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Proceedings of the Sixteenth Annual Meeting of the Department of Secondary-School Principals

of the National Education Association

WASHINGTON, D. C.

February 22, 23, and 24, 1932

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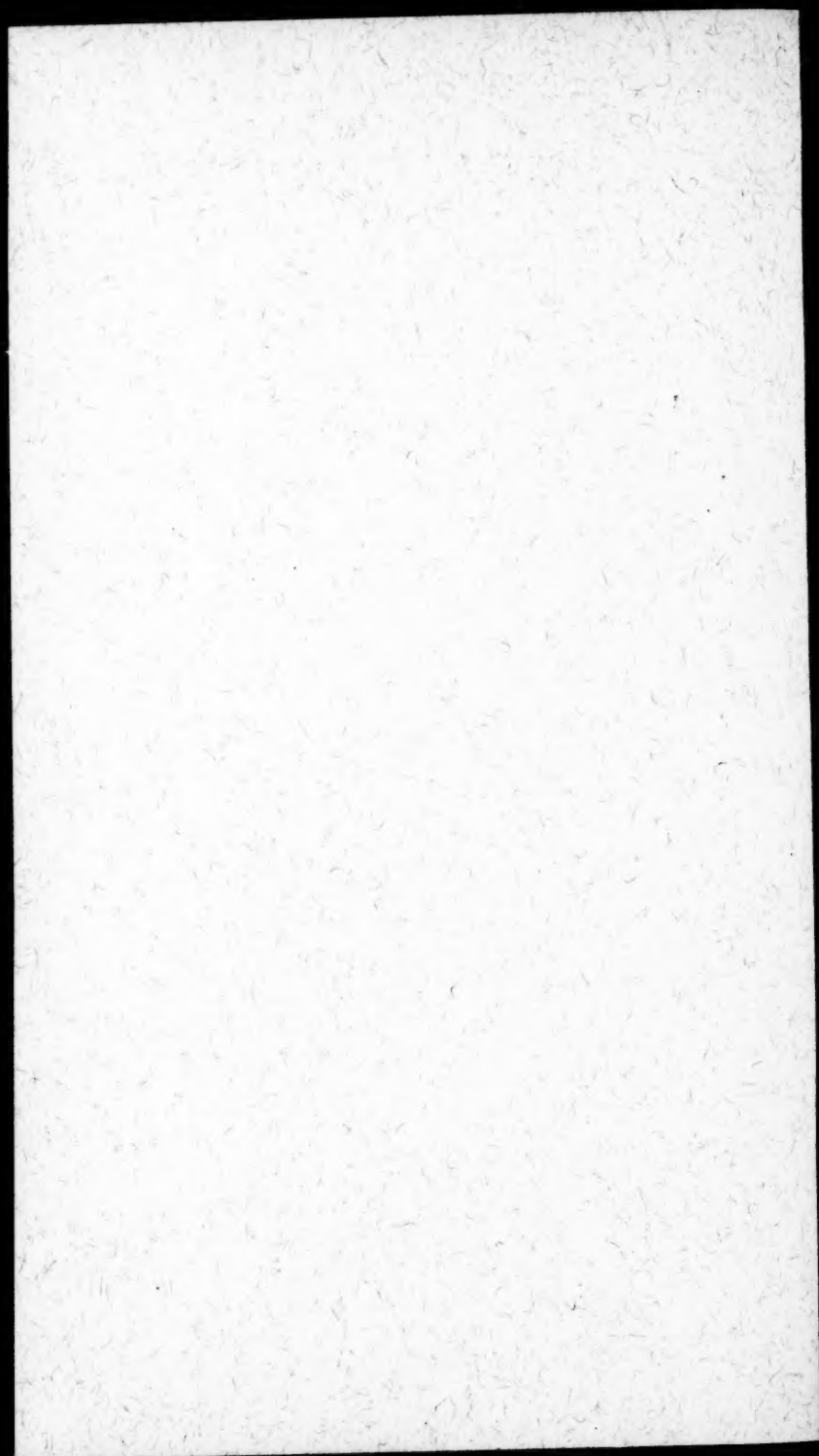
**THE DEPARTMENT OF
SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS
OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION**

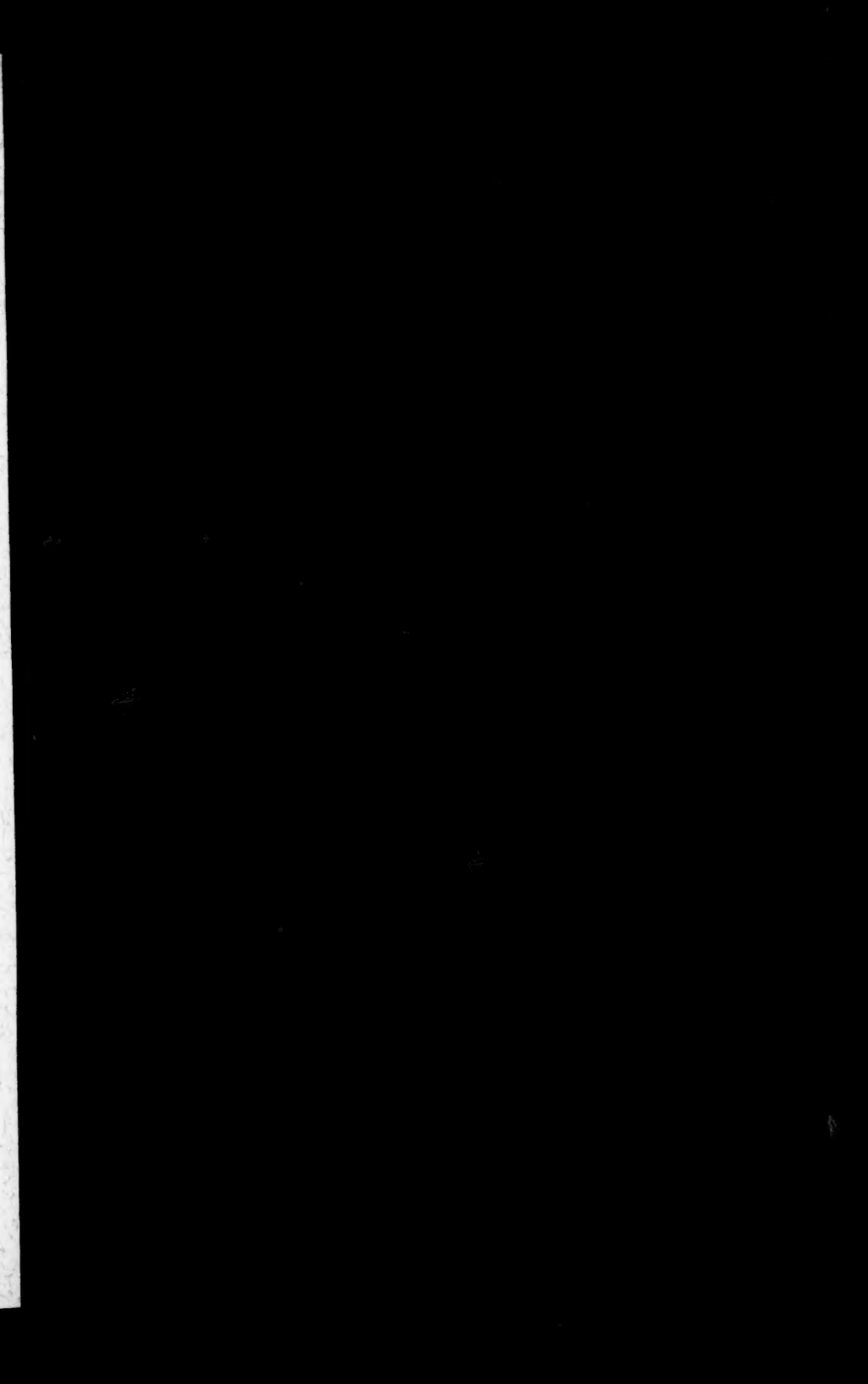
H. V. CHURCH, *Secretary*

3129 Wenonah Avenue, BERWYN, ILLINOIS

J. Sterling Morton High School

CICERO, ILLINOIS





Proceedings of the
Sixteenth Annual Meeting of the
Department of
Secondary-School Principals
of the
National Education Association
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WASHINGTON, D. C.
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Edited by
H. V. CHURCH
Secretary of the Association

Published by the Department, 1932

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SIXTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING

of the

Department of Secondary-School Principals

The sixteenth annual meeting of the Department of Secondary-School Principals convened in Washington, D. C. The sessions were held on Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday, February 22, 23, and 24, 1932.

THE GENERAL SESSION

The first session of the sixteenth annual convention of the Department of Secondary-Principals was called to order by the President, C. H. Threlkeld, Principal of Columbia High School, South Orange, New Jersey, at 2:05 P. M., in the Gold Room of the Wardman Park Hotel of Washington, D. C.

The Eastern High-School orchestra rendered two numbers: "My Maryland.....Romberg; "Habanera," from Natoma.....Victor Herbert.

The President, after a few explanatory remarks, introduced Dr. Thomas H. Briggs, Professor of Education of Teachers College, Columbia University, who read his paper, *A Program for Secondary Education*.

A PROGRAM FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION

Thomas H. Briggs
Teachers College, Columbia University

If one perspicaciously reads the history of secondary education, in other countries as well as in our own, he can not help being impressed with the recurrent attempts to set up and to use directive principles. But in every case these principles after a time are forgotten or become verbal slogans that palliate

unjustifiable practices. The record reveals one instance after another of a secondary or advanced education plan originally based on an intellectual, social, political, or religious need gradually tending to become an abstraction, an end itself. Those in charge became obsessed with the values of the subject-matter, which naturally grew in amount and increasingly was organized in terms of teaching convenience rather than of the original needs. Needs always change more rapidly than curricula or methods, and the result is a distinct social lag, even a social obstruction, on the part of education. The developed subject-matter becomes a hurdle, over which only the best students are able to pass; and because good minds, whatever their training, can be successful in new and different challenges, a prestige associates itself with secondary education, however remote it may have become from the demands of society.

This pattern one finds illustrated over and over in every nation and almost in every age. Our early Colonial grammar schools were established "that learning might not be buried in the graves of our fathers," but specifically to train youth for service to church and state, which in Massachusetts were identical. The curriculum was supposed to prepare future theologians to read in the original the scriptures and the writings of the church fathers. In that early society the minister was potent, and consequently youth who had an expectation or desire to enter the service of the church enrolled in the grammar schools. But very soon the curriculum became an end in itself, a fetish divorced from actual needs, that was sought in pride by many who had no intention to enter the clergy. It is true, as Benjamin Rush said, that "Men are generally most proud of those things that do not contribute to the happiness of themselves or others. Useful knowledge generally humbles the mind, but learning, like fine clothes, feeds pride, and thereby hardens the human heart." Even when the divorce of church and state was complete, the prestige of the school was high. Its curriculum persisted long for many pupils when they had no real need for it.

Finally came Benjamin Franklin in 1749 with his revolutionary proposal for a new type of secondary school, a school

to minister to the needs of society as it had developed. A sounder set of principles than those that he presented would be difficult to devise. Its failure, which is one of the major tragedies in the history of our education, was the inevitable result of a failure to plan the details. The general proposals were sound, but it was too much to expect that teachers trained in the old curriculum would have the independence and find the time in the interstices of their regular duties to invent and organize courses of study that were radical and at the same time effective. They did not. "There is in mankind," Franklin observed truly, "an unaccountable prejudice in favor of ancient customs and habitudes, which inclines to a continuance of them after the circumstances, which formerly made them useful, cease to exist." The public expected something new, but it was too much wedded to tradition to be satisfied with the sporadic, incomplete, and ineffective attempts of those teachers who did keep their eyes on Franklin's original plan. Though some progress was made, there was a gradual recession to much of the old, which had already to independent judgment, as we now so clearly see, proved unsuited to the needs of the time. The academy, to Franklin's disgust, became traditionally minded. Though two or three generations later it entered upon an orgy of experimentation, without sound philosophic direction, with new courses of almost every conceivable kind, it continued to carry high the banner of tradition, and finally almost disappeared in competition with the high school, which in turn had declared a new set of ideals.

The same story is found in the countries of modern Europe, some, like England, moving slowly, and some, like Prussia, moving relatively fast when measured by the tedious clock of history. The program of Fichte and his co-workers was sound and long-sighted, but time after time corrective measures were necessary to bring about adjustments to the life of the people, which moved forward without waiting for education, in some respects aided by it and in others retarded. The great superiority of the German schools in the nineteenth century was due to the fact that at every step of reform there was a reason or a series of reasons, which gave a direction and a

genuine significance to reform. Whether we approve or not, we must respect the intelligent program which before the World War sought the "God-fearing, country-loving, self-supporting subject of Imperial Germany" or the one now forming under the most severe handicaps for achieving *Deutschtum*. Russia has thrown tradition to the winds and is struggling to create new schools to promote the ideals that it has adopted. If it succeeds, the schools will probably settle down to a traditional form which in a generation or two will seriously lag behind the advance that society has by that time made.

At what point in the cycle are we in the United States today? Many are traditionally minded and easily satisfied with the marvelous increase in the number of schools and of pupils. But I am addressing the leaders of our profession, the members of the most representative and potentially the most authoritative organization in secondary education. However proud we are of accomplishments, our eyes must be fixed forward; our judgments must be critical; and our intellects constructive. Everyone recognizes that we have been living and perhaps still are in one of the periodic golden ages of mankind. Civilization has changed in a generation with a speed and an intensity that have never before been known. Ten minutes with a pencil and paper will enable anyone to list an astounding though far from complete number of radical advances in every field of life. Not only has pure science been remade and vastly extended, but applied science has enriched every level of life. Politics and government are vastly different. But as important as these changes are, I doubt if they are as significant to the new program of secondary education as the revolution that has occurred in the fields of social and of religious life. Without attempting to enumerate even the major fields in which significant change has occurred, to say nothing of the details, one can safely assert that despite the many more or less sporadic attempts at adjustment, education now shows an alarming lag.

I assert this commonplace not with any idea of being pessimistic or of spreading gloom. Only those who shut their eyes to a challenge or shrink from an opportunity can feel downcast and fearful. I call the fact before us that we may consider to-

gether what to do. Shall we muddle along, each one doing what he can, and that discouragingly little, to accomplish some small adjustments in his relatively small area of work, or shall we unitedly seek some principles on which we can agree, principles that will give direction to the new program that is assuredly coming? The individual rightly feels that alone he is too ignorant to plan and that alone he is too weak to accomplish. It is only by realizing and by making others realize the revolution in our modern world which has left the schools far behind that we can hope to unite our professional forces and muster the organization that must be set to the task. The obvious lag of our secondary schools calls loudly for a clearly formulated set of principles that will direct the inevitable new program. We are at a point when we are challenged to start a new cycle.

Probably in no other field in the world as in education does there exist such a blind hope that if we go on "doing the best we can," which may mean nothing significant, some fine morning we shall wake up and find that an "expert" has produced a curative talisman. The expert may discover a new planet, or vitamin, he may invent a new machine, and he may contribute a new principle. But we may as well get it clearly in our minds once and for all; no single expert is going to surprise us any fine morning with a complete program for what we should do in the details of education. Its mere beginning needs the combined labors for a long time of the best men and women who can be enlisted in service. We should get clearly in mind, too, that in the beginning we must have the outlines of a program, the details of which must be worked out by years of painstaking labor and carefully controlled experimentation. Those who hope for talismans still belong to a primitive society. They have no part in the challenge that confronts us in this complex new world.

This time is especially appropriate for the initiating of a far-sighted fundamental program, not merely because great changes in life have brought manifest new needs, but also because the National Survey of Secondary Education is just coming to a close. Before many months have passed it will have brought to us a wealth of factual information such as no peo-

ple have ever had about their schools before. These facts will be of inestimable value, but without the setting up of a program they will merely be interesting when tabulated, charted, and graphed in the learned treatises that will be subsequently written. It will be a tragedy if those high in the profession of secondary education do not create the machinery to use what so extensive and so carefully planned a study will reveal.

As I have argued before, what we primarily and fundamentally need is philosophy of secondary education, a philosophy which first of all is soundly based on and contributory to the philosophy of the democratic order. Unfortunately that basic philosophy has not been formulated with sufficient definiteness to afford a foundation on which to build. Our philosophy must take into consideration the pertinent facts of life and also of education, as they have been discovered or may be revealed by planned investigations. It must be clear, as so many are not. It is certain that everything of great importance in the program of education can be stated so simply that the most immature teacher can understand it. The abstruse is suspect. If an idea is not understood, how can it be effective? And, finally, our philosophy must be pragmatic, at every point of need positively directive to some kind of effective action. Although generally professing pragmatism, educators give much evidence of lacking total conversion. No people in the world seem so content to publish and give lip service to principles, which thereafter manifest no effect whatever on practice. By our works we are known and not by our professions of faith. The needed pragmatic philosophy has got to define numerous common terms—such as *democracy* and *culture*—with a definiteness that is lacking in much of the professional as well as in the public mind.

Such a needed philosophy will have to be tentatively formulated under powerful auspices, such as those of this association, by a group of our ablest men and women who, freed from other obligations, can give their entire time for a long period to uninterrupted work. They must be enabled to call upon others, outside as well as in education, to contribute necessary ideas and data. The program that they prepare will

of necessity be tentative, to be modified as the many faceted eye of the profession scrutinizes it in detail. It must then be popularized with equal care and skill. When and only when and where it is made convincing, detailed plans for achieving one or more of its objectives will be prepared and experimentally tested. It will readily be seen that this is a tremendous challenge and a tremendous task. As a matter of fact it is interminable. By the time any program is completed it will need revision. By the time any unit of work proves effective, changed conditions and new knowledge will make it inadequate. When we realize the need and the importance of such a program, then and only then are we ready to undertake it. By comparison everything else seems relatively of little value. In terms of its provision everything will find meaning.

Pending the initiation of a program for developing a philosophy of secondary education, I am venturing to propose a small and incomplete contribution to it. Already I have published in the Seventh Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence what I conceive to be the special functions of secondary education, and others, both individuals and committees, have made similar contributions. I refer specifically to the report of the Committee on the Objectives of Secondary Education in the Sixth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, the formulations of a recent committee of high-school principals in New York, the statement by the New Jersey Council of Education, and two theses published by the State Department of Education in California. These are all of necessity highly condensed and general in nature. But they are all attempts to state fundamental principles by which the work of our secondary schools may be evaluated and by which direction may be found for such modifications as all agree should be made.

These definitions so far have had very little effect. Why? Primarily because every competent individual feels himself too much obligated with assigned and immediate responsibilities to find the time and strength for formulating and introducing such radical changes as would be necessary. Those of lesser competence know nothing of these fundamental proposals, and

neither their professional superiors nor the public make them so uncomfortable in their present practices that they are disturbed to learn of them. All of us in varying degrees are still obsessed by the hope that somehow or other a talisman will be magically provided. Nothing less than a plan perfected in all of its details seems worth bothering about. And so we continue to muddle, critical rather than hospitable of what is proposed.

A careful consideration of the basic definitions mentioned will reveal not only different conception of what is fundamental, but also some contradictions and omissions of ideas that are highly important. But the publication and reprinting here and there of these definitions and statements of functions evidence the recognition by at least some leaders of principles as criteria for evaluating practices and new proposals and also as guides for further reform. Though valuable and not to be discouraged, the revision of courses of study by empiricism and by "impression" to make them more teachable can make only a minor contribution to need.

The following principles are incomplete in their comprehensiveness, but at the same time they are presented as fundamental. Can the members of this Association accept them so whole-heartedly as to feel the compelling necessity of inventing means to cause the revision of general practices? If they can be accepted as pragmatically fundamental, we shall have made a beginning that may lead far.

First, *public education is a long-term investment by society to perpetuate itself and to promote its own interests.* This thesis with its more important implications I have elaborated in the Inglis Lecture for 1930.* It is so sound that I have no doubt that it is irrefutable. It is so contradictory of many current practices wastefully supported by public funds that long and far-seeing effort will be necessary to make even partial application. It is so important that it can not be neglected by those who take seriously their professional obligations. The

*The Great Investment. Harvard University Press.

very difficulty of its application should emphasize the challenge, especially to such an organization as this association.

Second, to accomplish the preservation and the promotion of the kind of organized society that we approve, *an appropriate education should be provided for all youth*. This principle, reflecting a growing sentiment, was, with a limitation to the age of eighteen, proposed by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. It received general verbal acceptance by both the profession and the public. But verbal acceptance is not sufficient. Our practice falls far short in two respects. In the first place, secondary education is still selective—to no such extent as in previous generations, but still so far that approximately a half of the adolescent population is not in school. This means that society does not and can not make them as competent as is possible by increasing their powers to the making of their communities better places in which to live and in which to make a living. It is, moreover, a denial of the principle of democracy. How can we justify the expenditure of taxes collected from all for the education of only that fraction who have inherited or by the discriminating program of the schools have acquired only one of several types of ability? The principle, which is anchored in democracy and on the successful application of which democracy is dependent, maintains that an appropriate education shall be provided for *all* youth. The word “all” is impressively and challengingly inclusive.

In still another respect our practice falls short of our profession. The secondary education that is offered, especially in the smaller schools, is far from being appropriate to the ability, capacity, aptitudes, interests, and probable needs of a majority of youth, perhaps of even a majority of those who persist because of the popular fetish that all youth should attend secondary schools. No other country, with the possible exception of Russia, makes any profession of ideal to provide a secondary education, appropriate or not, for all youth. The secondary schools of all other countries than ours cater only to what they call the intellectual elite. But democracy has a different ideal. It sees, perhaps dimly, and holds with an unshak-

able faith that democracy can not continue, certainly can not be successful, unless every constituent unit of its citizenry has the opportunity to develop maximally such powers as he has, at the same time being indoctrinated with the ideals of the society that we accept.

Even if one inclined to take the European point of view, the question is made wholly academic for us by the fact that industry decreasingly needs or will use youth. Our success in invention and industry has brought about a phenomenon of a country that can produce more of practically every kind of commodity than it can consume or sell, and the ultimate solution of our economic difficulty must be an equitable distribution of labor for the necessary number of hours a week to those who need to work. Every youth who takes a job now displaces an adult, thus aggravating a condition admittedly bad. Because of this situation pressure will in the future be increased to keep youth in school. There is nothing else to do with him. Consequently, then, an appropriate form of education must be provided. This will of necessity include far larger emphasis than that to which we are accustomed on preparation for the satisfactory use of leisure. Not only youth but adults as well are sure in the new era to have more spare time on their hands than mankind in general has ever had in a civilized world. Whether they can use it profitably for themselves and for society depends largely on the willingness of secondary schools to break with a narrow tradition and to prepare a program commensurate with the need and the possible opportunities for a wholesome enjoyment of leisure.

Third, inasmuch as no program can expect to hold all youth to formal schooling until they reach adulthood, *secondary education must, so far as possible, be maximally good to the extent to which it is pursued.* There is as yet no means of knowing with anything like accuracy which pupils after the law ceases to hold them will appear at school on any morning. At present the ones who drop out with a smattering of this and that in a subject or even with sound preparation for future work which they never take represent by any rational book-keeping an alarming waste. Cultivation that does not fructify

is a poor investment. It is a relatively simple matter to arrange so that they are good to the extent to which they are pursued all of our courses of study except those in advanced mathematics and foreign languages, and in them the ideal can be approximated. This principle must be accepted and applied or else students must justify their ability to profit by courses meager in immediate but rich in deferred values, perhaps, as in England, "give an undertaking"—that is, post a bond—to continue the studies until there is a reasonable opportunity for successful fruition. In other words, our schools must become intelligently and economically selective. Any other policy, including that of *laissez faire* under which we now work, will assuredly result in a waste of public money and of individual effort that no one can justify. In all probability if the courses revealed convincing values as they progressed a larger number of students would wish to pursue them further.

There are, of course, other principles that need to be established, and the three presented must be greatly elaborated, as they can not be in this brief paper, before their importance is recognized and the wide nature of their effects can be realized. But these are sufficient to illustrate the sort of philosophy that we need as criteria for evaluating our practices and as directive principles for developing a new program. What would it not mean for secondary education and for the society that it serves if every member of this association should begin by earnestly attempting to make over his school on these or on similar principles! What would it not mean if the association threw the weight of its great potential authority to the formulation of some definite detailed program consistent with such principles! Out of such a beginning the inevitable larger movement would assuredly be born.

More and more I am convinced that the beginning of a solution of the problems that confront us in secondary education must be found in the ideal junior high school. Although rapidly settling into a tradition which, though an improvement over old practices, is far from what we hoped, it still offers more freedom for reform than the more advanced grades. Moreover, only as it succeeds will the senior high school find it

possible effectively to reorganize its program. We need an intermediate school which after the elementary grades will by exploring the interests, aptitudes, and capacities of each individual ascertain the kind of advanced education for which he is fit, a school which at the same time will reveal to him the varied opportunities and the richness in the varied fields that lie beyond him. Then by using all personnel data and instruments of measurement, guidance can be made effective. Then the school, *persona rei publicae*, the parents, and the youth working together can intelligently decide on what in the light of all evidence and information seems to be the most promising path of procedure for each individual. Thus tentatively sorted, youth will proceed until evidence accumulates that a mistaken plan must be rectified. The high school can proceed with students who have manifested their right to attempt its several opportunities in presenting courses of old and new culture; unhampered by the incompetent and the unwilling it can make advance with a rapidity and with a thoroughness we have envied in foreign countries. At the same time it will by means of new curricula provide for developing the youth with other talents and other possibilities of competence.

Stated thus briefly the program seems ideal, but many obstacles to its achievement arise in every mind. If there were no obstacles, there would be no challenge. If there were no challenge, there would be no need of leaders, such as the members of this association profess to be. Although there is to-day a necessary spirit of economy everywhere, we must face the facts and convince the public of the need to spend far more than it has done in the past to make the project of secondary education for all, a project to which it is whole-heartedly committed, effective for the individual and for the social good. The alternative is the European philosophy of selectivity, which American democracy will never approve. With us every youth must have his chance, and we must make that chance the best possible for him and for society.

Dr. Leonard V. Koos, Professor of Secondary Education, University of Chicago, and Associate Director of the National Survey of Secondary Education, read his report, *Major Aspects of the National Survey of Secondary Education*.

MAJOR ASPECTS OF THE NATIONAL SURVEY OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

LEONARD V. KOOS

Professor of Secondary Education, The University of Chicago, and Associate Director of the Survey.

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE SURVEY

Three National surveys are now in progress under the auspices of the Federal Office of Education, dealing, in the order of authorization by Congress, with secondary education, teacher education, and school finance. We are here concerned with the first of these surveys, authorized and begun in 1929. This survey, for which an appropriation of \$225,000 was made, is now in its third and final year.

The group before me is also entitled to some statement of progress of this survey. This statement will, however, refrain from summarizing from the evidence at hand. It is still too early, while first drafts of reports on the projects are being considered, to undertake such a summary.

It is desirable to mention briefly certain of the administrative arrangements for carrying on the work. The survey is well provided with groups whose function it is to advise. There are three such groups: (1) The first is a group of nine consultants, who are professional educators representative of various interested groups, among them this Department. This group of consultants has met to consider the scope and outline of the survey. (2) A second and larger group, a professional advisory committee, is more widely representative of the country and various aspects of the secondary field. Besides supplementing the advice of the group of consultants, this advisory committee has aided in encouraging the cooperation of school

authorities with the survey and will aid in securing attention for the reports. (3) The third group is composed of about fifty prominent laymen who were invited to criticize the outline and who will aid in interpreting the report to the public.

The Commissioner of Education is designated as director of the survey. The professional staff has included 30 different persons. Of these, 5 are regular members of the Office of Education staff assigned for a part or all their time to the work of the survey falling within their specialties. Eight are full-time specialists stationed in Washington and appointed for the period of the survey or for the period required to complete the work on their projects. This group is composed mostly of younger men who were recruited from seven different graduate schools of the country. The remaining 17 professional workers are part-time members of the staff most of whom are in charge of projects of the survey. The part-time directing specialists are recognized leaders in their respective fields. At times the clerical force at work on the survey has almost equalled the professional staff in number. Thus, the largest total number of workers on the staff at any one time has been about 60.

The outline of the survey has been given so much publicity that it would be out of place to repeat it here. It will suffice to name merely the four main fields included. These are: (1) The organization of schools and districts; (2) The secondary-school population; (3) Certain administrative and supervisory problems, and (4) The curriculum and the extra-curriculum (including athletic and other contests). In carrying forward the work of investigation the outline has been broken into twenty-four separate projects: Secondary School Reorganization; Horizontal Organization and Secondary-School Population; School District Organization for the Administration and Supervision of Secondary Education; Special Problems in Reorganization; Characteristics of Small High Schools; Study of Selected Secondary Schools in Smaller Communities and Rural Areas; Guidance; Administrative and Supervisory Staff; Practices in the Selection and Appointment of Teachers; Provisions for Individual Differences, Marks, and Marking

Systems, Plans for Promotion for Pupils; School Publicity; Curriculum; English; Foreign Languages; Music; Mathematics; Science; Social Studies; Extra-Curriculum Activities and Non-Athletic Interscholastic Contests; Intra-mural and Interscholastic Athletic Contest; Articulation of High Schools and Colleges; Physical Education and Health Supervision; Legal and Other Regulatory Provisions Affecting Secondary Schools; Research Initiated by the Schools; Supervision of Instruction; Registration and Schedule Making; Library Service; Special Reorganizations; Secondary Education for Negroes, and Growth and Trends in Public Junior Colleges.

THE FOUR STAGES OF WORK ON THE PROJECTS

With certain exceptions to be noted later the projects of the survey are being carried through four main steps or stages. The first stage is that of identifying the schools whose practices are to be investigated. This identification is with respect to some particular aspect of the school, for example, its organization, curriculum, or library service. The aim here has been to find schools with outstanding or unusual practices in the aspect under consideration. The second stage involves intensive study by inquiry form of these practices in the schools thus identified. This stage gives the basis for the selection of schools to be visited. Visitation constitutes the third stage. During the first-hand contacts afforded by the visits the specialists gathered additional information, checked on the information previously gathered by inquiry form, and added that something to his impressions which is gained from observing the practices in the concrete. The fourth stage is that of tabulating and digesting the information gathered and preparing the report on the project. Some notion of the status of work on the survey may be gained from the statement that almost all visits have been made and that the task of tabulating and digesting the evidence is nearing completion. First drafts of the reports of the projects have been coming in for some months.

This dominant four-stage procedure may be illustrated by reference to the library project, which was one of the last to be

started and the first draft of the report of which came in some months ago. In January of last year, when he went to Washington to direct the work on the project, Dr. B. Lamar Johnson began by ascertaining from state departments of education throughout the country, library specialists in the field, and from descriptions published in library and educational periodicals, the names and locations of schools with outstanding library organization and service. To schools located in this way, more than six hundred in total number, he directed a thirteen-page form inquiring intensively into library facilities and practices. Almost four hundred of these forms were returned. On the basis of the replies Dr. Johnson selected the schools to be visited and during the late spring months traveled more than 13,000 miles to see at first hand 43 outstanding libraries. The method of selection used does not warrant the belief that these libraries are the 43 best in the country, but it may be assumed that they are *among* the best. They were also selected in part to secure representation of various practices in organization and administration. Besides checking on his information during these visits, Dr. Johnson gathered information from teachers on a special form devised to ascertain their working relationships to the library. He also secured at the time from more than 17,000 pupils reports on their use of the library the day preceding the visit and from additional thousands on the particular kind of activity in the library at the time of interruption to fill out the form. These replies from teachers and pupils were secured in an effort to appraise the library organization and service. During the summer months Dr. Johnson pressed the work of tabulation and subsequently submitted the first draft of his report. The revised draft will shortly be available and after final editing will be sent on to the Government Printing Office.

The dominant four-stage procedure just outlined and illustrated reflects one of the controlling policies of the survey, which is to study innovating practices rather than merely to ascertain status. This policy was favored by our advisers and was prompted by the belief that a description, analysis, and interpretation of innovating practices would be more useful to

the secondary schools of the country than would a mere study of status. Moreover, it would have been entirely out of the question to have made within the financial limits of the survey, a study of status of all the aspects of schools represented in the outline in the more than 25,000 secondary schools of the country. Besides, after all, information concerning status is already available along many lines.

