

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 117 826

EA 007 883

AUTHOR Lawton, Stephen B.  
TITLE Political Values in Educational Finance: The Cases of Canada and the United States.

PUB DATE Feb 76

NOTE 23p.; Paper presented at Comparative Politics of Educational Innovation: The Role of Values and Policy Paradigms, International Studies Association Panel (Toronto, Canada, February, 1976)

EDRS PRICE MF-\$0.83 HC-\$1.67 Plus Postage

DESCRIPTORS Cultural Factors; Democratic Values; \*Educational Equality; \*Educational Finance; Educational Policy; Elementary Secondary Education; \*Futures (of Society); Government Role; \*Political Attitudes; Political Influences; Social Change; \*State School District Relationship

IDENTIFIERS Canada; United States

ABSTRACT

Both English Canada and the United States are essentially liberal fragments of European society. But in Canada, liberalism must vie with touches of Toryism and socialism; as a result, the common good receives more formal attention than in the U.S. The extent of variation in local financial resources for education is potentially under the control of both state and provincial governments. However, in recent years, Canadian provinces have acted more decisively in educational finance than have American states. In Canada, equality means equality of condition; in the U.S., equality means equality of opportunity. The energy crisis and other global crises are forcing the U.S. and other liberal fragment societies to face the future they escaped when they split off from Europe. Reentry into the full political spectrum is likely to pose greater problems for the U.S. than for Canada, with its relatively wider political spectrum. The major hope in the U.S. lies in the continued redefinition of equality from equality of opportunity to equality of condition. If this redefinition occurs, educational finance will probably be one of the first beneficiaries.

(Author/JG)

\*\*\*\*\*  
\* Documents acquired by ERIC include many informal unpublished \*  
\* materials not available from other sources. ERIC makes every effort \*  
\* to obtain the best copy available. Nevertheless, items of marginal \*  
\* reproducibility are often encountered and this affects the quality \*  
\* of the microfiche and hardcopy reproductions ERIC makes available \*  
\* via the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS). EDRS is not \*  
\* responsible for the quality of the original document. Reproductions \*  
\* supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made from the original. \*  
\*\*\*\*\*

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,  
EDUCATION & WELFARE  
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF  
EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRO-  
DUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM  
THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGIN-  
ATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS  
STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT  
OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF  
EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

POLITICAL VALUES IN EDUCATIONAL FINANCE:

THE CASES OF CANADA AND THE UNITED STATES

Stephen B. Lawton\*

The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education

\* The author wishes to thank Arlene Wortsman for referring him to the  
writings of Louis Hartz and Gad Horowitz.

POLITICAL VALUES IN EDUCATIONAL FINANCE:  
THE CASES OF CANADA AND THE UNITED STATES<sup>1</sup>

~~Equality of educational opportunity is a slogan used as much by~~  
educators and politicians in Canada as in the United States. Yet, a comparison of the systems of educational finance in the two countries suggests that there is far greater equality of condition vis-a-vis education in Canada than in the United States. One does not find, for example, the range of expenditures per pupil in a province like Ontario as one does in the state of California. What explanation can account for the differences in the way Canadian provinces have interpreted equality of education as compared with states in the U.S.? Is it a question of better technique in developing formulas for equalization grants, or is it rooted in the basic political values of the peoples of the two nations? It is the thesis of this paper that the latter interpretation is correct; that Canadians, and in particular English-Canadians, place greater emphasis on society as a whole than do Americans, who tend to view the individual as pre-eminent, and that these differences in values explain the greater equality of expenditure per pupil found in Canadian provinces.

The Hartzian Approach

Louis Hartz; in The Liberal Tradition in America (1955) and The Founding of New Societies (1964), has proposed an explanation to

---

<sup>1</sup> Paper presented at Comparative Politics of Educational Innovation: The Role of Values and Policy Paradigms, International Studies Association Panel, Toronto, February 1976.

account for the differences in the political values and ideologies found among the nations that have developed from European colonial empires. He views these "new societies" as fragments of the European whole, fragments "struck off in the course of the revolution which brought the West into the modern world" (1964, p. 3). The key to the political traditions of a given fragment, whether it be French-Canada, Australia, or whatever, is the set of political theories and beliefs in ascendency in Europe at the "point of departure" of the new society.

