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Book Reviews

SEX BIAS IN SCHOOL LEADERSHIP. By Jacqueline Parker Clement. Evanston, Illinois: Integrated Education Associates, 1975, Pp. 65.

*Reviewed by June Miller Weisberger**

This slim pamphlet has something very important to say. Within severe space limitations (36 pages plus appendixes, footnotes and bibliography), the author explores an issue which has not yet been recognized as a serious problem by many people concerned about public education. As the author notes in her prologue, practically no literature exists exploring the role of women in elementary and secondary public school administration. There is little hope that any corrective measures will be taken to overcome this form of sex-based discrimination in employment until the problem becomes a duly recognized priority for school administrators, school board members, and members of the interested public. This disquieting lack of interest about sex bias in school leadership contrasts vividly with hotly contested debates concerning the need and appropriateness of affirmative action programs to increase the number of women in higher education faculties and in college and university administration. Why the difference?

An analysis of the number of women in top echelon school district administrative and state educational administrative agency positions discloses patterns substantially similar to patterns of underutilization of women professionals in higher education. Basically, there are proportionally fewer women in educational leadership positions now than decades ago. The dimensions of the problem of male dominance in educational leadership roles and the resulting exclusion of women are documented by Ms. Clement in an opening section and detailed in two appendixes. Concentrating on the positions of local school district leadership, she sets forth data indicating that in 1970-71, men accounted for 99.4% of superintendencies. Of approximately 13,000 superintendents of local units, 90 were estimated to be women.

This underrepresentation of women is also evident in other positions of educational leadership. Less than 6% of the deputy, associate and assistant superintendents are women.¹ This latter figure is particularly significant since these positions are often rigid prerequisites for a superintendency. While women are clearly preponderant in the teaching ranks from which school administrators are chosen, there has been a significant decline in recent years in the number of women principals at all grade levels. Less than 2% of senior high school principals are women and the average salary of

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¹ *Sex Equality in Educational Administration*, Vol. VII, AASA Executive Handbook Series, Arlington, Va., June, 1975, p. 2.

women administrators is \$5,000 less than for men.² These statistics make particularly dreary reading when one realizes that there are fewer women in top school administrative leadership positions now than in the past although an increasing number of women are receiving professional training for administrative positions. At the present time, approximately $\frac{1}{4}$ of the total of master's degrees in education go to women and women receive approximately 10% of the doctorates in educational administration, supervision and finance.

Wisconsin's state superintendent of schools, Barbara Thompson, recently reported data which pinpoint closely this national trend. In 1975, 100% of public school superintendents and their assistants in Wisconsin's 435 school districts were men; 99% of high school principals and their assistants were men; 100% of junior high school principals and 98% of their assistants were men; 85% of elementary school principals were men and 76% of their assistants were also male.³ Despite well-documented studies of the discriminatory policies adversely affecting women seeking professorial and administrative appointments in higher education, prospects in colleges and universities appear rosy in comparison to the current dismal situation of women in public school administration.

The legal framework prohibiting sex-based discrimination in school administrative positions and higher education is substantially the same. Until the nineteen sixties, the legal system completely ignored the employment problems of women and it has not been until quite recently that there has been an express, national public policy against sex-based discrimination in education and/or administrative employment. Ms. Clement devotes the major portion of this publication to a summary of the three major legal weapons: Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, Title IX of the Educational Amendments Act of 1972 and federal Executive Order 11246 (covering contractors with federal contracts or grants in excess of \$10,000). Unfortunately the format of this pamphlet is such that the analysis of each of these legal weapons is necessarily summary and there is little discussion of the case law and administrative implementation problems which have arisen concerning these legislative or executive remedies. Such an analysis would have disclosed that professional and academic women have not received effective remedies to date despite the apparent availability of legal enforcement apparatus. Recent statistics indicate that women occupy very much the same status now as they did at the time when affirmative action programs were first required of many colleges and universities. In 1969, women were 19% of all faculty members, 20% in 1973 and 21% in 1974 and 1975. In addition, there has been little improvement for sex-based discrimination salary inequities.