THE INQUIRY FORMS

The description of the dominant series of four stages of work on the projects indicates that the inquiry form is playing an essential part in the survey. The term "inquiry form" as used here is broader than the term "questionnaire", although most of the forms could appropriately be called questionnaires. A total of about 80 different forms have so far been used for gathering the information for the survey. The total count of different pages of the forms is more than 800—in itself a ponderous volume, if the forms were ever bound together. The total of forms distributed to date is almost 200,000—specifically, about 197,000. They range in length from a single page to 46 pages, the average number of pages being about 10. The grand total numbers of pages distributed has been about two million. The relative burden imposed on different groups by the distribution of the almost 200,000 forms is suggested by the following totals: To State departments and other State agencies, 677; to local administrative officers, chiefly principals and superintendents, 65,543; to teachers, 6,476; to students and graduates or former students, 116,339; and to adult members of the communities, that is, parents and employers, 7,675.

A conjecture of one not in close touch with the policies followed in distributing inquiry forms might be that those who would be most heavily burdened with supplying the information on these inquiry forms would be the local administrators. The person making such a conjecture would have in his support the great number of forms just reported as having gone to these administrators, that is, 65,543. In support of this conjecture would be the fact that the forms to local administrators were typically longer than those to other respondents. With-

out counteracting efforts, the likelihood that a single school would receive an unreasonable number of forms would be increased by the fact that a school innovating in one respect would almost certainly be innovating in several other respects; schools strong in one aspect are often strong in several aspects.

The danger of overdoing on different inquiry forms to individual schools was obviated by maintaining in the coordinating office of the survey a master list of all secondary schools on the mailing list of the Office of Education, a list containing at the outset of the Survey more than 22,000 schools. The list was kept on cards, with a card for each school. On this list each form was checked as it was sent out. A working maximum number of forms sent to individual schools was established and no form in excess of this maximum was sent out to a school unless this seemed peculiarly desirable from the standpoint of the project concerned, and then only after inquiry by special preliminary letter to ascertain the willingness of the administrator to cooperate.

Interest has been shown in recent years by those engaged in educational research in proportionate returns from questionnaires. The merit of many investigations hinges on securing a large proportionate response. Our computations up to about a month ago on the almost 200,000 forms distributed shows a return of 63.4 per cent—almost two-thirds of all. This percentage is increasing somewhat as the work on the survey progresses. The percentages vary for the groups approached. For state departments and other state agencies, the percentage was 67.7. For local administrators it was 46.1. For teachers it was 100. For students and former students it was 72.6. As a matter of fact, the return was complete for all forms used with this group excepting follow-up forms sent out to graduates and former students. Follow-up studies are notorious for the small proportions of responses and those in the present survey are only partial exceptions. The explanation of the full-count response from teachers and present students is explained through the complete cooperation of principals in distributing and collecting the forms. For parents and employers the percentage of return was 40.7.

It is a frequent inference that proportions of responses to questionnaires were always in inverse ratio to the lengths of the forms. Much depends on other factors, such as the nature of the motivation used and the timeliness of the subject. The longest form, as has already been reported, contained 46 pages. Despite the extreme length of this form, the percentage of response to it, with some follow-up, was 77.6. This was achieved by preliminary inquiry concerning willingness to fill out the form, the full length of the form and the probable time required to read and fill it out being indicated to the prospective respondents. The percentage which those who filled out the long form were of those originally invited to cooperate was 31.6.

So many forms and covering letters (aiming to motivate response) were prepared and over such a long period, that the members of the staff developed a high degree of skill in framing them to achieve motivation, to secure the definitive kinds of responses desired, and at the same time to simplify the task of the respondent.

VISITS TO THE SCHOOLS

The total number of visits of all specialists to individual schools up to about the first of November of this year was 776. Visits made since that time and still to be authorized will bring this total up to more than 800. Because some schools were visited in connection with more than one project and because sometimes two or three different specialists visited a school in connection with a single project, the number of *different schools* visited was 514—an impressive figure. When the number of visits is counted in terms of the projects represented, that is, after subtracting the additional visits to individual schools in connection with single projects, the number lay between the total of visits by individual specialists and total of different schools visited. This number was 689.

The schools visited are distributed to 40 states and the District of Columbia. The effort was made to see outstanding practices in any section of the country in which they are carried on, but the aim was not to have the visits evenly distrib-

uted to all sections and states. The figure on number of different states therefore shows that outstanding practices and schools are widely distributed. We may emphasize that there is no assumption that the different schools visited are the best 514 secondary schools of the country.. It is safe to say, however, that these are *among* the best in the country in the aspects of practice in connection with which they were visited.

One conclusion from this evidence concerning the distribution of schools visited is, that this is no comprehensive survey of a small number of individual institutions; in this respect at least the Survey qualifies on the word "national" that has been applied to it.

In addition to these visits to individual schools, many visits have been made to offices of city and county superintendents, to state departments of education, to higher institutions, and to other functionaries and institutions. As a matter of interest the total mileage of travel for visitation is being computed. Present estimates put this total distance at more than 180,000 miles. The facts concerning numbers of visits and distances traveled are not significant in themselves, but they do indicate what effort was made to note conditions in the schools and to gather information and impressions concerning them at first hand.

DEVIATIONS FROM THE DOMINANT PROCEDURE

The dominant procedure of four steps or stages in order to study only schools with promising or innovating practices is not strictly adhered to in all projects nor in all phases of all projects. Several projects include analyses of status. This is true, for example, of the investigation of types of districts and schools; of the present extent of junior high-school reorganization; of the provision of specialized types of schools, such as commercial high schools, technical high schools, or trade schools; of the legal and other control of secondary education; and of conditions in the run of high schools in smaller communities and rural areas. The study of status in these smaller high schools is being made to provide the background

against which to present the description of a group of selected smaller schools—selected for being outstanding among rural high schools.

Another type of approach not strictly of a piece with that involving the four stages, but nevertheless related to it, is the study of trends. Here would be included the repetition of Counts's study of the selective character of secondary education in Seattle and Bridgeport. Counts, be it recalled, ascertained the representation in the high schools in 1920 of certain socio-economic population groups ranging from proprietors down to common labor. The National Survey is repeating that study by identical methods for 1930. Another study of trends is in the inquiry made of all higher institutions concerning recent changes in the direction of effecting better articulation of high school and college. Still another is a study of the recent growth and trends in public junior colleges. These studies will suffice for illustration. After all, while such studies of trends are, as admitted, not strictly in line with the dominant four-stage approach of the survey as a whole, they are in essence at one with it, since the four-stage process also discovers trends.

THE METHODS OF RESEARCH REPRESENTED

Another way of looking at the procedures used in the survey is to check these methods of investigation against a list of methods of research. In this instance we can follow a simple list of procedures in investigation as sources of data. Such a list might include bibliographical method, the questionnaire, experiment, measurement, documentary analysis, and case method. More elaborate classifications are extant, but little would be gained in following them here.

(1) By the bibliographical method is meant recourse to and use of reports of related investigations previously or concurrently made by others. All specialists sought access to these reports, and were systematically aided in doing so by the Library Division of the Office of Education, which, besides making available published studies, borrowed unpublished

theses available in graduate departments of education and unpublished reports of investigations made by research agencies in city systems and individual schools. Although no count was kept of these borrowings, they ran into hundreds. Published and unpublished studies provide much of the information on status that will help to give the innovating practices meaning.

(2) The place of the questionnaire in the survey has already been made sufficiently apparent, except to say that the oral form of questionnaire method, that is, the interview, was often used by the specialists during visits to the schools and systems.

(3) No experimentation in the strict sense was done as a part of the work of the survey. The nearest approach was inquiry after experimentation being carried on in the schools and visits to the schools reporting it where preliminary inquiry indicated that contact would be profitable. For example, the specialist in charge of the project on provisions for individual differences made visits to two systems in which controlled experiments in ability grouping were being conducted. The reasons for the decision not to conduct experiments as part of the survey are the short time available for making the survey and the expensive character of this type of investigation.

(4) This survey did not include, as do many surveys of city school systems, any large use of measurement in the sense of a program of standardized testing. The issue represented in the outline approved by our consultants did not involve such a program. However, the findings of other investigations using such tests will be drawn upon wherever germane to any specific projects and test data available in the schools visited was gathered when it might have meaning for the survey. This was true of the project in horizontal articulation of schools in which the intelligence of students in the different types of schools and curricula was being compared. For this project also intelligence tests were given when information from such tests was not already at hand. In addition, for this project

rating scales were devised and scales of attitudes of students towards academic courses, vocational course, academic students, and vocational students were developed. These scales of attitudes were constructed after the manner worked out by Thurstone and Chave to measure attitudes toward the church. The approach in developing this scale is experimental and results of the application of it are not yet available. Another test devised for the survey is one to be mentioned by Farley in the following paper,—a test of parents' knowledge of secondary schools presumably resulting from programs of school publicity.

(5) Extensive use is being made of the analysis of records and documents. Illustrative of the use of records is the recourse in the project in horizontal articulation of the records of students in different courses, particularly those of a vocational nature, in relationship to subsequent success in the vocations. The curriculum project includes a large amount of analysis of programs of studies and course outlines, the project on research initiated within the schools and systems is analyzing the reports of these investigations, and the project investigating control of secondary education is analyzing educational codes and other regulations affecting the schools.

(6) The nearest approach to use of the case method is in the study of programs of guidance in individual schools and systems. The intent here is to provide the basis of description and interpretation of practices in individual schools and systems that have carried the work in guidance somewhat further than others. The procedure has a good deal in common with that dominantly used throughout the survey, except that tabular comparisons will not be undertaken, and it is doubtful whether it can properly be designated case method.

This brief classification relates to research methods as sources of evidence, and not to methods of handling the evidence once it has been gathered. It goes without saying that the survey includes a vast extent of statistical work, most of it simple rather than complex in type. The extent is suggested by the fact already reported, that as many as thirty cleri-

cal workers have at times assisted the professional specialists in the work of tabulation. The major work of tabulation on certain projects has been done on Hollerith machines, this service being supplied through units maintained by the Department of the Interior.

In generalizing on the methods of investigation that are being used, it may be said that no new major methods have been devised, but that a number of unique features or refinements of known methods have been made. Some of these would be deserving of special exposition if time permitted. The briefest manner of describing the methods of investigation as a whole is to make the fully anticipated statement that the methods represent that composite commonly associated with surveys of city and state school systems. The differences are largely in emphasis. The present survey is stressing more than the comprehensive survey in cities and states the use of related investigations recently made by others, the method of questionnaire and other inquiry forms, and the analysis of records and documents. It stresses somewhat less than other surveys the giving of standardized tests.

THE PLANS FOR PUBLICATION

Publication is not research, but because the findings of investigations to be useful must be made available, a brief statement may be made concerning plans for publication. More than \$30,000 has been set aside in the total budget for printing the report. Estimates of the extent of the total report put it in excess of 3,000 printed pages. To publish all this material in two or three large volumes would not make it readily available, and arrangements are being made to publish the report as a series of twenty-five or more monographs, each dealing with one or more related projects. This is done in order to serve the needs of those who may not care for the detailed information of the more specialized reports. One of these monographs will be a summary volume covering all the projects. Examples of others are monographs on secondary-school reorganization, specialized types of secondary education, selection and appointment of teachers, provisions for in-

dividual differences, guidance programs, library service, procedures in curriculum making, the extra-curriculum, and articulation of high school and college. Reports must be completed and printing of them requisitioned by July 1, 1932. The monographs will probably not begin to come from the press before summer and publication will continue through the autumn and perhaps the early winter.

Publication of summaries and high lights of the projects are being made also through *School Life* and other educational periodicals and reports of progress are being made by the several specialists before educational meetings. Commissioner Cooper is developing plans for a number of conferences over the findings of the survey to be held in different sections of the country, these conferences for the most part to take place following publication of the reports.

PROBABLE HELPFULNESS OF THE SURVEY

As we near the close of the work on this survey the conviction is strengthened that the report will prove genuinely helpful to the secondary schools of the country. A number of considerations lend support to this expectation. Chief among these, at this advanced stage of the work on the survey, is, of course, the nature of the evidence. Attention has been given largely to what are intended by those who initiate them as constructively innovating practices. These practices are being described, interpreted, and, as far as may be with procedures at hand, appraised. The methods of analysis used and the many inter-relationships of the evidence will aid in ascertaining the meaning of the practices. The staff at work on the evidence is a competent one, and, although the group of specialists could not include *all* the experts in the fields represented, the aim was to draw from the best available. One of the greatest assurances we have of the usefulness of the forthcoming reports is the active and generous cooperation of our advisers and of the thousands of principals, superintendents, and teachers in the schools and school systems, not to mention pupils and parents and other adult members of the communities. The survey should afford those in charge of secondary

schools a broad basis of interpreted evidence on which to project the next steps in the development of those schools, and over a wide array of practical and significant problems.

On motion of Mr. L. N. Morrisett, principal of Classen High School, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, the third paper on the program of the afternoon, *Educational Interpretation for the Secondary School*, by Dr. Belmont Farley, assistant director, Division of Publications, National Education Association, and specialist in School Publicity of the staff of the National Survey of Secondary Education, was in the absences of the author, not read. Carried. The paper follows:

EDUCATIONAL INTERPRETATION FOR THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

DR. BELMONT FARLEY

Assistant Director Division of Publications, National
Education Association

America has gone advertising mad. The most ingenious minds of an age of high pressure salesmanship are employed in writing advertising copy that penetrates the weak armor of sales resistance with appeals to avarice, pride, fear, love, intelligence, and the primitive desires of hunger, sex, and thirst. Where the desire does not exist it is immediately created. The missionary in *Rain* found it necessary first to make the savages of Pagopago sin conscious before he could make salvation seem necessary. The art of to-day's ad writer consists in making people toothpaste conscious, motor boat conscious, insurance conscious, and conscious of their woeful lack of all the needs of life. When the advertised article does not represent a real opportunity for the satisfaction of these needs, a little skilful rationalization will make it seem to do so.

To-day the keenest business competition of any age sharpens the ad writer's pencil by the hour. Each new spread comes forth with more striking illustration, more scintillating adjective, and a new reason why this refrigerator, smoking tobacco, or dog biscuit is better than any other. Thus the same

article, without any change whatsoever, is made to acquire new virtues.

The reader pondering the latest example of this art falsely imagines the supremest effort has been made, the highest pinnacle reached; when, lo and behold, a new marvel of superad craftsmanship autogiros into the stratosphere and sets a new mark!

The ambitious ad writer has introduced "stunts" that would make the premier poster artist of P. T. Barnum green with envy. The qualities of the article itself are bolstered with claims of merit for its packaging and preparation. It may even be shot from guns. The cream of the crop now comes wrapped in cellophane, is untouched by hands, and its supreme quality has been further enhanced by mysterious irradiation and toasting, generously sanctioned by the great and would-be-great from every field of human endeavor.

As the educational publicity man faces his task he is impressed with the necessity of competing with extremely high powered effort for the attention of a busy public. He is equally conscious of the fact that he cannot employ the methods of his competitors. For this reason it is supremely important that he recognize at the outset that his service is not one primarily of "selling education."

Education is not a product patented by a special interest. It is an undertaking in which all the people are concerned. It is the purpose of the school interpreter to stimulate the public to intelligent participation in its own enterprise. There is no need for packaging our product in cellophane or giving it a deft pass under the ultra-violet ray. Therefore, in presenting a few of the high spots of a nationwide study of educational publicity, the speaker has no word of condemnation or apology for the lack of startling tricks or display of clever stunts which the study discloses in school public relations. They do not belong to the school publicist's trade. Some day the extremist in commercial advertising will reach either the limitations of his shouting ability or the limitations of the human ear to tune in on his screams. A reaction will set in. The director

of educational publicity must pursue the even tenor of his way to-day and to-morrow and through the years ahead. He who has no bag of tricks cannot be caught with an empty sack.

Our study reveals a sane, thoughtful policy of stimulating the public to an unflagging sense of responsibility for the success of its own most important venture—universal and adequate educational opportunity from life's beginning to its close.

Two hundred ninety-three schools are invited to participate. One hundred sixty schools, of which 116 were senior high schools and 44 junior high schools, responded. The schools were selected as follows: State superintendents were asked to name cities in their states which seemed to be especially active in school public relations. The superintendents of these cities were asked to point out those high schools in the city, which they thought best represented their educational interpretation program. The principals of these high schools were asked to evaluate their own publicity practices. Only schools, the publicity practices of which were commented upon favorably by all three, were invited to take part in the study.

The purposes of the study are: (1) To enumerate and illustrate those policies and practices of educational interpretation of greatest frequency in some schools counted above average in this respect by those familiar with them; (2) To throw light on the effectiveness of the policies and practices employed.

The first question asked of the principals of these schools had to do with the continuing or intermittent character of the publicity programs. It would seem that a program consistent with the theory of educational publicity which we suggest above in contrast to advertising methods would call for continuous operation. Occasionally we hear it said of schools that they give their activities publicity only when they want the public to take some definite and immediate action. Forty-six percent of all schools replying say that a permanent continuing program of interpreting the schools to the public is a policy of the city-school system. Sixteen percent confess that it is the

policy of the school system to make little effort to promote publicity except when the schools are faced with a definite need, such as new buildings or increased tax levies, when a brief campaign of special publicity is carried out. Thirty-one percent of the schools say that the city-school system employs both the permanent and campaign types of educational publicity. More junior high schools than senior high schools seem to be carrying out continuous programs. Forty-two percent of the senior high schools say they carry on continuous programs while 57 percent of the junior high schools claim to do so.

It may be pointed out without citing the evidence, the introduction of which the limitations of this paper do not permit, that the junior high schools are more active in public relations than the senior high schools and follow policies more universally accepted by those who have had long experience in the public relations field. No explanation is offered for this, but it is suggested that the junior high schools, being a new type of organization, employing new methods of instruction, and introducing many innovations in curricula, find it necessary to explain their new technics.

It would seem that some recognition of so important a policy as that of keeping the public informed might be formally adopted and recorded in the motions history of the board of education. In response to a query as to the method of adopting the publicity policy in effect, only eight percent of the 160 schools reporting say that the publicity policy was formally adopted by the board of education and that a statement of it may be found in the minutes. In spite of some affirmative responses to this question, no clause from a board of education minutes has yet been found which specifically endorses a policy of any kind of public relations program. Twenty-eight percent of the principals state that the policy in effect has evolved through common understanding without any formal action of school officers, or teachers. Fifty-five percent state that the policy followed is due to the individual initiative of superintendent, principals, or teachers rather than to any group understanding. Twenty-five percent of the 160 high schools re-

porting say that the central office of the city school system carries out the program for all of the city schools and that the individual high schools devote little attention to it. Forty-six percent say that each individual school carries out a program of its own and cooperates also with the central office of the system. Here again junior high schools seem to excel the senior high schools. Thirty percent of the senior high schools say that the central office generally carries out the program for the whole city, while only eleven percent of the junior high schools say that this is true.

While previous studies indicate that there is not so much necessity for adapting the content of the educational publicity program to the different groups of the public, as was formerly supposed, the study shows there are three distinct classes of people who may be considered interested in education from different viewpoints and which are considered by principals as important audiences for which to plan programs of school information. Publicity prepared for these classes may necessarily differ both in content and method. These three groups are: (1) The students themselves; (2) The faculty and employees of the school; and (3) The general public. An effort was made to discover to what extent these classes are recognized by adapting the program to their respective needs and interests.

INTERPRETING THE SCHOOLS TO THE STUDENTS THEMSELVES

Eighty-four percent of all the schools answer "yes" to the question "Do you make a special attempt in the school of which you are principal to carry out a program of interpretation to the students themselves?" The junior high schools seem more active in this direction than the senior high schools, as ninety-one percent of the former and only 81 percent of the latter professed to be interpreting education to their own students.

What a wonderful opportunity this group offers for increasing permanently public appreciation of education! Soon these high school students will be voters. If each one can be graduated from his school with a profound sense of the signi-

ficance of education in a democratic society, within a few years school taxpayers' protective association will find the task of recruiting members pretty hard work. If each student can be graduated with some knowledge of what constitutes a good school system it soon will be unnecessary to go to the adult public with hastily planned programs of education on the subject of school needs when we wish to improve our schools.

Perhaps we can make this discussion most helpful by pointing out specific ways in which we can accomplish results favorable to school progress in our communities, by properly educating our students.

In health courses we teach our students that they should sleep with their bedroom windows open, in home economics that they should select their clothing with certain considerations for color harmony, in music that they will find greater enjoyment in classic composition than in jazz and crooning; is there any reason why we should not teach them that the window lighting of a school room should be twenty percent of the floor space, that enclosed stair wells are the best fire escape, that school building engineers are now advocating at least five acres of ground for the site of a junior high school, or that three-fourths of a mile is considered a fair average distance for a junior high student to walk to school?

If our young people do not learn these things in school, where will they learn them? We depend largely upon intensive publicity programs just before a school bond issue comes to vote to tell the public why it is necessary to raise funds for a new school building, and what may be expected for the money. Why not prepare our students for intelligent decisions regarding schools just as we prepare them for intelligent decisions in other matters?

Let us take school buildings, to the construction principles of which we have referred above, as an illustration of how to proceed in an interpretation program for students.

We are quartered in a building. Let us study it from basement to roof, scoring it on a standard school building score

sheet. Then let us compare it with other school buildings of the city, perhaps with another high type building described in a magazine article or a book on this subject. How much buildings cost per cubic foot will be a topic. How money is raised for building purposes will be another. Yes, we shall even discuss sinking fund bonds and serial bonds. Why not? The intelligent action of our future voters will depend upon the care and thoroughness with which this and other studies of school activities will be made.

The limitation of a brief paper prevents outlining a complete unit of study of this kind, but the speaker suggests that it may be very desirable even to incorporate such a subject in the high-school curriculum, separate and distinct from other courses. Twelve percent of the high schools participating in this study say they offer a course in the curriculum designed to interpret the schools to their students. Twenty-three percent of the junior high schools responding say they do so, and eight percent of the senior high schools. No one so far has been able to submit such a course of study, however. Those who have been asked for it show that they have recognized this opportunity by extensive consideration of such topics in some of the social sciences.

Perhaps much of the instruction concerning the needs, aims, and achievements of the schools can be given more effectively when made incidental to the subjects now taught. Care should be taken to see that it is not accidental. To see that it is not is the task of your publicity director or your publicity committee. Sixteen percent of the junior high schools reporting and ten percent of the senior high schools have a special director of public relations for the school. Sixteen percent of the junior high schools have a public relations committee of the teachers; three percent of the senior high schools have such a committee. In 11 percent of the school systems from which high schools reported there are directors of publicity for the city school system. It may be fair to assume that the same relationship exists between publicity directors for the school system and publicity directors for the several high schools as exists between the special subject supervisors

and the teachers of those subjects in the high schools. Together they may make universal in the system the best publicity practices employed in the individual schools. Together they might plan a program of interpretation to students that would be purposive and effective.

They might begin with history, for instance. The account of the rise of the public school systems of the United States is a dramatic and inspiring story. Its episodes run the gamut of human aspirations. From the bigotry of Governor Berkeley of Virginia who proudly reported to the lords of the colonies in 1671 that "we have not free schools nor printing; and I hope we shall not have these hundred years," through the pathetic sentiment of the placards which adorned early tavern walls with the request "THOSE WHO ARE LEARNING TO READ, PLEASE USE LAST MONTH'S NEWSPAPERS," in the pictures of woodland clearings where the smoke curled from the mud plastered chimneys of log schoolhouses, to 23,000 thousand high schools with 5,000,000 students to-day, runs the thread of America's unique contribution to civilization—Universal Education! On the screen of this drama flashes the majestic figure of Horace Mann, in a decade of notable educational interpretation; of Thaddeus Stevens in an inspired moment before the Pennsylvania State legislature; of Thomas Jefferson weaving into the philosophy of selfgovernment its corollary—free education. We there see the man whose great name we especially honor to-day founding the first free public school in his own state, advocating a great national university, and hear the solemn adjuration of his farewell address, "Promote, then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. "The distinctive feature of new world civilization is the historically new idea of elevating the intellectual plane of humankind. Why should the rise of education not be the very core of history teaching?

In vocational classes the economic value of trained hands and educated minds may be taught. Economics courses may show how human wants are increased and refined by education. Civics may stress the fact that selfgovernment rests upon an educated citizenry. Sociology may show the relation of igno-

rance to crime, to social mobility, to social welfare. Art classes may compare the taste of primitive peoples to that of cultured ones. In our own high schools is the opportunity, too often neglected, of establishing a permanent and effective appreciation of education.

A few years ago a commission of the National Education Association drew up a statement of the seven objectives of the cardinal principles of education, a statement to which I understand members of this group made significant contributions. Do our students know these, or any objectives of education, so well that they will be able to see the achievement of these objectives brought a little nearer by the adoption of some school measure which we will ask them to pass upon as citizens after they have been graduated?

Forty-one percent of the schools participating in this study say they are at present interpreting education to students in connection with school courses. Sixty-nine percent say they use their extra-curriculum activities other than school publications for this purpose. Eighty-nine percent employ assembly exercises for this purpose. Sixty-two percent use the home rooms part of the time for this kind of instruction. The idea is not new or revolutionary. It is widely accepted, but largely ineffective because its operation is frequently left to the chance inspiration of teachers who see its possibilities.

INTERPRETING EDUCATION TO SCHOOL EMPLOYEES

Only sixty-one percent of the high schools reporting claim to be carrying out a program of interpreting the schools to the members of the faculty and the other school employees. An understanding school force multiplies many times the work of the school officers in keeping the public informed about the schools. It may be fairly assumed that teachers have an appreciation of the meaning of education and a sympathetic understanding of its general problems. How many of them know the state and local sources of school revenue, and the principles upon which these revenues are distributed for school purposes? Do they know how much it costs per student to operate the high

school throughout a year? Are they able to compare local salary schedules with those of other cities? Do they know how the teacher's average income compares with the average income of other employed workers? Are our teachers able to interpret the objectives of the cardinal principles of education? Can they show patrons and other citizens how the schools are helping to achieve these objectives? Can our teachers explain the work of supervisors and principals? Are they sufficiently familiar with the work of the board of education to speak with appreciation of it to their friends in the community?

Principals depend upon faculty meeting discussions, courses of study, faculty bulletins, and teachers' handbooks to keep the teaching force informed of educational affairs such as new tax levies being asked of the public; plans of new buildings, extensions, important repairs, improvements on school grounds; the important motions, resolutions, and official action of the board of education.

Fifty-seven and one-half percent of the principals say that faculty meetings are held for the discussion of these topics. However only nineteen percent of them say that the annual report of the superintendent of schools to the board of education is ever made a topic of discussion in faculty meetings. Granted that these reports vary considerably in value, they usually constitute the best available source of reliable information on the way in which the city is meeting its educational obligations. If the teachers do not read and discuss these reports, who can be expected to? It would seem that many of us are losing an opportunity. If the annual report is barren, it might be a great stimulus to better production for the principals to descend upon the research department of the school system with a demand for facts with which the community's educational leaders should be familiar. High-school principals do consider a knowledge of city-school system affairs an important part of the informational program of their faculties. Forty-one percent of the junior high-school principals and twenty-eight percent of the senior high-school principals are trying to keep their teachers informed of important

school activities throughout the city at all educational levels, as well as of those activities relating directly to the teachers' own schools.

One of the most frequently used media for keeping teachers informed of educational facts is a principal's bulletin to all instructors. Fifty-two percent of the junior high school principals and thirty-nine percent of the senior high-school principals regularly issue such a bulletin. Most of them are mimeographed. Frequency of issue ranges from daily to monthly bulletins.

In fourteen percent of the 160 school systems a "house organ" is issued to all the teachers in the city. These range from a simple four page publication printed in newspaper style, to a magazine type with many pages. Your attention is called to the effective newspaper style of publication issued to Cleveland teachers, and to the high grade magazine used for this purpose in San Francisco.

Twenty percent of the high schools reporting issue bulletins to janitors, clerks, and other employees of the system, and twenty-four percent of them hold janitors meetings just as they hold faculty meetings. While much of the time of these meetings is undoubtedly taken up in the discussion of duties, and properly so, the fact should not be overlooked that all of the employees of a school system, from the humblest sweeper to the board of education may be ambassadors of good will to the public.

INTERPRETATION OF THE SCHOOLS TO THE GENERAL PUBLIC

The most widely employed media of interpreting the schools to the general public include the newspaper, the radio, bulletins published regularly for the specific purpose of going to the homes of students, letters written by students to parents, graduation exercises, addresses of faculty members before clubs of other public groups, parent-teacher organizations, addresses by students before local clubs and societies, exhibits of school work, the alumni association, school entertainments,

school reports to the board of education, the observance of American Education Week and other special educational weeks and days, and inserts in the periodical grade reports to parents.

School exhibits lead in frequency as a medium of interpretation, with seventy-nine percent of the schools employing it. Previous studies of the interests of parents in school news show that the achievements of the pupils, and the methods of instruction rank first as topics of interest. Since school exhibits usually show what students are doing and how they are taught to do it, principals would seem to be justified in placing great emphasis upon this medium.

The local newspapers rank second as a publicity medium, with seventy-two percent of the principals counting it as an important means of keeping the public informed. Within recent years the publication of school news has been greatly increased, due both to the increased interest of editors and to greater activity in this direction by school officials. It's an "Old American Custom" to go to the newspapers for publicity. Every large commercial organization, every government department, every national association has developed a more or less elaborate means of promoting newspaper attention to its activities. No doubt these efforts have been inspired largely by the great success of commercial advertising in newspapers. There are more than 45,000,000 copies of newspapers issued daily in the United States and Canada. Nearly everyone reads one or more newspapers each day.

Because of the great emphasis placed upon this medium, one section of the secondary-school publicity survey was devoted to an intensive study of the relation between the amount of white space carrying school news in local newspapers, and the degree to which school patrons were accurately informed of the schools.

The amount of school news published in one daily in each of four cities was carefully measured for a period of three months. At the same time an examination on school facts was given to a random selection of the patrons of representative high schools in those cities. The study is too lengthy to

report here except in this general way, but its chief conclusion is, in so far as data have been compiled to date, that there is not necessarily a positive correlation between the amount of school news published and the extent and accuracy of parents' information about their schools. The high-school patrons in the city in which the newspaper ranked second in amount of school news, ranked first by a considerable margin in the average score made on the examination.

This does not mean that the newspaper is not a very valuable medium of educational publicity, but it suggests that more effort may well be applied to other means of interpreting the schools. The superintendent of schools in the city in which the high school studied scored highest on parents' information attributes the success of the publicity program in his system largely to the employment of the school papers to tell the public the aims, needs, and achievements of the schools. He feels also that the large and enthusiastic parent organizations of his city were responsible in part for the large score. The high-school principal agreed with the superintendent in the latter's estimate of the effectiveness of school papers and parent organizations.

The growing importance of the school paper as a publicity medium may be indicated in the fact that 52 percent of the 160 high schools circulate the school paper to the homes of students sixty-four percent of the junior high schools do so. Forty-eight percent of the principals say the parent-teachers' association is one of the most important means of securing all kinds of cooperation from patrons and the public. Less than two percent say these parent organizations are a handicap rather than a help to the school.

Graduation exercises rank third after school exhibits and city newspapers in the frequency with which they are employed as publicity media. Sixty-three percent of the principals make commencement a special period for school interpretation. The plans by which they are so used consist essentially in dispensing with outside speakers, and in presenting pupil activities which demonstrate or describe the methods, aims, or results of

the schools as a part of the graduation exercises. Your attention is called particularly to the high schools in Durant, Oklahoma, and in Chanute, Kansas, for examples of success in the use of this medium of interpretation.

