent of
Public Instruction

Print Version

(No. 1)

Office of Superintendent of
Public Instruction
Marshall, July 15, 1837.

To the Clerk of the Township of Monroe;

Sir – Pursuant to the third provision of the thirty fourth section of the School Act, approved March 21, 1837, I have the honor herewith to transmit to you the blank Reports [sic] for your township, which, together with the following communication, I trust you will forward to the several officers to which the respectfully belong.

Respectfully, your obedient servant,

John D. Pierce

Superintendent of Pub. Inst.

(No. 2)

Office of Superintendent of
Public Instruction
Marshall, July 15, 1837.

To the Inspectors of Primary Schools of the Township of Monroe;

Gentlemen – The post you occupy in the School System of your state is one to which much responsibility is attached. You will be called upon to form new districts, as well as, change the boundaries of those already formed – to decide upon the qualifications of teachers – to visit and examine the several school districts – to apportion the public money derived to your township from the school funds, and make annually a report of your doings, and the condition of the districts in your townships. On a faithful discharge of these duties, and others required by law, will depend in a great measure the success of the school system of this state. It will be highly important to pursue such a course as may tend to conciliate all interests and unite the hearts and hands of all classes, in putting the schools of our state on high and elevated ground of permanent usefulness.

2.) Whether the standard of Education in your Township, shall be elevated or depressed [sic], will depend greatly on the doings of your board. In this view of the subject you will doubtless deem it of immense and vital importance, to invest, by your act, with the legal qualifications of teachers, such only as propels the requisite ‘moral character, learning and ability’ to do honor to the profession.

Cheap school teachers are to be considered the dearest of all earthy commodities – involving a waste of time and a waste of intellect; and their employment ought to be regarded as an outrage upon the sacred rights of a new and rising generation.

As soon as the school law shall have shaped under the hand of the revisor, to conform it to the contemplated revised code, it will be published separately, with such forms as the act requires, and forwarded to the township and district officers

connected with the school system. In the mean time the superintendent has the honor herewith to transmit blank reports, and the form of a certificate for teachers.

Respectfully, your obedient servant,

John D. Pierce

Superintendent of Public Instruction

Print Version of Copy of the Circular of the Superintendent of Public Instruction.

APPENDIX G

TEACHER'S CERTIFICATION, 1839

I hereby certify, that I have personally examined Miss Harriet E. Weikcham, in respect to moral character, learning, & ability to teach a primary school; & I feel much pleasure in saying, that I consider her well qualified for the discharge of that duty in District No. Two - Township of Monroe.

Monroe Jan. 13 1839.

*Sam. Center
Chair. of Board of Inspectors*

This certificate good for one year from date.

S. C.

I hereby certify that I have personally examined Miss Harriet E. Weikcham [sic] in respect to moral character, learning and ability to teach a primary school; I feel much pleasure in saying that I consider her well qualified for the discharge of her duty in district No. 2, township of Monroe, January 13, 1939

Samuel Center

Chairmen of the Board of School Inspectors

This certificate good for one year from date.

Mr. Center was also the Principal of the Monroe Branch of the University of Michigan

APPENDIX H

TEXTBOOKS AUTHORIZED FOR UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN BRANCHES

The Journal of Education (Pierce, 1839, March) reported on the textbooks authorized for the branches by the board of regents.

LIST OF TEXT BOOKS FOR THE BRANCHES OF THE UNIVERSITY

<u>English Language and Literature</u>	Davies Surveying
Webster's English Grammar	Davies Descriptive Geometry
Pinnock's Goldsmith's Rome	Bridge's Conic Sections
Tyler's Universal History	Olmstead's Natural Philosophy
Kames Elements of Criticism	Woodridge's and Willard's Geography
Porter's Rhetorical Reader	Jome's Chemistry (conversations)
Newman's Rhetoric	Smellies' Philosophy of Natural History
<u>Languages</u>	Marsh's Book Keeping
De Lacy's General Grammar	Gregory's Mathematics for Practical Men
Andrew's and Stoddard's Grammar	Comstock's Mineralogy
Andrew's and Stoddard's Reader	Comstock's Geology
Latin Grammar	Comstock's Physiology
Phoedrus' Fables and Cicero's Orations	Intellectual, Political, and Moral Science
Cicero de Officia	Whatley's Logic
Horace, Tacitus	Abercrombie's Intellectual Philosophy
Dellaway's Roman Antiquities	Abercrombie's Moral Philosophy
Goodrich's Greek Grammar	Duer's Outlines of Constitution

Valpy's Greek Exercises

Conversations on Political Economy

Jacob's Greek Reader

McVickar's Political Economy

Greek Testament

Mcllvaine's Evidences of

Christianity

Cleveland's Grecian Antiquities

Wayland's Moral Science

Mathematics and Physics

(Pierce, Journal of Education,

March, 1839)

Davies Arithmetic

Davies Bourdon's Algebra

Davies Legendre's Geometry (p. 8)

APPENDIX I

BOOKS RECOMMENDED FOR USE IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS

In the March, 1839 Journal of Education (Pierce, 1839, March), the Reverend

Pierce recommended that the following books be used in the Common Schools:

Hazen's Symbolical Primer

Galludet's Mothers Primer

Elementary Spelling Book

Webster's School Dictionary

Huntington's Geography and Atlas

Colburn's Mental Arithmetic

Wilson's Practical Arithmetic

Young Reader

Sequel to Easy Lessons

Moral Instructor

Book of Commerce (p. 6)

APPENDIX J

1858 TEACHER'S CONTRACT
IDA TOWNSHIP SCHOOLS¹

This Contract Entered into this ^{the} third day of May 1858
 between School District No-1 of the Township of Ida
 in the County of Marshall and State of Michigan and
 Lucretia Carney a qualified Teacher in said Township
 the said Lucretia Carney Contracts and agrees with
 the said School Dist that she will teach the primary
 school in said Dist for the term of 12 weeks
 commencing on the 3rd day of May 1858 for the sum
 of ~~two~~ ^{two} dollars and fifty cents per week which shall be
 in full for her services and for board
 In consideration of the premises the said School Dist
 agrees with the said L. Carney to pay said L. Carney
 the sum of Two Dollars and fifty cents per week
 in witness whereof the parties have
 hereunto set their names Samuel Carney } Director
 in the year and day above written Lucretia Carney } Teacher
 John Mabow } Approver

¹ Retrieved from the Monroe County Historical Museum Archives, 9/13/08

APPENDIX K

COURSES OF STUDY: MONROE CITY UNION SCHOOL

Following are the courses of study as outlined by Principal George W. Perry in 1859 (Twenty Fifth Annual Superintendent's Report, 1860):

PRIMARY DEPARTMENT

Third Division.

Webb's Primary Charts and First Reader; Miscellaneous Oral Instruction, daily.

Second Division.

Parker and Watson's First Reader; Sander's Primary Speller; Elements of Arithmetic and Geography taught orally; Object Lessons; Printing on Slates and Blackboards.

First Division.

Parkers and Watson's Second Reader; Sanders' Primary Speller; Robinson's Primary Mental Arithmetic; Warren's Primary Geography; Writing on Slates and Blackboard; Object Lessons.

Physical exercises, singing and moral instruction are prescribed for each class in the department.

SECONDARY DEPARTMENT

Second Division.

Parker and Watson's Third Reader; Sanders' Speller and Definer; Warren's Primary Geography, completed; Robinson's Mental Arithmetic, completed; Writing.

First Division.

Parker and Watson's Fourth Reader; Sanders' Speller and Definer; Warren's Common School Geography, with Pelton's Outline Maps; Robinson's Intellectual Arithmetic; Robinson's Progressive Practical Arithmetic; Writing; Wilson's Juvenile American History.

Physical exercises, singing and moral instruction in both divisions.

Grammar Department.

Parker and Watson's Fifth Reader; Sanders' Speller and Definer; Robinson's Intellectual Arithmetic, completed; Robinson's Practical Arithmetic; Well's English Grammar; Quachenbos' First Lesson in English Composition; Geography, continued, with Pelton's Outline Maps, and Map Drawing; Wilson's United States History; Writing; Compositions and declamations, weekly; Miss Beecher's Calisthenic Exercises; Cowdery's Moral Lessons; Vocal Music.

Classical Course.

Harkness' Arnold's First Latin Book; Anderws & Stoddard's Latin Grammar; Andrews' Latin Reader; Andrews' Caesar; Johnson's Cicero; Cooper's Virgil; Arnold's Latin Prose Composition; Ancient Geography; Liddell's History of Rome; Andrews' Latin Lexicon; Kuhner's Elementary Greek Grammar; Xenophen's Anabasis; Greek Prose Composition; Homer's Iliad; Liddell & Scott's Greek Lexicon; Smith's History of Greece; Smith's Classical Dictionary, &c. (p. 295)

APPENDIX L***FIRST COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS ELECTED THE FIRST MONDAY IN
APRIL, 1867***

County Superintendents Elected

-1867-

County	Name	P.O. Address
Allegan,	Jas. M. Ballou,	Allegan
Barry,	J.H. Palmer,	Nashville
Bay,	P.S. Heisardt,	Bay City
Berrien,	H.A. Ford,	Niles
Branch,	Vacancy,	
Calhoun,	E. Marble,	Marshall
Cass,	A.H. Gaston,	Cassopolis
Clinton,	E. Mudge,	Maple Rapids
Eaton,	F.A. Hooker,	Charlotte
Genesee,	L.C. York,	Flint
Grand Traverse	H.P. Blake,	Traverse City
Gratiot,	G.T. Brown	Ithaca
Hillsdale,	P.B. Cook,	Litchfield
Huron,	C.B. Cottrill,	Port Austin
Ingham,	G.W. Brown,	Williamston
Ionia,	E.V.M. Brokaw,	Portland
Isabella,	A. Fox,	Isabella
Jackson,	A.B. Darragh,	Jackson
Kalamazoo,	Daniel Putnam,	Kalamazoo
Kent,	C.C. Bicknell,	Cedar Springs
Keweenaw,	Jas. Pryor,	Eagle Harbor
Lapeer,	W.T. Bartle,	Lapeer
Leelanaw,	O. Moffatt,	Northport