Women in elementary and secondary education have been historically faced with overt discrimination. Dual pay schedules for men and women have not been uncommon and, until World War II, many married women were automatically disqualified from teaching. School administrative positions, like higher education jobs, were often filled by a "word-of-mouth" or "old boy"

² *Ibid.*

³ *University Women*, Vol. 2, No. 10 (1975) (published by the University of Wisconsin System), pp. 2-3.

system of recruitment. These improper recruitment practices which effectively exclude qualified women were further reinforced by the use of standards which were not objective or job-related. Similar practices hampered the progress of professionally qualified women elsewhere. Much of the progress made by academic and professional women must be attributed to the increased determination on the part of some women to become vocal about the "problem" and to put themselves on the line both personally and professionally to support litigation and other legal efforts to gain the benefits of their newly defined employment rights.

Two Wisconsin studies completed in 1975 pinpoint important facets of the problem of underrepresentation of women in educational administration and should assist women like Ms. Clement.⁴ A study by Dr. Barbara F. Powers explores the hypothesis that women have been primarily denied access to leadership positions in education because of discriminatory employment practices. Dr. Power's research included the use of questionnaires directed at principals, superintendents and school board members, the three groups most directly involved in selecting school administrators. The respondents were first asked to rate the leadership behaviours they considered most important for someone they would hire as an effective high school principal. They were also asked to rank these same behaviours that might be found in most women and in most men. Dr. Powers found that there was clear sex stereotyping of leadership traits in the minds of employers reflecting traditional attitudes of sex roles and that this practice clearly discriminates against women in the selection of secondary school principals.

A second study by Glenda L. Landon looked at the hypothesis that, due to the effects of socialization, women simply do not aspire to educational leadership positions. The results of this research failed to substantiate that women teachers' acceptance of traditional sex roles was responsible for the underrepresentation of women in the school administrative field. Nearly one-third of the study participants expressed an interest in becoming an administrator. The two studies taken together respond to the question as to why there are so few women in the administrative echelons of the country's public schools. They conclude that women teachers' attitudes are far less crucial a factor than the attitudes of those who select people to run them. These results give additional weight to the author's concern with sex role stereotyping in classes, programs, and activities for both women students and women teachers which is still all-pervasive in our public schools.

Ms. Clement concludes that "women must persistently and persuasively call attention to their legal rights to equal opportunity" and notes that for some this may require a woman to put both her job and her career on the line to test the "good intentions" of the legal and educational system. She adds: "No one will monitor the marketplace for women except women themselves." For women moving into new employment areas, she briefly mentions the need for a support network of "buffers" and "bases". (The former are those who serve as a protection for persons trying to effect change; the latter

⁴ *University Women*, Vol. 3, No. 1 (1976) pp. 7-8. These studies were completed in 1975 at the University of Wisconsin—Madison.

constitutes a support group for the change agents providing the needed emotional, financial and legal assistance.)⁵ These insightful concepts deserve greater elaboration and emphasis.

It is obvious that this volume should be considered only a beginning effort to stimulate discussion and then action within and without the field of educational administration. There is an obvious need to report periodically on new legal and extra legal developments (including litigation strategies). While few disagree with the idea of equal employment opportunities for women in educational administration, needed changes will not come about without women taking a leadership role in effecting these changes. Ms. Clement has taken an important step in this direction by her volume on **SEX BIAS IN SCHOOL LEADERSHIP**.

FACULTY GRIEVANCE ARBITRATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION: LIVING WITH COLLECTIVE BARGAINING. By June Weisberger. Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press, 1976. \$2.25.

*Reviewed by Steve Maier**

The monograph explores faculty grievance arbitration in three major higher education contracts: the City University of New York (CUNY), the State University of New York (SUNY), and the Pennsylvania State Colleges (PSC). The author has reviewed some of the more significant cases that have been arbitrated in each of these contracts in an effort to highlight problem areas and to examine evolving solutions. Each arbitrated case is reviewed in terms of the arbitrators and their backgrounds; the focus of the grievant's dispute in terms of peers or management; negotiated limits of the arbitrator's jurisdiction and restrictions on his remedial powers as well as the effectiveness of these restraints; the interpretation and use of academic judgement; the effect of antidiscrimination and academic freedom clauses when they are subject to arbitration; subsequent changes in contractual language regarding arbitration; and the view of the courts with regard to arbitration decisions. These reviewed cases form the core of the monograph.

A short but comprehensive history and background of faculty collective bargaining opens the monograph. Chapter I briefly considers some of the common features of higher education grievance clauses. The second chapter looks specifically at the CUNY experience, where the main body of existing grievance arbitration awards has originated.