The speaker believes it fortunate that more direct methods of educational interpretation are supplementing the impersonal presentation of the city newspapers. The former methods offer the desirable opportunity of creating or arousing especially in patrons a sense of responsibility for the safe conduct of our schools through the present troublous times. In many states and communities there is at present a demand for the reduction of school services. In employing the publicity practices indicated above, school principals will be concerned with their effectiveness in helping to maintain the present high standards of the schools. Publicity may best do this by sharing the obligation with fathers and mothers, and other citizens. If these times demand retrenchment let us ask our patrons to assume responsibility for the results of the cut. Let us ask them to show where the pruning knife shall fall. Let us ask of them such questions as these: If finally faced with the necessity of abridging the rights of children, which educational opportunity shall you first strike down? Will you lessen the efforts of the schools to promote sound health, and see the now declining death rate mount to higher levels? Will you decrease the effectiveness of training in citizenship and loyalty to national ideals at a period when the pinch of want and the blundering of well intentioned leaders have already caused thousands to question the stability and justice of our government? Will you ask the schools to abandon character education at a time when rapidly increasing numbers are yielding to despair, and to disrespect for law and the rights of others? Will you choose to weaken the work of the schools in preparing children for worthy home membership when many homes have become economically unstable, and when broken and unhappy families are on the increase? Will you decide to reduce vocational training in the schools when it is harder than it has ever been to make a living? Will you elect to abandon training in worthy use of leisure when forced unemployment

ment aggravates a hundredfold the problem of wasted hours? Will you make your children pay to-morrow the price of your own mistakes to-day?

The schools are not a vested interest to plead their cause for their own sake; they belong to the people. Let us make the people feel accountable for their success; let us ask our citizens "Will you sacrifice your children?"

Mr. Will French, supervisor of Secondary Education of Tulsa, Oklahoma, moved that the President of the Department send a message of encouragement and cheer to Dr. Elbert F. Fretwell now detained at home because of the serious illness of Mrs. Fretwell. Motion carried.

The department proceeded to the election of nominating committee. The following men were named:

Louis E. Plummer, Principal—Union High School & Union Junior College, Fullerton, California. Wm. F. Ewing, Assistant Superintendent, Oakland California. H. V. Kepner, Principal—West High School, Denver, Colorado. Roy S. Haggard, Principal—Robert Fitch High School—Poquonnoc Bridge, Connecticut. Walter Spencer, New Haven, Connecticut. F. L. Bacon, Principal—Evanston Township High School, Joliet, Illinois. Milo H. Stuart, Assistant Superintendent—Indianapolis, Indiana. D. A. Morgan, Principal—High School, Merriam, Kansas. J. D. Williams, Principal—High School, Danville, Kentucky. John J. Butler, Principal—High School, Lewiston, Maine. Charles E. LeFurge, Principal—High School, Lansing, Michigan. Harold Ferguson, Principal—High School Montclair, New Jersey. H. D. Weber, Batavia, New York. L. R. Johnson, High Point, North Carolina. E. H. Garringer, Charlotte, North Carolina. B. C. B. Tighe, Principal—High School, Fargo, North Dakota. Dean M. Hickson, Principal—High School, Lancaster, Ohio. Eli Foster, Principal—Central High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma. J. F. Faust, Principal—High School, Chambersburg, Pennsylvania. Roy E. Boone, Principal—High School, Martinsburg, West Virginia.

AIMS AND ACTIVITIES OF SUPERVISORS

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1. INTRODUCTION

Criteria for selecting schools. This progress report deals with the aims and activities of supervisors in a small number of schools carefully selected on the basis of the following criteria: First, each school should be recommended by some competent authority as having an unusually successful supervisory program; second, the supervisory staff of the school should have some confidence in the merit of its program of supervision; third, the supervisory staff should be willing to assist the visiting member of the survey staff in collecting the necessary data; fourth, the schools selected should be representative of the various geographical areas of the country.

Number of schools visited. The time and funds available for the project indicated that approximately thirty schools should be selected for intensive study. The staff member in charge planned to visit one school in each city. However, in a few cities two or three schools were included with the final result that thirty-six schools were represented.

2. DATA FROM A PRELIMINARY INQUIRY.

Selecting schools for intensive study. Prior to the final selection of these thirty cities for intensive study, a brief inquiry was addressed to the principals of one hundred thirty schools recommended by State superintendents, city superintendents or other informed people as having unusually successful programs of supervision. Sixty-nine principals replied. To the question, "Do you believe that a successful supervisory program is functioning in your school?" nine said "no" and five expressed doubt; the remainder indicated a reasonable confidence in their procedures.

Outstanding elements of supervisory programs mentioned on the preliminary inquiry. In the replies to the question "What seem to you to be the outstanding elements of the supervisory program in your school?", four words figure prominently. These words are, simplicity, informality, cooperation and spirit. Perhaps the typical phrases in which these words are used are vague, but the frequency of their recurrence suggests some vital connection between them and practical supervision. "The absence of formality and the presence of a cooperative spirit in tackling the problems of child growth"; "Cooperation of teachers, heads of departments, principals, supervisors, and the supervisory staff of the central office"; "ability of heads of departments to cooperate and take suggestions from each other"; "simplicity and efficiency", and expressions of a similar nature receive emphasis through repetition by one respondent after another.

Accompanying these general statements were many specific statements referring to: testing programs; marking and promotion schemes; informal, objective examinations; departmental examinations; classification of pupils into homogeneous groups; differentiation of courses and curricula for the very slow and the very bright; traits of bright and dull students; effect of absence upon marks; improvement of the study habits of pupils; value of homework assignments; pupil guidance or adjustment; demonstration teaching; visiting classroom teachers; individual conferences; departmental and faculty meetings; revision of curricula; grade-placement of subject-matter; the unit organization of subject-matter; service studies on problems of teaching methods and of the curriculum; the extra-curriculum; vocational choices of graduates; and follow-up studies of the success of graduates.

Perhaps there would be mutual agreement to the statement that if the proceeding items represent a fair composite of matters with which supervision should be concerned then supervision is potentially co-extensive with the art and science of education.

3. THE INTERVIEW FORM

Purpose of the interview form. To insure uniformity of approach to the problem of supervision in the schools finally selected for intensive study, an eighteen-page interview form was prepared. Following the visit of the staff member of the National Survey, one copy of this form was filled out by each person doing any effective supervision in the school. In some large cities the members of the central supervisory staff had set up separate supervisory programs adapted to the needs of the schools of the different areas of the city. In such cases each supervisor filled out one copy of the form for each area. Eventually the reactions of about three hundred different supervisors will be available.

Supervisory program and supervisory activities differentiated. The interview form was constructed on the theory that a supervisory program is one thing and supervisory activities are another; that the program is a systematic arrangement of the aims or objectives of the supervisory staff; and that the activities are what the supervisory staff does in an effort to approach or to attain these aims. The supervisory program as listed on the form is a composite obtained from a careful analysis of the literature on supervision. This composite includes six major elements, namely, helping to develop educational aims or objectives; helping to develop subject-matter or content, including pupil activities and experiences; helping to develop teaching methods and procedures; helping to adjust the teacher to the community; helping to provide for the individual differences of teachers; and helping to evaluate the supervisory program. Similarly the supervisory activities listed in the form included all activities which competent writers on the subject have classified at one time or another as supervisory. Seventy-two such activities were listed.

Three relationships available. Therefore, in addition to showing what the programs and activities of practical supervisors really are, the responses on these forms will show first, the extent to which practical supervisory programs coincide with a composite program advocated by competent writers on

the subject; and second, the extent to which the real activities of supervisors coincide with a composite list of activities which one or more competent writers have regarded as supervisory.

A third relationship which will be available as a result of the organization of the responses to this inquiry form, will be the degree of success, as estimated by the supervisors on a three-point scale, with which each supervisory activity has contributed to each of the major elements of the school's supervisory program.

4. TABULATION OF RESPONSES TO THE INTERVIEW FORM.

Only partial data are available. Only one hundred fifty replies to the interview form have been tabulated to date. These include some forms from each section of the country except the far West and the South. While these tabulations are in no sense complete, either as to number of forms to be tabulated, or number of relationships to be secured a few facts from available sub-totals may be of interest.

Officials exercising supervisory functions. First, supervisory functions are vested in a wide variety of officials. The official positions listed by those performing supervisory duties include: chairmen or heads of departments; directors of English (or of other subject-matter fields); councillors; advisors; general supervisors; supervisors of instruction; vocational directors; shop superintendents; chairmen or heads of adjustment groups; deans; registrars; directors of research; directors of guidance; directors of tests and measurements; curriculum specialists; assistant, vice or deputy principals; principals; assistant, associate, or deputy superintendents; and superintendents. Since the question of organization for supervision is a phase of Project H, "The Administrative and Supervisory Staff." Therefore the question will not be considered in this report. However, the present study shows clearly that the titles of officials exercising supervisory functions vary greatly from one community to another. Moreover, the supervisory functions delegated to any given official in one commun-

ity are not likely to be even approximately identical with the functions delegated to the same official in another community.

The total number of years of experience in school work of these one hundred fifty supervisors varies from three to forty-five years. The span of forty-five years belongs to one of the leading high school principals in the United States, a principal whose school is in the vanguard of most efforts to improve secondary education.

Over one-half of the one hundred fifty supervisors hold both bachelors' and masters' degrees. Five hold doctors' degrees. Over one-third of the masters' degrees were obtained within the past five years.

Goals influencing supervisory activities. The partial data indicate that certain phases of the development of subject-matter or content are playing the most prominent part in determining what the activities of the supervisory staffs of these schools shall be. In other words, the development of curricula; the selection of subjects and content; the choosing of texts, reference books and classroom equipment; are the most prominent goals toward which these supervisors are working. The responses further indicate that continuous readjustments of courses and curricula are being based more upon careful observation or results than upon measurements by means of tests.

Activities most frequently performed by supervisors. Although the enumeration of items is monotonous perhaps you will bear the listing of those supervisory activities appearing in the upper fourth of the frequency distribution. In the order of frequency they are:

1. Reading educational literature.
2. Attending professional meetings outside one's own school system.
3. Consulting with parents concerning pupils.
4. Planning, conducting, or following up the results of individual conferences.
5. Requisitioning materials needed for classroom work.
6. Visiting classroom teachers.
7. Studying the interests, abilities, talents, experience, and training of the staff supervised.

8. Studying the interests, abilities, talents, and experiential background of the pupils.
9. Attending, planning, conducting, or following up the results of departmental meetings.
10. Advising concerning the classification and reclassification of pupils.
11. Attending, planning, conducting or following up the results of general faculty meetings.
12. Advising concerning, or planning the teacher's daily schedule.
13. Holding membership or office in professional organizations outside one's own school system.
14. Encouraging teachers to attend professional meetings outside one's own school system.
15. Developing and maintaining, or helping to develop and maintain cumulative records of pupils.
16. Analyzing and following up suggestions made by teachers for the improvement of the educational program of the school.
17. Attending meetings of community groups and organizations.

Some activities least frequently performed by supervisors.

A few activities ranking in the lowest fourth may seem to you to merit higher ranks among the activities of supervisors in highly selected schools. In the reverse order of their frequency these activities are:

1. Providing means whereby teachers may rate systematically the supervisor's traits and activities.
2. Arranging for, or recommending the temporary exchange of positions by teachers.
3. Surveying the community served by the school.
4. Planning or following up the results of intervisitation by teachers.
5. Planning, conducting, or following up the results of demonstration teaching.
6. Providing means whereby teachers may rate systematically their own traits and activities.

5. OTHER SOURCES OF DATA

Inquiry and interview forms are not the sole sources of data. So far in this paper an attempt has been made to suggest the procedures being used in the study of supervision and the nature of the data which are becoming available from the use of inquiry and interview forms. However, the impression

should not be left that inquiry and interview forms are the sole, or even the most important sources of data. The visits to the schools have yielded a body of notes on conferences, a large number of supplementary written statements from supervisors, and an abundance of printed, typed and mimeographed material, all of which will give form and symmetry to the report of each local school, and will determine in a large measure the organization and the content of the final report.

Many findings can not be presented orally. Many of the significant findings from these supplementary sources can not be presented orally but require the printed page for illustration. This is true, for example, of data-gathering devices such as rating scales, tests, graphs, and check lists which are being used by supervisors with success.

Nevertheless excerpts from the reports dealing with individual schools may be presented which will illustrate another type of information concerning supervisory aims and practices to be included in the final report. Space does not permit a complete presentation of the supervisory aims and activities in any one school.

6. EXCERPTS FROM REPORTS DEALING WITH INDIVIDUAL SCHOOLS.

Studies in Motivation. While principal of Thomas Jefferson Junior High School in Cleveland, Ohio, Arthur Seybold instituted a cooperative undertaking which he called "Studies in Motivation". Apparently he had no desire to depart from the necessary fundamentals of subject-matter as prescribed in the various curricula. Neither did he wish any teacher to abandon the methods by which she had achieved success in the past. But he did ask each teacher to attempt to develop during each two week's some problem or device related to the regular work which would appeal intrinsically to the pupils; and to try to have in the process of completion at all times some problem or project which for its own sake was engaging part of the time of the pupils working in groups. From this suggestion there developed (probably not without several supervisory

headaches) a series of "red-letter" lessons prepared by various teachers. A statement of the purpose and an outline of each lesson was submitted to the principal. Other essential data such as size and ability level of the class were included in the report.

These reports were edited by the principal, mimeographed and bound in a neat volume entitled "Studies in Motivation". Each teacher received a copy.

This supervisory activity stimulated the teachers to a full consideration of the objectives of education and of content and teaching procedures adapted to different types of students. It was the source of many demonstration lessons of the finest kind. The volumes of lessons taught in succeeding years should become stepping stones on which the entire staff might rise to levels of teaching procedure otherwise unattainable.

Improving the students' habits of study. In Robert Louis Stevenson Junior High School, Los Angeles, California, a committee of teachers headed by the school counsellor have been at work on the topic of "Directed Study". The project was initiated by the committee in February, 1929, with a bulletin to teachers entitled "What is Directed Study?" The bulletin listed many definitions which have been given of "directed study" and gave bibliographical references. During the following month the committee issued a questionnaire to the teachers of the several departments asking each teacher to list desirable habits of study and special problems of directed study. The committee carefully read, analyzed, organized, and interpreted the replies to the questionnaire. A mimeographed report was issued presenting the data for each department separately. From the data for all departments a composite picture of "Desirable Habits of Study" was prepared in the form of a chart.

Special committees later entered into more specific phases of the problem of Directed Study such as "reasoning in Arithmetic". All reports were made available to the cooperating teachers.

A year later the general committee adopted the case method of securing data from the teachers. Each teacher supplied the name of each pupil who was a problem in her classes because of poor study habits. Along with the pupil's name were given his home-room, the subject in which he was having difficulty, his grade, and a definite statement of the way in which he was a problem. The data for the various pupils were entered on slips of paper which could be detached for the purpose of sorting and classifying.

Such studies are truly supervisory. They are continuous from year to year—the last word is never said. They are aimed at the direct improvement of classroom instruction. They involve the active cooperation of teachers and pupils. Whoever directs such a study is performing a supervisory function regardless of his official title or his other duties.

Systematic planning of classroom work and testing of results. An outstanding supervisory practice in the J. Sterling Morton High School, Cicero, Illinois, is concerned with the administration of a uniform objective test in each section of each subject at the end of each month.

First, the work to be done in the various classes of any given department is planned in advance by the teachers of the department cooperating with the department head. Next, an objective examination is built by the department head in cooperation with the department of research. So far as possible the examination covers the goals previously established for the marking period in the departmental meeting.

Teachers need not award their marks on the basis of this examination. They may supplement the test in any way they choose. Neither are teachers judged exclusively upon the scores which their pupils earn on the test. However, these scores are valuable data indicating certain phases of a teacher's success. Since the entire school is classified into ability levels it follows that the average classification index of any given class section may be compared with the average score made by the class on the objective test.

Reports of the results of the tests are made available to each teacher for her classes only. Comparative reports of the results obtained by all teachers and by all departments are prepared for the director of research and for the superintendent of the high school.

A similar piece of work is being done in Junior High School Number Three, Trenton, New Jersey, with the exception that a general supervisor of instruction, directly responsible to the principal, supervises the work of all departments.

Committees on curriculum revision. In the junior high schools of East St. Louis fifteen committees of teachers are at work on curriculum revision. Each committee meets once each month for one-half day. Substitute teachers are supplied to relieve the regular teachers when their committees are in session.

Professional test for teachers. In these same schools "Professional Test for Teachers" is being used. The test is intended to acquaint the teachers with educational terminology and to stimulate their thinking about educational theory and practice. It consists of one hundred true-false, forty-five completion, ten multiple response, and twenty matching questions. The test is given to the teachers in the building meetings. Each teacher scores her own paper and need not reveal her score unless she wishes to do so. Discussions follow the testing and scoring of the papers.

Teacher rating scale. Another device found useful in the junior high schools of East St. Louis is the Torgersen Diagnostic Teacher Rating Scale.

The method of using the scale is as follows:

- (1) The scale is studied by the teacher and discussed with her;
- (2) The teacher uses the scale to rate herself knowing that the supervisor will later rate her by means of the same scale. Two or three weeks are allowed for the ratings to be completed. Items on the scale,

which describe most nearly the teacher's usual practices, are checked;

- (3) The teacher and the supervisor compare and discuss the ratings;
- (4) A few weeks later the supervisor rates the teacher again.

The continuous nature of the process keeps the teacher constantly critical of her methods and leads to intelligent modification of her teaching procedures.

Each faculty meeting repeated on same day. In the South Philadelphia High School for Girls a second session of each faculty meeting is held on the same day. The first session is held from nine to ten o'clock in the morning and the second session in the afternoon. Carefully prepared agenda are mimeographed and delivered to the teachers in advance of the meeting. The same agenda hold for each session. This plan involves extra work for the supervisor but makes it much more convenient for teachers to be present at all faculty meetings.

Department heads elected annually. In the East St. Louis Senior High School department heads are elected annually. No department head may succeed himself.

Educational experts as consultants or supervisors. Pasadena, California, retains an educational specialist from one of the large universities as a consultant. The consultant meets twice a year with committees of teachers and supervisors who are constantly at work on problems of the curriculum, of instruction, and of educational objectives.

The board of education further maintains a consistent policy of bringing to Pasadena leading thinkers in education for constructive work with groups of teachers.

Hamtramck, Michigan, also retains an expert consultant.

Both Connellsville and Midland, Pennsylvania have followed a policy of bringing educational specialists into the system to work with the teachers on projects requiring highly technical information. These schools have been primarily in-

terested in developing unit assignments in various subject-matter fields. For several years past a specialist in the theory of the unit assignment has spent a week each year in directing teachers in the development or revision of units and in the techniques of classroom procedure. Excellent results have been obtained in both of these schools in their work with unit assignments. Their accomplishments are in marked contrast with the results obtained by certain schools where expert advice has been lacking.

Part-time service from educational leaders should be especially valuable in the smaller cities and towns where the expense of maintaining any considerable number of specialists permanently on the staff is prohibitive. Incidentally the specialists should find the experience of being called to the firing line and sent over the top at periodic intervals an excellent treatment for that frequent form of mental aberration which results from an hermitage in the misty realms of unapplied theory.

Supervision through university cooperation. For the past few years there has been under way in Albemarle County, Virginia, an interesting and highly significant venture in supervision. The enterprise is made possible through the cooperation of the School of Secondary Education of the University of Virginia with the administrators of the City of Charlottesville and of Albemarle County. Seven county high schools, with enrollments ranging from fifty-two to one-hundred and thirty-two, and the high school of the City of Charlottesville, with an enrollment of six-hundred and ninety-five, are the beneficiaries of the plan.

The primary objective of the supervisory staff is the development of techniques which will enable the small school to present educational offerings comparable to those of the large school.

One general supervisor, Mr. E. E. Windes, is employed jointly by the county and the university. Special supervisors are employed by the university. In addition three high school principals, jointly employed, but paid largely by the county,

are used as critic teachers. In the City of Charlottesville the critic teachers are paid by the city for teaching two classes in the city high school.

Much attention has been given in this undertaking to the development of the written unit assignment. In building these units the following procedure is being used:

- (1) A conference of teachers in a given subject-matter field is held with the general supervisor and the special supervisor.
- (2) Teachers choose certain units which they undertake to develop or perfect.
- (3) Teachers submit completed units to supervisors who may submit them to other teachers. Consensus of opinion determines the final content and form of the unit.
- (4) The unit is mimeographed by the county office for all county schools.

As a result of this plan of supervision teachers are stimulated to professional study. They are given systematic training in the organization of subject-matter and in methods of teaching. Inspection and negative criticism are minimized.

Is it not likely that the normal schools, schools of education, and teachers colleges throughout the country could render conspicuous service to education through similar ventures? Could not the movement toward such cooperation originate in the administrative offices of the public high schools?

A staff with a margin of time. Skinner Junior High School in Denver, Colorado, enrolls about fifteen hundred pupils. The principal, two advisers who are virtually assistant principals, and a capable, well-paid secretary to the principal give full-time to administrative and supervisory duties. In addition a visiting teacher is available for three-fifths of her time; two teachers are released part-time for research work; and several specialists in various subject-matter fields may be called from the central office when their assistance is needed.

Many principals of schools enrolling fifteen hundred pupils will recognize a contrast between the available supervisory and administrative personnel just mentioned and the corresponding personnel in their own schools. It would be easy to mention a number of schools in the same total enrollment group wherein the principal is attempting to meet both administrative and supervisory problems with no aid other than that of one clerk. Therefore it occasions less surprise to find in Skinner Junior High School a supervisory program projected in its broad outlines for ten years ahead; and that this long-time planning orients the detailed plans for the week and the day at hand.

The following facts may be suggestive of what is being accomplished with hard work, high intelligence, and a margin of time.

Daily bulletins to teachers. A carefully prepared mimeographed bulletin is issued daily from the principal's office. This bulletin serves admirably the purpose of disseminating information of an administrative nature and facts of general interest concerning the school and the community. It also carries a statement of: one item of strength in good teachers; one element of weakness in poor teachers; and a thought dealing with teachers or with teaching, under the caption, "A Suggestion That Will Help You".

Questionnaires to students. Frequent questionnaires are addressed to pupils. These questionnaires show the results of much thought and planning. They are sources of valuable data bearing upon pupil's interests in the various subjects, in the home-room program, and in the extra-curriculum activities. Best of all, time is actually found to analyze the data, to organize and interpret the results and to bring into actual being the improvements which the data suggest.

Adequate assistance to supply teachers. Another evidence of the existence of that margin of time permitting attention to those details which tend toward perfection is found in the skillful efforts made to enable supply teachers to fit into their temporary positions. Every detail of what to teach, where to

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teach, whom to teach, and how to proceed is anticipated. There are no unanswered questions. The supply teacher does not rattle around in her position until the regular teacher returns. From the first hour of the first day she fits into the scheme of things.

Classroom visits. The visiting of classrooms is a part of the regular program of the principal, the assistant principals, and the chairmen of departments. A report of every visit is filed in the principal's office. These reports become a cumulative record by means of which each teacher's failure or success in meeting the problems of the classroom may be diagnosed. Specialists from the central office frequently visit classes alone or in company with the principal, assistant principals, or department heads. These visits are usually made on call.

Demonstration lessons. The subject-matter specialists are also available for teaching demonstration lessons. For example, the director of home economics may teach a class in her subject-matter field for a week, the regular teachers being privileged to observe.

Intervisitation of teachers. The intervisiting of teachers throughout the school is carefully scheduled. An unusual feature of the intervisitation program permits each teacher once a year to visit each class in the school. The teachers regard this experience as especially valuable. Who has not known some teachers of academic subjects whose souls might have been saved by periodic inhalations of the atmosphere of a wood shop? Or shop teachers whose narrow and utilitarian conception of education might have broadened in the classrooms of English, social studies or foreign language?

Cooperative planning of faculty meetings. A strenuous program of faculty meetings, departmental meetings and other group conferences is maintained throughout the school year. The year's program is planned in advance by the principal on the basis of suggestions made by the teachers. In order that faculty meetings may contribute to the professional advancement of the teachers and leave them feeling that the hours spent have been pleasant and profitable the principal requests

the following information from each teacher before the close of the school year, to be used in building the program for the ensuing year: (1) the types of faculty meetings considered worth-while; (2) the subjects desired for discussion; (3) faculty members preferred as speakers, and subjects; (4) outside speakers desired, and subjects; (5) social functions desirable for faculty meetings; (6) suggestions for improving the meetings.

General faculty meetings, departmental meetings and group conferences scheduled a year in advance. In September the principal issues a complete schedule of all faculty meetings for the year. Last year this schedule included thirteen general meetings, eight departmental meetings and six pupil sponsor's meetings. So far as is advisable and possible the schedule announces topics and speakers. Preceding each meeting detailed agenda are mimeographed and placed in the hands of the teachers. Topics are listed and questions for discussion are given.

Conferences at teacher's free periods. In addition to the meetings just mentioned the free periods of teachers are utilized for a series of valuable conferences. These conferences are held biweekly. In order that each teacher may have a chance to participate, each conference is repeated six times, once for each period of the school day. These discussions are led by the principal or by some other member of the supervisory staff. The topics discussed during 1930 were: home-room procedure; the case study as a means of pupil adjustment; teaching pupils how to study; and character education.

Teacher conferences at assembly periods. A further series of conferences open to a group of fourteen teachers is made possible by the fact that the auditorium of the school is too small to accommodate all pupils at assemblies. The pupils of fourteen home-rooms conduct their own home-room periods thus releasing the teachers for professional meetings. During 1930 the following topics were discussed in these meetings: vocational guidance; development of pupil initiative in the classroom; development of pupil participation in the classroom; the

junior high school; concomitance as a school problem; juvenile delinquency in Denver.

Effects of the program on teachers and supervisors. This program for professional growth and improvement of classroom instruction may seem heavy but the faculty of Skinner Junior High School appear to be thriving on it and none the worse for its apparently strenuous features. Under such a program the supervisory staff must keep abreast of the best thought, which may account in part for the fact that eight department heads were enrolled last summer in courses on supervision.

Evaluating the results of teaching and of supervision. Real advance is being made also in this school in the matter of evaluating the results of teaching and of supervisory activities. Three examples may be given. First, the success of each graduating class is carefully followed through the first year of the senior high school. At the end of the first twelve weeks of the school year the senior high school forwards to the junior high school the marks which the newly-enrolled tenth-graders have earned. The principal of the junior high school prepares for each junior high school teacher a list of those pupils who were in his or her classes the preceding year. The marks given the pupils in senior high school and the marks given them by the junior high teachers during the preceding year are arranged for ready comparison in the subject-matter fields concerned.

Second, a thorough and continuous program of testing in each subject-matter field is maintained with the aid of the central office. Tests are built for each subject by a committee from the department concerned. Both objective and subjective written tests as well as oral tests are used. Tests are given both at the beginning and end of each semester and numerous valuable studies have been made of the comparative results.

A third approach to evaluation of supervision may be illustrated from the field of physical education. The first class to graduate under the present system of supervised health work was studied with respect to height, weight, and correction of bad tonsils, diseased or abnormal thyroids, flat feet,

poor vision, and dental defects. Not only was improvement studied but the relation between the improvement of physical defects and the extent to which scholarship improved was carefully investigated.

Supervision and curricula. The statement has been made previously in this paper that the supervisory forces of the country are tending to concentrate upon problems of subject-matter and of curricula. Noteworthy advances are being made in many cities as a result of these efforts. In these advances the part played by members of the supervisory staff highly trained in methods of measurement and of research has become increasingly important.

Among the leading cities of the country in the revision and organization of subject-matter and in the development of new courses and curricula, is Los Angeles. In that city no subject-matter field has been left untouched. The work done in two subject-matter fields, vocational education and English, will be referred to briefly.

Supervision in the division of vocational education. The director of vocational education cooperating with nine assistant directors or supervisors and with five-hundred teachers of industrial arts, vocational education, and agriculture has developed significant changes in the content of courses and in teaching procedures. A recent product of these cooperative labors bearing the date of February, 1932, consists of four series of instructional units in each of the following two-year courses:

1. Industrial Arts Woodwork for Senior High Schools.
2. Industrial Arts Auto Mechanics for Senior High Schools.
3. Master Training Program for Vocational Auto Mechanics.
4. Master Training Program for Vocational Cabinet-Making.

The type of work which has been done in building each of these courses may be illustrated by a brief description of the

course in industrial arts' woodwork. This course consists of one-hundred sixty-two instructional units which may be called "things to be done" and one-hundred and ten instructional units which pertain to knowing, understanding, or appreciating what is done.

A wide list of projects in cabinet-making, carpentry, and turning is suggested. The pupil works individually on most projects. Occasionally the principle of division of labor is applied through group work on a project.

The instructional units are carefully coordinated under a list of general objectives which fall under four heads: the general; the exploratory; the avocational; and the vocational.

Attitudes and habits to be acquired are stated not in general terms but in terms of good craftsmanship.

Another product of supervision in the division of vocational education is a searching self-analysis blank for teachers. Eighty questions challenge the teacher concerning his lesson planning, organization of subject-matter, teaching methods, class management, testing, rating, promoting, shop organization, classroom conditions, students' work and products, materials, supplies, and equipment.

The division has also drawn up a thorough and intelligible list of general safety rules with specific rules for each shop.

Supervision in the field of English. The second subject-matter field to be referred to is English. An example of the work being done in this field is the new 1931 course of study in English for junior high schools. This was also a cooperative study in which hundreds of individuals, including teachers, supervisors, and administrators, participated. One hundred individuals are mentioned as having served more or less continuously since 1927.

In this venture two research studies were conducted to determine children's interests and needs.

In the first study each Los Angeles junior high school pupil wrote papers telling about: (1) an interesting event that

had recently taken place at school; (2) something that would especially interest a friend to whom he was writing; and (3) his own plans for the summer.

These papers, carrying the pupil's school grade, intelligence quotient, and chronological age, were read and analyzed by different teachers under the direction of the psychological and educational research division. The purpose of the analysis was to ascertain the pupils' abilities in thought and content, sentence sense, spelling, language usage, and mechanics of composition, for each of three ability levels, in each of the six semesters of the junior high school.

The data resulting from the analysis were tabulated and interpreted. This information became an important criterion for the selection of subject-matter for the course of study in composition and grammar.

To get criteria for the course of study in reading or literature a second research study was conducted. Pupil's interests were studied by means of the questionnaire. Five types of interests were discovered, namely, club interests, leisure-time interests, school interests, vocational interests, and reading interests. The reading interests were analyzed to show: favorite books, books disliked and causes for disliking them, favorite magazines, parts of magazines liked best, favorite poetry, poetry disliked and causes for disliking it.

7. KEEPING SUPERVISION ABOVE THE INSPECTORIAL LEVEL

Projects such as have been described raise supervision far above the inspectorial level. They involve the cooperative efforts of supervisors, teachers, and even pupils over long periods of time. They are aimed at the improvement of the environment wherein teachers teach and learners learn. They force a consideration of the objectives of education, of child nature, of children's present interests, and their immediate and future needs. They demand skill in all the techniques of research.

The work of the curriculum specialist in most cities. Fortunately, the school people of most cities are regarding their di-

visions of tests and measurements, of research, and of curriculum construction as integral parts of the supervisory organization. For example, in Los Angeles the work of the curriculum specialist and of the curriculum committee is stated as follows: the formulation of statements of the purposes of education; the formulation and organization of the program of studies; the selection and development of materials of instruction, including text-books, text materials, supplies and equipment; the preparation of courses of study; the development of curriculum tests; and the adaption of the curriculum to various ability levels.

The work of specialists in measurement and research is an integral part of supervision. Since the foregoing activities also practically determine teaching methods and procedures, unless the work of the curriculum specialists, of curriculum committees and of specialists in measurement and research, is an integral part of supervision there is little left to the province of supervision except perfunctory inspection.

Undoubtedly an adequate conception of supervision should include every cooperative effort making directly for improved teaching and learning situations, whether the activity deals with the aims of education, with subject-matter or content, with teaching procedures, with the better adjustment of the teacher to her working environment, or with the evaluation of the supervisory activities themselves.

Only the newer divisions of tests, measurements, research, or curriculum construction are likely to supply the expert training in research techniques essential to the successful operation of many supervisory procedures now in use. Unless highly trained himself and aided by other highly trained experts, the typical supervisor is destined to continue his all too great resemblance to the well-known "blind man in a dark room looking for the black cat that isn't there".