Lenawee,	C.T. Bateman,	Adrian
Livingston,	I.W. Bush,	Howell
Macomb,	D.B. Briggs,	Romeo
Manistee,	T.J. Ramsdell,	Manistee
Mason,	F.J. Dowland,	Ludington
Mecosta,	Z.W. Shepard,	Big Rapids
Midland,	E.P. Jennings,	Midland
Monroe,	Chas. Toll	Monroe
Montcalm,	J.F. Covell	Palo
Muskegon,	D. McLaughlin,	Muskegon
Newaygo,	N.L. Downie,	Newaygo
Oakland,	Chas. Hurd,	Pontiac
Oceana	J. Boynton,	Pentwater
Ottawa,	C. Van der Veen,	Grand Haven
Saginaw,	J.S. Goodman,	East Saginaw
Sanilac,	Chas. S. Nims,	Lexington
Shiawassee,	T.C. Garner,	Corunna
St. Clair,	J.C. Clark,	St. Clair
St. Joseph,	C.M. Temple,	White Pigeon
Tuscola,	J.D. Lewis,	Vassar
Van Buren,	E.A. Blackman	Decatur
Washtenaw,	J.D. Pierce	Ypsilanti
Wayne,	L.R. Brown	Rawsonville

Source: Thirty First Annual Superintendent's Report, 1867, pp. 22-23.

APPENDIX M

SECRETARY OF THE COUNTY BOARD OF SCHOOL EXAMINERS

The duties of the Secretary of the county board of school examiners according to Michigan Public Act No. 266 (1887) were as follows:

First, Immediately upon his qualification as secretary to send notice thereof to the superintendent of public instruction, and to the chairman of each township board of school inspectors of the county;

Second, To be present at all meetings of the board, and to keep a record of all proceedings of the board,

Third, To keep a record of all examinations held by the board, and to sign all certificates and other papers and reports issued by said board;

Fourth, To act as treasurer of the board for the purpose of receiving the institute fees provided by law, and paying the same to the county treasurer, once in each month;

Fifth, To keep a record of all certificates granted, suspended or revoked by the board, showing to whom issued, together with the date, grade, and duration of each certificate, and if suspended or revoked, the date and reason therefore;

Sixth, To furnish, previous to the first Monday in September in each year, to the township clerk of each township in the county, a list of all persons legally authorized to teach in the county at large and in such township, with the date and term of each certificate, and if any have been suspended or revoked, the date of such suspension or revocation;

Seventh, To visit each of the schools in his county at least once each year and to examine carefully the discipline, the mode of instruction, and the progress and

proficiency of the pupils: *Provided*, That in case the secretary is unable to visit all the schools of the county, as herein required, he may, with the approval of the other members of the county board of school examiners, appoint such assistant visitors as may be necessary, who shall perform such duties pertaining to the visitation and supervision of schools as said secretary shall direct;

Eighth, To counsel with the teachers and school boards as to the courses of study to be pursued, and as to any improvement of discipline and instruction in the schools;

Ninth, To note the condition of the school-houses and the appurtenances thereto, and to suggest plans for new houses to be erected, and for warming and ventilating the same, and for the general improvement of school-houses and grounds;

Tenth, To promote by such means as he may devise, subject to the advice of the board of school examiners, the improvement of the schools in his county and the elevation of the character and qualifications of the teachers and officers thereof;

Eleventh; To receive the duplicate annual report of the several boards of school inspectors, examine into the correctness of the same, requiring them to be amended when necessary, endorse his approval upon them, and immediately thereafter, and before the first day of November in each year, transmit to the superintendent of public instruction one copy of each of said reports, and file the other copy in the office of the county clerk;

Twelfth, To be subject to such instructions and rules as the superintendent of public instruction may prescribe, to receive all blanks and communications that may be sent to him by the superintendent of public instruction, and to dispose of

the same as directed by the said Superintendent, and to make annual reports at the close of the school year to the superintendent of public instruction of the official labor performed by the board of school examiners, and by himself, and of the general condition and management of the schools of the county, together with such other information as may be required of him;

Thirteenth, To perform such other duties as may be required of him by law, or the board of school examiners, and at the close of his term of office to deliver all records, books and papers belonging to his office to the county board of school examiners. (pp. 354-356)

APPENDIX N

FIRST MONROE COUNTY SCHOOL OFFICERS ASSOCIATION

The Monroe County School Manual (Langdon, 1900) lists the following officers of the organization:

- Ash – T.E. Allen, Carleton, Mich.
- Bedford – Roger Willard, Samaria, Mich.
- Berlin – H. Hazelton, Newport, Mich.
- Dundee – Alfred Wilson, Rea, Mich.
- Erie – Wilmer Kinney, Erie, Mich.
- Exeter – S.R. Bateman, Maybee, Mich.
- Frenchtown – Joseph Masson, Brest, Mich.
- Ida – Frank B. Garwick, Ida, Mich.
- Lasalle – J.F. Gilday, Yargerville, Mich.
- London – J.W. Griswold, London, Mich.
- Milan – George Critchett, Azalia, Mich.
- Monroetown – Peter Hoffman, Monroe, Mich.
- Raisinville – John Wallace, Monroe, Mich.
- Summerfield – Elmer Vaughn, Petersburg, Mich.
- Whiteford – William Shrader, Whiteford Center, Mich.
- Ex. Officio member of the board – County Commissioner of Schools.