Chronologically, the political spectrum in Europe developed from Feudalism or Toryism, to Whiggery and Liberalism in the 18th century, to Socialism in the 19th century. Hence, a society such as French-Canada, created at the end of the feudal era in Europe, embodies feudal values and ideologies, whereas Australia, settled principally in the late 19th century, is imbued with socialistic beliefs. In the (chronological) middle of these two extremes are both English-Canada and the United States, both of which were "struck off" from England and Europe at the height of Liberalism; hence, both are basically liberal societies though, as we shall see, English-Canada maintains a trace of Toryism and Socialism not found in the United States due to its own unique history (Horowitz, 1966). While these traces of other values are small when English-Canada is compared with fragments such as French-Canada and Australia, they are extremely important when contrasting English-Canadian and American political behaviours. In particular, they can account for the greater "equality of condition" which one finds among boards of education in Canadian provinces, as compared to the typical situation found in the United States.

Fragment societies differ from their European sources in several important ways. Most fundamental of these differences is their lack of a complete spectrum of political ideologies, a deficiency which results in a loss of both their "past" and their "future". The United States, ideologically separated from the feudal past of Europe, can neither recall that past to justify political decisions nor turn to the socialism in Europe which developed as a response to the excesses of liberalism (and in particular laissez-faire capitalism). Of course, the socialistic response was far more "necessary" in Europe than in the United States, since Europe had never been as fully liberated from the rigid class system imposed by feudalism.

A second characteristic normally found in fragment societies is the metamorphose of the principal political ideology into a nationalistic, secular religion. In Europe, neither Tory elitism nor radical socialism are heretical--as both are in the United States with its belief in "Americanism" and as is the first in Australia with its legend of "mate-ship".

But in these two characteristics--the loss of past and future, and the conversion of ideology into nationalism--English-Canada differs markedly from the United States. Throughout English-Canada, both Tory and socialistic views are acceptable, if not wholeheartedly endorsed. Canada has never experienced the messianic drive of a Wilson to "make the world safe for (liberal) democracy," nor has it experienced the political witch-hunts of a McCarthy (Hartz, 1964, pp. 118, 119). The presence of a broader political ideological spectrum in English-Canada--a presence which has an important input on the meaning of "educational equality"--can be

4

accounted for by two historical factors related to the manner in which that society was "struck off" from Europe.

Until 1776, both the thirteen colonies in what is today the United States and the colony of Nova Scotia in today's Canada were societies cast from essentially the same mold. All possessed a liberal orientation: personal liberty--in religion, in business, and in property--were highly valued. Colonial legislatures were active in all, and the Crown was viewed generally with suspicion. Other parts of Canada, such as today's Ontario (then part of Québec) did not yet have a separate existence and were managed by the major trading companies (The Hudson's Bay Company or the North-West Company) or by a Governor appointed by the Crown. Nevertheless, it is probably safe to say that most English-Canadians of that era possessed essentially the same political values to be found in the Thirteen Colonies. But with the revolution which created the United States, a second emigration took place to Canada: that of Loyalists to the Crown, who rejected republicanism for continued existence in a monarchy. Most chose to reside in Nova Scotia--which had remained loyal to the Crown because of circumstances of geography and the presence of a substantial British garrison--or in parts of Québec west of the Ottawa River. Subsequently, Nova Scotia was divided into the present provinces of New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island and Nova Scotia, and western Québec became Upper Canada and later Ontario.

The total number of Loyalists who emigrated was quite small, but so was Canada's population; hence, their presence acted as a conservative force in Canada's political development. Their political values, while still basically liberal, possessed the touch of Tory still present today.

6

That is, their preference for the monarchy represented a suspicion of popular democracy, a confidence in leadership of elites chosen more by tradition and right than popularity. The preference also suggests greater acceptance of the corporate nature of society with the common good being valued somewhat more highly than individual rights, which stand pre-eminent in more pure liberal societies such as the United States.