8. SUMMARY

In conclusion, certain salient facts concerning this project should be summarized. First, with the active cooperation

of local supervisory staffs a small number of highly selected schools are being studied intensively. Second, all schools included in the study have been visited by a staff member of the National Survey. Third, the project with which this progress report has been concerned has not emerged completely from the data-gathering stage. Fourth, the final report of the project will show:

1. What the programs and activities of practical supervisors really are.
2. The extent to which practical supervisory programs coincide with a composite program advocated by competent writers on the subject.
3. The extent to which the real activities of supervisors coincide with a composite list of activities which competent writers have regarded as supervisory.
4. The degree of success, as estimated by the supervisors, with which each supervisory activity has contributed to each of the major elements of the school's supervisory program. And
5. The nature, in considerable detail, of unique, innovating or unusually successful supervisory practices individual supervisors in individual schools.

Mr. Arthur M. Seybold, Headmaster of Oak Lane Country Day School of Temple University, Philadelphia took part in the discussion.

A PLAN FOR COOPERATIVE SUPERVISION

MR. ARTHUR M. SEYBOLD

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At the beginning of each school year every principal, every supervisor, and every department head attacks the illusive

problem of the supervision of the classroom teachers who look to them for leadership. This problem is solved in many ways. In fact, the means which are employed are so diversified that executives do not have to look far for fruitful ideas.

Rating plans old and new are reprinted and checked with infinite pains. Personal equipment, teaching ability, routine and physical conditions, discipline, professional growth, and social efficiency—these terms are studied, weighed, and judged dispassionately with true professional candor.

Organization of external supervision, mechanized set-up of internal supervision, programs of visits to classrooms, teachers' meetings, supervisory bulletins, and demonstration lessons—these are revised and brought once more to a thousand yawning faculties.

The fact that these topics are worthy of the cogitation of many groups of teachers is not to be dismissed with jest or diatribe. They should be studied and discussed as long as children are taught and as long as the heritage of the race is passed from one generation to another. The vexatious predicament, however, in which many executives find themselves is not attributed to the content of their plans so much as it is to the method in which they feel constrained to submit their wares. Teachers have always studied these problems. Teachers should continue to study these problems in spite of the fact that they are not accepted with sincere enthusiasm. Why should principals or supervisors be disturbed because the older teachers seem to be bored with the ever-recurring problems of discipline or classroom management? This ennui is to be expected. One must just accept some things. This has been going on for years. Why should they disturb the even tenor of traditional custom? There is no reason in the world why they should. Thus they reason and pass out their plans once more for the good of the cause.

There are many executives, however, who are sincerely attempting to overcome the faculty ennui, the evident feeling of weariness and the visible lack of interest which so often meets the introduction of their most carefully prepared plans.

These men and women have discovered that a paper program of supervision is not effective. They have found that the difficulty of obtaining faculty interest is not to be charged to the problem studied so much as it is to the method in which the problem is introduced and then pushed to a satisfactory consummation. These executives know that schoolmen have been too much concerned with the mechanism of their schemes and too little considerate of the need of humanizing their plans. These men have earnestly attempted to touch their supervisory schemes into life and to give color to processes long grown drab with much use.

The cooperative supervisory project has grown out of this need. This device has found expression in many forms. The revisions of courses of study in almost every city and county of our nation, in most instances, have been instituted as supervisory devices. These plans have been successful because supervisors, principals, teachers, research departments, subject-matter experts, and often students have been enabled to work together upon a common problem. The barriers of the supervisor versus the supervised, the superior versus the inferior have been overcome and all types of workers have cast their efforts into an undertaking desired by all and shaped by all into a common entity. When the project is completed each participant may survey the finished product and observe his own thought in many integral parts of the completed structure. This brings to the interested worker a satisfaction that must not be disregarded by the promoter of programs.

In addition to these satisfactions the cooperative supervisory project brings many concomitant learnings. Objectives are surveyed, subject-matter is read, the philosophy of the subject is carefully considered, and the psychology of its presentation is not forgotten; these are but a few of the avenues over which the minds of committees must pass before any satisfactory course of study may be evolved. The whole program should result in raising the mass to a higher plane of endeavor.

There are so many approaches which have provided avenues of access to the supervisory problems that one wonders

why we have waited so long to realize their worth. One of the most used devices of the present time is the study of the use of visual aids. A supervisor may be ostensibly interested in discovering how an opaque projection lantern may vitalize the teaching of the social studies in his school system. He will enter classroom after classroom with an enthusiasm for his device which will inspire the acceptance of its use in many recitation rooms, recitations which had been so lifeless before his genius touched the dull clay found there. Lantern slides, strip films, motion pictures, models, charts, and mounted specimens flow into the program as easily as timber upon a spring freshet, once the flood of interest has been aroused. The supervisor, all the while, has a concrete subject upon which his discussion may center. Teacher and principal are discovering new ways of making lantern slides for the school, but in the selection of the pictures needed, in the presentation of the photographed illustrations, in class situations, and in the study of the best psychological use of these accessories, the participants are brought together upon an active cooperative basis. Teaching ability, routine, and physical conditions of the classroom, discipline, and all of the diversified subjects mentioned at the beginning of this discussion are not forgotten entirely. They now have meaning because discipline, class management, and ideal physical condition in the classroom must prevail so that the visual aids will have an opportunity for effective use.

Visual aids might well be given the center of cooperative use and discussion for a semester. Could this not be followed with the use of the field trip? Every faculty has a number of teachers who have been taking student excursions into the industries of the community. Let the story of these trips be presented at teachers' meetings and let the results of the expeditions be dramatized in demonstration lessons. Again this common problem will bring to all of its participants benefits comparable to those mentioned in the project described above.

Follow this with the study of the unit presentation of subject-matter. The ramifications of this topic might employ much of the creative energies of an able faculty for a whole year. Books will be read and their contents will find dynamic use in

classroom experimentation. Teachers will pass with supervisors from room to room surveying different angles of the new experiments in which all are interested. Intervisitation? Surely, intervisitation with a real purpose. There is little thought here of inspectional supervision, conflict of personalities, and all of the chimeras of our old pedagogical fears. We are now caught with the need of making our new cooperative project an efficient instrument in our teaching program.

The radio is another avenue the reach of which we are just beginning to understand. Mass lessons in arithmetic, lessons taught by experts to large groups of children and observed by assisting teachers who will meet at the close of the school day and discuss the worth of the processes employed, have brought to us a most effective instrument of supervision. There is no universality of opinion as to the worth of this device and experimentation with its use may be beneficial to any faculty which employs the idea with a modicum of common sense. Radio committee reports of classroom work, radio class plays, and program lessons broadcasted to groups of students interested in the same work bring to the ingenious supervisor a unique field of inquiry. Lesson plans? Try to prepare a radio lesson without them. Teachers working in this field have found that infinite pains must be given to the preparation of every detail of a good radio lesson. Let a whole faculty observe a radio lesson and profitable discussion will ensue; there is no doubt about this. Let the supervisor sponsor the project, help teachers develop the lessons, and then let him join with his teacher committee in the defense of the demonstration. He will not come out of that meeting feeling that he is a super-supervisor.

Study the project and the problem, experiment with the use of music in appreciation lessons, attempt the reproduction of whole lessons by mimeographed reports or by actual sound recording, using these lessons as case studies, print and distribute exemplary recitations, study interest leads in large and in small classes measuring the results of the teaching in these classes, discover, if possible, the best interest leads for children of different intelligence abilities—these are but a few of

the many problems which might enlist the united efforts of a faculty or a group of teachers in a subject-matter field for a period of years.

Let a teaching group be subjected to such a barrage and not only will most of the dross be discarded but each teacher will have retained what was applicable to his individual needs. This has been done in many schools with but little of the stigma of ennui occasioned by the old approach, and with a high degree of faculty interest that has been a source of joy to the supervisors who have become most ardent devotees of the plan.

GROUP II

In the absence of Mr. H. L. Harrington, President C. H. Threlkeld presided over Group two in the East Lobby of Wardman Park Hotel. Dr. W. C. Reavis, Professor of Education of the University of Chicago, and Principal Specialist in Guidance of the staff of the National Survey of Secondary Education, read his paper on *Guidance Programs in Secondary Schools*.

GUIDANCE PROGRAMS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Mr. W. C. Reavis
Professor of Education
The University of Chicago

Data¹ collected in 1927 from a sample group of 522 secondary schools in 41 states ranging in enrollment from four pupils to 6,500 show that, according to the judgment of the principals, educational guidance was provided in 87 per cent of the schools, personal guidance in 83 per cent of the schools, and vocational guidance in 74 per cent of the schools. The findings indicate that the activities involved in the three general types of guidance are carried on in the large majority of secondary schools.

¹Reavis, W. C., and Woellner, R. C. *Office Practices in Secondary Schools*, Pp. 190-97. Laidlaw Bros., 1930.

Other data¹ collected the same year from 336 secondary schools in 44 states ranging in enrolment from 47 to 4,072 regarding specific phases of guidance show that a median of 24.9 activities of guidance with a range of 54 (9 to 59) were thought by the principals to be carried on in their schools. Among the leading activities through which guidance opportunities were provided were (1) discipline, 72.2 per cent of the schools; (2) oversight of conduct, 74.6 per cent; (3) guidance concerning quality of work, 63.5 per cent; (4) curriculum guidance, 60.8 per cent; (5) vocational guidance, 37.7 per cent; (6) placement, 20.4 per cent; and (7) follow-up service, 13.5 per cent of the schools.

The foregoing facts have been presented to show that guidance in some form or other is a well-established function in most secondary schools. The term guidance as shown by the data, however, is seen to have a very broad meaning. As used by some writers the term is synonymous with education; as used by other writers its meaning is restricted to types of activities, such as vocational advice, occupational information, educational adjustment, assistance in the selection of a college, counsel with respect to social conduct, and the like. Even the restricted terms in general usage, such as "educational guidance," "vocational guidance," "social guidance," "moral guidance," "ethical guidance," and "personal guidance" do not possess precise meanings. The use of these terms renders impossible the collection of comparable data from different schools. Accordingly the practice is followed in this discussion of "Guidance Programs in Secondary Schools" of avoiding as far as possible the general terms and of using phrases which describe the activities carried on in secondary schools in the discharge of the guidance function, such as helping pupils to choose curriculums or elective courses, imparting information about occupations, counseling with the pupil in regard to the choice of a vocation, assisting the pupil in overcoming a deficiency, etc.

¹Koos, L. V., and Kefauver, G. N. *Guidance in Secondary Schools*, Chapter XV. Macmillan Co., (In Press).

Special activities of the sort enumerated are carried on to a greater or lesser degree in most secondary schools. In some schools the activities are carried on only informally or incidentally; in other schools they are carried on formally and systematically under the directions of persons definitely charged with the responsibility of serving the pupils through the activities specified.

The administrative organization established for rendering guidance services to pupils in secondary schools is as yet very flexible and subject to great variation in different school systems, schools, and individual schools within systems. Principles formulated by the National Vocational Guidance Association¹ in 1921 and revised in 1924, 1930, and 1931 urge the development of a special bureau or separate department responsible directly to the superintendent of schools for carrying on vocational guidance service. While recognizing the fact that local conditions render impossible the prescription of the exact form of the bureau or department, the activities to be performed are specified and the recommendation made that the activities be performed only by persons possessing the necessary personal qualifications, experience, and training. Obviously, the plan was intended for use in schools and school systems of considerable size.

Data² collected from 522 secondary schools show that the officer found responsible most frequently for the assumption of the guidance function is the school principal, the percentage of frequency being 77 per cent in the case of boys, and 56 per cent in the case of girls. Assistant principals are charged with the responsibility of providing guidance for boys in 32 per cent of the schools and for girls in 26 per cent of the schools. Counselors for boys are employed as guidance officers in 21 per cent of the schools, and deans of girls in 50 per cent of the schools. The guidance function is delegated to other school officers whose titles were not specified in approximately one-sixth of the schools.

¹See *Basic Units for an Introductory Course in Vocational Guidance*, Pp. 181-94. McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1931.

²Reavis, W. C., and Woellner, R. C., *op. cit.*, pp. 191-97.

The guidance functionaries reported by the principals in the 336 secondary schools studied by Koos and Kefauver¹ are the principals themselves, deans of girls, deans of boys, home-room advisers, counselors, guidance committees, teachers, and visiting teachers. In the schools with enrolments under 200 the percentage providing guidance through the different functionaries are (1) principal, 64.9 per cent; (2) dean of girls, 29.7 per cent; (3) home-room advisers, 21.6 per cent; (4) teachers, 21.6 per cent; (5) dean of boys, 13.5 per cent; (6) visiting teacher, 5.4 per cent; (7) counselor, 2.7 per cent; and (8) guidance committee, 2.7 per cent. In the large schools with enrolments in excess of 1,000 a very different utilization of the guidance functionaries is discovered, the order and percentage of frequency being: (1) home-room adviser, 88.2 per cent; (2) dean of girls, 73.1 per cent; (3) dean of boys, 46.2 per cent; (4) principal, 29.0 per cent; (5) counselors, 28.0 per cent; (6) guidance committee, 20.4 per cent; (7) visiting teacher, 19.4 per cent; and (8) teachers, 7.5 per cent. The data show that guidance activities are performed in the large majority of both small and large schools by administrative officers, the principal being the chief guidance officer in the small schools and the home-room adviser, dean of girls, and dean of boys in the large schools. However, a noticeable gain in the use of the specialist in counseling, namely, the counselor, is observed in the large schools when compared with the small schools (28 per cent to 2.7 per cent).

The findings of the sampling data show that guidance activities are performed by a number of different persons in the secondary schools. Some of these individuals may have received training designed specifically to fit them for the skilful performance of certain guidance activities. The training of others may have been general in character while the guidance functions which the individuals are called upon to perform are specific. In some of the schools training in service is provided as a means of improving the ability of those required to perform specific guidance activities.

¹*Op. cit.*, Chapter XV.

The programs of guidance in the schools studied for the National Survey of Secondary Education vary in the extent to which special training is required for individuals who perform guidance activities. In the systems with central bureaus only persons with special training and experience are usually employed. These individuals carry on research, visit schools on call, engage in counseling activities in the central office, or they may act as counselors in certain schools part of the time. In the schools in which the guidance programs are developed around the individual schools as units, the regular members of the school staffs are generally utilized in carrying on the guidance activities. In some cases special training and experience may be available in staff members, which are considered by the school heads in the assignment of individuals to duties; in other cases the assignment to activities is apparently based on the assumption that special training and experience are not required.

It is not the purpose of this report to evaluate the guidance practices found in the schools studied, but rather to describe the types of organizations and to indicate the extent and character of guidance activities carried on in school systems and in individual schools considered to have developed successful guidance programs. Five types of programs will be considered briefly in turn. (1) Programs carried on through regular administrative officers in individual schools. (2) Programs carried on in individual schools by home-room advisers. (3) Programs carried on by special counselors in individual schools. (4) Programs carried on in school systems and individual schools under the direction and supervision of guidance bureaus or departments. (5) Composite programs.

1. PROGRAMS CARRIED ON THROUGH REGULAR ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICERS IN INDIVIDUAL SCHOOLS.

The data already presented show that for secondary schools with enrollments under 200 and for secondary schools in general the principal is largely responsible for guidance activities. His relation to the guidance program in schools enrol-

ing less than 200 pupils is revealed by the following findings of Koos and Kefauver.¹ (1) Personally carries on the guidance work in approximately two-thirds of the schools (64.9%); (2) Recommends pupils to college in nearly half of the schools (46.0%); (3) Serves as adviser for boys in about one-third of the schools (29.7%); (4) Develops home-room programs and makes studied to improve the basis of guidance in one-tenth of the schools (10.8%); (5) Heads the guidance work in a general way and serves as a member of a group of advisers in approximately one-twelfth of the schools (8.1%); (6) Acts as chairman of guidance committee in 5.4 per cent of the schools.

In the schools with enrolments in excess of 1,000 the relations of the principal to the guidance program vary from the practices found in the smaller schools chiefly in the following respects: (1) In only 29.0 per cent of the schools does the principal personally carry on guidance activities; (2) In approximately two-thirds of the schools (68.8%) he heads the work in a general way; (3) In about one-sixth (17.2%) of the schools he serves as adviser of boys and is responsible for developing the home-room program.

Analysis of the guidance activities of principals and their assistants in general made by French² as a part of the Commonwealth Study of Teacher Training resulted in a master list of 180 specific activities which were considered to relate to guidance in secondary schools. An evaluation of these activities by counselors and by experts in education provides classified lists arranged in order of frequency of performance and in order of importance. The correlations between frequency of performance of activities and their relative importance as determined by counselors reveal certain strength and weakness in the guidance activities carried on by the principal and his assistants in the secondary schools. In activities which involved advising with parents, counseling with individual pupils, and advising with pupils in groups the correlations

¹*Op. cit.*, Chapter IX

²French, Fannie. *An Analysis of Activities Involved in Pupil Guidance*, Pp. 30-41. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1926.

are high, being .767, .742, and .728, respectively. In activities pertaining to cooperation with community agencies and with teachers the correlations are medium (.404 and .316), but in activities involving the collecting and recording of data, and assisting in extra-curriculum activities the correlations are low (.265 and .113).

In the schools which develop their guidance programs around general administrative officers guidance activities are often subordinated to administrative duties. Furthermore, in dealing both with individuals and with groups the administrative officer is sometimes inhibited in the performance of a guidance activity by the necessity of first performing an administrative activity. As a matter of fact administration may interfere with guidance and guidance may interfere with administration. This relation often renders guidance difficult by officers whose primary responsibility is administration.

2. PROGRAMS CARRIED ON IN INDIVIDUAL SCHOOLS BY HOME-ROOM ADVISERS.

In many schools the home-room is utilized as the unit of the guidance program. This is especially true of the larger secondary schools in which the home-room may have previously existed as a unit for carrying on certain routine administrative activities. Approximately seven-eighths of the schools studied by Koos and Kefauver with enrolments in excess of 1,000 employed the home-room organization in the development of guidance programs. Since the same investigators found that home-rooms were utilized in only one-fifth of the schools enrolling less than 200 pupils, the conclusion is warranted that the home-room organization is characteristic of the large secondary schools.

The home-room, according to Fretwell¹, is the school home of a group of pupils whether the group be small or large. Usually the home-room is required to care for from 30 to 40 pu-

¹Fretwell, E. K. *Extra-Curricular Activities in Secondary Schools*. P. 21. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931.

pils, although in some school systems large assembly rooms make possible the organization of the school into "houses" or home-rooms with from 200 to 400 members.

The home-room plan of organization makes possible the segregation of pupils in groups under the leadership of a regular teacher whose responsibility for the home-room group is sponsorship rather than instruction. The plan enables the sponsor and pupils to establish cooperative relations as a means of realizing the purposes for which the type of organization exists. Whether the home-room group remains with the adviser for a semester, term, or during the membership of the group in the school does not matter greatly, providing that the purposes of the organization are clearly conceived.

Broadly speaking, the chief purpose of the home-room is guidance and the specific activities carried on therein should come largely under that category. To this end the home-room should be organized as a guidance laboratory and not as another classroom. The atmosphere of the room should be democratic and should be conducive to self-discovery and self-revelation. To serve the members of the home-room group the adviser must know them both as individuals and as members of a primary group.

The mere organization of a school for guidance purposes into home-room groups does not guarantee that guidance activities will be better performed by home-room advisers than by administrative officers. Unless home-room advisers are trained for guidance work their activities will likely resemble the activities of the teacher or the minor administrative officer. It is difficult to indicate to what extent training has been provided for home-room advisers in schools that have adopted the home-room plan as a guidance program. Data from the sampling of 336 schools¹ show that different guidance activities in the home-rooms have received different degrees of emphasis. In seventy-five per cent of the schools the advisers provide guidance through the direction of special home-room activities; in

¹Koos and Kefauver, *op. cit.*, Chapter XVII.

69 per cent, through discipline; in 66 per cent, through oversight of social conduct; in 62 per cent, through conferences regarding the quality of work; in 62 per cent, through curriculum advice; and in 29 per cent through advice regarding vocations. The findings do not indicate the breadth of guidance service to be desired, although the guidance activities carried on compare favorably with those of administrative officers in schools in which the home-room organization is not employed.

Certain schools have introduced class directors, class guides, class supervisors, and class principals to organize and direct the work of the home-room advisers and to unify the guidance activities for the different class groups. These directors supply a type of special service to the home-room work which widens the scope and gives balance to the guidance activities.

3. PROGRAMS CARRIED ON BY SPECIAL COUNSELORS IN INDIVIDUAL GROUPS.

Whether the emphasis is placed on the vocational, educational or personal aspects of guidance, certain schools have conceived of the activities of counseling and guidance as involving knowledge and technical skill beyond that possessed by the teacher and general administrative officer. Such schools regard guidance as an act of skill, which requires for its successful execution training of a technical character. Accordingly in these schools guidance becomes the responsibility of the specialist, who may be developed from the staff through special training or be added to the staff for the specific purpose.

To develop a satisfactory program of guidance through special counselors in a school requires that the counselors become members of the school's staff and that the duties to be performed be defined and relations to staff members clearly established. The use of the specialist in guidance does not render unnecessary the assumption of certain guidance responsibilities by teachers and administrative officers. It merely requires a differentiation of duties with the specialist and the generalist accepting responsibility for the activities each can most suc-

cessfully perform. If the time of the specialist is used in the performance of duties that properly belong to the generalist or the generalist undertakes to perform the duties requiring special training and skill the guidance program will fail because of maladministration.

The development of the guidance program around the counselor in the local school makes possible a type of guidance often slighted in schools which depend chiefly on the administrative officers plus the services of outside specialists available only on call. However, the success of the plan will depend on the limitations imposed. If the counselor is overloaded with pupils or is expected to divert energy to administrative work, the results accomplished may vary only slightly from those obtained through other plans.

Objective data¹ for schools which emphasize the home-room adviser and the special counselor plans show that the advisers perform administrative duties related to guidance, such as discipline, oversight of social conduct, and counseling concerning the quality of work to a greater extent than the counselors. On the contrary the counselors exceed the advisers in the frequency of performance of the more specialized types of guidance, such as curriculum guidance, vocational guidance, placement advisement, and follow-up service. While the differences in the distribution of time to the different types of duties indicated are not large, they are, nevertheless, significant. As a result it can be concluded that the adoption of the special counselor plan increases the performance of the specialized guidance activities by counselors and decreases those that are partly administrative in character.

4. PROGRAMS CARRIED ON BY BUREAUS OR DEPARTMENTS OF GUIDANCE.

The guidance bureau or department is a development of the large city school system and of the large secondary school. Certain guidance activities, such as occupational research, follow-up studies, and vocational guidance in connection with

¹Koos and Kefauver, *op. cit.*, Chapter XVIII.

placement can be carried on in a central office apart from the schools. A staff of trained workers can be maintained who not only perform the office duties incident to guidance but who also visit schools on call and engage in group instruction, group counseling, and individual counseling. They may also give advice to teachers and administrative officers regarding guidance activities of an unspecialized sort that can be carried on in the schools by persons not specifically trained for guidance work.

The director of the guidance bureau is usually responsible to an assistant superintendent of schools or to the superintendent himself. The director is expected to formulate the guidance policy of the school system subject to the approval of his superior officers; to organize the bureau or department as a clearing house for problems of guidance, placement, and follow-up; and to provide assistants who can render expert counseling service to schools desiring such aid.

The activities which can be carried on in the schools by the guidance assistants are group interviewing of pupils in entering classes, individual interviewing of members of the graduating class, individual interviewing of pupils as needs arise, instructing classes in occupations, assisting graduates or pupils required to leave school to secure employment, keeping records of pupils interviewed, visiting employers to enlist their interests and to secure knowledge of the conditions under which employed pupils work, conducting community surveys to ascertain environmental conditions and opportunities for employment, and carrying on follow-up studies of withdrawals and graduates.

As a rule the guidance bureau is not expected to provide all the guidance service in an individual school. The principal through his teachers and administrative assistants should aid pupils in the choice of courses or subjects, in the selection of extra-curriculum activities, in the development of intellectual interests, in social adjustments, in overcoming difficulties in classroom work, and the like. The guidance bureau should provide the specialized service and should aid the principal in the

organization of the school's guidance program and in the integration of its various guidance activities.

In large cities the staff of the guidance bureau is usually inadequate to provide all the service needed in all of the schools. Some schools will be satisfied with nominal service while others will desire all the service possible for the bureau to render. As a result the guidance programs in individual schools often vary greatly in effectiveness. This condition should be charged largely to the administrators of the schools rather than to the central bureau. In individual secondary schools in which a guidance department is a structural part of the administrative organization, functional responsibility may be delegated to the director for organizing and supervising the general guidance duties of the members of the school staff as well as for carrying on the specialized guidance activities. Although number of guidance duties may restrict the activities of the guidance department in the individual school as compared with the activities of a guidance bureau for a system of schools, the possibility of coordinating the guidance activities in the individual school through a school program is increased.

The development of the central bureau of guidance in city schools and in large schools makes possible occupational research and the utilization of the findings in vocational guidance and placement to an extent scarcely possible under the other types of programs. However, the guidance activities that belong in the individual schools are likely to be neglected unless complementary guidance programs are developed by the principals of the schools or are projected by the guidance bureau. The weakness of the guidance program under the control of the central bureau is not inherent, but rather the result of failure to overcome administrative difficulties to its complete functioning in the individual schools.

5. COMPOSITE PROGRAMS

Some schools combine the features of the programs previously considered into a unified guidance program. This requires that the administrative officers, director of guidance,

special counselors, home-room advisers, and teachers take a part in carrying on the guidance function. The projection of the composite program requires a careful analysis of guidance activities and the differentiation of duties to be performed in accordance with the functions of the officers to whom duties are assigned.

The administrative officers consisting of principal, vice-principal, deans, director of extra-curriculum activities, and department heads should accept executive responsibility. They must provide the program of studies, materials of instruction, the record system; admit pupils to school; classify the pupils; prepare the school schedule; arrange the program of pupil activities; deal with cases of discipline; interview parents; administer attendance; record and evaluate credits; organize, direct, and supervise the functioning of the different members of the school staff. Many of the activities of the administrative officers affect guidance only indirectly, yet unless the relation of administrative activities to guidance is clearly conceived the guidance activities of other workers may be hampered and perhaps completely inhibited.

The director of guidance should project the guidance program subject to the approval of the school head. He should outline the guidance activities to be performed by the counselors, home-room advisers, and teachers, and should provide the training needed to carry on the guidance program. He should interpret the guidance program to the school and community, carry on research basic to guidance, and perform guidance activities which require types of skill not possessed by the other members of the staff.

The counselors should teach the courses in occupations, aid the pupils in the selection of courses, give group guidance to all the pupils, and counsel with individual pupils in need of adjustment. They may also serve as regular teachers part of the time.

The home-room advisers should be responsible for the orientation of their pupils, the maintenance of pupil morale, and the development of a wholesome attitude toward the school as

a civic enterprise. The advisers should keep the records of the pupils, give advice with respect to extra-curriculum and other social activities, and act as the intermediary for the pupils with administrative and guidance officers and parents.

The teacher as a guidance officer must necessarily play a large part in a guidance program. His interest in the welfare of the pupil is indispensable, if guidance is to bear fruit. He should sense the symptoms of maladjustment in a pupil in the incipient stages, bring the guidance organization to bear on the case, contribute to the diagnosis of the causes of maladjustment, and assist in the application of the corrective or remedial measures advised. Furthermore, the teacher may give specific guidance to pupils in the pursuit of intellectual interests, in the development of proper habits of study, and in the development of the proper conception of the processes of education and the opportunities for education provided through the school.

The foregoing analysis of the activities of guidance which can be provided through a composite program indicates the comprehensive character of guidance as a school function. The neglect of any of the phases of guidance, either through failure to give them proper emphasis or through failure to assign them to the proper guidance officer for performance may contribute to maladjustment and failure on the part of pupils. The development of a balanced program of guidance should therefore be encouraged in preference to the development of any single feature.

In the Report on Guidance to be submitted to the Director of the National Survey on Secondary Education case studies of outstanding school systems and outstanding individual schools which have developed guidance programs of the types described will be made setting forth the features of the programs and the various guidance activities carried on. It is hoped that these reports will provide concrete material for the use of administrative officers in the evaluation and development of their guidance programs.

In the discussion that followed Dr. Reavis' paper Mr. John H. Bosshart, Supervising Principal of the South Orange-Maplewood Schools, made the remarks that follow:

To the aims and functions of education outlined by Dr. Koos the South Orange-Maplewood Schools add the function of helping pupils to attain the aims of education through the other functions. This added function is called educational guidance. It deals with the health, personality, social, vocational, and achievement growth of the pupil into a well-rounded personality. Vocational guidance is a part of the larger work of educational guidance.

Of this work the home room teacher is the center. But experience shows that the home room teacher needs the assistance and direction of expert guides. Other experts useful in the staff are doctors, psychiatrists, and psychologists.

Educational guidance improves the work of pupils in school and later in higher institutions and business. Aided by the adjustment of subject matter and method to the individual, it has done more than any other innovation of recent years to improve the quality of school work. It is helpful and inspiring to teachers in solving the problems of universal education. It is the most constructive publicity agency of the schools. It evokes the sympathetic interest of parents to the profit of their children.

Dr. Richard D. Allen, Assistant Superintendent of Schools of Providence, Rhode Island followed.

AN ORGANIZED GUIDANCE PROGRAM IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

RICHARD D. ALLEN

Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Providence, R. I.

An effective guidance program in the secondary schools must be organized to serve all pupils, not merely those who are problems of discipline or failure. In order to do this work effectively every member of the faculty must have his share in

the program. But, everybody's business is nobody's business. Each must have his definite part in the scheme. The principal of even a school of moderate size must delegate everything that is not an administrative or supervisory responsibility. The subject teacher must arouse interests related to the subject, stress the occupational implications of the subject, arrange try-out projects, and meet individual difficulties and needs. The home room teacher must take a friendly interest in each pupil and make the school a home rather than a factory. But neither the home room teacher nor the subject teacher can be expected to do work which requires a special type of personality, special training, and continuous contacts with the same pupils over several years. These functions belong to the class counselor who should have the continuous responsibility for an entire group of pupils throughout their life in the school. The following duties can be performed effectively only by the class counselor:

1. The keeping of adequate personnel records and the carrying on of research in problems of individual differences and adjustments.
2. Individual counseling, both educational and vocational.
3. Orientation instruction in educational, vocational, and social problems. This should be a continuous course at least twice a week through the entire three years in the junior high school and at least once a week in the senior high school, conducted by the same counselor with the same group of pupils.
4. The follow-up of all pupils after they leave the school: in the senior high school at the end of one, three, and five years, and in the junior high school at the end of one, two, and three years.
5. Utilization of and cooperation with special services such as health service, attendance, home visitors, psychological testing service, etc.

It is useless to talk about making individual adjustments in the secondary schools if the school program is divided into

several specialized curricula one of which each pupil must select. Without a counseling program such a procedure may appear to be necessary, but with a properly organized guidance department in a secondary school, there is no excuse for such a clumsy administrative scheme. Each subject should stand upon its own feet and be elective under guidance. No pupil should be expected to study a subject that does not fit in with his needs, his abilities, and his prospects. The scraping of specialized curricula and the substitution of a program of individual electives under guidance is a first step in individualizing education.

In the Providence schools this program has been in effect for more than five years during which time no insuperable difficulties have appeared. In fact, it has simplified administrative problems, decreased the cost of instruction, decreased the percentage of failures, and resulted in a constantly evolving curriculum based upon the interests and needs of the pupils.

Richard D. Allen.

February 17, 1932.

GROUP III

Mr. L. N. Morrisett, Principal of Classen High School of Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, presided over Group three in the Theatre of Wardman Park Hotel. In the absence of Dr. Elbert K. Fretwell, Mr. Edgar G. Johnston, Professor of Secondary Education, and Principal of University High School, University of Michigan presented his paper.

TESTS FOR A CLUB SPONSOR

EDGAR G. JOHNSTON,

Professor of Secondary Education, and Principal of University High School, University of Michigan

It is probably a rare high school in the United States today which does not have at least one active club with a group

of enthusiastic pupils and a program which represents an appeal to vital interests. The high school is probably equally rare, however, which does not support several "paper clubs" which exist in name only and have no constructive accomplishment to justify their existence. A study of the rise and decline of clubs in the history of any school will reveal some abortive club ventures which never really got under way and other organizations which were once vital influences in the life of the school but which have faded into insignificance.