The overwhelming majority of grievances filed under the CUNY contract and cases arbitrated concern nonreappointment with and without tenure. Most of these cases protested action by a departmental or college peer committee, indicating that matters of academic judgement and their review will probably arise in other collectively bargained contracts.

The very significant questions of when will an arbitrator determine that a

⁵ The author attributes these concepts to Florence Howe but with no citation.

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grievance involving customary academic judgement is within his province to decide, and what will be the appropriate remedy if a contractual violation is found, are explored in eight selected CUNY arbitrated cases. Each case is discussed briefly, but in enough depth so that the typical college administrator or faculty member should be able to understand the significance of the case. The author concludes her review of the CUNY arbitration experience with a summary of the major problems encountered in the contract and specific changes in the next contract designed to avoid or reduce these earlier difficulties.

Chapter III reviews grievance arbitration under the SUNY contract. Following the CUNY contract, the SUNY contract limited the authority of the arbitrator to determine certain classes of grievances. The different arbitral results that this refined contract produced are examined in the same way as were the CUNY cases. Again, significant grievance arbitration changes in the more recent SUNY contract are discussed. The author notes that in both the CUNY and SUNY contracts there has been a tendency to enlarge the scope of collective bargaining and grievance arbitration.

The author reviews grievance arbitration under the PSC contract in Chapter IV. Unlike the CUNY and SUNY arbitration contracts, the PSC awards deal with traditional questions of contract interpretation which typically relate to specific supervisory decisions that could arise in any employment relationship. Questions of educational policy have apparently not yet developed in the PSC contract.

Chapter V considers the courts' response to arbitrators' decisions. Several cases are considered that seem to show that the courts will usually apply the rules developed for the private sector to both private and public higher education grievance arbitration cases.

In Chapter VI, "patterns and problems" that have developed in grievance arbitration are considered. Restricting the jurisdiction of the arbitrator and limiting his powers in creating an appropriate remedy are listed as two major methods that have only been partially successful in insulating academic issues from the jurisdiction of an arbitrator.

The final chapter offers five generalizations by the author as to the future of grievance arbitration. She indicates first that more bargaining agreements will contain grievance arbitration clauses. Second, these clauses will be more comprehensive, incorporating experimental variants to preserve some "in house" flavor to certain academic disputes. Third, the number, type and complexity of substantive clauses will continue to increase, thus adding more disputes to be resolved by the contract's grievance and arbitration mechanism. Fourth, more contracts will adopt the just-cause standard in disciplinary cases. Finally, knowledgeable specialists will be needed to handle these complex negotiations and grievances in higher education.

This is a concise, well documented monograph. It is easy for the faculty member and administrator to read and understand, even if their collective bargaining experience is limited. The author has purposely ignored the two year college, where collective bargaining in higher education has its most significant development. This was done because two year colleges do not generally have the tradition of shared governance that is usually attributed

to four year institutions. Yet the information is just as significant and relevant to community college people as it is to those in four year institutions. For although the traditions and practices of academic governance may be different, current developments in grievance arbitration are shaping the future for all higher education. It seems quite likely that as a result of collective bargaining, academic governance will differ little regardless of the institution involved. For those who want to see where collective bargaining is taking us as well as where we are now, this monograph is worthwhile reading.

EDUCATION AND THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT. By Americo D. Lapati., New York: Mason/Charter Publishers, Inc., 1975. \$15.00.

*Reviewed by John W. Rogers**

Education and the Federal Government is not a legal work related to educational law but a historical development of the Congress and the United States Supreme Court's involvement in various areas of education. The division of the text into two parts: Part I, "Congress and Education" and Part II, "The Supreme Court in Education", provides the reader with a clear and concise history from the beginning steps of this involvement in education down through the present time.

The first five chapters in Part I, Congress and Education, bring home very clearly and beyond a shadow of doubt the extensive involvement of the federal government in education through its Congress. Anyone believing that the federal government's role in education is a relatively new phenomenon will be greatly surprised as they read these well documented chapters. The information detailed in this section provides an excellent starting point for one involved in searching for funds for educational programs.

Chapter one on the Office of Education traces the history of the development of this office from the mid 1800's, when it was first called the Department of Education, functioning as an independent governmental agency without cabinet status, to its present title of Office of Education — a division of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, but still without cabinet status. In this chapter the author does not go into as much detail in describing the duties and responsibilities of the Office of Education as he does in describing Elementary and Secondary Education and Higher Education in Chapters Two and Three. To one not familiar with education such an explanation might be of interest.