Respect for the common good, for society as a whole as opposed to individuals, was reinforced later in Canada's history with the immigration of hundreds of thousands of Irish, Scottish, and English settlers during the middle part of the 19th century, at a time when liberal values had already passed their zenith and socialistic ideals were gaining acceptance. Similar or greater number immigrated to the United States, but in English-Canada the immigrants doubled or tripled the existing population (Horowitz, p. 14). To be sure, these immigrants were escaping Europe to find more hospitable environs, and were no doubt strongly influenced by the liberal and frontier values in both Canada and the United States. But their predominance in Canada apparently added a socialistic position to the ideological spectrum which, while rejecting for egalitarianism both the elitism and preference for a hierarchical social structure held by the Tories, also recognized as valid the corporate, collectivistic view of society in a manner which has never been accepted in the United States.

The differences in political values between the United States and English-Canada are admirably illustrated by comparison of the purposes for the two nations: the Declaration of Independence promises, "life, liberty

and the pursuit of happiness," whereas the British North America Act of 1867 (the Canadian "constitution") promises, "peace, order and good government (Horowitz, p. 20)." The individualism inherent in the American philosophy is obvious, as is the emphasis on the common good in Canadian philosophy. This contrast in values is also obvious in other types of behaviour, both of the people and their governments. For example, the murder rate for Canada is one-tenth of that in the United States ("Get Rid of Guns...; 1975). In international affairs, the United States supplies arms to Greece and Turkey, to Israel and Jordan. Canada mans the unarmed United Nations patrols which separate these two pairs of enemies.

In summary, both English-Canada and the United States are essentially liberal fragments of European society. Protection of the rights and freedoms of individuals are of fundamental importance in both nations. But in English-Canada, liberalism must contend with certain touches of Toryism, with its hierarchical, wholistic view of society, and of socialism, with its egalitarian, wholistic view of society. As a result, the common good receives somewhat more formal attention in Canada than in the United States. In Hartzian terms, Canada possesses a piece of its political "past" and "future" which the United States does not, and in the United States liberalism has flourished and unfolded as has not in Canada. But, while Canadian politicians can appeal to the common cause, American politicians, restrained by liberal philosophy, cannot do so. Instead they are forced to appeal to pragmatic and problem-solving, as Franklin Roosevelt did during the Depression, to justify decisions which serve the common good-- decisions which in ideological terms are socialistic.



7

## Educational Governance and Finance

In outline, the overall systems of educational governance and finance in Canada and the United States are strikingly similar (Farquhar, 1974). The federal governments in both nations play a relatively minor role, though for opposite reasons. The British North America Act (BNA) gave the provinces responsibility for education and a number of other matters, and left remaining powers to the federal government. In contrast, the Constitution of the United States makes no mention of education, but leaves it and remaining powers to the individual states. Hence in Canada the provinces, and in the United States the states, are responsible for education. Further, all provinces and all but one state (Hawaii) have chosen decentralized education by creating local school boards with elected or appointed trustees. But here the similarity between the nations ends, for the Canadian provincial governments have retained far greater authority vis-a-vis local boards than is generally true for state governments in the United States. In particular, they have responded to the need for equalization aid to the local boards in a more radical manner than have their counterparts in the United States.

The relatively greater centralization of the authority over education in provincial as opposed to the state governments can be seen as an expression of the corporate view of society common to both Toryism and socialism, yet the basic act of decentralizing the educational function at all is proof of the basic liberal nature of the society. The Tory, however, cannot put complete faith in the people to make the best judgment in the interests of the whole society. This is clear in Ontario, for example, where curriculum guidelines for all subjects and levels are prepared in the central ministry; where the chief executive officer appointed in a board must have the minister's approval, etc.

In contrast, it is at the local level that the American states place their greatest faith. While some in the United States, such as Lieberman (1960) believe "local control of education has clearly outlived its usefulness... (p. 34)," the opinion of Campbell, Cunningham and McPhee (1965) is probably more representative: "At the moment there is little evidence that our political system produces more rational, or better decisions about education at the state or federal level than at the local level. Granted that the effects of a good state decision are pervasive, it is also true that the repercussions of a bad state decision are far-reaching (p. 106)." The quotation they select from Dewey (1957) is also telling of the American view of society which supports a locus of decision-making as near to the grass-roots as possible:

It is not that there is no public, no large body of persons having a common interest in the consequences of social transactions. There is too much public, a public too diffused and scattered and too intricate in composition (p. 137).