p. 31

Source: Monroe County Teacher's Manual

APPENDIX O

LETTER FROM STEPHEN LANGDON, MONROE COUNTY COMMISSIONER OF

SCHOOLS, 1899-1901

Renowned Scholar

Stephen Langdon would receive his Bachelor's and Master's Degrees from the University of Michigan prior to moving to New York following his defeated effort to become the Michigan Superintendent for Public Instruction in 1901. Stephen Langdon would then receive his Bachelor of Divinity Degree from Union Theological Seminary in New York City and his Doctorate in Philosophy from Columbia University. In 1905 Dr. Langdon was ordained as a Deacon at the American Anglican Church in Paris. In 1908 Dr. Langdon was elected to the Chair of Archaeology at Oxford College in England. The first American to be so appointed. Dr. Langdon, born in Ida, Michigan, a product of the Ida Village School and Monroe High School became world renown as a scholar.

In 1936, Dr. Langdon wrote a letter to Karl F. Zeisler, then managing editor of the Monroe Evening News, where he paid a tribute to his home county of Monroe and in doing so shed light on the schools of his day (*Early Instruction*, 1937, September 2):

University of Oxford

December 3, 1936

Dear Editor:

I find it difficult to write about myself and in thinking over the long journey from Monroe County to my present activity I am abashed by the events and deeds that mark this arduous way. Naturally the greatest achievement in my life was the election to the British and French Academies, honors which I had never dreamed achievable, at least by an American.

Monroe was a warm place in my memory. It should always be remembered by the present generation that after the Revolution some of the best American families of old Colonial stock settled in Monroe County. My associates came from New Hampshire and one of them was Governor of that state and the first name of the thirteen signatories of the Constitution. Another was President of Harvard. My great grandfather served in a New York regiment during seven years of the revolution and was financially ruined.

My grandfather trekked westward over 100 years ago to Monroe County. His library consisted of an English Bible, Shakespeare, Paley's Evidences and Blackstone's Principles of English Law. These were almost the first books I ever read.

In the city of Monroe there were citizens who brought with them the culture of the eastern colonies, such as the Wings, Dansards, Sawyers, Southworths, Winkworths, and many others.

It is to the influence of this class that Monroe city had from the first an excellent high school, offering opportunity for anyone in the county to prepare for the University. I myself own my whole career to the high standard of tuition in humanistic studies offered by the high school in the nineties of the last century.

The school board was particular about securing the best talent available from Ann Arbor and consequently I learned Latin and Greek from Warriner and Denison, both of whom latterly became quite well known scholars. The school in those days enabled a boy to secure five years Latin, three years Greek, French and German, with considerable mathematics and science. There was in my day also a remarkable scholar as superintendent, named Honey, one of the best classical and

German scholars, who also knew some Sanscrit. In fact, in all my career in various universities of America and Europe I never met anyone who know his Greek grammar better. There was also a remarkable teacher and great lady in the person of Miss Alexander, lately Mrs. Frank Ilgenfritz.

Those were the days of the old traditions of humanistic teaching in Monroe, preserving the best traditions of Harvard, Yale, Columbia and the East. To the end of my days I shall never cease to be grateful to the citizens of Monroe for providing such sound and good humanistic teaching.

This same class of settler set the standard of high ideals in education over the whole State of Michigan, which resulted in the founding of the best state university in America at Ann Arbor. My grandfather was a state senator when this university was founded.

These are the things which cling closely to the memory of my boyhood. The humanistic element of the early settlers of Michigan, especially of Monroe County, the spirit which preferred things of the soul to things material gave Monroe one of the best high schools in the Middle West in my day. Three of us from those days obtained Phi Beta Kappa at Ann Arbor. It is the old lesson that to teach a few things well is infinitely better than teaching many things superficially.

As to advice to the younger generation and especially to those who may have the ambition to tread in the path I have trod, I can most urgently say that hard work is the basis of all success, and self denial its handmaid. Success cannot fail any boy or girl who has the will power to forsake all things temporal for the things that are eternal. Few have the courage to make that terrible sacrifice.

My sincere memory to all my living friends in the city or scattered over the wide corn lands of the old county.

Yours Sincerely,

S. Langdon

Postscript:

Your letter contains also a request to state the ambitions which still direct my activity. I am heavily engaged in deciphering ancient Sumerian dictionary. Almost all linguists end their days in grammars and dictionaries.

I have also the ambition to found a school of the history of religions based on the principle that monotheism is the original conception of deity, a school of thought first adumbrated in the English speaking world in my book Semitic Mythology. This school of the philosophy of religion has adherents all over the world now.

I wish also that I could use my influence on American youth to cultivate a purer use of English and to avoid all slang in conversation, but that is an effort I shall never be able to make owing to heavy responsibility in academic life. (pp. 1, 14)

APPENDIX P
BOOKS FOR PRIMARY SCHOOLS

The list of recommended school books appearing in the Monroe County Teacher's Directory (1903) follows:

Baldwin's Readers

Hall's Arithmetic's

Language and Grammar

 Metcalf's Elementary English

 Metcalf's English Grammar

Geography

 Redway & Hinmann's Elementary

 Redway & Hinmann's Advanced

United States History

 McMaster's Primary

 McMaster's History of U.S.