The chapter on elementary and secondary education which explains in chronological order and in great detail the laws affecting education that have been passed over the years by Congress is very well done. The reader will in all likelihood be amazed at the volume of laws that have been enacted since the beginning of our nation involving the federal government in just about every facet of education. One who is planning to seek out federal monies for

* Superintendent of Schools, Rockland Public Schools, Rockland, Massachusetts.

educational programs will profit immensely by the material provided in this chapter. Of particular interest is the information relative to a national system of education as opposed to the local system with which we are all familiar. The reader will note how a national system of education nearly developed in the early years of our country's history. Dr. Lapati also points out in this chapter not only the direct involvement of the federal government in our educational system, but the support provided by the federal government to the states to develop their respective educational systems. This chapter was extremely well done and the author has provided a valuable document for those interested in a history of federal laws affecting education.

Chapter three, Higher Education, and chapter four, Vocational Education, Rehabilitation and the Handicapped, are as equally well done as chapter two. The author follows the same format as he did in chapter two, listing in chronological order and in detail the laws of the federal government in these other important areas of education. The detail provided by the author is just about sufficient to keep the reader's interest and to avoid frustrations which might develop with a more complex explanation of these laws.

The last chapter in section I, International Education, although not lengthy, gives the reader a good overall view of our government's interest and involvement in the field of education on the international level. The reader will find the explanations on the Fullbright Act, the Peace Corps and the International Education Act of 1966 extremely interesting.

The author divides the second part dealing with The Supreme Court and Education into six chapters dealing with the most current legal issues in education. Each chapter details in chronological order the Supreme Court's involvement in education. As in part one this section is also concise and of value in understanding these important issues.

Chapter six, Financing and Control of Public Education, touches on the recent cases such as "Rodriguez" in which it was observed that the Supreme Court has legalized a system of taxation that favors rich school districts, and that the movement to reform financing of education through federal litigation would remain stabilized until membership in the present court changes. It was pointed out that since the Supreme Court did not consider education a fundamental right for equal protection purposes laws for more immediate changes can come only from state legislatures and courts. The author goes into very little detail on the control of education but this could be because very few cases of this nature have reached the Supreme Court.

The chapter, Private and Religious Schools, gives the reader a good review on the rights of private schools to operate as established by court decisions. In addition, the author explores the various areas in which the Supreme Court has upheld the constitutionality of federal aid to private schools as follows: textbooks for nonpublic school children, bus transportation, school aid for construction, and services under Title I and Title II of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

Chapter eight, Religious Teaching and Activities in Public Schools, explains the Supreme Court decisions in the areas of release time for religious instruction, prayer, bible reading, the use of antireligious teaching materi-

als, and the teaching of evolution. Once again, the author has gone into the appropriate amount of detail in explaining the court's involvement in these complex issues.

In chapter nine, *Teachers*, Dr. Lapati provides the reader with a clear understanding of the court's support for the rights of teachers. He enumerates landmark decisions of the court which eliminated many restrictions that teachers were subjected to that few other members of the community were. Chapter subsections provide good reading and a wealth of information for teachers who want to be more aware of their constitutional rights. The chapter on students is organized on the same format as that on teachers. Here again, the author did very well, without complicating the issues, in giving the reader a good synopsis of the Supreme Court's involvement in student rights.

In the chapter dealing with integration the author traced the involvement of the Supreme Court from its first case dealing with integration where the Court rules that separate but equal was constitutional (*Plessey Doctrine*, 1885), to its present decision that schools must integrate with "all deliberate speed" (*Brown II*, 1955). He goes into explicit detail on desegregating through busing and redistricting. Those concerned with integration in education would find this a meaningful chapter.

Dr. Lapati's style of organizing this book into a historical development of the federal government's involvement in education is clear and concise and, most importantly, is free of confusing and frustrating legal terminology. The author probably should have gone into more depth on the Office of Education and the funding and control of education. Other than this shortcoming the book is most useful and provides the reader with an organized history of the involvement of Congress and the Supreme Court in education.

GROWING PAINS: USES OF SCHOOL CONFLICT. By John P. DeCecco and Arlene K. Richards. New York: Aberdeen Press, 1974. \$8.95.