Hickrod, et al (1974) have traced this relationship between liberalism and education in the United States from Jefferson and de Toqueville through to recent proposals for the reform of educational finance. Throughout, the authority of local jurisdictions is justified on the basis of a world view which is distrustful of the ultimate wisdom of the central government. Even recent proposals which would grant more power to the state are justified on the basis of preserving the individual student's opportunities.

Regardless of the degree of centralization of power, a common problem is faced by local boards of education which depend on local revenues wherever they are located: vastly different financial resources.

Rideout (1974, p. 4) notes that in Ontario in the late 1950's, the ratio in assessed valuation per student for elementary boards was 1 : 1,000.

Morphet, Johns, and Reller (1967) note similar conditions in the United States, as well as the potential benefits of reorganization: "Through reorganization alone the range in ability of districts in several states has been reduced from more than 100-to-1, to 10- or 20-to-1 (p.504)."

The extent of variation in financial resources among local boards is, at least potentially, under the control of both state and provincial governments, as suggested above. Inequality cannot be eliminated entirely by board consolidation, but it can be reduced. Many states and provinces have encouraged consolidation through bonuses to larger units. In recent years, Canadian provinces, with their greater power in the field of education, have acted more decisively:

Prior to 1965 Ontario had over 3,000 school districts...

In 1965 the provincial legislature passed mandatory legislation making each township the basic unit of school administration for rural public elementary schools.... So successful was this reorganization that in 1968 the province took the next step and declared each county together with the city or cities included therein as a school division for the administration of public elementary and secondary education (Rideout, 1974).

After the 1969 reorganization, the ratio of assessed valuation per student was 1:21. Similar actions have been taken in other provinces (e.g., Prince Edward Island) or are being considered (e.g., Nova Scotia). In all cases, English-Canada's Tory heritage has left provincial governments with greater authority than is found in the American states, so that

provincial decision-making in the educational sphere is feasible even on difficult matters such as a board unification. For a state to decree unification in the manner of Ontario would simply be unthinkable.

Still, the disparity in wealth among boards is so great, even in those jurisdictions where reorganization has occurred, that state and provincial authorities have been making some type of equalization grant for many years. As Garms and Kelly (1970) report, "In 1905 Ellwood Cubberly said, 'In two-thirds of the states of the Union no adequate provision is made for the maintenance of the smaller schools of the state, and usually these are maintained in a most unsatisfactory manner and at a sacrifice entirely out of proportion to the local benefits received.' The response to plead by Cubberly and others was the state foundation program... (p.256)." Canadian provinces, too, adopted equalization programs, including Ontario which, at least in the 1960's, was on a foundation program.

Technically, Ontario's foundation program of the late 1960's was the same as that of California's at the time of the Serrano decision (Rideout, p. 2). But, with the amalgamation of boards in 1969, the province introduced a percentage equalizing form of grant with weighted students (Rideout, p. 4) similar to that proposed by Garms and Kelly (1970). With this change, it is instructive to compare the ratio of expenditures per pupil. For Ontario, the ratio was 1: 1.9 in 1970, and only 1:1.6 in 1972 after the introduction of expenditure ceilings. For 1969, California's ratio of expenditures was 1:4.2 (Greenbaum, 1971). This magnitude of ratio is common in the United States, where they range "from about 2-to-1 in a few states up to 3- or 4-to-1 in others (Morphet; Johns and Reller, p. 503)." 12

The introduction of expenditure ceilings by the government of Ontario alluded to above is another example of the force of the provincial government's role in Canadian education. According to Dimensions (November 1974), the official organ of the Ontario Ministry of Education, it was a simple case of rational decision making, not political necessity, to introduce expenditure ceilings:

Near the end of the 60's, governments everywhere became aware that the huge annual increases in education spending were threatening to bankrupt them in the not too many years ....

In Ontario, the ceilings were introduced in 1970 to achieve this, while at the same time preserving the achievements of the 1960's .....

The ceilings are part of an overall government policy designed to reduce the burden of heavier property taxes for education. Today the government pays 60% of the total cost of elementary and secondary education throughout the province - compared with just 37% in 1960 (p. 3).

One other effect of the spending ceilings, besides controlling overall expenditures, was its effect on equality of expenditures. Low spending boards in Ontario are catching up with high spending boards, as implied in the lower ratios between low and high expenditure boards stated above.