Clubs, like any other phase of school organization, are to be judged by their contribution to valid educational aims. The only possible educational results from the existence of inactive clubs would seem to be negative—the encouragement of a facile tendency on the part of pupils to "belong", without a corresponding development of responsibility, initiative, and social-mindedness. While a variety of circumstances accounts for the variable histories of high-school clubs, an analysis of the reasons for failure of those club programs which were not successful would indicate that in most cases the decisive factor is to be found in the effectiveness of the club sponsor.

In teaching a course in the Administration of Extra-Curriculum Activities, it has been the practice of the writer to ask students to recall instances of clubs which failed to function effectively and to indicate as accurately as they could what seemed to be the essential reasons for the failure. The following list contributed by the members of a class in the summer session of 1931 at the University of Michigan is typical. After eliminating duplications, thirty-one different causes for failure appeared. There is undoubtedly some over-lapping but each of the reasons suggested seems to contribute something to the total picture.

SOME REASONS FOR CLUB FAILURES

1. The practice of requiring students to become club members.
2. The failure to provide school time for meeting.
3. Overloading of the sponsor with other duties.
4. Allowing a pupil to belong to too many clubs at one time.
5. A lack of

administrative encouragement. 6. Lack by the sponsor of the ability to arouse pupil interest in the work of the club. 7. The lack of a definite program. 8. Tendency of sponsors to dictate to the club. 9. Tendency of sponsors to abdicate their functions. 10. Tendency of sponsors to overemphasize the importance of the club in proportion to that of other activities, resulting in a desire for special privileges and lack of interest when such privileges are refused. 11. Lack of appeal of the club program to the interest of students. 12. Insufficient student participation. 13. Lack of preparation on the part of the sponsor. 14. Appeal based on the attractive personality of the sponsor rather than upon the merits of the club program. 15. Failure to adapt the program to the needs of the school, the pupils, and the community. 16. A lack of interest on the part of the sponsor. 17. Inability on the part of the sponsor to meet pupils on their own level. 18. Lack of appreciation of the value of clubs on the part of the sponsor; he is not "sold" on the idea of clubs. 19. The making of clubs "just another class." 20. An undemocratic basis of selection for membership. 21. Careless selection of members. 22. Too great expense involved. 23. A too pretentious beginning. 24. Lack of coordination with other activities in school and community, resulting in a conflict of schedules and interests. 25. Too many (or too few) meetings. 26. Allowing pupils to be merely nominal members; they belong but do not work. 27. Too large a membership. 28. The presence of cliques. 29. Origin of the club in a fad which soon passes. 30. The fact that the club has outlived its usefulness. 31. Opposition by parents or others in the community.

Of these thirty-one reasons suggested for club failure, it is obvious that the first five are a responsibility of the administration of the school and are largely outside the control of the individual club sponsor. Of the other twenty-six, fourteen seemed very definitely dependent upon the sponsor's personality and interest. In the cases for which the other twelve reasons are given, the club may have failed because of a failure on the part of the sponsor. Certainly the situations are ones upon which he could have exerted a considerable amount of in-

fluence. It seems fair to state that in an overwhelming majority of the cases a club has failed because the sponsor has not lived up to his opportunities.

In a recent issue of the *Junior-Senior Clearing House*, Professor Fretwell presented "Ten Tests for a School Club." The last—and certainly not the least—of these tests had to do with the club sponsor. The place of this adviser is so significant in the work of the club that it seems worth while to expand the consideration of his function. A number of tentative "Tests for a Club Sponsor" are presented below. While it is hoped that the list may be of interest to all those bearing a functional relationship to the extra-curriculum activities of the school, the tests are addressed primarily to the teacher who is actively sponsoring a club or who contemplates assuming such responsibility. On the assumption that he is eager to make the club a success and in particular to insure his own maximum contribution to pupil growth, these tests are presented as a means of "checking up on himself."

1. *Does he really like to associate with boys and girls of high school age?* A sympathetic interest in boys and girls ought to be expected of every teacher. It is absolutely indispensable to success in the informal relationships of club work.
2. *Does he enlist the confidence of boys and girls?* A teacher may sincerely like boys and girls and yet be so out of touch with the points of view, the interests, and the prejudices of modern youth as to make impossible the free, natural, and unconstrained relationship which is essential to club success. Fortunately this is pretty well within the power of the sponsor to develop. Youth is usually quite responsive to sincere interest in its problems and an attempt to see its point of view.
3. *Is he keenly interested in the world around him?* The "satiableness of curiosity" which drove the elephant child through numerous difficulties to ultimate success is a quality essential to the make-up of any successful

teacher. If the club is to develop a constructive program of expanding interest and increasingly educational activities, the sponsor must be keenly alive to the significant events happening around him every day.

4. *Has he contagious enthusiasm?* Enthusiasm is likely to be a corollary of intelligent curiosity. The sponsor who is not the least bit "excited" about the things the club is doing is not likely to prove a stimulating companion and leader to the group. Enthusiasm is a flame which kindles from contact with a glowing interest. A word of warning seems necessary. Flames must always be kept under control. An unbalanced and unintelligent enthusiasm may do a great deal of damage.
5. *Does he seek to become expert in some of the fields of activity in which the club is engaged?* Obviously a sponsor with keen interest and enthusiasm and a desire to render service to boys and girls can offer much to them as he learns with the group. At the same time, a fund of knowledge and sound experience commands the respect of members and constitutes a distinct asset to the club sponsor.
6. *Is he able to give constructive suggestions for activities of the club?* Of a certain camp counsellor, it was said by one of the boys, "He seems to radiate ideas." The difference between a lukewarm attitude and an enthusiastic interest on the part of club members may be simply the difference of a club sponsor who thinks of "something new" when interest flags or who can suggest a constructive outlet for super-abundant energy.
7. *Is he able to guide without dictation?* This is a corollary of the previous test. A sponsor who has many good ideas but is too insistent upon seeing them carried out *in his way* may hinder rather than encourage

pupil growth. The sponsor must be able to keep hands off to the extent that pupils may learn by organizing, planning, and executing. If the sponsor isn't able with perfect good humor to see his suggestions modified or disregarded, he had better not make them.

8. *Has he the ability to plan systematically?* Organization is important if learning is to be assured in classroom situations. It is much more important for the adviser in the informal club group. He will, of course, not deprive officers and committees of the growth and experience which come from planning for the work of the club. As guide and adviser he must see the need of planning and understand how to do it if he is to be of help to officers and committees in this important function of theirs. If a club is to be successful, it is necessary that many members be working with enthusiasm and initiative; it is quite as necessary that their various efforts be coordinated and directed toward some common goal if the club's program is to be constructive and not to be frittered away in a variety of unrelated or conflicting activities.
9. *Is he willing to give time and thought to making the club work a success?* A sponsor cannot make a success of club work if his attitude is one of "punching the time clock." A club hike may crowd out an afternoon of golf, or an evening meeting with club leaders may replace a trip to the movies. If the club sponsor does not feel that the time invested with his club is paying rich dividends, he is not likely to make a success of his sponsorship.
10. *Is he democratic in spirit?* Is he as keenly interested in the inconspicuous pupil or the one from a poor family as he is in the school leader or the socially prominent? One of the rare opportunities which the sponsorship presents is that of developing the powers

which lie latent in every individual. The club should afford *every* pupil an opportunity for growth.

11. *Has he a sense of humor?* No single characteristic will be a greater asset to the club sponsor than the ability to see a joke even when it is on himself. He must be able to endure the exuberance of youth and its occasional silliness without becoming annoyed. With a group of lively adolescents, there are times when both the furniture and the sponsor's nerves must be of the solid oak variety, built to stand wear and tear.
12. *Is he able to find his chief satisfaction in pupil growth and not in expressed appreciation of his efforts?* There will be many occasions when pupils and parents may recognize with sincere gratitude the development club activity has fostered, but the real reward of club work will come in seeing the retiring pupil develop confidence; the awkward, cleverness; and the individualist, cooperation.

Mrs. Lucy L. W. Wilson, Principal of South Philadelphia High School for Girls led the discussion.

Preceding the discussion of education through freedom in learning *vs.* through indoctrination, it is imperatively necessary, not merely to discuss education through experience, but to provide worth-while experiences *galore* to all groups from those in nursery schools to adult learners.

At the high-school level the most important experiences, doubtless, are those that provide opportunities to develop and exercise the civic virtues.

Those who educated us in school, at least failed utterly to provide such experiences. That they were formerly in some places more or less a part of home life, perhaps partly explains why Canada has had no bank failures, no racketeering.

In our large over-crowded municipal high schools, with the majority of the teachers still believing that subject matter *per se* will save souls, it is necessary that extra-curriculum ac-

tivities shall have for their guiding principle what Fretwell calls "student *participation*."

Of the nine usual manifestations of extra-curriculum activities, home room, class organization, student association, councils, assembly, clubs, athletics, newspaper, and other publications, and commencement—no single one is more important than the home room. Also it is the most difficult efficiently to organize, to keep functioning and growing. It demands understanding, initiative, courage, and enthusiasm from at least seven-eighths of the faculty.

After struggling along for fifteen years, more or less ineffectively, finally with the aid of our social engineers, a group of our honor students, we in South Philadelphia, have at least reached a bed-rock on which we hope eventually to erect a worth-while structure—not a great Babylon which we have built alone, but a Babylon builded for us across the years, with cooperation for the keystone.

Briefly, this means a home room that is a political and social unit. We begin by submitting to the electorate the contribution, modified naturally, of the Lincoln School, asking each to rate some of her fellows privately, in regard to the qualities there listed. Later, from the highest on these lists, nominations are made for each of the numerous officers later to be elected.

In addition to this and other business transacted in the home room, guide sheets have been compiled by a few of the abler, more social minded members of the faculty, including a department head, as well as a junior appointee. These guide sheets help the children and even the teachers to conduct yearly some fifteen discussion groups, across the years, on manners, thrift, health, avocations, vocations and personality.

Mr. Eli C. Foster, Principal of Central High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma followed:

What I shall say may sound too idealistic, but I believe there are hopeful signs of a movement in the direction which this paper suggests. I wish to raise two questions and then

discuss each briefly: (1) Should extra-curriculum activities be used as a hammer to drive students to achieve in subject matter studies? (2) Can the academic teacher develop methods and materials of instruction which will cause students to achieve in their work without the outside stimuli now used?

In discussing the first question, should extra-curriculum activities be used as a hammer,—I want to say that I hope the time will come when this will not be necessary as a first aid to academic work. In a majority of our high schools a high percentage of our students are barred from extra-curriculum activities participation because of academic requirements. Clubs and home rooms are in most cases open to all, but even here the officers must qualify academically.

If we accept the principle that in training for citizenship it is our duty to provide a favorable opportunity for boys and girls to practice these duties, then how can we justify a program which makes it impossible for a large percentage of our student body to take advantage of such opportunities? Are not these academic regulations more suited to the high-school enrollment of a quarter of a century ago, before the large increase in enrollment brought a much higher percentage from the lower mental levels? Do we not now need to revise our requirements for student participation to fit our present student population?

We argue that E. C. A. offer a means of training for citizenship. Most of us believe that they do. Then why eliminate these opportunities for many by academic requirements?

I hold that extra-curriculum activities have values in themselves far more important than their contribution—through requirements—to academic achievement. I recognize that you may receive the impression that I am arguing for lowering academic standards. That is farthest from my mind. I should raise the standard but I should place the responsibility on the academic teacher where it belongs.

Did this kind of a case ever occur in your school?

Sponsor: We must elect another president for organization.

Principal: Why?

Sponsor: He has failed in an academic subject.

Principal: Is he a good president?

Sponsor: Oh, yes! One of the best we ever had.

But because he has a failing grade he cannot serve and do the one thing perhaps which he can do well. Why not take students out of academic classes because they fail in extra-curriculum activity responsibilities? This may sound revolutionary but it seems to me that it is as fair to use academic work as a hammer for extra-curriculum activities participation as it is to revise the order as we are now doing.

There must of course be close cooperation between the extra-curriculum activity teacher and the subject matter teacher. But why require the extra-curriculum activities teacher to do all of the co-operating. It is like the husband who said he and his wife never had any arguments because he always agreed with *her*.

What right do we have to hold a student out of dramatics or musical production, an athletic event, or an organization because he has failed in a subject matter field?

The second question: Can the subject matter teacher develop methods and materials of instruction which will of and by themselves cause pupils to achieve? There are some evidences that this is possible. We have some master teachers even now who are able to sell their subject to the extent that it stands upon its own feet without the aid of the crutch of outside stimuli—such as marks, credit, and qualifying requirements for organizations, and curriculum requirements. One of the curses of secondary education, all education, to-day, is the emphasis placed upon marks and credit. Some day, perhaps, we shall know enough about teaching and the selection of subject matter to suit the needs of the individual, to abolish marks and credits. When teachers learn enough about how to

teach and we have as, Dr. Briggs suggests, provided appropriate subject matter material there will be less and less need for marks and credits to stimulate work.

I am not suggesting here a separation of extra-curriculum activities from the subject matter field. I am urging quite the contrary. I hope to see the day when the distinguishing terms will be eliminated and all things worth giving time to in school will be so thoroughly integrated that the term extra-curriculum will pass from use and the term activities will be common to all educational procedure.

This integration will not come until we have learned that we cannot teach character; that we cannot teach citizenship; that we cannot teach worthy use of leisure; that we cannot teach worthy home membership; that we cannot teach international good will; that we cannot teach good health. We must learn that all of these are "outcomes" of the whole of the educational experiences of the individual.

We are far behind our theory and philosophy with our practices. We have been working at generalizing too long. We need to get down to specifics. We have delayed of course because that is more difficult.

The 1932 year book of the Department of Superintendents on Character Education is filled with the philosophy of integration. Quoting from a statement of this commission, "The goal of character education is the discovery or creation of a way of living which conserves and produces as many values as possible for as many people as possible for as long a time as possible." This statement may be applied to any of the other seven cardinal principles.

If extra-curriculum activities have values they must be made to function. If subject-matter has values they must be made to function. Each contributing to the usefulness of the other and each defensible as a worthy activity clearly contributing to useful and successful living.

GROUP IV.

In the West Lobby of the Wardman Park Hotel Mr. Charles F. Allen, Supervisor of Secondary Education of Little Rock, Arkansas, presided over Group four.

Dr. Arthur K. Loomis, Principal of University High School of the University of Chicago, and Head Specialist in Curriculum of the Staff of the National Survey of Secondary Education, read his paper, *Recent Trends in Secondary-School Curriculums*.

RECENT TRENDS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM PROGRESS REPORT, NATIONAL SURVEY OF EDUCATION

Dr. Arthur K. Loomis

Principal, University High School, University of Chicago,
and Head Specialist in the Curriculum, National Survey
of Education Prepared in Collaboration With Dr. E. S.
Lide, Full-Time Specialist in Curriculum for the
National Survey of Secondary Education."

The Purpose of the Survey. The study of the curriculum of the secondary school has been directed to the goal of locating and describing the work done in outstanding schools. No attempt has been made to describe the status of work in the typical school. Innovating practices in schools which are breaking away from old paths have been located through a nationwide search.

The Commissioner of Education in 1930 addressed a preliminary inquiry to 5,000 schools and systems and to the forty-eight State Departments of Education in the attempt to find the secondary schools in which a general revision of the curriculum had been completed since 1925 and those in which a general revision was then in progress.

Plans for Curriculum Revision. This inquiry located 192 cities in which a general revision had been completed since 1925 and 275 cities in which a general revision was in progress

in 1930. In response to a request addressed to all these cities, 95 cities in the first group and 112 in the second group furnished information about their plans for curriculum revision. The replies from 162 cities were fairly complete and have been tabulated. Similar studies have been made for several counties and for twelve states which have recently completed or are now carrying on programs of curriculum revision. The findings of this part of the survey can not be presented in this brief report of progress.

Changes in Programs of Studies. Several special studies dealing with the programs of studies, general curriculum practices, and percentage distribution of work completed by high-school graduates have been made. These studies can only be described briefly here with no attempt to give the findings.

(1) The junior high-school programs of studies of 60 cities for the period 1915-20 have been compared with the programs from the same cities for the period 1929-31.

(2) Curriculum practices in 1930-31 in junior high schools in the fourteen cities included in the investigation by Glass in 1923 are being compared with practices in the same schools as he reported them.¹

(3) Bradley in an unpublished study described and analyzed the four-year programs of studies in 152 cities with a population range from 2,500 to 20,000 for the period 1924-25. He secured comparable data from 54 of these cities for the period 1914-15. From all but three of the 152 cities data have been secured giving the programs of studies for the period 1930-31. It thus is possible to compare for 54 cities the programs in operation in 1914-15, 1924-25, and 1930-31. For 95 cities comparisons are being made between the programs in use in 1924-25 and 1930-31.

(4) Using data reported by Stout² for 35 cities for the periods 1906-11 and 1915-18, Van Dyke has compared pro-

¹Glass, James M. *Curriculum Practices in the Junior High School and Grades V and VI*. University of Chicago Press, 1924.

²Stout, John E. *The Development of High-School Curricula in the North Central States, 1860-1918*. University of Chicago Press, 1921.

grams of studies in these cities for 1930-31 with the earlier programs.¹

(5) Curriculum practices in 1930-31 in senior high schools in fourteen of the fifteen cities included in the investigation by Counts in 1924 are being compared with practices in the same schools as he reported them.²

(6) The four-year high-school programs of studies for 30 private schools which have completed a general revision since 1925 will be compared with the programs from the same schools which were in use before the revision.

(7) The programs of studies for 25 reorganized schools including grades 7-8-and 9 in a junior high school will be compared with the programs of studies for these grades in 25 schools which have not been reorganized as junior high schools.

(8) For 50 cities in which new programs of studies for junior and senior high schools are now in use the programs which were in use immediately before the revision have been secured and comparisons have been made. In these cities the junior-senior high school organization was in use prior to the recent revision of the programs of studies.

(9) For 50 cities the programs of studies in use before reorganization into junior-senior high schools have been compared with the programs of studies now in use.

(10) The percentage distributions of work completed in grades 9-12 by a sampling of the 1930 graduates in Providence, Long Beach, and Denver have been compared with the percentage distributions for graduates in the same cities in 1890, 1900, 1910, and 1920.

(11) The percentage distributions of work completed by a sampling of the 1930 graduates in the college of liberal arts in Vassar, Princeton, George Washington, Chicago, Denver,

¹Van Dyke, George E. *Trends in the Development of the High-School Offering* in *School Review* 39: 657-664; 737-747, Nov. and Dec. 1931.

²Counts, George S. *The Senior High-School Curriculum*. University of Chicago Press, 1926.

Wyoming, and Stanford have been compared with the percentage distributions of work completed in grades 9-12 by these same students.

Findings of the Subject Specialists. It is my purpose in this report to present some of the tentative findings reported by the subject specialists in English, social studies, and science.¹ These reports are now being revised for publication in a series of brief monographs which will give the results of the survey of the secondary-school curriculum. These three specialists and the other specialists who have participated in this survey² have had access to more than 500 courses of study issued since 1925. They have also visited outstanding schools from coast to coast. On the basis of the critical analysis of the new courses of study and through direct contact with schools in which changes are being made which are not as yet reported in courses of study, the trends in the various fields have been determined. In this report it is necessary to select a few of the findings for brief summary.

Aims of Composition Teaching. In the English report one table presents in order of frequency of mention the general aims of composition teaching from 53 junior high school and 67 senior and four-year high school courses. The four aims mentioned most frequently were (1) To promote skill in organizing the materials of thought, experience, and reading; (2) To give pupils a mastery of fundamentals of grammar and mechanical accuracy; (3) To promote among pupils ability to express their thoughts clearly and fluently; (4) To increase the pupils' vocabulary and power of discrimination in the use of words.

¹Specialist in English, Dr. Dora V. Smith, University of Minnesota; Specialist in Social Studies, W. G. Kimmel, Secretary of the Commission on the Social Studies; Specialist in Science, Dr. W. L. Beauchamp, University of Chicago.

²Specialist in Foreign Languages, Dr. Helen M. Eddy, University of Iowa; Specialist in Mathematics, Dr. E. S. Lide, of the Survey Staff; Specialist in Music, Anne E. Pierce, University of Iowa; Specialist in Art, Robert S. Hilpert, University of Minnesota. Industrial Arts, Home Economics, Commerce, and Physical Education are included in other sections of the survey.

These aims all place the emphasis upon the mastery of the fundamentals of expression. The sixth aim in order of frequency deals with style; the ninth with the forms of discourse; and the twelfth with the rhetorical principles of unity and coherence. The relatively low place accorded to elements of style, to forms of discourse, and to technical study of rhetorical principles reveals a tendency to look upon English "not as an artistic outlet or form of aesthetic or spiritual self-realization," so far as the majority of students are concerned, but as a "tool of thought and of expression for use in public and private life."

Grammar. There is definite evidence of the passing of certain traditional phases of grammar content. Mood is mentioned by less than half of the courses. So also are distinctions between shall and will. Once stressed classifications of adjectives into pronominal, interrogative, limiting, possessive, and relative appear in less than one-fourth of the courses. Demonstrative adjectives still persist as a category. Classes of adverbs such as adverbs of cause, manner, and degree are disappearing, with the exception of the conjunctive adverb. The vocative case is entirely absent, and the dative is mentioned only three times in 22 courses. Pronouns grouped as intensive, identifying, reflexive, reciprocal, and indefinite persist in one-fourth of the courses or more. There is a notable absence of the adjunct accusative, the absolute with the participle, the retained object with the passive, and the subject of the infinitive. English grammar, while it is still logically organized and taught with technical emphasis, is at least breaking with certain Latinized forms and classifications and fitting its content to its own language. The word parsing occurs in only one course and the word analysis in exactly one-half the courses. Diagramming is recommended in nine out of twenty-two syllabi, another evidence of a logical approach to the subject.

Literature. Two policies appear in the courses of study examined. One is to reduce the time allotted to the so-called literary classics; to read them naturally and enjoyably as one does a book from his library table, no longer reserving them for minute and detailed analysis; to compare them with one an-

other, with recent writings on the same theme, with life experiences as it is lived today. Where such a policy is followed, grade placement of materials demands adjustment, for simpler content will be necessary for many pupils under changed conditions of reading. In the time thus saved, students read two or three or six times as much as they have been in the habit of doing. Extensive reading programs of this sort are backed by scientific evidence that general knowledge and appreciation of selections so read are at least as great as under analytical methods of teaching.

The other policy is to individualize reading, permitting each pupil to read within a given theme or type, or possibly without associative connection with his fellows, the kind of material suited to his interests and to his needs. For one, it might be "Moby Dick" with its literary flavor and minute psychological analysis; for another, "Out of Gloucester", a vivid, factual account of winter experiences of the deep sea fisherman of the coast; for a third, "Two Years Before the Mast", or "Captains Courageous", with their simple, vigorous narrative of life at sea.

Miss Smith describes a typical classroom in Libby Junior High School in Spokane, where such a method was employed. No recitation was in progress. In a laboratory of books, pictures, magazines and reference materials, the pupils busied themselves in reading and organizing selections based upon themes of interest. A boy was studying aviation. On his desk was Holland's "Historic Airships"; in an open booklet, his own description of why he liked "Lone Scout of the Sky", and copied on the fly-leaf favorite lines from "Daedalus Green" and the "Ballad of Lucky Lindbergh". Next him a girl bent over "Twice Told Tales" and traced down stories of New England life. Another enjoyed particularly stories of knights and ladies of the middle ages. She was reading Eric Kelly's "Trumpeter of Krakow", and on her desk was a letter to a friend urging her to read "Ivanhoe". Posters about the room advertised other favorite titles which the pupils explained they were reading during this month's "unit" of "free reading". The only requirement was that each pupil should read within the month

at least four complete books and twelve poems, and write four letters or other compositions suggested by what he read. Two days of every week were given over to discussion, dramatization, and general sharing of books read, and the others were devoted to laboratory work in classroom and library.

There is no uniformity in the list of classics required of all pupils. In one section of the country, it is the "Odyssey" that is required of every ninth grade pupil in the schools. In another, it is the "Lady of the Lake". In still another, one may find large groups of English teachers who are unfamiliar with both, but know the "Courtship of Miles Standish" by heart. Evidence from this study proves the fallacy of a minimum content notion for classes in literature. In one hundred and fifty-six courses of study, the title read most frequently was "Silas Marner"—required in a total of fifty-seven schools. Only eight of the classics listed are common to as many as one-fifth of the courses submitted. There are 309 titles in all, and only 27 of them are read in ten schools or more throughout the country. In view of these facts, who shall say which classic is necessary to the soul's salvation? The wider program of extensive reading in various sections of the country suggests that pupils in the future will have more time for reading good literature rather than less; and that instead of studying "fifty ideas from one classic", they may be expected to have "one idea from each of fifty classics."

American History. In the report on the social studies Kimmel notes that in American history in the junior high school little space in courses of study seems to be devoted to cross-sectional views of the life of the people at different periods in American history. Three courses of study include a major topic or unit on "Colonial Life", but in general social history does not find a place in the courses in American history at the junior high school level. He finds a similar situation in American history in the senior high school. With few exceptions, economic, social, and cultural phases are treated as subordinate to political history. The tariff, money and banking, the labor movement, trusts and trust legislation, public lands, and the conservation movement are minor elements or receive

only incidental consideration in most courses. With few exceptions, social and cultural history do not receive even minor consideration.

There seems to be a need for the study of American history in its proper perspective as a phase of world history. The proposals made from time to time, such as that by Hill for a two-year sequence in World history, elicit much favorable comment from discerning teachers, but the introduction of such courses is blocked in many instances by statutory requirements which necessitate courses in American history. With the increasing number of courses in social studies other than history, courses in history seem in many cities to be limited to World history and American history. If the pupils in World history, as is generally contended by competent teachers, do not gain an adequate world background for the study of American history, a two-year sequence in World history, with the possibility of more pupils being able to enroll in both courses, would seem to be an alternative worth serious consideration.

The present diversity of practices found in courses of study may be illustrated by noting that the arbitrary division between the two semesters in nineteen one-year courses of study in American history in the junior high school ranges from the beginning of the Revolutionary War to the close of the Reconstruction Period. Two of the nineteen courses agree in making the dividing point the completion of a survey of the development of the "Middle West"; in two courses the content for the first semester is concluded with events immediately preceding the Civil War. No two of the remaining fifteen courses agree in setting the arbitrary division.

A similar variety of arbitrary divisions is found in the twenty-five one-year courses in American history in the senior high school. Seven courses conclude the materials of the first semester with the beginning of the Civil War; in six courses the close of the "Jackson Era" is used; in five, the close of the Civil War; the beginning of the "Jackson Era" and the end of political reconstruction following the Civil War are used in two courses of study, while the beginning of the War of 1812 and

the close of the Spanish-American War are each used as the dividing point between in one course. Part of this variation in practice is doubtless due to the fact that content in civics is included in six of the courses.

The Objectives of Science Teaching. Beauchamp analyzed the objectives in 51 courses of study for general science, 32 courses for biology, 19 courses for chemistry, and 20 courses for physics. As he points out little importance should be attached to the frequency of mention of objectives as a measure of their relative significance. But as an indication of the lack of agreement concerning the objectives of science it is interesting to note that only 73 of the 122 recent courses agree in seeking to acquire knowledge which will produce a better understanding of the environment; 67 courses seek to develop the ability to think scientifically; 35 courses aim to develop the power of observation; 35 courses attempt to develop a scientific attitude; and 34 courses set up the goal of developing an attitude of appreciation of the contributions of science to mankind.

In terms of the familiar analysis of objectives which was proposed in the bulletin on the cardinal principles of secondary education, 50 courses seek the objective of health, 37 the objective of citizenship, 31 the objective of worthy home membership, 24 the objective of worthy use of leisure time, 20 the objective of vocation, 12 the objective of ethical character, and 1 the objective of command of fundamental processes.

Twenty-six teachers were asked the question, How do you train pupils to do scientific thinking? The answers were of five types: (1) the study of science results automatically in this ability because of the nature of the subject matter of science; (2) it is not possible to train a pupil to think; (3) we had a lesson on that last week, or we will have a lesson on that next week; (4) we take that up in the introduction to the course; (5) the pupils learn the method by watching the procedure of the teacher. None of the answers were definite to the extent that the investigator could get a clear idea of what was being done in this direction. This does not necessarily mean that no

training in reflective thinking is being carried on but it does mean that it is not done in a systematic fashion. The answers given above raise several questions: (1) Is it possible to train pupils to think scientifically? (2) Should this training be incidental or should it be placed in the direct focus of attention? (3) Does the study of the subject matter in science automatically result in training in scientific method? (4) Should training in scientific method be covered as a unit in the course or should it be an essential part of procedure in every class hour taught? (5) Is training in scientific method the result of the subject matter included in the course or the method of teaching employed? (6) What techniques result in training in the ability to do scientific thinking? A similar set of questions may also be raised concerning the objective, "the inculcation of the scientific attitude of mind".

The Unit Plan. Since none of the courses appearing before 1926 were divided into units, it is probably a safe assumption that the term "unit" owes its introduction into courses of study to Professor H. C. Morrison. Professor Morrison's book, "The Practice of Teaching in Secondary Schools", appeared in that year. According to Professor Morrison, a learning unit may be defined as "a comprehensive and significant aspect of the environment, of an organized science, of an art, or of conduct, which being learned results in an adaptation in personality". The problem of organization in General Science is "a search for the comprehensive and significant aspects of the environment in the field being studied—'comprehensive' in that each aspect explains a great deal, and 'significant' in that it is important and essential". In the organized sciences, Physics, Chemistry, and Biology, the unit is "a comprehensive and significant principle or complex of principles and the meaning and bearing of the terms 'comprehensive' and 'significant' are the same as before. The critical test of any unit in the science type is, Does it tend to contribute understanding rather than a descriptive account?" The foregoing statements have been quoted from Professor Morrison in order to show that it one accepts his viewpoint (and presumably those courses divided into units

do) he also accepts certain fundamental principles of organization.

An analysis of the courses divided into units indicates that the term "unit" has been taken over as a convenient term to replace the word "topic", rather than as a principle of organization. For example, the following "units" are found in General Science courses: Astronomy, Air, Looking through a Telescope, Bread, Oxygen, Nature of Chemical Change, The Telephone, Buried Treasure, Animals, The Grasshopper, Chemistry Flowers, Machines, Water, Obtaining a Food Supply, Carbon Dioxide, and How Living Things Grow. Applying the definition of a unit to these titles it is evident that many of those listed are not units while others are. Many of the courses consist of units mixed with topics.

If we apply the analysis of a unit still further it is evident that certain elements enter into the understanding which is implied by the unit. Direct learning of the unit requires mastery of the elements out of which the understanding grows, but it does not require mastery of all of the principles or associated elements which do not contribute to the understanding. While it is true that different individuals might differ to some degree as to the elements which should be included within a unit, a fairly high uniformity of opinion should result. An analysis of the "unit", "Air", which was included in fifteen of the courses studied was made to determine the content included. The outline for this "unit" included the following principles: phenomena and devices; matter and its properties; weight, pressure, compressibility, composition, structure, elasticity and inertia of air; effect of heat upon air; oxidation; photosynthesis; weather, including winds, humidity, evaporation, condensation, forms of precipitation, lightning, thunder, and forecasting; devices such as suction pumps, siphon, barometers, thermometers, windmills, compressed air devices, vacuum cleaners, airplanes, refrigerators; chemical changes including elements, mixtures and compounds; physical changes; conduction; radiation; convection; structure of the ear; musical instruments; nitrogen cycle, carbon cycle; hygiene of breathing; nature of sound; weathering; boiling

point; freezing point; distillation; friction; radio, treatment of burns; fire prevention; balloons; respiration; ventilation; stoves and furnaces; composition of water; water supply; bacteria, yeasts and molds; vaccination; and life history of flies and mosquitoes.

The examples given above seem to point to several conclusions: (1) the idea of what a unit is, is not clearly defined; (2) the title of the unit does not indicate the nature of the content to any high degree; (3) the emphasis is placed upon the subject matter or assimilative materials rather than upon the elements through which the intelligent attitude implied by the unit is attained.