*Reviewed by Barbara Gay Ford**

With the appearance of numerous books on aggression, uses of power, and assertiveness training, the publication of *Growing Pains: Uses of School Conflict* should come as no surprise. A "how to" manual on what the Phi Delta Kappa poll shows to be the number one concern in public education is very welcome, and the goals of this book are quite noble. It purports to "provide a practical framework for the work of adults and young people who would improve the schools", and to show how to generate options for the resolution of conflict by harnessing the aggression of those involved.

The preface calls the book a "drama of institutional conflict" and literally offers something for everyone, including teachers, school administrators, parents, students, counselors, researchers, professors, and consultants. Unfortunately, when one is promised the moon and ends up with green cheese, it

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is disappointing, even though the quality of the cheese may be quite high.

The book is based on a heroic research study of parents, school officials, teachers, and almost 8500 high school, junior high, and elementary school students who described school problems to the authors; the main setting for the book, however, is the high school. A central theme is the lack of student participation in decision-making, the premise being that dissatisfaction with school may be alleviated by turning school conflict into a positive force for change. An attempt is made to operationalize the mediation process by providing guidelines for the mediator and checklists for the parties in conflict along with a detailed analysis of various generic types of conflict situations. A distinction is made between "survival teaching" and the more desirable "gourmet teaching" very early in the book, with the former emphasizing quantity while the latter represents quality. Here the discussion reveals a careless tendency toward conflicting statements and doubletalk, faults that put off discriminating readers. For example, in a put-down to educational psychology on page 13, this vehement statement is made: "... the school today has become the maze and the students are the trapped rats. The school officials and teachers have become the macabre experimenters." Yet later (p.32) the authors tell us that "more and more teachers are seeing the value of gourmet teaching . . .", thus seemingly refuting their previous blast at the schools' use of new ideas. Further, those of us who have been involved in efforts to bring the findings of educational psychology into the schools find the description of "macabre experimenters" unrealistic, considering that it is precisely this willingness to experiment with new forms of teaching and learning that has led to the advent of the alternative school, the "open" classroom, and indeed what DeCecco and Richards here describe as "gourmet teaching." Schools where more and more teachers are seeing the value of gourmet teaching could hardly be called mazes for trapped rats.

Statistical doubletalk shows up in the following: "Whereas 52 percent of teachers believed that they treated students as responsible, 50 percent of the students believed that teachers did *not* treat students as responsible" (p. 38). Supposedly the two halves of this statement should present startling contrasts to each other, as the authors use this statistic as evidence that students and teachers "so differently evaluate their school experience", yet they seem to mean the same thing. If one half of a group felt positive about a question then the remainder must not have felt positive and vice versa. This is a poor use of statistics to support the *differing* positions of students and teachers.

It looks as if the writers had difficulty choosing theory and other research to support their conclusions. They should have stuck to a report of their own research, which was very impressive in itself. Inferences from research quoted in the section on adolescent development are often perplexing (how does one infer from a *historical* description of the direction of the analytic movement that unrestricted expression of drives is dangerous for adolescents?) and certain criticisms made in reference to Everett's objectives from *The Community School* (p. 234-236) appear to express an underlying desire of conflict for conflict's sake—surely the opposite of what those interested in the resolution of conflict would choose to exhibit in their own behavior.

The awkward organization (information about adolescent development added at the *end* of the book), the condescending style ("We have now completed our discussion . . ."), and the assumption that parties to school conflict will be willing or able to sit down and fill out several pages of questionnaires whenever conflict occurs tended to irritate this reader. I became saturated with the descriptions of conflict situations and felt that the point could have been made with fewer words and far less paper. The interesting use of Piaget and Inhelder's theories and the three-step model for negotiation of school conflict and guidelines for mediation were valuable. I would like to have found these concepts early on in the book, with the 160 pages of explication cut down to a more manageable size and logically following the key ideas. Though most of the book's problems are stylistic ones, the "meat" seemed to be stretched too thin here: it would be adequate as an optional text in a course on secondary school teaching methods. For the other members of the education audience, however, it is far less satisfactory than the introduction promised and might have been more successful if condensed into a polished journal article.

THE DIVIDED ACADEMY: PROFESSORS AND POLITICS. By Everett Carll Ladd, Jr. and Seymour Martin Lipset. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1975. Pp. 407.

*Reviewed by D. Parker Young**

College and university professors, as a group, have long been considered more liberal, politically, than society at large. Their leftist leaning has been observed by many down through the years. However, the most comprehensive study of professors and their political leaning is reported in *THE DIVIDED ACADEMY: PROFESSORS AND POLITICS* by EVERETT CARLL LADD, JR. and SEYMOUR MARTIN LIPSET. Professors Ladd and Lipset have analyzed information obtained from two surveys; one being the Carnegie Commission's Survey of Student and Faculty Opinion in 1969 which included responses from more than 60,000 professors, while the other survey was a supplementary one conducted by the authors in 1972.