Can one imagine the government of California placing a limit on board expenditure--forbidding Beverley Hills to make any increases in education expenditure until the rest of the state caught up? For this reason, only "levelling-up" is seriously considered (Frentz, 1975).

While a number of court cases filed in the United States have had the objective of forcing states to provide more equal funding for schools, the recent United States Supreme Court decision in Rodriguez v. San Antonio Independent Schools leaves financial responsibility with the local board and not the state. Though the case can be viewed as a delay created by a "conservative" liberal court which will fall when, as time passes, reform liberals are appointed, it nevertheless reveals a basic principle that has held at least until now in the U.S.: the state does not step in to see that all children are provided an equal quality of education because such action would be seen to interfere with local and individual rights. The acts of the Ontario government reveal that there is no such inviolate principle there, nor is there in the remainder of English-Canada. "The Canadian provinces have been moving rapidly towards a system in which the province is, in effect, one unit for the purpose of school finance. In some provinces, such as New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, and Newfoundland, full state funding is the solution adopted. In the western provinces foundation programs which cover between 85 and 90 percent of the total school board expenditures are in effect (Rideout, p. 1)."

### Equality

The meaning of equality in English-Canada is very different from its meaning in the United States. In the former, equality of condition is the objective; in the latter, equality of opportunity. This conclusion is based not only on the far greater equalization achieved in educational finance in Canadian provinces as compared to American states, but on other factors as well. All provinces have schemes for socialized medicine, extensive assistance

to public transport, etc. Equality, therefore, possesses a meaning found under socialism--equality of condition--rather than under liberalism--equality of opportunity. This view is supported further by the explanatory system developed by Hartz and expanded by Horowitz, which leads us to expect this difference, in view of the relatively late date in the 19th century at which Canadian political philosophy finally congealed. One may still find, as well, remnants of Tory, hierarchical view of society (as for example, Ontario's Grade 13 for the relative few students who continue beyond the Grade 12 diploma, or the Colleges of Applied Arts and Technologies which are two-year colleges that do not serve as transfer institutions to liberal arts colleges), but the combination of liberal and Socialist forces have effectively won the day in terms of provision of equal services.

The Future: Version I (May 1975)

Both English-Canada and the United States are essentially liberal fragments of European society, though, following Horowitz (1965), this discussion has emphasized their dissimilarities rather than similarities (McRae, 1964) in order to develop contrasts with the United States. In both societies, of course, protection of the rights and freedoms of individuals is the fundamental objective. In English-Canada, liberalism must contend with certain touches of Toryism--with its hierarchical, corporate view of society and innate conservatism--and of socialism--with its egalitarian, corporate view of society and innate desire for innovation. Together, the touches of Toryism and socialism have interacted to reinforce the tendency to view society within Canada and its provinces in an organic way--as an integral whole rather than a composite of independent, free-thinking individuals. In American society, equality has maintained much more of its liberal meaning--equality of opportunity--than its socialistic meaning--

equality of condition. There, the myth of Horatio Alger remains. In Canada it never existed.

The broader political spectrum in Canada with its three viable national parties--the New Democrats (socialist), the Liberals (liberal) and Progressive Conservatives (conservative)--gives Canadian politicians more "ideals" or "beliefs" to be used in legitimizing public policy than are possessed by American politicians. Hence, in confronting the problem of fiscal equalization in education, Canadian provinces have been free to be more innovative, socially speaking, than have state governments in the United States.

Hartz believes that while fragment societies have escaped their pasts and futures, the future is now returning. That is, the United States has been able to pursue a dogmatic, liberal course in internal and external affairs, but must now contend with other, alien philosophies. Wilson and others have failed; the nations of the world have not all accepted liberal, capitalistic democracy as their model. Indeed, to many nations, socialism or some more radical, collectivistic approach to social organization appears to be a far more attractive solution--if their people are to be fed. The energy crisis, and other changes which clarify the nature of the "global village" are forcing the United States and other liberal fragment societies to face the future they escaped by being "struck off" from Europe. The Viet-Nam war, at very least, proved that alien, heretical beliefs cannot be destroyed by fire. Tolerance is necessary, a tolerance that Americans have shown for varying religious beliefs (as long as they were not based on collective social organizations), but not for varying political beliefs.