The Changing Curriculum. To the superficial observer the curriculum of the American secondary school may seem to have been so completely standardized that little change can take place. To be sure the quantitative measure of high school work in terms of the Carnegie unit of 120 clock hours is universally used in grades nine to twelve, and the subjects offered in these grades in various schools almost invariably carry the same names from the Atlantic to the Pacific. But the careful examination of courses of study and the visiting in outstanding schools by the subject specialists on the staff of the National Survey of Secondary Education reveals conclusive evidence of wide variations both in the junior and the senior high schools. This is not surprising in the junior high school since little standardization has taken place in time allotments, grade placement, or subject titles. But in the senior high school under the apparent uniformity it is significant that a great deal of variation is found. Examples of the changes taking place have been in this report from English, American History, and Science.

English. The functional centers of English expression are rapidly replacing the forms of discourse and the principles of rhetoric in the courses in English composition. Uniform requirements in literature have entirely disappeared as between different schools. Extensive reading of many books is replacing the intensive study of a few.

American History. In the field of the social studies no subject has been hedged about with so many restrictions as has American History. And yet change has become so characteristic in this subject that even the arbitrary dividing point between the two semesters of a one-year course ranges from the beginning of the Revolutionary War to the close of the Spanish-American War.

Science. General science, biology, physics, and chemistry have practically dominated the science program of the secondary school for some time. But not a single objective is accepted by all the recent courses which have been analyzed in any of these subjects. Only two objectives are common to half or more than half of the courses in general science; not a single objective is common to as many as half of the biology or chemistry courses; and only one objective is common to as many as half of the physics courses.

Lack of Uniformity. Is this rather chaotic lack of uniformity to be regarded as wholly undesirable? On the contrary it may be that the most encouraging thing that can be said about the present curriculum in that it is in flux, that change is characteristic.

Freedom for Experimentation. At one of the sessions of the Commission on Unit Courses and Curricula of the North Central Association held last March Principal H. H. Ryan of the Wisconsin High School proposed an experiment in college preparatory work for chosen experimental groups. This proposal aroused much enthusiasm.

A committee of the Progressive Education Association including official representatives of the Department of Secondary School Principals is now engaged in a series of regional conferences with college representatives with a view to securing approval of forty or fifty of the leading colleges and universities for several experimental reorganizations of the secondary school curriculum to be tried out in selected secondary schools. At the first one of these conferences held in Chicago recently the college representatives were very favorably inclined.

In view of the present unrest in secondary schools the next few years may see the present tendencies to change increased tremendously as freedom to experiment is gradually extended to more and more schools. When one reads the chapter in the Thirty-First Yearbook, Part II, of the National Society for the Study of Education which describes "One Hundred Twenty-Eight Outstanding Changes and Experiments in Liberal Arts Colleges", it is easy to imagine a similar catalog for secondary schools within ten years.

Mr. Will French, Associate Superintendent of Schools of Tulsa, Oklahoma, and Mr. Oscar D. Lindquist, Director of University Schools, Ohio State University, led in the discussion.

AFTERNOON DISCUSSION GROUPS

GROUP I

Dr. Charles H. Judd, Dean of the School of Education of the University of Chicago, and Founder of the Judd Club, presided over the Research Section, Group one, in the Gold Room of the Wardman Park Hotel.

Mr. Francis L. Bacon, Principal of Township High School, Evanston, Illinois read his paper, *The Study Habits of Excellent and Deficient Pupils*.

THE STUDY HABITS OF EXCELLENT AND DEFICIENT PUPILS

FRANCIS L. BACON,

Principal Evanston Township High School

A number of the high-school principals of the Chicago and suburban area became interested in the question of the habits of study of good and poor pupils. As these principals were members of the Judd Club, the study was made a project of the group. Direction of the study and compilation of the returns were achieved through the aid of Professor W. C. Reavis of The University of Chicago.

Each of the thirty-two principals involved in the project selected two pupils from his senior class—one who was failing

obviously because of poor study habits, and one who was highly successful because of superior study habits—and made case studies of these pupils.

Two forms were worked out so that procedure would be reasonably identical and in order that returns might be tabulated and compared. Form I was designed as the basis for an interview which the principal was to have with each pupil. In the interview the principal, as interrogator, was to search out all of the data called for by the form. Items 4-8 in Form I were supplied without interrogation. Before the principal began the interview he, first, asked the pupil to write out an answer to the following question: How do you know when you have learned your lesson?

Also, before the interview took place the plan called for the principal to visit the classes in which the pupils were enrolled, observe them at work, collect all the information possible about their habits of study, and then write out a full case report of each pupil giving a diagnosis of the causes of failure and success. The thought was that the interviews following this procedure would give a better opportunity to check certain doubtful points and furnish a background which would make for more intelligent follow-up in the interviews.

It may prove interesting to point out the results of certain tabulations, although space will limit the inclusion to only those items which seem to have larger significance. In the following returns there were 25 pupils in each group:

1. The superior pupils, as a group, were approximately one year younger in chronological age. This group also had an average intelligence quotient of 119+. The highest quotient was 182 and the lowest was 98. The failure group had an average intelligence quotient of 97+. The highest in this group was 123 and the lowest 74.

2. In a reading test for comprehension the excellent group produced an average score of 43+ with the highest at 68 and the lowest at 12. The deficient pupils had an average reading comprehension of but 29+ with the highest at 62 and the lowest at 9. In reading-rate the superior group scored an av-

erage rate of 123+ with a high score of 189 and a low one of 30. The inferior group scored an average of 110+ with a high score of 174 and a low one of 77. The low returns of the inferior group in reading gives additional evidence to the much-emphasized need of greater attention to the problem of reading, especially in regard to pupils who are failing.

3. The better group had no failures in the elementary grades while of the poorer group 9 had failed one grade each. The superior group had 14 pupils who skipped a total of 21 grades. Two skipped 3 grades each and three skipped 2 grades each. In the inferior group 6 skipped 6 grades, and in no case was more than one grade skipped by one pupil.

4. When it came to regular employment outside of school the two groups were equal.

5. In reading habits 25 of the successful pupils reported regular reading for recreation, while but 20 of the failing pupils followed reading as a recreation. The higher group read a total of 72 books per month and the lower group but 51. The first group read a total of 67 magazines and the second group a total of 54. All of the first group read the daily papers and but 19 of the second group.

6. The superior group gave about $1\frac{3}{4}$ hours daily to home study, while the other group gave approximately one hour to home study. Help received at home was negligible in both instances. Eleven of the strong pupils had no regular time to study each lesson, while 14 used a regular time. 14 of the weak pupils did not study at a regular time, while 10 did.

7. Of the superior pupils, 20 chose to do a hard piece of work before doing an easy assignment. 18 of the poor group chose to do the hard work first.

8. 22 of the better pupils read their lessons over rapidly more than once, while 20 of the poorer pupils followed this practice. 19 of the better group read their lessons slowly more than once and 12 of the poorer group followed this practice.

9. Of the superior pupils 24 read their lessons rapidly to get the general idea and then reread slowly, while but 10 of

the deficient pupils used this practice. This particular item is outstanding in the sharpness of the difference between the two groups. The results as demonstrated by the standing of the two groups would indicate that the usual emphasis upon this type of study has been well justified.

10. 20 of the superior group took notes on paper as they read and 16 of the poorer group used this method. It is, perhaps, surprising to learn that but 12 of the good pupils underscore words or lines to be used for ready reference in review. 14 of the poor pupils use underscorings. Of recent years the tendency has been to discourage underscoring, chiefly, because of the damage done to books owned by the school. Where private ownership of books was more common, this practice was quite universal. It is interesting to note that, apparently, the poor pupils did not conform as well to regulations against underscoring.

11. There were 13 of the excellent pupils who used the practice of closing the book after reading and then trying to recite to themselves. There were 12 poor pupils who used this method. 14 of the better pupils made up questions about their lessons, while 11 of the poor pupils followed this method. Only two for each group recited their lessons to some other than themselves during study.

12. For the superior pupils 19 review the previous lesson assignment before beginning the study of the new lesson. 15 of the inferior pupils follow this practice.

13. The better pupils report 18 favorable responses to the question, "Has anyone ever tried to tell you how you should go about studying other than to tell you to do it?" Surprisingly, 20 of the poorer pupils respond favorably to this same question. Perhaps teachers have made a more conscious effort to teach failing pupils how to study. That would be a logical result. However, it is somewhat reassuring to know that the pupils themselves have been so largely conscious of the effort made. The superior pupils may not have felt the need of giving attention to material offered on ways of studying. The ten-

dency for self-reliance should be a part of the evidence, no doubt.

History is the favored subject for some reason. 10 of the superior pupils report instruction in how to study in history classes. 7 report English. Other subjects are negligible. 12 of the poor pupils report instruction in history classes and 7 report English. Economics is mentioned by 3 and 2 each report civics, shorthand, and geometry.

14. The better pupils had a total of 60 study periods daily outside of regular class periods. The poorer pupils had a total of 56.

15. For the superior group 16 pupils reported a practice of following a program of study for their study periods. 15 of the inferior group reported a similar practice.

The interpretations or conclusions which may be drawn from the tabulations have already been indicated in connection with items which seem to point special significance. The similarity of the two groups in the type of response is, perhaps, the outstanding feature. As would be expected, the superior pupils show the greater conformity to practices which would be considered as desirable and which have been more or less emphasized in the school process. The superiority of the better group, however, is not as marked as the principals expected.

The answer of the pupils of both groups would apparently indicate that they were fairly conscious of the desirable practices. It is not clear whether this indication had been obtained as a result of direct teaching or had been acquired through the method of trial and error. The slightly less favorable responses of the inferior pupils might point to a deduction that in cases of pronounced failure either the lack of confirmed study habits or the presence of such is not, in itself, a dominant cause of failure.

It was ascertained later that in practically all of the schools represented some attention had been given to the problem of how to study. The ways of emphasis, the methods of presentation, the content used, the supervisory follow-up

differed to large degree. It is perfectly clear that there is no indication of an accepted or standardized procedure on the question of teaching how to study. It is also amply demonstrated that schools are particularly deficient in attempts to measure the results of whatever efforts have been made. The material offered by this paper is but a slight attempt in that direction.

The replies of the pupils to the question: How do you know when you have learned your lesson, offer some rather definite suggestions on how-to-study methods and the efficacy thereof. The superior pupils reply: 1. Because assignments are clear, definite, when a certain understanding of the lesson content has been gained by careful thought. 2. When the facts of the lesson are fixed in my mind. 3. When I can go over the lesson and can answer what I think are the most important things clearly, I know that I have learned my lesson. 4. When I am absolutely sure that I can't get anything else out of it, I close my books. 5. When I have learned my lesson I experience a peculiar feeling of confidence that I can speak or write, correctly and without difficulty, about anything which may be asked concerning the subject I have been studying. 6. When I am able to summarize the chapter or assignment in my mind and pick out the important parts or topics in the chapter or assignment. 7. When I can go through the chapter, read the topic heads and have that bring to mind the contents of each topic. 8. When, some time after I have finished studying, I can review the lesson in my mind and know the things I didn't know as I studied the lesson the first time. 9. I know I have my lesson because of self-confidence when I enter the classroom. 10. If there is any doubt in my mind concerning the lesson, then I consult either another book or the teacher. 11. If the lesson is a written one, I write it out completely, study, and revise it if necessary. I study especially difficult parts until I can say them over in my mind. If the lesson is oral, I write it out as I should like to say it, then read it over and over until I have the general content firmly fixed in my mind. I then say it aloud in the words that come most easily to me. If it is memory work, such as learning

words or phrases, or public speaking, I write it down, read and reread it carefully. I then say it aloud as nearly correct as I can. The parts I miss I give special attention to when I go over it again. (This 11. statement is by the pupil with the highest I. Q.) 12. I am sure I have learned a lesson when I can reconstruct for myself the ideas which I have read. 13. When I am able to summarize in the morning what I have studied the night before. I like to ask myself possible test questions.

The following replies were given to the same general question by the poor pupils: 1. When I can see clearly within my mind the high-lights or the outstanding events of the lesson. Also when I can answer all the questions that are put at the end of the chapter or lesson. When I am to give an oral report, I think I know the report, only when I have read the topic three or four times, and when I can give the report by using one-word notes, by this I mean each paragraph will be described by one word on my notes, by looking at this word I can relate the rest of the paragraph. 2. I know it when I have read it over twice. The first time I read it with a hurried sort of motion, then the last time I go over the points that are new to me. Sometimes I write out the important facts and in this way I can get it. 3. When I have made an outline of the lesson, picking out the most important points. 4. No matter how much I read the lesson, I can't seem to get all of its points. 5. When I feel sure I can answer any questions about the lesson. 6. I do the hardest subject first. I first read over the lesson to see what parts need most study, then I leave the easiest part until the last. 7. When the assignment is so many pages it never seems so very important. If the teacher is especially strict I make it my business to outline the material and almost memorize it. If the assignment is like that every day I just read the material and when I get to class find out the important points. To tell the truth I hardly know when I've studied my lesson unless it is something to be memorized or written. 8. To know your lesson you must spend plenty of time reading and getting yourself accustomed to the book and what's in it. Then if you can pass the test at

the end of the unit with a grade above passing I think you should know your lesson. 9. I can feel that I know it. 10. I consider it learned when it ceases to pop up during the day and worry me.

Some additional indication of the working habits of the pupils studied may be obtained from their case histories. Case 25A has the lowest I. Q. among the superior pupils. She also has the lowest comprehension and reading rates. These handicaps are overcome by long hours of hard work. She wastes little time. Home work is done regularly. She sticks with a subject and while she may be guilty of some memorization, she rationalizes quite well. Her habits of study are not of the best, but she makes up for them by her persistence and her effort. She places duty above social and all other matters.

26A has an I. Q. of 119. Her grades are the highest ever given in her school. The record is made possible by hard work, absolute integrity, a very definite plan of study, regular attendance, and a determination never to go into class without having the lesson as nearly perfect as possible. Her family is entirely without means.

27A possesses the highest I. Q. and made the highest comprehension score. Her statement on study is number 11. She is even in temperament, has good health, enjoys physical recreational activities, a student leader in activities, trustworthy, has wholesome personal habits, open minded, no conduct difficulties, her friends are strong students, enjoys reading, plays tennis, swims, writes strong constructive editorials for the school paper.

The above cases are typical of all of those in the superior group. Definite study habits and ability to concentrate are strongly in evidence. These pupils not only know what to do but they are able to do it.

The case reports of the failing pupils are quite the contrary. They differ in many more respects. There are many conditions which qualify the failure to study. Absence, lack of ambition, home difficulties, immaturity, illness, habituated

carelessness, lack of home understanding, mischievous spirit, indifference, undernourishment, irresponsibility, disorganized home life and training, outside work, low intelligence, wrong curriculum, no home privacy, habituated bluffing, habituated superficial fiction reading, lack of sufficient interest or care to follow habits they know to be good, and weak moral fibre are some of the factors involved.

In a few of these cases ready answers were given as to the proper methods of study. A few knew what to do but had not the strength of will to achieve successful application.

In the failing cases it appears rather obvious that the solution of the difficulties does not primarily depend upon the teaching of how to study. Certain other conditions, more basic in their operation and influence, must first be cleared away or improved, before successful habits of study can be properly set up and acquired. It is reasonable to expect that the teaching of how to study should be a part of the procedure.

The second paper, that of Dr. Charles W. Boardman, Professor of Education and Director of Student Teaching of the University of Minneapolis, was in his absence, read by Mr. J. G. Umstatld, assistant professor of education, College of Education, University of Minnesota.

OBSTACLES TO PUPIL ADJUSTMENT IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Charles W. Boardman, Professor of Education, and Director of Student Teaching, College of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

Probably the greatest contribution of the past generation of educators has been the discovery and recognition of the facts and the implications of individual differences among human beings. The development of objective tests of intelligence, or achievement, of special abilities, and of personality have made the facts so obvious that they cannot longer be ignored. More-

over, they have greatly strengthened the arguments of those who have demanded, not only education for all, but an education for each child that is suited to his individual needs.

As a result of the appreciation of the problems involved in educating individuals of widely varying abilities, there have been many assaults upon the established curriculum of the secondary schools. As a rule, these assaults have been directed toward the so-called "college subjects" which seem to serve the needs of relatively small groups of pupils,—such as Greek, geometry, algebra, physics, chemistry, Latin, etc.,—until one after another has been eliminated as a requirement for all pupils. The underlying purpose of such attacks upon the curriculum has been to permit differentiation, first in content, and later in rate and methods of instruction to meet the needs, abilities, and objectives of different groups of pupils. That the results of these attacks have begun to be felt, is evidenced by the increasing recognition of the importance of curriculum revision in the secondary schools. This revision provides opportunity for the restatement of aims and objectives in the light of modern educational theories. In such restatements formal discipline as an objective seems doomed to disappear, and specific, practical objectives to increase in importance. We must not, however, become lost in curriculum research to the extent that we forget that its fundamental purpose is *pupil adjustment* and service to the individual.

The best curriculum may fail of this purpose through faulty administration. The educational values of a subject are not intrinsic or absolute, but *relative*. Moreover, they are relative in regard to many factors, the chief of which are the person, the time, and the place. We must know not only the aims and objectives of the subject, but whether these are reasonable and important for each individual, at the present time, and under the existing conditions. The arguments that each subject has a general disciplinary value which applies to all pupils alike is no longer accepted. Even so-called cultural values are no longer unquestioningly accepted. Recently, in the Pennsylvania study by the Carnegie Foundation, a comparison between students who had taken engineering studies and those who had

elected the general or so-called "cultural" subjects indicated that the difference between the cultural medians of the two groups was so slight as to be practically negligible. We are becoming much more critical of general objectives and are insistent upon more specific objectives which can be measured.

Exactly why should a pupil elect any certain subject? It probably should depend upon his own present and immediate needs, the other available alternative choices, the possibilities of postponement of one or both until later, and upon many other special conditions. Concerning the individual, we should know something of his educational prospects, his abilities, his interests, and the other possible choices which might have greater values for him.

John Blake may be *able* to master Latin, and may be *interested* in Latin, and it may seem wise for him to elect Latin, because as a choir boy, he has become interested in a church career, but if he must aid in the support of his family, if his time for schooling is definitely limited, or if he wishes to marry and provide for a family of his own, it is entirely possible that some other subject may be of more practical value for him at the time.

In the selection of electives, the *prospects* and *plans* of *each individual* should be checked, as well as his *abilities* and *interests*. *This cannot be done as a group matter; it must be an individual matter and should be checked by a skilled counselor in an individual interview.* At such a time a choice which might seem wise without a knowledge of these facts appears of questionable value.

The element of *place* has not usually received as much importance as it should in the selection of educational electives. In some schools Mary Smith should study French, but under the circumstances, in view of the fact that she has an antipathy to the French teacher, or because French is poorly taught in that school, or because her home is located in an Italian district where she intends to teach, it may be highly desirable that Mary, *in this particular place*, should study German or Italian instead of French. We are familiar with the advice that is oft-

en given to students in college, that they should select teachers rather than subjects. Why not carry this same advice into the secondary schools when there is any question involving a choice of subjects.

The *time* element is possibly the most important element and the one most frequently overlooked. The ground may well be taken that *everyone* should study Latin and Greek and French and mathematics. In fact, perhaps they should be *required subjects for everyone provided that proper time could be determined when it might be most advisable that each individual should pursue each subject*. The most obvious difficulty in the past has been that we have regarded education as a kind of *juvenile occupation*. Consequently we have required pupils to take these subjects at a time in their lives when they had too many competing interests. Athletics, school activities, social interests, all seem far more vital to young people at the time than many of these school subjects. If James is preparing to be a priest, or if he intends to go to Amherst College, he must study Latin in the ninth grade. But if he intends to be a business man, or an engineer, he might well postpone the study of Latin until other competing interests have been satisfied and he can study it as recreation, possibly at the age of seventy when more active pursuits must be laid aside! Cato had the right idea when he undertook the study of Greek at the age of eighty, and possibly when James has mastered that, Hebrew and Sanskrit will be of absorbing interest! For Mary or Bill, however, at the age of fifteen, a class in dancing would make them less self-conscious and better mixers, or classes in drawing, music, commercial subjects, or vocational shop try-outs may be of more immediate importance as a basis for self-discovery. For the student who is not intending to enter college, algebra and geometry are of little practical value. Most of the thinking that he will have to do is not mathematical but social, and his further pursuit of mathematics beyond the vocational and social essentials might well be postponed to the age of sixty, when mathematical puzzles and problems might possibly tend to keep the mind active as the body decreases in vital activity! Until we are prepared to answer whether John Doe is

the particular person whose interests, abilities, and prospects, in view of other choices, make it wise for him to choose to study a particular subject in this particular school, under this particular teacher, in this community, and at this particular time, we are not prepared to answer the questions that should be answered before such decisions are made. Obviously these are problems in the solution of which individuals should not be left alone and unguided. There should be an opportunity for *individual planning* at the very outset, in order that each individual may understand *where* he is going and take an interest in his own progress toward his own goal. If he is following a route mapped out by someone else, for reasons unknown to him, toward a destination that he neither knows about nor desires to arrive at, it should not be a matter of wonder that he takes little interest in his own educational achievement. The greater wonder is that pupils do as well as they do under circumstances in which most of their work is prescribed for them by others.

In the rapid growth of secondary schools not enough attention and time have been given to individual planning. The principals and practices of educational and vocational guidance have been little understood. Principals had not been trained in them and if they had been trained, there was not sufficient time for the principal to provide individual planning for all pupils; neither had the value of such work been appreciated by the community sufficiently, so that reasonable assistance could be provided for the principal who wished to secure such facilities for his pupils. The only method by which a program could be made was that of grouping certain subjects into specialized curricula in which pupils could be placed so as to avoid the most obvious maladjustments.

It is easy to make such a curriculum. Any principal can do it in his office, but the *proposed* curriculum is not always the *real* one. In the proposed curriculum educators list the facts and skills which pupils *are supposed to learn*. *What they actually do learn may be an entirely different matter*. The proposed objectives may be appreciation of poetry, but what the pupil actually learns may be such a distaste for poetry that he

will never again read it except under compulsion. *What the child learns* is the real curriculum, and this can be discovered only as the result of measurement and of conferences in order to discover pupil attitudes. Under the existing methods of choice, educators have found much to worry about in regard to lockstep, progress of bright and slow pupils; soldiering on the part of bright pupils; and overwork, failure, and elimination on the part of slow pupils. Most of the curricula, even in progressive schools, are full of dead wood, padding, overlapping, and unnecessary reviews, and the knowledge of educational methods and objectives has not yet seriously affected actual teaching practice.

The chief difficulty, however, is not in the curriculum itself, but in our administration of the curriculum. As soon as a subject is made a required subject, no thought is required on the part of either the pupil or the teacher about the problems which have been mentioned. The pupil no longer questions, at least audibly, whether the subject has any value for him, and the teacher no longer is concerned with the problem of whether any particular pupil in the class has a reasonable chance of achieving the general objectives for which the subject was introduced into the curriculum. It has been said that we think only when we are confronted with a problem. If there is no problem of choosing a subject, if the pupil is *required* to study it, then obviously neither the pupil, the teacher, the principal, nor the adviser will give the matter any thought. Consequently many pupils are studying subjects for no better reason than that they will produce a certain number of *points* toward graduation. On the other hand, if each subject is made elective, the pupil, teacher, adviser, and principal are forced to consider the problem of individual differences and the specific services which the pupil may expect as a result of subject instruction. There may be subjects that must be required for certain objectives, but let them not be required unnecessarily.

Bad, however, as required subjects may be, they exist in their worst form in the *grouping of required subjects in specialized high schools* or in *specialized curricula within a high school*. From the point of view of guidance, there are decided

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objections to such an administrative procedure: (1) Because all decisions are made apart from any consideration of the problem of individual differences, or of the individuals who are to elect the courses; (2) Because no option is provided for the pupil, and little or no thought is required of parent, teacher, or counselor. In fact, when we have specialized curricula there is little or nothing that the counselor can do except to fit the pupils into the curriculum as he finds it, and often there is no counselor and no consciousness of a problem; (3) Because with specialized curricula no vehicle is provided for protests by the pupils or suggestions on the part of teachers, counselors, or parents. Adjustments can be made only at the cost of broken loyalties and associations. The result is a static condition, which is sure to bring with it all of the evils of lockstep, soldiering, failure, elimination, and waste in education.

A solution to these problems requires boldness and courage on the part of the educational administrator. If the knowledge of individual differences is to be applied in order to insure better pupil adjustment, the following steps appear necessary:

(1) Every secondary school be equipped with a *child study department*, for the study of individual differences, without a knowledge of which any differentiation through choices of subjects, or methods and rates of instruction, must prove ineffective.

(2) Provision must be made in each school to insure the best possible articulation, continuity, and individual planning in order that individual aims and purposes may be recognized in the educational program of secondary schools.

(3) The service of the child study or guidance department should be, not alone for the problem children who stand out because of failures, discipline, or other mal-adjustments, but for *each and every child in the entire school*. Such individual attention should require at least one individual interview each term with a skilled counselor. When we are spending from \$125 to \$200 per pupil per year in the secondary schools, and when so much of our effort may be wasted for the lack of definite objectives and adjustment, good business should

require at least that much thought concerning the aims and adjustment of each individual.

(4) The program of each school be built upon a study of individual needs, interests, abilities, and prospects, and that the subjects offered and the units of the curriculum in these subjects be based upon the study of individual differences and needs.

(5) There should be no choices of subjects in the curriculum without: (a) Adequate preparation through group guidance in order that each individual may understand the values that he may or may not expect to receive from such a study. Such preparation should be under the guidance of the class counselor rather than the subject teacher as a safeguard against the over-enthusiasm and extravagant claims frequently made by specialists, and; (b) An individual check-up of each choice by a trained counselor in an individual interview in order to make sure of the wisdom of the investment in time and money.

(6) All specialized curricula should be abolished and each subject should stand upon its own feet. For this purpose every subject should be separately elective under adequate guidance. Such a program would not prevent the adoption of certain policies by the class counselors and the administration, or the grouping of subjects for certain general objectives, but the *application of such policies* would in every case be considered in connection with needs, interests, abilities, and prospects of the individual child—at that time and in that particular school.

(7) The work of the counselors should be organized in such a way as to provide a continuous self-survey which would prevent mistakes from being repeated. In the past obvious errors in judgment and in choices have been repeated term after term, and there has been no administrative research for the purpose of ascertaining the facts and correcting the mistakes. Such methods would not be tolerated in any business conducted for private profit and must not be tolerated in the public service.

A critic of such a drastic reorganization might well ask what results may be expected from such a plan. The following results may be reasonably expected:

(1) A considerable improvement in the effort and morale of pupils. They would not have to be driven along a road that they themselves have chosen. Instead of being forced to study and being driven by fear of failure, pupils should press onward under their own steam as a result of the desire to master a field of knowledge or of skills that will be useful in their general program of training and development.

(2) When each subject is made elective under guidance, there are sure to come rapid changes in the enrollment for the different subjects. Much of the dead wood in the curriculum, as well as in the teaching staff, will be eliminated.

(3) Education will become less a *training*, imposed upon each individual, and will become more and more a *service* provided to assist each individual to make the most of his abilities and interests to prepare for his needs in the immediate future, to work toward his own goal, intelligently chosen under proper safeguards.

(4) By such an administrative scheme, it should be possible to avoid *factory methods* and *mass education*, to secure greater *continuity* in education, and to insure greater responsibility on the part of pupils and teachers. Unnecessary changes of subjects and teachers will be avoided. Obviously these administrative changes cannot be accomplished without an adequate conception of the importance of individual differences, the need of adequate child study and guidance, and the need of continuously adapting the schools to serve the needs of individuals. Under such a plan the schools will not be for teachers but for children.

No subject is of itself an obstacle to pupil adjustment, but it may be, and probably will become an obstacle as soon as it is required. We should not remove Latin from the requirements and replace it with physical training as a requirement. There may be some who do not need it. The *only* valid reason for re-

quiring any study applies to those subjects the chief purpose of which is *orientation* or socialization. To paraphrase Brutus, The fault is not in our curriculum, but in our administration of it, that we are weak. Let us abandon mass diagnosis and mass prescription and adopt individual diagnosis, planning, and service.

Mr. S. N. Ewan, Jr., Principal of Lansdowne High School, Lansdowne, Pennsylvania, presented his material on the topic, *Class Size*.

CLASS SIZE

S. N. EWAN

Principal of High School, Lansdowne, Pennsylvania

Object—The object of this study is to determine what effect class size has upon pupil achievement. For comparative purposes the progress of pupils in classes under fifteen in number has been measured against that of pupils in classes over thirty. Pupil achievement has been measured by standardized tests.

Method—The method can best be explained by showing the procedure used in one subject. Two classes in English satisfying the size requirements were selected. Both classes were under the same instructor, receiving the same kind and amount of instruction. After a definite period of instruction, such as a semester, a standardized test was given each class section. Pupils in the small class were then paired with pupils of equal I. Q. in the large class. After such pairing the average score of the pupils selected from the small class was compared to that of the pupils matched with them in the large class. Thus the chief factor accounting for any difference in progress of the two groups would seem to be that of class size.

Fearing that other factors might possibly affect the validity of the study, a thorough background analysis was made of each pupil under observation.

In all eighteen such paired classes have been studied. These classes have been in English, Latin, mathematics, history, science, and typewriting.

RAW SCORE SHEET

TEST RESULTS FOR LARGE AND SMALL CLASSES

A (School)	English II—(Soph.) (Subject)	
	Large Class (44)	Small Class (10)
Average I. Q.		
Average Standardized Test	100	105
	13.5	14

A
(School)

English II—(Soph.)
(Subject)

(20) PAIRED PUPILS FROM ABOVE CLASS

Small Class			Large Class		
Pupil	I. Q.	Test	Pupil	I. Q.	Test
A	94	12	A	94	13
B	120	22	B	118	16.5
C	97	12	C	97	15
D	98	10.5	D	97	10.5
E	113	23	E	111	17.5
F	114	20.5	F	115	19
G	101	13	G	101	16
H	106	13.5	H	105	20
I	99	8	I	100	13
J	104	9	J	104	19
Average	104.6	14.3		104.2	15.8

PUPIL BACKGROUND STUDY

A
(School)

Subject: American History Number in Class: 14
 Length of Period: 45 min. Days per week: 5
 Time of Day: 9:15—10:00 Case: B Paired with: B1
 Test dates: Test Scores: (75) (60) (79)
 January 23, 1931 Scholastic work in school
 February 2, 1931 fair
 March 10, 1931
 Age: 16 I. Q. 100

Previous high school (grades 9-12) training in subject Civics,
Ancient, Medieval and European.

Average grade earned in this subject: 73

Reason for taking this subject: required.

Other subjects carried: Commercial Law, Shorthand, Type-
writing, English, Business English.

Extra curricular activities carried: none

Amount of study in school on this subject: activity period—
20 min.

Condition for study at home: History at home—20 min. room
with radio and family

Work after school: none Other Information: Father a
professional man

Teacher Comments in Study: Technique used with paired
cases (group conference, group testing). Other condi-
tions which make the study of these paired cases valid or
not valid. (Required subject only reason for this person
taking this course. No interest shown.

In the following tables showing results all averages have been obtained after pairing of pupils has occurred.