The book is divided into three sections. Part I is devoted to general characteristics of the "academic mind". Part II deals with the various sources of divisions within the professoriate. In Part III the authors explore various issues of campus politics from the 1960's to the 1970's.

The findings of the authors confirm that professors as a group are indeed disproportionately to the left of center politically on most issues. However, within the total group there are divisions which represent political leanings all across the scale from ultra-conservative to ultra-liberal. They confirm that professors in the social sciences are the most liberal on campus while agriculture professors are the most conservative. Various other breakdowns are also presented such as age and religion. A most significant finding is that the

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liberal professor is most often a high achiever as evidenced by research, publications, and recognition.

There is overwhelming evidence that the political importance of intellectuals has grown tremendously in the United States. As the authors point out, no function of the university in this country is more important than that involving certification. That is, academics alone certify other elites as technically competent through the formal education processes. The authors declare that ". . . the greatest source of influence of academics may stem from their control of the processes of certification as to competence for virtually the entire range of elite occupations, and in particular their position as key reference group for that larger community who live by the manipulation of ideas." For such a group in society to occupy such a unique position it is amazing that so little research has been done regarding their political orientations.

The need for such a study as this is obvious and Ladd and Lipset have done an excellent job in a most comprehensive manner. Throughout the book the authors have inserted numerous, yet appropriate, tables which will satisfy the appetite of the most eager data seeker. This type of book could indeed be very boring and as dry as dust. But the authors have sorted out mountains of data and presented their findings and conclusions in a most readable manner. Much of the book has already appeared in various articles and two monographs. But this should not deter the potential reader for it does contain a great deal of research not previously published. Their work is "must reading" for anyone interested in either understanding the place and influence of the professor in American political life or studying higher education as a field of study.

STREET LAW — A COURSE IN PRACTICAL LAW. By Jason Newman and Edward O'Brien. St. Paul, Minn. West Publishing Co., 1975, 283pp., \$5.50; TEACHER'S MANUAL by Newman, O'Brien and Lee Arbetman, 357pp., \$5.50.

*Reviewed by Ivan B. Gluckman**

As the sub-title indicates, *Street Law* is designed for use in a classroom, not as a reference book. Developed by the District of Columbia Project of Georgetown University Law School in 1972, it was first used in only two high schools in the District. It is now being used as the basic course material for a full-year course in all sixteen Washington, D.C. high schools as well as seven D.C. prisons and juvenile institutions.

As an instructional tool for introducing certain areas of law to high school students, *Street Law* does not cover many legal areas of commercial importance. Neither does it attempt to provide all of the answers to the questions it raises. Like any good tool, it is fashioned to meet the purposes for which it was designed. These purposes are set forth clearly and concisely (in large block capital letters) in the accompanying *Teacher's Manual*, and are worth citing in full:

* Legal and Legislative Counsel, National Association of Secondary School Principals.

- “1. TO PROVIDE AN UNDERSTANDING OF PRACTICAL LAW WHICH WILL BE OF USE TO STUDENTS IN THEIR EVERYDAY LIVES
2. TO DEVELOP A MORE POSITIVE ATTITUDE ON THE PART OF STUDENTS AS CITIZENS TOWARD THE ROLE THAT LAW, LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICERS, LAWYERS AND THE JUDICIAL SYSTEM PLAY IN SOCIETY
3. TO IMPROVE ANALYTICAL SKILLS AND PROMOTE CRITICAL THINKING
4. TO DECREASE ANTI-SOCIAL BEHAVIOR BY TEACHING “PREVENTIVE LAW”
5. TO EXPOSE YOUTH TO THE MANY VOCATIONAL POSSIBILITIES WHICH EXIST WITHIN THE LEGAL SYSTEM NOT ONLY AS LAWYERS BUT ALSO IN LAW-RELATED JOBS, SUCH AS PROBATION OFFICERS, COURT OFFICERS, STENOGRAPHERS, BAILIFFS, MARSHALS, POLICE OFFICERS, AND CORRECTIONAL OFFICERS
6. TO EXAMINE MORAL AND ETHICAL VALUES”

When *Street Law* first appeared in 1974, it had two seeming weaknesses, though neither were fair grounds for complaint, if one took into account the purpose for which it was written. Intended for use in the District of Columbia, it was tied closely to D.C. law, which included a number of rather distinctive statutes and court decisions. As a result, however, the book's utility was considerably limited to other jurisdictions. The current edition rectifies this problem by eliminating most of the local references, and referring to general principles of law. Where disagreements between jurisdictions occur, this fact is indicated although no attempt is made to identify specific views by jurisdiction.