In my opinion, this re-entry into the full Western political spectrum is likely to pose greater problems for the United States than for Canada, since the latter has a wider political spectrum. If the future brings a rapid decrease in standard of living, which the energy crisis and apparent re-alignments in the world economy suggest may occur, then the liberal, capitalistic systems in both nations may fail to maintain a minimal acceptable standard of living for their weakest members, as they have in the past. In such circumstances, I suspect that Canada may accept a full, socialistic state more easily than the United States, just as equality of educational finance has been more easily achieved-- through legislation for the common good and without need for court battles.

The major hope in the United States appears to be the continued re-definition of equality from equality of opportunity to equality of condition. The courts have applied the latter conceptualization to fight segregation and discrimination against women. It must be re-defined so that it applies in the economic sphere--to the individuals who, in spite of rights, freedoms, and opportunities, are unable to succeed. If this re-definition occurs--whether in the courts or the legislatures--then school finance probably will be one of the first beneficiaries since agreement can be reached more readily about the needs of the young (or aged), as past experience has shown. Whether or not this re-definition of equality in the public's mind would be accompanied by a new understanding of the corporate nature of society, as evidenced in Canada, is difficult to say. Without the Tory and socialistic elements in the public philosophy, the concept is not there to develop. Experience from the New Deal and Franklin Roosevelt's other programs suggest that extensive social programs can be developed without accompanying philosophical changes. Pragmatism is an

American trait, and the alleviation of extreme situations might be viewed as just that, and not the creation of a new social order.

In short, the Hartzian approach leads me to believe that Canada and the United States may, in fact, have somewhat different futures, with Canada tending more and more toward European models of socialism, and the United States struggling to adopt its liberal philosophy to meet totally new situations. In retrospect, the struggle to equalize educational services in the United States beginning with Cubberly in 1905, has been a struggle to accomplish such a task, but it has failed. The multitude of financial plans that have been developed are technical devices invented to avoid facing the real problem, which is one of political philosophy and social values. The ongoing finance studies in the United States are pointless. Their common objective appears to have been to bring low-expenditure districts at least up to the state median (a goal suggested in Morphet, Johns, and Reller 1969, p. 503) but without appearing to raise the median or take any funds from one jurisdiction for use in another. And such an objective must fail, of course, because the only way to move all those below the median up to the median is to move all those above the median down to the median as well. It is this fact which the politicians have tried to avoid. Pragmatism has its limits; no liberal philosophy could legitimize such a step, however disguised. I suspect, then, that in dealing with all social problems, including education, the United States may find the future far more stressful than will English-Canada.

The Future: Version II (January 1976)

If events in Ontario education since May 1975 are incorporated into my projections for the future, a different set of courses for Canada and the United States emerge which appear more likely, at least in the short run. During this period of seven months, wage settlements in Canada exceeded those in the United States, largely due to the collective might of groups such as the provincial teachers' federations. In Ontario, the presence of ceilings on educational expenditures imposed on boards by the central government had made the latter into the effective paymaster. In late 1975, as demands for funds became too great, the government lifted the ceilings--with the provision that all school budget increases over a modest 8% would be the responsibility of local boards and their ratepayers. In effect, this action reversed the fifteen year trend toward equalization of educational expenditures among boards and assumption of the costs of education by the provincial government. Thus, the government shifted away from a path that eventually would have led to full financing of education by the provincial government. Indeed, this latter course was recommended by the provinces Committee on the Costs of Education (1975), though their proposal would have imposed a flat mill rate to be collected locally as a symbol of local control.

The Ontario government's decision to pursue a more liberal course was rooted in a desire to divest itself of the responsibility it had acquired of determining, in effect, the salaries teachers were to be paid. In practical terms, the provincial cabinet had tired of being the "provincial board of education." It preferred the route the United States has followed, with greater power being exercised by the local boards.

In addition, the past seven months have seen tremendous problems of governance in nations such as Britain and Australia. In the United States,

these problems may well be viewed as the bitter fruits of socialism. Indeed, it seems that the Progressive Conservative government in Ontario have reached just that conclusion, at least with regards to education. If this is so, then calls for state or even federal funding of education in the United States may well be viewed with suspicion, as harbingers of a day when state legislatures or the Congress would decide salary schedules for teachers. American policy makers might well conclude that the full social costs of equalizing educational expenditures are too great to balance any benefits that might accrue.