TABLE I
RESULTS SHOWN BY CLASSES

CLASS	Size of Class	Average I. Q.	Average Test Score
Algebra II (Soph.)	Small (14)	102.7	80
	Large (32)	103.5	80
Algebra II (Junior)	Small (16)	112	81.8
	Large (32)	112	81.8
Civics (Freshmen)	Small (21)	92.3	77
	Large (39)	92.2	75.8
English II (Sophomore)	Small (20)	108.5	119
	Large (36)	107.8	141.5
English II (Sophomore)	Small (10)	104.6	14.3
	Large (44)	104.2	15.8
English IV (Senior)	Small (15)	104	53
	Large (35)	103.9	56
Geometry, Solid, (Senior)	Small (8)	110	81
	Large (17)	110	79
History, World, (Sophomore)	Small (9)	102	29.4
	Large (48)	104	29.3
History, Modern, (Sophomore)	Small (12)	101	82
	Large (27)	101.2	82
History, Modern, (Sophomore)	Small (13)	98	81
	Large (31)	96	81
History, American, (Junior)	Small (15)	101.8	127.4
	Large (30)	101.6	129
History, American, (Junior)	Small (15)	104.2	61.5
	Large (30)	104.3	60.5
History, American, (Junior)	Small (14)	107.3	80.7
	Large (29)	107.7	73.6
Latin II (Sophomore)	Small (14)	124.6	44
	Large (28)	123.6	37
Physics (Senior)	Small (11)	105	73
	Large (27)	104	72
Physics (Senior)	Small (12)	105	81.6
	Large (32)	104	80.5
Typewriting I (Junior)	Small (6)	113	37
	Large (27)	112	39
Typewriting I (Junior)	Small (6)	103	96.2
	Large (19)	103	93.6

TABLE II
CLASSES GROUPED ACCORDING TO SUBJECTS

SUBJECT	Size of Class	Average I. Q.	Average Test Score
English	Small (15)	105.7	62.4
	Large (38)	105.3	71.1
Latin	Small (14)	124.6	44
	Large (28)	123.6	37
Mathematics	Small (13)	108.2	80.9
	Large (27)	108.5	80.2
History	Small (11)	102.4	77
	Large (32)	102.5	75.9
Science	Small (11)	105	77.3
	Large (29)	104	76.2
Typewriting	Small (6)	108	66.6
	Large (23)	107.5	66.3

TABLE III
ALL CLASSES GROUPED TOGETHER

CLASSES	Average Size of Class	Average I. Q.	Average Score
All	Small (13)	105.5	72.2
	Large (31)	105.3	72.5

From the background studies a number of interesting facts came to light. These are not advanced as truths but are merely noted in passing.

The I. Q. can not always be trusted as a guide to results. One pupil with an I. Q. of 130 is doing a low grade of work and at the same time is in a small class. Another pupil with the next to the lowest I. Q. is doing excellent work. He is in the large class.

In twelve of eighteen paired cases studied in a sophomore history class, grades obtained correspond with averages received for history in junior high school.

Election of a subject would seem to be no definite indication of results. Of eighteen pupils in one class, seven elect-

ed the subject and the remainder were required to take it. Of the seven, only two are doing good work. Of the eleven others, three are doing excellent work.

Pupils with no previous experience in a similar subject do as well as experienced pupils.

Pupils carrying extra-curricular activities do as well and better than those not so engaged.

Equal results were obtained in classes meeting the first and last periods of the day.

CONCLUSION

The study has been in operation a year and a half and will be continued until it becomes a three year study.

The results at present seem to indicate that pupils in large classes achieve as well as those in a small class. Larger classes will materially reduce the cost of instruction.

Mr. William F. Ewing, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Oakland, California, read his paper, *The Adequacy of the Maximum salary for the Secondary School Teachers in A City School System.*

OAKLAND PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Office of the Assistant Superintendent

THE ADEQUACY OF THE MAXIMUM SALARY FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN A CITY SYSTEM

William F. Ewing
Assistant Superintendent of Schools
Oakland, California

The San Francisco Bay Region of the Committee on Investigations in Secondary Education was organized about four years ago. Since the beginning of the organization, members

have been meeting regularly three or four times a year. Several research studies have been undertaken and a few reports have been made. Early last Fall, members of the group, interested in salary studies, determined to study "The Adequacy of the Maximum Salary for Secondary School Teachers in a City System."

Chiefly through the efforts of the Director of Research¹, and the cooperation of the Heller Committee for Research in Social Economics² (University of California), the Superintendent of Schools³, and the teaching corps in the Oakland Public Secondary Schools, we are able to give this report:

In order to obtain evidence concerning living arrangements and teachers' contributions to the support of dependents, "Cost of Living Inquiry Blanks—Teachers" were printed and distributed to every secondary-school teacher in the system. Since teachers were told in advance that the data on the cards would be treated as confidential, no signatures were required. On the same day, in each school, teachers without discussion filled out the blanks, and a member of the faculty collected the blanks, placed them in a sealed package and delivered the parcel to the office of the superintendent of schools. These blanks were subsequently segregated and tabulated by the Bureau of Research.

¹ Dr. R. E. Rutledge.

² Felix Flugel, Charles A. Gulick, Jr., Emily H. Huntington, Albert H. Mowbray, Carl C. Plehn, Jessica B. Peixotto, Chairman; Mory Goringe Luck, Statistician.

³ Mr. Willard E. Givens.

Sample of Cost of Living Inquiry Blanks—Teachers

OAKLAND PUBLIC SCHOOLS

COST OF LIVING INQUIRY BLANK—TEACHERS

Sex: Male _____ Female _____

Marital status: Single _____ Married _____ Widowed _____ Divorced _____ Separated _____

Salary for 1931 _____ Is your husband or wife gainfully employed? _____ Do you own an automobile? _____

How many months has (he) (she) been employed during the last 3 years? _____

Estimate, if possible, the cost for yourself alone during the past 12 months of: _____

dentist _____ hospital _____ or other medical care _____

Living Arrangements (select the one—A, B, C, D, or E—applicable to your present situation)

A. At home. _____

With: husband or wife _____

parents _____

other relatives _____

Do you (1) share expenses? _____

(2) pay fixed sum? _____

If so, amount per month _____

(3) receive free board and lodging? _____

If you or spouse own home: owned clear _____; mortgaged _____; monthly payments _____

Persons Wholly or Partially Dependent on Your Earnings (List)

Relation to yourself	Do they live with you?		Totally dependent on you (check)	Partially dependent on you		Applicable to others than wife and children						
	Yes	No		(check)	Amount or kind of contribution last year	Date of becoming dependent	Reason for becoming dependent (check)					
							Illness	Old age	Unemployment	Death of Breadwinner	Financial Losses	Other (Specify)
1												
2												
3												
4												
5												
6												

(Enter special comments, if any, on the back of this card)

In this study, the following items will be discussed—marital status, number of dependents, causes of dependency, living arrangements, home ownership, automobile ownership, and typical teachers.

Marital Status—Out of a total of 873 teachers employed in the Oakland Secondary Schools, 858 (98%) replied. On the basis of sex, 232 (27.1%) are men teachers. Of this group, 202 (23.6%) are married men. Only 30 (3.5%) of the 858 teachers are single men.

Of the 202 married men who filled out the inquiry blanks, 107 (approximately 53%) reported that wives during the last three years had not been gainfully employed outside the home. 26 (12.8%) reported that wives were employed at the time the report was made, but only 17 (8.4%) of these have had continuous employment for the last three years.

The typical man teacher in Oakland is a married man whose wife is not employed.

626 (72.9%) of the 858 teachers who replied are women. 134 (21.4%) of them are married. Of these, 62, or less than one-half of them, reported that their husbands had been continuously employed during the past three years. Quite a large number reported that their husbands were in poor health and were employed as insurance salesman, etc.

The typical Oakland secondary-school teacher is a single woman.

Number of Dependents and Causes of Dependency—The entire corps of teachers reporting have been divided into two groups, viz., one-income group, and two-income group. In the one-income group, there were 174 married men whose wives were not gainfully employed outside the home. These men were supporting either wholly or partially 518 dependents. The single men were supporting either wholly or partially 50 dependents.

38 married women whose husbands were not employed were supporting 92 dependents. 457 single women were sup-

porting 654 dependents. The 699 teachers reported in the single income group were supporting wholly or partially 1314 dependents.

172 married men reported that 393 total dependents living at home were solely dependent upon their incomes. 12 reported that they wholly supported 17 dependents elsewhere. 172 men reported 410 total dependents. 18 supported 21 partial dependents living with them. 56 reported 84 dependents living elsewhere.

In the two-income group, 25 men teachers whose wives were employed and 92 women teachers whose husbands were employed were supporting 236 dependents.

The most frequent causes of dependency were old age, unemployment, death of breadwinner, and financial reverses. Prior to 1929, on account of old age there were 102 partial dependents. Since 1929, 39 more persons have become partially dependent. On account of unemployment, there were 35 before 1929 and 116 since 1929. On account of financial losses, only 19 were reported prior to 1929, 26 dependents have been added since that date.

The total dependents included 174 wives, 295 children, and 46 other persons.

The annual amount spent for dependents varied from \$25.00 to \$1980.00.

Living Arrangements—All of the married men except one reported that they lived at home. Of the 30 single men, 13 were living with parents, 2 lived with other relatives, 2 at boarding houses, 6 resided at apartments, 3 had rented rooms, and 4 gave no data.

Of the married women who were the only wage earners in the home (one-income group) 36 lived with their husbands, and in the two-income group (husband and wife both wage earners) 92 lived with their husbands, and 2 gave no data. Of the single women, 21 owned their own homes and were living alone, 137 were living at home with their parents, who were

in most cases wholly or partially dependent upon the salaries of their daughters, 51 were living with other relatives, 2 with friends, 39 in boarding houses, 109 were living alone in apartment houses or flats, 81 shared apartments, 37 were living in rented rooms, and 15 gave no data.

The cost of board and lodging for unmarried teachers varied according to types of living arrangements. In one group the monthly expenditures for room and board varied from \$40.00 to \$70.00. In another group, consisting mostly of those living in hotels, apartments, or flats, the cost of board and lodging was about \$100.00 a month.

Home Ownership—Of the 202 married men, 107 are paying on home mortgages, the median payment being approximately \$50.00 per month. 26 own their homes unencumbered, and 66 rent living quarters. Of the single men, most of whom are living with parents, only 4 are buying homes.

Of the 134 married women, 62 are making payments on home mortgages—the great majority of the group paying from \$40.00 to \$80.00 a month. 11 own their homes without encumbrance. 60 of the married women reported that they did not own their homes. Of the single women, 75 are paying for their homes, 61 own their homes without encumbrance, 356 do not own their homes.

Automobile Ownership—184 of the 202 married men own their automobiles clear, 5 are making payments on cars. Of the single men, 20 own cars clear, 103 of the 134 married women own their cars clear, 4 are making payments. 262 single women own their automobiles clear. Only 1 is making payments. 206 do not own automobiles and 23 did not answer the question.

For the single women in the Oakland Public Secondary Schools, the median showed the equivalent of one dependent. For the married man with one income, the median was three total dependents. Therefore we may say that the typical Oakland secondary teachers are two:

1. The single woman teacher with one dependent at home, probably a mother.

2. The married man with a wife and two children probably a girl in senior high school and the other a boy in junior high school.

Cooperating in this study, the Heller Committee for Research in Social Economics has recently completed a "Quantity and Cost Estimate Showing the Standard of Living That Can Be Maintained On a Salary of \$2820 a Year By

1. A Married Male Teacher's Family of Four
2. A Single Woman Teacher With One Dependent at Home."

The Heller Committee study shows in detail the quantity and cost estimates of the two typical Oakland secondary-school teachers. Quoting from the preface, "This quantity and cost estimate attempts to present a picture of the amount and kind of commodities which may be purchased for the present maximum salary in Oakland secondary schools, \$2820 a year. It does not pretend to fix an 'ideal standard,' but rather to reflect the habitual spending ways of the group. It is a quantity and cost estimate, not a record of the actual expenditures of Oakland teachers. That is to say, it is an attempt to evaluate the goods that will probably be purchased in order to maintain the consumption standards common in this professional group.

"Several previous studies have been used as a basis for determining the standard of living which prevails among teachers and the amount and kinds of commodities implied by such a standard. In 1926 Royal Meeker published a study of costs and standards of living of Minneapolis teachers. In 1930 Mrs. Beatrice B. Smyth made a study of the cost of living of single business and professional women in the San Francisco Bay district. This study is as yet unpublished. The Heller Committee on Research in Social Economics publishes annual quantity and cost estimates for three income levels. Certain specific data concerning the average number and kind of dependents, ownership of a home and of an automobile, and other items, were gathered by a questionnaire circulated by

the Research Department of the Oakland Public Schools among the secondary school teachers receiving this salary.

"Two complete quantity and cost estimates have been compiled, one for a single woman with a dependent mother, and one for a man, his wife and two children in their 'teens. The results of the Oakland questionnaire showed that the average woman had one total dependent living at home, or the equivalent in partial dependents away from home, and that the average man was supporting the equivalent of three total dependents upon his salary, since in the majority of cases his wife was not gainfully employed.

"It is obvious that the average unmarried woman teacher, with only one dependent, can maintain a different standard of living on this salary than can a man with a family. The woman may be described as living at a comfort-and-savings standard. The man with a family cannot hope to provide more than a minimum of health and comfort, and that only by exercising the utmost care in purchasing and in planning expenditures, and by the practice of numberless petty economies. Both the man and the woman teacher must meet certain habitual standards of their social group as regards automobile ownership, home ownership for the family, and study for professional advancement. Investigation among Oakland teachers showed that the majority include these items in their budgets. The average single woman can afford to set aside an automobile depreciation fund each year, dress well, spend \$115 for a vacation, make a comfortable allowance for amusements and pocket-money, and still have a surplus to provide an annuity for her old age and a small savings account for illness, emergencies, or travel. The average man's family must economize severely on clothing, can buy a new car only by practicing economy in every other department of expenditure, must count visits to the theatre a rare treat, and cannot make any provision for old age, severe illness, emergencies, or travel, nor pay for assistance in the heavy housework and laundry."

The summaries of the Heller study are significant and follow here:

I. SUMMARY

Quantity and Cost Estimate for a Male Teacher's Family

ITEMS—	Annual Cost	Percent of total salary
Expenditures		
Food	\$ 645.30	22.9
Clothing	395.34	14.0
Man	\$ 95.32	3.4
Wife	111.36	3.9
Girl, 17	124.40	4.4
Boy, 13	64.26	2.3
Housing	780.20	27.6
House operation	149.79	5.3
Furniture and furnishings	80.81	2.9
Care of the person	58.28	2.1
Leisure time	142.90	5.1
Automobile	273.45	9.7
Carfare	20.00	0.7
Health	104.75	3.7
Associations	20.00	0.7
Education	64.50	2.3
Charity	15.00	0.5
Incidentals	5.00	0.2
Total expenditures	\$2755.32	0.2
Balance available for investments to provide for old age or death of the breadwinner	64.68	2.3
Total salary	\$2820.00	100.0

I. SUMMARY

Quantity and Cost Estimate for a Single Woman Teacher

ITEMS—	Annual Cost	Percent of total salary
Expenditures		
Food	\$ 477.20	16.9
Clothing	476.14	16.9
Woman teacher	\$ 363.59	12.9
Dependent mother	112.55	4.0
Housing	540.00	19.1
House operation	129.30	4.6
Furniture and furnishings	66.60	2.4
Care of the person	41.70	1.5
Leisure time	190.00	6.7
Automobile	393.55	13.9
Carfare	26.84	1.0
Health	104.75	3.7
Associations	17.00	.6
Education	50.00	1.8
Charity	20.00	0.7
Incidentals	30.00	1.1
Total expenditures	\$2563.08	
Balance available for investments to provide for old age or death of the breadwinner	256.92	9.1
Total salary	\$2820.00	100.0

GROUP II

In the Theatre of Wardman Park Hotel, Mr. Charles F. Allen, supervisor of Secondary Education, Little Rock, Arkansas, presided.

Dr. Roy O. Billett, special in school administration of the National Survey of Secondary School Education, presented his paper, *What the High Schools are Doing for the Individual*.

**"WHAT THE HIGH SCHOOLS ARE DOING FOR
THE INDIVIDUAL"**

Second Progress Report, National Survey
of Secondary Education

DR. ROY O. BILLETT
Specialist in School Administration United States
Office of Education.

1. AN OVER-VIEW

Purpose of the preliminary inquiry. A preliminary inquiry concerning provisions for individual differences was addressed to all public secondary schools on the mailing lists of the United States Office of Education, about 22,000 schools in all. By means of this inquiry material was secured to give an over-view of provisions for individual differences, and schools were located to be studied intensively through long, follow-up inquiries, visits and interviews.

Thorough provision for individual differences the exception rather than the rule. At the time the tabulations were started about 11,000 replies had been received. Eight thousand five hundred ninety-four were selected for tabulation. Probably no argument is necessary to demonstrate that the status of provisions for individual differences in the schools whose replies

were tabulated is considerably better than the status for all secondary schools of the country. Even so the tabulated results show that each provision for individual differences is used by a comparatively small percentage of the schools reporting, and is used with estimated unusual success in an amazingly small number of schools. In other words, the facts and theories concerning individual differences, which have filled library shelves to overflowing during the quarter of a century now elapsed since Binet's early experiments indicated that mental ability could be measured, are still reposing on library shelves, or echoing through the lecture halls of schools of education, much more generally than they are incorporated in the practice of secondary schools. No fact has been established more thoroughly by this study than the fact that comparatively few schools are making thorough provisions for individual differences.

Three core elements in a typically successful program to provide for individual differences. On the preliminary inquiry form twenty-eight items, derived from an analysis of educational literature were listed as provisions for individual differences. Subsequent study has shown that twenty of these items may be reduced to three categories, namely homogeneous grouping, special classes, and the unit assignment. These three constitute the core elements of a typically successful program to provide for individual differences.

Tabulated responses to the preliminary inquiry show that only one in each three schools are making any use at all of homogeneous grouping. And of those using it only one in four estimates its application of the plan to be meeting with unusual success. In other words, from a total of 8,594 there were just 721 schools whose responsible heads were willing to express a considerable measure of confidence in the success of their use of homogeneous grouping. All of these 721 schools were maintaining some special classes and all were experimenting with some form of the unit assignment. Moreover, in the opinion of the principals, unusual success was being obtained by nearly half of these schools with special classes for slow or failing students; by nearly a tenth,

with special classes for the very capable or gifted; and by nearly nine-tenths, with some form of the unit assignment.

Schools using homogeneous grouping.—The schools using homogeneous grouping are distributed through all the states of the Union. The data show a regular increase in its use with increase in the total enrollment. Of schools with enrollments of fifty or less, only one school in twelve is using homogeneous grouping, as compared with three schools in four with enrollments over one thousand.

Some practical aspects of homogeneous grouping. The practical schoolman who is successfully employing homogeneous grouping is pursuing no will-o-the-wisp. To him homogeneous grouping is not a process of organizing classes each of which contains individuals who are all alike even in any one respect. It is a procedure forced upon him by the necessities of a highly democratic system of secondary education. He perceives that somehow he must reduce the appalling ranges existing in the abilities, needs, and objectives of the students who are streaming into the classrooms of the secondary schools. He refines his methods of classification. He reduces the hopeless heterogeneity which would obtain if class sections were formed by chance. He frequently finds that heterogeneity is sufficiently reduced, especially in students' needs and objectives, by means of differentiated courses and curricula.

Special classes. In many schools homogeneous grouping and special classes seem to be phases of a common procedure. However, the term special is usually applied to classes for students who deviate extremely from the normal. They may deviate in capacities or in needs or in both. On the one hand they are the very slow or the very capable, on the other hand they are students of any capacity who for the time being need special help in overcoming handicaps due perhaps to illness, absence, lack of industry, or deficiencies in the prerequisites of certain courses. Assignment to special classes tends to be permanent if the extreme deviation involves native ability, and temporary in other cases. Special classes, as the

term is used in this report, refer to those provisions for individual differences mentioned in the educational literature as: special classes for slow pupils; special classes for failures; opportunity rooms for slow pupils; adjustment classes; remedial classes; restoration classes; special classes to accelerate capable pupils; and opportunity classes for gifted pupils. The first six are provisions primarily for slow pupils, the last two are primarily for the very capable or bright. The total frequency with which classes for the very capable or gifted are reported is 865 as compared with a total frequency of 8,513 for special classes primarily for the less capable or slow-learning. Corresponding frequencies of estimated unusual success are 183 and 1,472. These facts show that special classes are provided about nine times as often for slow pupils as for the very bright.

Plans characterized by the unit assignment. Of all plans to provide for individual differences the unit assignment is most widely distributed and most widely used. It is a prominent characteristic of at least eleven plans, methods, or techniques which have been allotted expanded space in educational publications and which considered collectively are being widely practiced. These methods of procedure in the order of their frequency of occurrence in the secondary schools are: the problem method, differentiated assignments, the laboratory plan, long-unit assignments, the contrast plan, the project method, individual instruction, the Morrison plan, the modified Dalton plan, the Dalton plan, and the Winnetka technique. These eleven may be reduced to ten since investigation has shown that differentiated assignments do not constitute an independent plan but rather a technique which frequently accompanies each of the other ten plans.

Of these ten the contract plan is reported most frequently in use with estimated unusual success, although several of the others are reported more frequently in use. Yet estimated unusual success with the contract plan is reported by only 465 schools. At the other extreme is the Dalton plan which is reported in use with unusual success by only fifteen schools. The combined frequencies of estimated unusual success for the

Morrison plan, the Winnetka technique, the Dalton plan, and the Modified Dalton plan are only 256 or six per cent of the total frequency for all procedures characterized prominently, by the unit assignment.

2. MORE DETAILED STUDY OF EIGHT OTHER PROVISIONS

Eight other provisions for individual differences The statement was made at the outset of this report that twenty-eight provisions for individual differences were listed on the preliminary inquiry form with which the present study was initiated. Twenty of these items have been classified under three categories, namely, homogeneous grouping, special classes, and the unit assignment. The other eight items are: advisory programs for pupil guidance; educational guidance through exploratory courses; vocational guidance through exploratory courses; credit for projects or studies carried outside of school hours; variation in number of subjects a pupil may carry; promotions more frequently than each semester; the scientific study of problem cases; and psychological studies. The first three of these may be eliminated at once from further mention in this report since they fall in the field of guidance—another project of the National Survey. Each of the others will be discussed briefly.

Credit for projects or studies carried outside of school hours was reported in use by 3,451 schools, or about forty per cent of those schools whose responses were tabulated. About twelve per cent of those schools using the plan estimated unusual success with it. A follow-up inquiry addressed to 120 of these schools revealed that no unusual or even extensive work is being done with out-of-school projects or studies. A number of the schools reported the usual Smith-Hughes projects. Omitting the Smith-Hughes work from consideration, by far the most frequent out-of-school project or study is some phase of instrumental music. Arranged from the highest to the lowest in the order of the number of pupils enrolled, other fields in which out-of-school projects or studies are carried on are: physical training; vocal music; cooking; sewing; animal hus-

bandry; bible study; field crops; various phases of industrial arts; privately tutored subjects to make up failures; draftsmanship; correspondence study; and garden crops. A composite of all schools reporting shows that students who are enrolled in these various types of out-of-school projects or studies are only a fraction of one per cent of the total enrollment.

Variation in number of subjects a pupil may carry was reported in use by 5,928, or seventy-five per cent of all schools whose replies were tabulated. Twelve per cent of those schools using the plan estimated unusual success with it. A follow-up inquiry to 400 schools estimating unusual success with the plan was responded to by 141 schools. These returns indicate that some schools are making considerable variation in pupil load. The composite for all schools reporting, when expressed in terms of North Central units, shows that fifty per cent of the full-time pupils in these schools are carrying four units of work; fifteen per cent are carrying more than four and less than five and one-half units; seven per cent are carrying less than four and more than two and one-half units. These figures show that of each 100 pupils, twenty-two are being accelerated and twenty-seven are being retarded if four units per year is regarded as the normal load. If four to four and one-half units be regarded as a normal load then only eighteen in each 100 are being accelerated.

Twenty-one different sources of data are consulted in these schools in determining the load to be assigned each pupil. Those sources occupying the first six ranks are: average scholarship marks in all subjects combined; health, in case of seniors, number of units needed for graduation; age; industry, application, or effort; and extent to which the pupil has duties outside of school hours making demands upon his time and energy.

A major obstacle to any extensive use of the plan seems to be the standards established for pupil loads by State departments and other accrediting agencies.

Promotions more frequently than each semester were reported by only 686 schools or about eight per cent of those

whose replies were tabulated. Fifteen per cent of those schools using the plan estimated unusual success with it. A follow-up inquiry to 100 schools estimating unusual success with the plan was responded to by forty-three schools. Only twenty-one of these returns actually represented plans for promotion more frequently than each semester. Five of the twenty-one schools promote their pupils each twelve weeks; one each nine weeks; and fifteen promote the pupils continuously. Plans for continuous promotion are component parts of some plan of instruction characterized by the unit assignment.

The scientific study of problem cases was reported in use by 1,343 schools, or sixteen per cent of all schools whose replies were tabulated. Eleven per cent of those using the plan estimated unusual success with it. A follow-up inquiry form was addressed to each school estimating unusual success with the plan. Only twenty-nine schools returned the forms. Eleven of these were eliminated as too unsystematic to be classed as methods of scientific study. Much interesting information has been supplied by the remaining eighteen schools, partly through inquiry forms and supplementary materials, and partly through interviews arranged with the staff member of the National Survey. Seven of the eighteen schools had enrollments under 750 and eleven had enrollments over seven hundred fifty.

Only one observation will be made here concerning the rather considerable amount of data available from these schools, namely, that sixty-seven per cent of all recommendations for the study of pupils as problem cases originate simply because the pupil is retarded due to low general ability, low ability in specific fields, lack of interest, or physical handicap.

Psychological studies were reported by 1,077 schools whose replies were tabulated. Only seventy, or six per cent of the schools reporting this item estimated unusual success with it. Because of the wide variety of things which might be done under the name of psychological studies the principal of each school was asked to write a letter descriptive of what was being done under this term. Twenty-four interesting reports were

received. The studies described as psychological studies are usually individual or group testing projects, the data of which are used in connection with such provisions for individual differences as the study of problem cases, homogeneous grouping, the differentiation of unit-assignments, or assignment to special classes.

3. METHOD OF THE INVESTIGATION SUMMARIZED

Three phases of the study. The preceding rather fragmentary remarks perhaps have suggested the method of study which has been employed. First, an over-view of practices throughout the entire country has been obtained by means of a brief preliminary form; second, comparatively small groups of schools having some confidence in the success of their provisions for individual differences have been studied by means of long follow-up inquiry forms. The best replies on a given follow-up form have furnished a basis for a study of the corresponding provision in a highly selected group of schools. Finally, a sampling of schools from each highly selected group has been visited and practices have been studied at first hand through observation and interview.

While no references can be made in this brief report to the detailed findings resulting from visits to a large number of secondary schools in all parts of the country, nevertheless such facts as are here reported are quite in harmony with all facts acquired through such visits.

4. TWENTY-EGHT PROVISIONS CLASSIFIED

Practical provisions for individual differences classed under seven heads. Perhaps the preceding pages have suggested also that the entire group of twenty-eight provisions for individual differences which have been discussed may very well be reduced to seven, namely, homogeneous grouping; plans characterized by the unit assignment; special classes; scientific study of problem cases; variation in pupil load; out-of-school projects; and advisory or guidance programs.

Of these seven the first three, homogeneous grouping, special classes, and the unit assignment, form a kind of trinity, a sort of three-in-one answer, of the nation's outstanding schools to the problem of providing for individual differences. There is no evidence that intrinsically these plans are alternative rather than complementary procedures. Each has its own peculiar function to perform. Facts concerning these three procedures, derived from studies of highly selected groups of schools, will be presented in the remainder of this report.

5. HOMOGENEOUS GROUPING IN HIGHLY SELECTED SCHOOLS

Number of schools included. For a study of outstanding practices in homogeneous grouping 289 schools were selected on the basis of replies to a long inquiry form supplemented by visits to a sampling of the schools. Unquestionably the thoroughness with which this group of schools is practicing homogeneous grouping is unmatched by any other equal number of schools anywhere. Therefore the following facts are challenging.

Extent of grouping in various subjects and subject-matter fields. Only 46 per cent of the total offerings of these 289 schools are being presented to students segregated into homogeneous groups. The comparable per cent for academic offerings is 59; for commercial offerings, 39; for other non-academic offerings, 31. Among the individual subject-matter fields English ranks first, mathematics second, and social studies third.

When 41 individual subjects are considered it is discovered that the first fifteen ranks are taken by academic subjects. The four subjects ranking highest are general mathematics, English composition and grammar, general science, and English literature. In general, if a subject ranks high in the extent to which it is presented to homogeneous groups, one or more of the following statements are true. The subject is required in all or in many curricula; the subject is offered only or largely in the lower grades of the secondary school; the sub-

ject is offered to pupils who are highly heterogeneous in abilities or needs or objectives.

Grade placement of subject-matter. The effect of grade placement is marked. From the lower to the higher grades of the secondary school the per cent of offerings presented to students in homogeneous groups decreases in a regular manner. For Grades 7, 9 and 12 the ratio of decreases is as 3:2:1. Do these facts indicate that the upper grades are being neglected?

Effect of grade-placement of subject-matter compared with other lines of evidence. The writer believes that facts like these should provoke reflective thinking which would remain unstimulated in the absence of the data. To illustrate, the preceding facts suggest three other lines of evidence.

In the first place, because of selective factors at work in the secondary schools, the average intelligence quotient, of the pupils remaining in school, increases regularly from the lower to the higher grades. For instance, in the typical ninth grade less than one-third of the pupils have intelligence quotients below ninety-five. In the typical tenth grade few pupils with intelligence quotients below 100 remain. Pupils with intelligence quotients below 100 rarely finish the twelfth grade.

In the second place, the data of several controlled experiments in homogeneous grouping tend very much to suggest that the advantages of homogeneous grouping decreases as the intelligence quotient increases,—that grouping is of no measurable advantage when the pupils involved possess intelligence quotients of 95 or above.

In the third place, the most generally accepted theory of the nature of intelligence, that set forth by Binet, recognizes three elements in intelligence, namely, the power of sustained drive toward a chosen goal, the power to make adaptations necessary to attain the desired goal, and the power of self-criticism.

From this concept of the nature of intelligence it seems reasonable to conclude that any adaptation of the educative environment will affect most those pupils who are least able to make adaptations for themselves. That homogeneous group-

ing is an adaptation of the educative environment is no violent assumption. Hence, theoretical considerations suggest that homogeneous grouping will be most effective with pupils of low intelligence.

Moreover the theory tallies with the measurable results of controlled experiments. If it be tentatively accepted that pupils of intelligence quotients 95 or below are the ones who profit by homogeneous grouping, and if few such pupils are to be found above the tenth grade, then the hitherto unavailable facts given above from the Survey data concerning the amount of grouping actually practiced in Grades 10, 11 and 12 are open to a favorable interpretation. These grades are not being neglected. Instead of too little grouping there is possibly more grouping than a full consideration of all the lines of evidence would justify. It is quite possible that in many schools such efforts as are made at homogeneous grouping in academic subject-matter fields may be concentrated on Grades 7, 8, and 9. Beyond Grade 9 in many schools, the increase in average intelligence of the pupils and the increasing number of differentiated courses and curricula probably make further refinement of classification unnecessary.

The bases of grouping. Perhaps no aspect of the grouping problem is so important as the basis of grouping, or the criterion which determines the pupil's place in the refined order of classification. All told, 16 different bases of grouping are being used either alone or in various combinations by the 289 schools being studied intensively. Since 66,529 combinations of 16 items are possible the opportunity for the exercise of choice is not limited. No two schools are proceeding along identical lines. Unfortunately inadequate continuous records are being kept of this vast amount of practical experimentation.

The basis of grouping most frequently used is the intelligence quotient from the group mental test. When used in combination with other bases it typically receives the heaviest weight. Average scholarship marks in all subjects combined

rank second and ratings of industry, application, or effort rank third.

Changeable and unchangeable qualities as bases of grouping. The first of these three bases, namely intelligence quotient, is a measure of a relatively unchangeable quality. The second and third, namely average marks and ratings of industry, are measures of relatively changeable qualities. A logical argument may be advanced, with the support of considerable experimental data, that grouping on the basis of relatively changeable traits either tends to perpetuate the status quo with respect to these traits, which is undesirable because one of the objectives of education should be to make desirable changes in them, or it results in a homogeneity so relatively fleeting as to be unworthy the effort required to secure it.

Efforts at homogeneous grouping are concentrated on the academic fields. That the intelligence quotient is highly predictive of native ability to succeed with the academic subjects is generally conceded. At present the bases of grouping which are being used most extensively are unquestionably better adapted to prognosing abilities in academic rather than non-academic fields. In fact all efforts are being concentrated on the academic fields with the result that the practice of homogeneous grouping in the non-academic fields, with a few interesting exceptions, is desultory if not accidental. The problems which have forced attention to grouping in the academic subjects apparently have never become so urgent in the non-academic fields. This seems to be true mainly because the non-academic subjects usually are elective and generally are presented on an individualized basis.