Physiology

 Overton's Primary

 Overton's Intermediate

 Overton's Advanced

Civil Government

 Peterman's Civil Government

Speller

 Paterson's American Word Book

School Register

 Smith's Combination Register (pp. 5-6)

APPENDIX Q

TEACHER'S THIRD GRADE CERTIFICATE

No. 37 Expires June 1, 1902

Public Schools of Michigan.

TEACHERS' THIRD GRADE CERTIFICATE.

CLASS B, SECOND YEAR.

Office of Board of School Examiners Monroe County.

Monroe Michigan, June 24 1901

This Certifies, That William L. Johnson is a person of good moral character, and has passed a satisfactory examination in the following subjects: Arithmetic, Civil Government, Geography, Grammar, Orthography, Penmanship, Physiology and Hygiene, Reading, School Law, State Manual and Course of Study, Theory and Art of Teaching, and United States History. He is therefore entitled to this Third Grade Certificate, and is hereby declared to be a Legally Qualified Teacher for any of the public schools in this county for one year from date hereof, unless this Certificate shall be revoked or suspended.

The institute fee of \$ 1.00 for the year ending September 1, 1901 is hereby acknowledged.

Coy A. Lusk Examiner. James J. Kelley Commissioner.
Wm. L. Winters Examiner. (over)

NOTES TO TEACHERS.

(The references are to the Compiled Laws of 1897, as copied in the School Laws of 1905, copies of which may be found in the hands of School Officers.)

1. A certificate is necessary because: a. School officers cannot contract with a person not holding one—(4678); b. No money belonging to the district can be paid to such person—(4676); c. Districts employing such person cannot draw public moneys—(4676). A certificate must cover the entire term of engagement as teacher—(4678).
2. Examinations for any and all grades of certificate are required by law upon orthography, reading, writing, grammar, geography, arithmetic, theory and art of teaching, U. S. history, civil government, physiology and hygiene with special reference to the effects of alcoholic drinks, stimulants, and narcotics upon the human system—(4812).
3. Certificates of the first grade are valid for four years; those of the second grade, for three years throughout the county where granted; and those of the third grade, for one year throughout the county. Special certificates, granted by the County Commissioner of Schools, are valid in a specified district only until the time of the next public examination, and not longer—(4813).
4. The Board of School Examiners may revoke or suspend a certificate for any reason that would have justified it in withholding such certificate when given; the Board of Examiners may also suspend within the county, for immorality or incompetency to instruct or govern a school, the effect of a State or Normal School certificate. An opportunity for a defense against all charges should be given the teacher—(4814).
5. A male applicant for a certificate is required to pay an annual fee of one dollar, and a female applicant an annual fee of fifty cents, at the time of examination, provided such fee has not been paid previously within the current school year—(4836). The school year commences with the first Monday in September.
6. Every teacher attending a teachers' institute held by direction of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, is given a certificate setting forth at what sessions of the institute such teacher has been in attendance and any teacher who has closed school in order to attend the institute is not required to forfeit wages as teacher for the time given to attending the institute, as may be shown by the certificate—(4842).
7. A contract with a teacher must be authorized at a meeting of the District Board—(4671); it must be in writing, and signed by a majority of the Board on behalf of the District; it must specify the wages agreed upon, and shall require the teacher to keep a correct list of the pupils, their ages, and the number of days each one is in attendance, average daily attendance, the aggregate attendance, and percentage of attendance, and to furnish the director with a correct copy of the same at the close of the school. Contracts must be in duplicate, one of which shall be filed with the director and the other furnished the teacher—(4678).
8. The school law is silent upon the subject of holidays; but the Supreme Court has decided that there should be no deduction from a teacher's wages on account of the observance of legal holidays, and all contracts for teaching must of necessity be held as subject to such days of vacation. The legal holidays are January 1st, February 22d, May 30th, July 4th, Labor Day, December 25th, and all days appointed by the President or Governor as days of fasting or thanksgiving. Such days should be counted as days taught.
9. The Supreme Court has also decided that, if a teacher is employed for a definite time and, during the period of employment, the school is closed by the officers on account of the prevalence of contagious disease, the teacher meanwhile continuing ready to perform his part of the contract, he is entitled to full wages during such period.
10. A teacher must be governed by all rules formally adopted by the Board. Refusal to do so amounts to a forfeiture of the contract—unless the rules are grossly unreasonable—(4682).
11. A teacher cannot be required to "board around," nor can a patron of a school be compelled to board a teacher. A teacher cannot be required to render janitor's services, unless it is so stipulated in the contract.
12. First grade certificates to be valid in other counties than that in which they are granted, must be approved and countersigned by the Superintendent of Public Instruction—(4813).
13. Third grade certificates are divided into two classes, A and B; certificates of class A may be granted to teachers who teach in primary departments of graded schools. Not more than three certificates of class B shall be granted to the same person—(4815). Applicants for certificates of class B will receive a certificate printed in green the first year, a red certificate the second year, and a blue one the third. Teachers should then prepare for a certificate of the second grade—(4815).
14. Certificates may be renewed according to provisions of Sec. 4812 of Compiled Laws.