The other problem with the original edition was really not a weakness at all. No good teaching tool to be placed in the hands of a student should give all the answers, of course. Much of *Street Law* was therefore given over to problems and questions for the student to think about, analyze and answer if he could. He would then be encouraged to discuss his thoughts and answers in class. The problem was that a heavy burden was placed upon the teacher to do the same. The new edition of the student volume follows the same approach as the earlier edition, but it is now supplemented by a *Teacher's Manual* which provides many of the answers to questions raised in the basic text, so that students will not be left frustrated or bewildered. Additionally, the *Manual* includes an abundance of suggestions for teaching techniques, including scenarios for roleplaying, mock trials and the use of hypotheticals to extend the student's understanding. Finally, each chapter includes a list of appropriate audio-visual aids, a bibliography useful to both teacher and student and a test which can be used to evaluate success in getting the material over to the class.

It is obvious that an enormous amount of work has gone into the preparation of the new *Street Law* materials. It is the kind of product that could not be “written” in the ordinary sense, but only developed out of the day-to-day experience of teachers and students. The current edition has had the benefit of such experience for four years now, and the result well demonstrates it.

Along with the invaluable addition of the *Teacher's Manual*, the new edition has been extensively revised and expanded to pick up changes in the law resulting from new statutes and decisions. (Both *Goss v. Lopez* and the *Title IX Regulations* are present though names of cases and statutes are wisely played down in the student volume.) A whole new chapter has also

been added on environmental law, covering everything from air pollution to zoning. Photographs have also been added to the new book. These are not only intended to make the volume more attractive, but have been carefully chosen as a means of triggering thought and discussion on the part of less verbal students or those of a less abstract turn of mind.

This latter idea is fundamental to all of *Street Law*. As its very title suggests, a serious and thorough effort has been made in these materials to translate the law into practical and recognizable terms that will be of interest to high school students. Prepared as it was for use in the D.C. Schools, it seems fair to say that this difficult task was made still more difficult by trying to reach even those young people who had little positive experience with the law, and perhaps little more with education. To do this, and to do it without either oversimplification of the law or with condescension in style is truly a formidable challenge—but one which the authors have met very well.

One of the real achievements of *Street Law* which is easily overlooked is its sustained clarity and simplicity of vocabulary and style without in any way lapsing into “street talk” or incorrect usage. Here is a paragraph from a section on the First Amendment:

The U.S. Supreme Court has said that certain types of speech will not be protected by the First Amendment. For example, a person's speech may not be expressed in a manner which will incite others to riot or violence. The speech cannot be obscene, nor can it be “abusive, threatening” or what the court has called “fighting words”. (These are words which will likely cause the person to whom they are addressed to desire to fight the speaker.) In addition, the speech cannot be slanderous (speaking false statements about someone which damages his reputation).

While brief, the passage clearly sets forth a complex concept.

One other feature of *Street Law* which seems commendable is its balance. While concentrating on those areas of the law which are of primary concern to students as *citizens*, the book does not dwell on those specific areas of concern to students as *students*. School law matters, and especially “student rights” are placed in proper perspective as only a small part of the overall section on individual rights.

It is probably no secret that many high school principals have been wary about introducing law-related curricula into their schools for fear of stoking the fires of student unrest and turning out “barracks lawyers” to aid in making trouble. Whatever justification there may be for fear of other materials, there should be none attached to *Street Law*. And it seems that in the District of Columbia, when the materials were developed, there is none; at least if one may judge from the dedication in the *Teacher's Manual* which reads:

This book is dedicated to the District of Columbia public school system, its Board, administrators and teachers . . . and especially the high school principals who have opened their doors to *Street Law*.

With materials like these, there should be little reason why law cannot quickly become an important and regular part of the curriculum in high schools all across our nation. In the opinion of the reviewer, nothing could do more to close the generation gap of the 1960's and to keep the United States of America operating as a working democracy in its third century.