### Conclusion

Regardless of the "future" that in fact occurs, whether it be one of those described or some other alternative, the values, forces and philosophies analyzed in this paper will play an important role, though they are traditionally neglected in studies on educational finance. Why is it that studies dealing with educational finance have continually ignored the long term economic consequences of their recommendations? Why is it that educational equality is almost always defined in fiscal rather than educational terms? Are authors naive, or are their underlying assumptions so strong and so deeply held that they are not recognized by the individuals themselves? I suspect it is the latter; most investigators are still conducting research within the paradigm developed by Cubberly seventy years ago, and fail to see that the problems he confronted; though still present to some degree, were too narrowly defined to serve as a foundation for policy research in 1976. Indeed, it is fair to say that in Canada, the extreme inequalities that motivated Cubberly and other are past, and the problems now is to maintain this achievement in the face of social, economic and political threats. It now appears that as many

educational inequities are flowing from curtailment of services due both to teacher strikes and budget shortfalls as from unequal distribution of funds per se. If Cubberley's paradigm, which views equity primarily in financial terms, is pursued to its logical conclusion in the United States, that nation will find itself with full federal or state funding of education - and the same problems of governance that Ontario has tasted and is now trying to avoid. As often occurs, the unthinking pursuit of one goal-- financial equity--has detrimental effects on other important matters-- salary negotiation, economic vitality, and the true quality of education in the classroom. Gains from the first may be offset by penalties imposed by the second. It is time for us all to take a broader look at the factors related to the quality of education as it really exists in the schools, and to place the role of educational finance into its proper social, economic and political perspective.

## REFERENCES

Armstrong, A., Lawton, S. and Rideout, E. B. "How Well Does The Grant System Work?" Ontario Education. 6, (3), May/June 1974, pp. 2-7.

Campbell, R. F., Cunningham, L. L., and McPhee, R. F. The Organization and Control of American Schools. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1965.

Dewey, John. The Public and Its Problems. Denver: Alan Swallow, 1957.

Fatqihar, Robin H. "Educational Administration in Canada: Some Distinctions and Tendencies". Educational Administration Bulletin. 2, (2) Spring 1974; pp. 9-18.

Frentz, Anne Sutherland. "The Utilization of Federal Programs to Further Interstate Equalization in Educational Spending." Educational Administration Quarterly 11 (3) Autumn, 1975; pp. 99-121.

Garms, Walter E. and Kelly, James A., "Financing Urban Education," in Lutz, Frank W. Toward Improved Urban Education. Worthington, Ohio: Charles A. Jones, 1970.

"Get Rid of Guns, Famed Anthropologist Margaret Mead Urges," Calgary Herald. Wednesday, January 15, 1975, p. 71.

Greenbaum, W. N. "Serrano v. Priest: Implications for Educational Equality," Harvard Educational Review. 41, (4), November 1971, pp. 501-534.

Hartz, L. The Founding of New Societies. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1964.

.... The Liberal Tradition in America. New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, 1962.

Hickröd, G. Alan; Layman, Ronald L.; Hubbard, Ben. C., "Towards a Political Theory of School Finances in the United States," Journal of Educational Administration. 12, (2), October, 1974, pp. 57-70.

Horowitz, Gad. Canadian Labour in Politics. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1968.

McRae, K. D. "The Structure of Canadian History," in Hartz, L. The Founding of New Societies. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1964, pp. 219-274.

Morphet, E. L., Johns, R. L., and Reller, T. L. Educational Organization and Administration. (2nd ed.) Englewoods Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1967.

Ontario Ministry of Education, "Background; Spending Ceilings: What? Why? When? Where? How? Ontario Education Dimensions. 9, (2), November, 1974, p. 3.

....., Committee on the Costs of Education: Interim Report Number Seven, Toronto: Ontario Government, 1975.

Rideout, E. Brock, "Equality of Educational Opportunity Versus Local Autonomy - The Dilemma Facing North American Education - The Ontario Experience." Paper presented at the 17th Annual National School Finance Conference; Orlando, Florida; March 8, 1974.

Wynkoop, Robert J. "Prognosis for Change in State Finance Plans: An Analysis of Recent Commission Reports and Court Decisions."

Educational Administration Quarterly, 10 (3) Autumn, 1974; pp. 20-32.