APPENDIX R
CAMPAIGN LETTER

James J. Kelly was elected to the Monroe County Commissioner of Schools position in 1907 and served until 1915. Mr. Kelly had been a teacher, principal, and then Superintendent at the Ida School. He also served on the Monroe County Board of School Examiners prior to becoming the County School Commissioner.

Ida, Michigan, March 29, 1907.

Dear Sir:--

As the Democratic candidate for the office of Commissioner of Schools I earnestly solicit your support, knowing that my record as a teacher is above reproach. If we are not personally acquainted I would suggest that you make inquiries regarding me. I have taught nine years in the public schools of Monroe County, and have been a member of the County Board of School Examiners four years. The former experience has, I confidently believe, fully acquainted me with the needs of the schools and the methods of advancement in education, while my experience on the examining board has made me familiar with the duties of the office to which I aspire. At the present time I am Principal of the Ida Schools and that my efforts are satisfactory is shown by the accompanying endorsement from the Ida School Board.

If I have not been fortunate enough to see you personally please give me a chance to become better acquainted by voting for me on April 1st. I have taken only one week out of school and the county is large. As a teacher, I know everyone in my district and they know me, and if elected Commissioner I believe our business relations will be friendly.

If elected I pledge myself to devote my time to the duties of the office exclusively.

Very truly yours,

JAMES J. KELLEY.

Ida, Michigan, March 25, 1907.

To Whom It May Concern:

This is to certify that James J. Kelley has been in charge of the Ida Public Schools during the years 1905-6-7, during which time he has established two more grades in the school and placed it on a regular high school basis.

We believe that these school years, under the administration of Mr. Kelley and his associate teachers, are among the most successful and have been the most progressive in the history of our school.

We recommend him for his executive and educational ability and as a citizen.

Signed:

HENRY SEAVITTE, Director; F. WM. SCHAFFER, Moderator;
JOHN MARTIN, Treasurer.

Campaign Letter from James J. Kelly¹

¹ Retrieved from the Monroe County Historical Museum Archives on 9/13/08.

APPENDIX S

SUGGESTED PEDAGOGY FOR PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

In the Monroe County Teacher's Manual, John G. Shafer (1915) gave "suggestions" to teachers:

SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS.

1. Fundamentals; Loyalty, thoroughness, accuracy, speed.
2. Plan your work clearly and definitely.
3. Prepare a program, hang it in a conspicuous place and follow it.
4. Hear your recitation regularly. This is important.
5. Be familiar with the State Course of Study.
6. Carefully correct and supervise all written work.
7. Insist upon absolute, prompt and unquestioning obedience.
8. Govern your school at all times, exercising such discipline as a wise parent in his family.
9. Insist that all pupils shall speak distinctly and loud enough to be heard.
10. Guard against talking too much. Talking teachers are usually unskillful teachers.
11. Do not allow loafing and dawdling about anything. Make things move.
12. Be definite in the assignment of lessons.
13. Keep the school room neat, well ventilated and well dusted.
14. Avoid cross-lights, and insufficient light as far as possible.
15. Cultivate in pupils a regard for school and public property.
16. Have the children play out of doors at intermissions.
17. Have short and frequent classes for the small children.

18. If teachers build fires they should be at the school house at 8:00 o'clock in the morning, otherwise 8:30.
19. Call school at 9 o'clock a.m. (not 9:05)
20. Give pupils one hour for dinner and recreation. They need it. (If officers or parents want school to close at 3:30 p.m. they should give you the time.)
21. See to it that you have order during the recess periods and in the hallways and entries.
22. Keep your register and school reports up-to-date.
23. Be on time with your reports and reading circle work.
24. Encourage your eighth graders to be prepared for high school.
25. Take an interest in the social entertainments of the district.
26. Get acquainted with your patrons.
27. Plan some professional work each year to increase your efficiency as a teacher.
28. Plan for summer school work for 1916.
29. Teachers should assist in maintaining a spirit of unity, loyalty and service among the members of the profession.
30. Do not find fault to any one about what your predecessor has done or about the conditions of your present school. If things are not right have patience until you make them right.
31. Inform the commissioner of your difficulties before others do so. This will enable the commissioner to help you in many cases.
 - b. No teacher who has lost the desire for self-improvement can create in the minds of the students a desire for knowledge.

- c. Every practical teacher presents from time to time proper incentives to study.
- d. In order that students may become enthusiastic in their desire to gain knowledge, the enthusiasm of the teacher must be at “flood tide.”
- e. No teacher who has not previously prepared it, can properly assign a lesson.
- f. Give short lessons and require a thorough preparation of the same.
- g. Without good order it is impossible to obtain good results; therefore see that order is secured before attempting to teach.
- h. Impress upon the pupils’ mind the great necessity of being present every day.
- i. Teach pupils that the great “desideratum” of the day is a wider diffusion of knowledge.

(For some of these suggestions, we are indebted to commissioners of other counties; pp. 6-9)

APPENDIX T

SPECIAL ELECTION RESOLUTION CONCERNING SPECIAL EDUCATION

ADOPTED BY THE MONROE COUNTY BOARD OF EDUCATION

April 6, 1956

RESOLVED, NOTICE IS HEREBY GIVEN, That the question of coming under the provisions of Section 309 to 327, inclusive, of the School Code of 1955, and the question of increasing the constitutional tax limitation, shall be submitted to the qualified school electors of each of the constituent school districts at your next regular annual election (or meeting) which will be either June 11, or July 9, 1956 or whenever such 1956 annual election or meeting is legally held in the County School District of Monroe County, Michigan, as provided in the resolutions of the county board of education, adopted on April 6, 1956, which are as follows:

BE IT RESOLVED by the county board of education of the County School District of Monroe County, Michigan as follows:

1. That the Monroe County Board of Education deems it expedient and necessary for the County School District of Monroe County, a county school district, to come under the provisions of Sections 309-327, inclusive, of Act #269 of the Public Acts of 1955, as amended.
2. That the proposition of the County School District of Monroe County, Michigan, coming under the aforesaid provisions be submitted to the school electors of the Monroe County School District in 1956.
3. That the secretary of the county board of education shall give notice to each constituent school districts at least sixty (60) days in advance of the annual school election in 1956 in each such school district that the

question of coming under the provisions of Sections 309-327, inclusive, of the aforesaid Act shall be submitted to the electors of each such constituent school district.

4. That the Monroe County Board of Education determines the millage limit on taxation for the purpose of furnishing funds for expenditures under the same terms of said sections to be not in excess of one-half of one mill per year.
5. That the secretary of the county board of education cause to have printed and distributed sufficient ballots so that the school electors of each constituent school district of the County School District of Monroe County may vote on the question at its next annual school election, in accordance with the provisions of the Act.
6. That the question of increasing the constitutional tax rate limitation on the total amount of taxes which may be assessed each year against property in the County School District of Monroe County, Michigan, for all purposes except taxes for the payment of interest and principal on obligations incurred prior to December 8, 1932, be submitted to the school electors of the County School District of Monroe County.
7. That the question of increasing the tax limitations shall provide for an increase of one-half of one mill in the tax rate limitation of the County School District for the years 1956 to 1970, both inclusive, for the purpose of carrying out the provisions of said sections of said Act.
8. That the secretary of the Monroe County Board of Education direct the school boards of education of the several constituent districts of the

County School District of Monroe County to submit the question of raising the constitutional tax limitation at the annual school elections to be held on June 11, 1956, or July 9, 1956, or whenever the 1956 annual election or meeting is legally held in the individual school district.

9. That the secretary of the Monroe County Board of Education shall cause to have printed and distributed ballots for the submission of the following questions, which ballots shall state the question in the following general form.

“Shall the county school district of Monroe County, State of Michigan, come under the provisions of sections 309 to 327, inclusive, of the School Code of 1955 which are designed to encourage the education of handicapped children: Provided, That any annual property tax levied for administration shall be limited to one-half of one mill from 1956 to 1970 inclusively.

Yes ()

No ().”

10. That the secretary of the Monroe County Board of Education shall cause to have special school election notices made for posting in each constituent school district together with the statement of the County Treasurer as to previously voted increases in the total tax rate limitation.

APPENDIX U

DUTIES OF THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS

PUBLIC ACT NO. 269, 1947

In addition to the duties previously possessed by the, now eliminated, position of County Commissioner, the new law gave the County Superintendent of Schools the following duties (Public Act No. 269, 1947):

- a. To act as executive secretary of the county board of education.
- b. To put into practice the educational policies of the state and of the county board of education.
- c. To supervise and direct the work of assistants and other employees of the county board of education.
- d. To recommend in writing to all school boards in districts not employing a superintendent of schools all teachers necessary for the schools.
- e. In districts not employing a superintendent, to suspend any teacher for cause until the board of education of the school district employing such teacher may consider such suspension.
- f. To classify and control the promotion of pupils in districts not having a superintendent.
- g. To supervise and direct the work of the teaching in schools not having a superintendent.
- h. To make reports in writing to the district board of education in regard to all matters pertaining to the educational interests of the respective

districts. *Provided*, That in districts employing a superintendent, such reports shall be made through the superintendent of schools.

- i. To receive the institute fee provided by law, excluding first and second class school districts, and pay the same to the county treasurer quarterly, beginning September 30 in each year.
- j. To examine and audit the books and records of any school district when directed to do so by the superintendent of public instruction.
- k. To act as assistant conductor of institutes appointed by the superintendent of public instruction, and perform such other duties pertaining thereto as said superintendent shall require.
- l. To perform such duties as the superintendent of public instruction may prescribe, to receive all forms and communications which may be sent to him or her by the superintendent of public instruction, and to dispose of the same as directed by said Superintendent and to make annual reports at the close of the school year to the superintendent of public instruction of his or her official labors, and of the schools of the county together with such other information as may be required of him or her by law, and at the close of the term of office to deliver all records, books and papers belonging to the office to his or her successor.
- m. To examine the certified copy of statement of moneys proposed to be raised by the several school districts in his county required by law to be filled with the township clerk and the board of supervisors at the October session of said board; to notify the director of the school

board or the secretary of the board of education of any district that fails to file such statements as are required by law or that has failed to qualify for aid under the general appropriating act made for the purpose of aiding in the support of the public school districts of the state of such failure. (p. 415)

APPENDIX V

SPECIAL ELECTION RESOLUTION CONCERNING THE MONROE COUNTY

COMMUNITY COLLEGE ADOPTED BY THE MONROE COUNTY

INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL DISTRICT, MAY 4, 1964

On May 4, 1964 the Monroe County Intermediate School District approved the following resolution:

WHEREAS, the superintendent of public instruction by a letter dated October 29, 1963, has approved the establishment of a community college district comprised of Monroe County, Michigan and

WHEREAS, this board is informed that proper statutory petitions for voting on the establishment of a community college district comprised of Monroe County were filed with the Monroe County Clerk on April 29,

NOW THEREFORE IT BE RESOLVED THAT: This board authorizes and directs the submission of the following issues by the Monroe County Clerk at a special county election to be held not later than June 29, 1964.

1. Namely (A) establishment of a community college district comprised of Monroe County, Michigan.

(B) An annual maximum tax rate for the proposed Monroe County Community College District of 1 ¼ mills and

(C) The election of six (6) members at large of the board of trustees for the proposed Monroe County Community College District

2. The secretary of this board is hereby directed to file a certified copy of this resolution with the Monroe County Clerk

3. and, parts of this resolution insofar as they conflict with the provisions of this resolution, be and the same hereby are rescinded. (p. 433)

APPENDIX W

CITIZENS FOR EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY LETTER, MAY, 14 1997



Vote June 9

May 14, 1997

Dear Monroe County Resident,

If Monroe County is going to continue to be a leader in the creation of new employment opportunities for our citizens, we must be ready to provide adequately trained young people to assume their role in a productive work force.

Quite simply, economic competition has become tougher. We as a community can no longer win good, solid manufacturing jobs with a work force unprepared for the future. Instead, successful competitors in this new economic environment must provide well educated, technically skilled workers.

Just as the technological revolution in agriculture changed the definition of a good education, the technological revolution in manufacturing and information is changing the modern definition. It is also changing the standards for what workers must know and be able to do if they are to participate successfully in the economy. The importance of the education of our students cannot be overemphasized.

Monroe County's economic development strategy should focus on the quality of jobs created. High quality jobs are those with good wages, reasonable benefits and the opportunity for training and advancement. The creation of high quality jobs occurs only when well educated and technically prepared workers are available to fill those jobs.

On Monday, June 9th we have an opportunity to help prepare the 25,000 students in Monroe County for the future and the future of our area's business and industry.

We urge you to vote YES for the Regional Enhancement Millage Proposal that will provide our children with the technological experiences necessary to help them become productive members of the work force and higher education.

Sincerely,

John W. McCracken
John W. McCracken, President
Tailor Welded Blanks

Matthew H. Gray
Matthew H. Gray, President
Hilgraev Inc.

Carl M. Reuther
Carl Reuther, President
Bay Corrugated Container, Inc.

Philip P. Swy
Philip Swy, President
MTS Seating

John C. Bates
John C. Bates, President
Heldtman Steel Products

James E. Agnew
James E. Agnew, Plant Manager
Ford Motor Company, Monroe

Herbert F. Keck
Herbert F. Keck
Chairman of the Board, President and CEO
Monroe Bank & Trust

Charles T. Kaabus
Charles T. Kaabus
Chairman of the Board and President
La-Z-Boy Incorporated

Pete Anderson
Pete Anderson
Vice President and General Manager
North Star Steel

William P. Morris
William P. Morris, President
Monroe County Industrial
Development Corporation

APPENDIX X***MONROE COUNTY COMMISSIONERS OF SCHOOLS AND INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENTS***

Intermediate Unit of Education Governance Service	Name	Dates of
Monroe County Superintendent	1. Mr. Charles Toll	1867 – 1869
Monroe County Superintendent	2. Mr. Elem Willard	1869 – 1874
Monroe County Commissioner of Schools	3. Mr. Tom Allen	1891 – 1894
Monroe County Commissioner of Schools	4. Mr. Arthur E. Ames	1895 – 1899
Monroe County Commissioner of Schools	5. Mr. Steven H. Langdon	1899 – 1901
Monroe County Commissioner of Schools	6. Mr. Albert C. Marvin	1901 – 1907
Monroe County Commissioner of Schools	7. Mr. James J. Kelley	1907 – 1915
Monroe County Commissioner of Schools	8. Mr. John G. Schafer	1915 – 1931
Monroe County Commissioner of Schools	9. Mr. Clyde O. Hatter	1931 – 1937
Monroe County Commissioner of Schools	10. Mrs. Berneth McKercher (Miss Berneth Noble)	4/14/37 – 6/30/39
Monroe County Commissioner of Schools	11. Mr. William Eiker	7/1/39 – 7/46
Monroe County Commissioner of Schools/County Superintendent/ Monroe County Intermediate School District Superintendent	12. Mr. Isaac E. Grove	9/24/46 – 6/71

Monroe County Intermediate School District Superintendent	13. Mr. Raymond Peake	7/71 – 12/77
Monroe County Intermediate School District Superintendent	14. Mr. William P. Morris	1/78 – 6/91
Monroe County Intermediate School District Superintendent	15. Mr. Gerald R. Wing	7/91 – 6/99
Monroe County Intermediate School District Superintendent	16. Dr. Donald A. Spencer	7/99–present