An example of successful homogeneous grouping is a non-academic subject. That homogeneous grouping may be practiced in the non-academic fields with highly desirable results may be illustrated by a brief description of the work being done in the boys' physical education classes of Montclair Senior High School, Montclair, New Jersey. Grouping in these classes takes place within the class section and is based upon the number of points made by the boy on a physical capacity test de-

vised by the instructor, Mr. Clarence Woodman. A composite of the following seven events forms the basis of grouping: each event receives a percentage weight in the total score, as indicated: dash, 170 yards on indoor track, thirty per cent; football throw, five throws at 4' / 6' target from a distance of forty feet, three per cent; shot put, eight-pound shot, ten per cent; standing broad jump, four per cent; running high jump, twenty-five per cent; pull-up, twenty-five per cent; and basketball throw, five throws from the foul line, three per cent.

An objective method has been devised whereby the students actual performances in the several events may be translated into the total score which forms the basis of grouping.

A class of forty-two students is divided into six squads of seven students each. In games, Squads 1 and 2, Squads 3 and 4, and Squads 5 and 6, play together thus insuring competition between those of nearly equal ability. When skills are being taught one or two squads are taken at a time.

Boys in Squads 4, 5 and 6 are marked on the basis of improvement which they make after the first test. A class chart is maintained on the wall so that boys may check upon their own improvement. The test is repeated every marking period and takes three periods of forty-three minutes, each, to give. The squad leaders record the students' actual performances on the test on a 5"/8" card which carries across the top the names of events and at the left the names of the squad members. When all events are completed the squad leader computes the total score and records it on the class chart.

6. SPECIAL CLASSES IN HIGHLY SELECTED SCHOOLS

Grades and subject-matter fields. Brief reference will now be made to the intensive study of a small group of schools selected for unusually successful practices in connection with special classes. One hundred seventy-eight schools are included in this group. *One hundred forty-nine* conduct classes for slow or failing pupils and *twenty-nine* conduct classes for the very capable or bright. The subject-matter fields in which help is

most frequently given are English and mathematics. In practice special classes, as well as both homogeneous grouping and the unit assignment, are principally dedicated to the academic subjects. There is a tendency to make the facilities of these special classes more often available to the lower grades of the secondary school than to the upper grades, 90 per cent of Grades 7, 8, and 9 being served by special classes as compared with 72 per cent of Grades 10, 11, and 12.

Content and methods. The regular course of study is the basis of the work done in these classes. For students who are permanently handicapped by inferior native ability the various courses are greatly simplified. In most instances this modification is purely empirical. For students whose difficulties are of a temporary nature the chief modification is in teaching procedure. In both cases the short unit assignment figures prominently. Where classes for the very capable or bright are provided the emphasis is always upon tangential problems arising from the regular course of study permitting creative expression or the wide exploration of fields of intrinsic interest. Closely allied to these classes for the gifted and apparently just as effective without involving formal, elaborate, and expensive segregation are the honors courses which are being conducted in the University of Wisconsin High School and in the South Philadelphia High School for Girls. In these schools a small but significant percentage of the pupils, under wise direction, but with great freedom, pursue by methods of independent investigation, work of a creative nature.

Except where behavior problems are involved students in special classes are rarely segregated for all their school work.

Individual schools. In Clifton Park Junior High School of Baltimore one period a week for each academic subject-matter field is set aside at the end of the school day. All teachers co-operate in coaching pupils who are in danger of failing.

In South Philadelphia High School for Girls an extension class is maintained especially for those girls who in the judgment of their teachers and of the school's clinical psychologist could not possibly complete a regular high school course. The

adjustment classes of Collinwood High School in Cleveland, Ohio, render a similar service to both boys and girls. In South Philadelphia and Collinwood these special classes constitute a regular department of the school and exceptionally well modified courses in academic and non-academic fields are offered.

In Arsenal Technical High School in Indianapolis the special classes are organized into a reclassification department. In this department English and certain other subjects are presented on a lesson-sheet or individualized instruction basis. The department aids the slow, the truant, the late entries, and those who have been ill. The primary object of this department is to supply such special coaching as may be needed to enable the pupils to return to their normal schedule. The enrollment during the first marking period consists of pupils who failed during the preceding semester. To compensate for the extra teacher-time given to this work regular classes are made larger.

Reference to the work of other outstanding schools in providing special classes must be foregone in this paper in order that further attention may be given to the unit assignment and its relationship to the curriculum.

7. THE UNIT ASSIGNMENT IN HIGHLY SELECTED SCHOOLS

A comparative study of plans characterized by the unit assignment. Four hundred sixty schools, representing forty-four States, have been selected for intensive study in connection with the use of unit assignment. This number includes thirty-three schools which style their practices the Dalton plan, though only one of these estimates unusual success with the plan; eleven which prefer the term Winnetka technique, though only one of these estimates unusual success with the plan, and fifty-four which designate their practices the Morrison plan.

A careful study is being made of just what these schools are doing under these various terminologies. This study involves a point-for-point comparison, of what the schools are

actually doing, with the fundamental features of the respective plans as set forth by the originators of the plan. So far the survey staff has found no secondary schools excepting of course the two parent schools in Winnetka and New York, where either the Winnetka technique or the Dalton plan is being sufficiently closely approximated to justify the use of either term in describing the work being done.

Each of the other plans characterized by the unit assignment spring from such diverse sources that comparisons, similar to those just mentioned for the Dalton, Winnetka, and Morrison plans, are impossible. Therefore, a systematic inter-comparison has been made of the practices of schools classified according to their preferences for certain of the following terms: long-unit assignments; individualized instruction; contract plan; laboratory plan; problem method; project method; and any combination of two or more of these terms. The inquiry forms for these various plans and procedures were so constructed that regardless of terminology preferred by the schools the respondents were given opportunity to react to a large number of identical items. Reference will be made here to the comparative situation for seventy of these items dealing with important matters such as planning the unit assignments; securing correlation; classroom procedures used; methods of testing results; significant changes in the organization of the school; changes in the length of the school day, or of class periods; free budgeting of time; and amount of home study required.

Only a casual study of the data pertaining to these seventy items is needed to show that practices in these schools are essentially the same regardless of the name under which the work is proceeding. However, in support of the rather sweeping statement that the plans mentioned above in practice are essentially the same, the standard error of the difference of each pair of compared percentages was calculated and from this error the critical ratio was derived. Since there are seventy items and twenty-one possible paired comparisons on each item, a total of 1,470 critical ratios were computed. Of these 1,470 ratios just forty-three, or less than three per cent, were

statistically real in the sense that they equalled or exceeded three. Twenty-seven more were between 2.5 and 2.9. If these are included there are still less than five per cent of the differences which are statistically real. Even in the small number of cases where the differences are statistically real the significance of the difference from a practical, common-sense standpoint is not apparent. Practices typical of one plan are typical of all. Practices tabooed in one plan are tabooed in all.

These plans characterized by the unit assignment have filled volumes of educational literature. They have exerted a dominating influence upon the theory and practice of education. The resources of the National Survey have made possible, for the first time, a systematic, detailed, comparative study showing how these plans work out in practice. Probably both educators and educationists will be interested in a statement of the findings which will appear in the complete report indicating the elements which are common to all these plans as they are actually practiced in the secondary schools and comparing these common elements with the fundamental theories which have been set forth by the originators of certain of the plans.

Schools using the unit assignment. The unit assignment is a very recent development in the schools selected for intensive study. Fifty-four per cent of the schools report the plan to have been in use two years or less. Only three per cent have been using the plan ten years or more. Over half of the schools in this group have total enrollments under two hundred fifty. One-third have enrollments between 101 and two hundred fifty. Ten per cent have enrollments over one thousand.

Extent to which the unit assignment is used in each subject-matter field. These schools by no means have succeeded in organizing and presenting their courses in all subject-matter fields on the basis of the unit assignment. One principal feelingly states that before his school gets entirely over to any one plan he hopes his board of education will provide retirement benefits and his superintendent will see that he retires. Be that as it may, the facts for this group of schools are that

seventy-nine per cent of all courses in social studies are organized and presented on the basis of the unit assignment. Comparable per cents for other academic subject-matter fields are: Science, seventy-two; English, sixty-seven; mathematics, fifty-seven; foreign language, twenty-seven.

The per cent for all commercial courses combined is forty-one and for the other non-academic courses from twenty-four to twenty-eight.

Value of the unit assignment. If the unit assignment did no more than place the emphasis upon the activity of the pupil instead of the activity of the teacher it would justify its existence. There is evidence that pupils prefer the unit assignment to the traditional classroom work which is important if the pupil's emotional set toward his tasks be regarded as significant. The unit assignment is the basis of remedial work and of work with slow pupils. It affords interesting challenges to bright pupils. It is the key to differentiated content and teaching procedure whether classes are homogeneous or heterogeneous.

Differentiation of unit assignments. However, not all schools using the unit assignment provide differentiation of content for different needs, or objectives, or levels of ability. From one-half to three-fourths of the schools in each of the eleven groups classified under the unit assignment for intensive comparative study provide differentiation of content. Schools operating under the term "contract plan" are doing most differentiation. Those operating under the term "project method" are doing least.

Since the most thoroughly modified courses in schools practicing homogeneous grouping are worked out on the unit assignment plan it may be worth while to state that in these schools there are three times as many modified courses in Grades 7, 8, and 9 as in Grades 10, 11, and 12. In each grade more differentiation has been done in English than in any other subject-matter field. Mathematics ranks second, social studies third, and science fourth. Only scattering attempts have been made in these schools to differentiate courses in foreign lan-

guage, art, commercial subjects, industrial arts, and household arts.

Mechanical devices facilitating work with the unit assignment. The part played by certain mechanical devices in effective work with the unit assignment must not be minimized. Adequate equipment for duplicating guide-sheets seems an essential to best results with the unit assignment. Further mechanical requirements are effective devices for filing guide-sheets, tests, and the completed work of students. To make the guide-sheet less bulky and formidable some schools have cleverly devised a card-file carrying 4" x 6" or 5" x 8" cards on which the electives are outlined. The guide sheet still lists the electives and is the master sheet. However, the cards, which may be used over and over again, as any library index cards may be used, carry the details essential to proper direction of the work of the students on the electives.

Building good units not a spare-time activity. The task of building good units is a huge one. This is true even when the existing subject-matter is assumed to have been validated and its proper grade-placement determined. The English department of Thomas Jefferson Intermediate School in Detroit has been working intelligently and intensively for three years organizing the course of study for Grades 7, 8, and 9 on the unit plan. Each unit is being planned to occupy the normal student for about two weeks. In three years fourteen such units have been constructed, three or four of which, according to the principal, "actually work." Building good units even on the basis of the traditional subject-matter is no spare-time activity for teachers on a full-time teaching schedule.

An effective organization for building unit assignments. Among outstanding examples which have come to the attention of the Survey Staff where school systems, accepting the traditional subject-matter as a starting point, have developed admirable organizations for the effective building of unit assignments and for the constant cooperative testing and revision of these units are the schools of Albemarle County, Virginia, including the City of Charlottesville.

In the organization for this work one general supervisor, Mr. E. E. Windes, is employed jointly by the county and the University of Virginia. Special supervisors are employed by the university. Three high-school principals are jointly employed by the county and the university and serve as critic teachers.

The units are frankly found through the analysis of the established subject-matter. Suggestions for differentiation and teaching procedure are found through the analysis of psychological studies which have been made and are now being made of the differences in native capacities and aptitudes, and in the methods by which various types of students learn.

The procedure in developing units may be only briefly outlined. First, a conference of teachers in a certain field is held with the general supervisor and the supervisor of the specific subject-matter field. Each teacher chooses a unit to develop or to revise. The completed or revised unit is later submitted to the supervisor for study and criticism. The supervisor may submit the unit to other teachers and consensus of opinion may determine its tentative form. The unit is then mimeographed by the county office for all county schools. The teachers using the unit keep a log of their experiences and of the pupil's experiences with it. These records become a basis for the revision of the unit. A further check upon results obtained by the use of the unit is made by means of centrally prepared objective tests. These tests are given solely for purposes of analysis of the effectiveness of the unit and need not be considered by the teachers when awarding marks.

The importance of such a thoroughly organized venture should be recognized. It is lack of a similar effective organization in most schools of the country which renders a vast amount of energy now being expended in building unit assignments unlikely to be productive of any permanent improvement.

Those concerned with this cooperative venture in Albemarle County are convinced that the development of a good unit assignment runs the gamut of educational theory and

practice. General objectives of the unit must be stated. Specific objectives for each of three ability levels must be formulated in terms of abilities, attitudes, adaptations, and knowledges to be acquired. References and aids to study must be prepared, materials must be assembled and tests for mastery must be built.

A fundamental, unsolved problem. This paper should not be concluded without saying that back of this admirable undertaking now under way in Albemarle County and back of all attempts at building unit assignments there lies a fundamental unsolved problem, namely, the validation and grade-placement of the subject-matter of which these units should be composed. The best equipped research departments of our largest cities are only beginning to attack this problem in any adequate way.

In solving this problem the following related questions must be answered better than they have so far been answered anywhere:

1. What do the subject-matter specialists regard as the real contributions which study of their subject-matter may make to the growth of the individual? How may these contributions be classified under the headings of knowledges, skills, concepts, attitudes, or appreciations?
2. How are these knowledges, skills, concepts, attitudes, or appreciations, ranked by capable adults who are not subject-matter specialists, from the standpoint of: their importance; their range of use; the difficulty of acquiring them; the desirability of acquiring them in certain subject-matter fields rather than others or even entirely outside the school?
3. To what extent may principals of differentiation and adaptation of subject-matter be obtained from the analysis and interpretation: of psychological studies reported in educational literature; of studies of children's present needs and immediate interests to be

made through interviews with the children themselves and through observation of their present normal activities; and of studies of probable adult needs.

4. Do these studies suggest a certain organization and sequence of subject-matter which will be most consistent with the pupil's normal processes of growth?
5. What minimum essentials should be required of all students and to what extent is it necessary to retard the progress of the slower students in order that thorough mastery may be assured?
6. What should be the content and method: of honors courses in each grade for the very capable or gifted; of courses for the superior but not gifted; of courses for the normal student?
7. How can tests be developed the passing of which will constitute entirely adequate grounds for excusing pupils from certain phases of a course or even from certain courses?
8. How can the work of all subject-matter fields be correlated and integrated?
9. How can the products of learning be adequately and economically measured?

Public school people are prepared to cooperate. These questions call for the expenditures of a vast amount of labor and thought before acceptable answers can be framed. In many places great progress is being made and partial solutions are being reached. In every State, teachers, supervisors, and administrators, facing the necessities of practical situations, are organizing homogeneous groups, are forming special classes, are building unit assignments or are trying in other ways to adapt their schools to individual needs, abilities, or objectives. They are confronting immediate emergencies in a manner to excite the admiration of all who have been privileged recently to observe their work and in a manner to establish the conviction that there never was a time when public school people

in general were better prepared to cooperate intelligently in the exacting labors which are the price to be paid for more acceptable validation of subject-matter and teaching procedures.

8. CONCLUSION

Many findings omitted from this report. In conclusion, one need hardly remind you that two years have been spent on this study of provisions for individual differences. In a report limited to forty-five minutes much must be omitted or passed over superficially. Many findings, as important as any presented here, necessarily have been passed by. Some of the findings are of such a nature that they can be presented only with the aid of the printed page by the use of graphs and charts. The writer can only hope that a few of the high points of the study have been made clear.

Mr. John H. Tyson, Principal of the Senior High School of Upper Darby, Pennsylvania, opened the discussion.

There is an implication in the topic that American high schools are not giving sufficient attention to the individual, even after a quarter-century of time has elapsed since educators began to consider this problem seriously. The recognition of individual differences in needs, capacities, abilities, skills, aims, and objectives has been responsible, in large measure, for our so-called progress in the secondary field of education. It has so modified our philosophies in education that a great social phenomenon has taken place. The American high school has become a great democratic institution known as the "School of the People," supported quite liberally by public taxation, endowed with the finest buildings and surroundings that the community can boast, equipped in a way that shames many of our best colleges, and manned by a small army of well-trained and well-paid personnel. This new institution has done its work so well in the past generation that society insists that every boy and girl shall have full opportunity to enjoy all the benefits that it has to offer. Business, industry, and

the professions have moved rapidly toward a position in which they recognize the high-school diploma as a starting point for selection and further specialized training in particular fields. In other words the high-school diploma is as common to-day as it was uncommon at the beginning of the present century.

The recognition of individual differences has been back of this tremendous development. It was responsible for the introduction of new curricula with elective subjects; it modernized the content of instruction and related it to the problems and experiences of life; it brought enrichment into school life through the addition of so-called special subjects; it brought an extra-curriculum program that has virtually transformed the school into a nine-ring circus; it brought special schools and special classes for all kinds of people, grouping pupils homogeneously and adapting instruction to the needs and abilities of these special groups; it brought individualized methods of instruction designed to permit individuals within a homogeneous group to advance at different rates, to vary both in the quantity of material covered and the quality of work done; it is responsible for a rather complex and comprehensive guidance program with a liberal staff to administer the program; it brought into existence the junior high school with its exploratory activities that reach out and touch life at many points; it is responsible for interscholastic and intra-mural athletics, and for the grounds and equipment needed to conduct them; it has produced vocational schools, vocational courses, commercial departments, shops and trade training of many types. In short, the modern high school has become a veritable workshop throbbing with life and activity, offering boundless opportunities in many directions. In most cases life in the high school will represent a rather accurate cross-section of life in the community which it represents, with an added emphasis upon those elements that will transform the community into what its educational leaders would like it to be.

Now it ought not to be inferred that all of these developments have been brought about without many compensating disadvantages and difficulties. The presence in our secondary

schools of a great army of six or eight millions of heterogeneous personalities has called forth the full strength and resources of the teaching profession, and there are some critics who believe that we have not done our work well. The most serious criticisms directed against the high school are these:

- (1) The high school has almost ceased to be a selective institution because the holding power of the school has been increased many times. Quality of mind is therefore so badly intermingled with quantity that standards of achievement have been threatened—possibly lowered. At any rate there is a very strong feeling that much better work could be done if segregation of the good and the poor could be accomplished. (I understand quite well that these are relative terms and even though we had some kinds of segregation they would not remain satisfactory or go far enough for some of our teachers.)
- (2) In attempting to maintain these standards the major concern of our teachers and administrators has been with the lower, weaker group of pupils that were formerly eliminated in the early years of high school. The stronger pupils have to a large degree been neglected and have not been forced to attain standards commensurate with their ability. The result is that our school program has lacked aim and direction except insofar as it ministers to the weak and the failures. Democracy is thereby endangered because the high school fails to select and train its leaders.
- (3) The third criticism has been brought by the deluge of students entering college and higher schools to prepare for the professions and highly-specialized vocations. Too many people have been educated to seek "white-collar jobs", to aspire to positions for which they are unfitted by natural endowment. Although we have had guidance programs and vocational experts we have frequently erred because we thought that what was good for the few was also good for the many. Our guidance programs have been woefully weak because we know virtually

nothing about the subject. We can provide information concerning the various professions, vocations, college requirements, etc., but when it is necessary to advise a fifteen-year-old boy as to the career for which he is best fitted we are still almost helpless. A great deal of work should be done in this field in the next decade.

- (4) A fourth criticism might be raised to-day because of the mounting costs of education, the recurring demands for additional building facilities in almost every hamlet and town in America and the constantly growing needs of the schools in administering a progressive program. The American public has been very patient and generous. We have reached a point to-day where we must seriously attempt to reestablish their faith and prove that money invested in educational facilities is a wise investment.

I believe that high-school people are willing to accept these as honest criticisms and to admit that they are true in a varying degree. I do not believe, however, that conditions which justify these criticisms can not be greatly improved by good administration and better teaching. We must recognize the fact that these conditions developed rapidly and that the teaching profession has been somewhat slow to respond to the problem. We still have teachers and schools that require everyone to study Latin; we have parents who want their children to follow in their footsteps, irrespective of fitness and aptitudes; we still have colleges that insist on time-worn traditions—on requirements that have continually prevented the secondary schools from doing a better job; we have much poor teaching that is directed not at the individual, but at the group—a colorless way of meeting classes and holding recitations—an atmosphere that we thought had been relegated to the schools of the past century.

But on the other side of the picture we have much that we can point to with pride—much that has developed as a result of our desire to provide for the individual. I want to enumerate several of these:

- (1) We have established standards of achievement that challenge the abilities of pupils on different ability levels. Our critics say that we have lowered the bars to permit the weak to get through. They have not proved that the lowering of the bars has meant a lowered standard for *all*. As a matter of fact it is almost universally true that our classroom teachers in grading pupils are thinking, not about a minimum standard of performance, but upon the pupil's actual performance as related to what he should have done. Teachers with one standard of achievement are actually very few in number—even in subjects that can be measured somewhat objectively. There is abundant evidence to show that good schools and good teachers do challenge the abilities and skills of individuals in the classrooms. Examine the exhibits, the projects, the papers of any good high-school pupil to-day and you must marvel at the amazing accomplishments of this generation of students. The work of selected pupils in high school a generation ago cannot be compared with that of our superior group to-day. This has been accomplished by homogeneous grouping, by individualized instruction methods, by relatively small classes, and by enriched content.
- (2) We have so enriched the high-school program that the great mass of pupils enjoy school life to-day. This has been done by relating the problems of the classroom to the experiences and problems of life. We have abandoned, pretty generally, the study of content for itself alone. The history of the ancient world has many events of great interest and importance and when related to life to-day it develops a new meaning and significance. The science club in school is handling a number of school projects: photographic work for the school newspaper, broadcasting the football game, giving a liquid air demonstration in assembly, or building a radio transmission set. These practical projects do much to motivate and enrich the classroom work. Music groups present programs before large audiences. It may be an ex-

change program with a neighboring school or a sacred cantatta before the people of the community. These public performances make classroom rehearsals, not only tolerable, but distinctly pleasant. In athletics we have done a splendid job in developing greater participation by students. Most large high schools now have a dozen or more major sports with first and second teams playing schedules with other schools. In addition to these we find in most schools an intra-mural program designed for the great mass of individuals. School buildings and grounds in many cases are thrown open for use on Saturday in order that this intra-mural program may be carried on. Color contests for each season of the year will offer opportunities to many students to be the center of attention before the student body for at least a few minutes.

In most high schools classes close at 2:30 or 3:00 o'clock. Where, however, can you find a school that clears the building and locks the doors before 5:00 or 5:30—or that does not again open them for several evening performances, rehearsals, etc.? Take a trip about many high-school buildings and grounds at 4:00 or 4:30 o'clock in the afternoon. You will find that a very large proportion of the students have remained for curriculum and extra-curriculum activities, virtually all of which are designed for the individual. These are the activities that have so enriched school life that we close our doors in June with almost as many pupils as we had in September, with an attendance record of 95 to 98 per cent for the year, and with some misgivings that it is not possible to keep the schools open the entire year.

There are a few comments that should be made concerning the extra-curriculum program:

- (a) It offers training in leadership.
- (b) If participation is voluntary, it offers opportunities for advanced specialized training in a situation that may be highly competitive.

- (c) It is partly responsible for improved classroom methods of teaching.
 - (d) It provides for many people the leaven that makes school life tolerable and an education possible.
 - (e) It gives a great variety of training experiences that function later in the life of individuals. These experiences are frequently more meaningful than classroom experiences.
- (3) The modern high school is better equipped to make changes and adjustments to fit individual needs. If we feel that a certain boy will be a hopeless failure in Latin, we have other subjects to offer, subjects that will probably have more immediate interest and value to him. If we find that a pupil is failing because he has been improperly placed in a superior group, it is possible to schedule him in a slower section. If we find that a certain section in Latin cannot complete the ninety lessons usually required, we permit it to "travel" at a normal rate, with provision to complete the year's work in summer school or begin at that point next September. In our individualized instruction methods we provide for three levels of achievement with adequate material to encourage and challenge the best pupils.

The factors that have to do with materielle are also important. Better libraries with larger annual appropriations; well-equipped laboratories with individual apparatus in many instances; more spacious athletic fields, gymnasiums, and athletic equipment; smaller classes and fewer classes per week for teachers; an increasing proportion of men on our high-school faculties. All of these have contributed something to the individual. But most important of all has been the teacher himself. He is much more adaptable than formerly. He realizes that he must be alert, must be growing professionally, and must sell himself and his educational product to the classroom. It is no longer possible for him to excuse him-

self for poor teaching. Business, industry, and medicine have taught him that to be educationally efficient, he must not lose a large percentage of students—either through failure or withdrawal from school. The result is that Dr. McAndrew finds us just as efficient to-day as the medical profession, with hopes of even surpassing it.

In conclusion I believe that it is not the purpose of secondary education to make people as different as possible. When you specifically analyze the qualities, characteristics, ideals, and habits of people it is remarkable to what extent they are alike. The whole world admires certain qualities in Mr. and Mrs. Charles Lindbergh. As early as Aristotle's day society believed that "honesty is always the best policy". Men over the whole world respect the golden rule and like to be given a square deal. Our social order depends upon a common acceptance of the philosophy behind it. As society becomes more highly organized and complex, governmental regulation and control increase. This is based upon a common treatment for all people and necessarily makes little provision for individual differences. We are faced to-day with a lack of respect for constituted authority and for laws of all kinds. The school has an integrating responsibility to bring about conformance to those customs, standards, and ideals that society has found to be beneficial and desirable. Provision for the individual does not mean that he has the "right of way" in preference to the group. This paper has been an appeal to schoolmen to bend their lines in such a way that the individual may not be lost sight of, that our programs be so enriched and comprehensive that he may be given a chance to share the limelight even though he is not outstanding in his talents, that our policy be flexible enough to permit the school to share in the adjustment necessary to make school life constructive and beneficial.

Mr. John C. Mitchell, Principal of Lakewood High School, Lakewood, Ohio, followed:

Mr. J. C. Mitchell, Principal of Lakewood High School, Ohio, spoke as follows in discussing Dr. Billett's paper: Lakewood High School (Ohio) ten years ago handled problem cases from a limited viewpoint and with inadequate facilities for solving problems. This school now has teachers and grade counselors with an understanding of mental hygiene, who interview pupils, study pupil adjustment, and frequently discover serious mental-hygiene problems. Two visiting teachers, using case-work methods, study behavior problems in our secondary schools. Difficult cases are referred to mental-hygiene clinics.

Other factors in mental hygiene in our school are a program of testing and grouping, curriculum study from kindergarten through senior high school, introduction of mental hygiene into courses, varied and suitable electives, comprehensive programs of health, of athletics and other extra-class-room activities, and a morning social hour.

Some cities outstanding for mental hygiene in high schools are La Salle, Illinois; New York City; Newark; Minneapolis; Cleveland; Evansville, Indiana; Providence; Baltimore; Detroit; Los Angeles; Schenectady; Bronxville, and Rochester, New York.

In 1919 only two teacher-training institutions had courses on mental hygiene and emphasis was on abnormal phases. By 1930 marked progress had been made. Fifty-two institutions had regular mental-hygiene courses. The outlook, therefore, for the future is bright.

When teachers can see beyond their textbooks the boys and girls with their emotional problems waiting for attention, and when all educators have the mental-hygiene viewpoint, we shall in reality have progressive schools.

GROUP III

Mr. Louis E. Plummer, Principal of Fullerton Union High School and Junior College, Fullerton, California, led Group three.

Dr. P. Roy Brammell, assistant specialist in School Administration of the National Survey in Secondary Education read his paper, *Practices and Problems in Improving the Articulation Between High School and College*.

PRACTICES AND PROBLEMS IN IMPROVING THE ARTICULATION OF HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE

P. ROY BRAMMELL

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I. Introduction

A. Scope of the investigation. The data contained in the present report are taken from the findings of the National Survey of Secondary Education. Only one project of the Survey deals specifically with the problem of articulation of secondary schools and higher institutions. Previous issues of the Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence contain reports of studies carried on in the general field of admission requirements, from the standpoint of the secondary schools. In recognition of these studies, the special inquiry form devised for this project was addressed only to the higher institutions. However, for this paper, data have been drawn from various other inquiry forms addressed by other specialists of the Survey staff to public and private secondary schools. The present discussion, therefore, does not deal solely with information supplied by the higher institutions, but contains some data supplied by the secondary schools.

It is impossible to include in this paper a complete report of this project of the Survey; however, it is the purpose here

to discuss several definite phases of articulation. In the first place, attention will be given to the methods of admission used by higher institutions, and the trends in college entrance requirements. Special notice will be taken of innovating plans reported by the higher institutions. Second, the important topic which presents the difficulties standing in the way of improved articulation will be considered. Third, attention will be given to plans in operation for the improvement of articulation, as reported by both higher institutions and secondary schools. Finally, a brief summary will be made, and attention called to a few pertinent problems.

In the complete report of this project, the above phases of articulation will be treated in detail. Furthermore, the report will not be limited to a mere study of admission requirements, but will deal also with the means by which higher institutions adapt their students to the college situation after they have been admitted, how newly-admitted students are appraised, to what extent higher institutions revise their own programs to suit the needs of freshmen, the extent of freshman failure and the means employed by higher institutions to reduce failure, and other topics which bear directly upon the general problem of articulation.

Another project of the Survey, under the supervision of Dr. Francis T. Spaulding of Harvard University, assisted by O. I. Frederick of the Survey staff, is investigating the problem of the articulation within schools and school systems of the provisions for secondary education.

B. Sources of information. The main source of information for this report has already been indicated, namely, the special inquiry form sent to higher institutions. The data contained in several different inquiry forms sent to public and private secondary schools were also drawn upon. Considerable supplementary correspondence was carried on in order that certain information supplied in the forms might be fully described and clearly understood. Finally, personal visits to several institutions made it possible for the investigator to secure first-hand information, and to observe certain practices in actual operation.

C. Preliminary data. The special inquiry form devised for the study of articulation was addressed to 918 higher institutions. The institutions listed in the Educational Directory for 1930, issued by the United States Office of Education, comprised the mailing list. Junior colleges were not included. Five hundred seventeen, or 56 percent of the 918 institutions returned usable forms.

The 517 institutions are subdivided into three main classifications, namely, size of enrollment, geographical region, and type of institution. Six enrollment groups were decided upon as follows: 300 and fewer, 301-500, 501-1000, 1001-2000, 2001-3500, 3501- and over. The five geographical regions are New England, Middle Atlantic, South, Middle West, and West. Two main types of institutions are designated, namely, public and private. Each of these types is further subdivided into colleges and universities and teachers colleges and normal schools.

In 86 per cent of the cases, either the registrar, an officer comparable to the registrar, or the administrative head of the institution supplied the information in the inquiry forms. In the remaining cases the information was supplied by either the director of admissions, the director of personnel, the business executive officer, the statistical secretary, a professor of education, or a teacher of social science. It appears, therefore, that the data have been supplied by authoritative and competent persons.

II Report of the Study

A. Methods of admission to college, and trends in college entrance requirements. The phases of articulation to be discussed were indicated in a previous paragraph. The first of these had to do with the methods of admission to college and trends in college entrance requirements. These are indicated in several ways, one of which is the methods of admission used by the institutions.

1. Methods of admission. The methods of admission reported by the 517 institutions included in this study cover a

wide range. It was recognized in the beginning that methods differ for regular and special students, and also that in some institutions certain methods are used singly, whereas in other institutions they are used in combination with other methods. Consequently, care was taken in the inquiry form to secure data that would be exact and meaningful.

Twenty-one different methods were reported by the institutions, conformity with any one of which, in so far as they were employed by individual institutions, would grant regular students the privilege of pursuing advanced educational training. The complete list of 25 methods used singly for either regular or special students is as follows: high-school diploma, high-school transcript of credits, College Entrance Board examinations, examinations devised and administered by the local institutions, other examinations (e. g., Regents), high-school subject certificates, rank in high-school graduating class, results on an intelligence test, recommendation of high-school principal, other recommendations, personal interviews, age limitations, results on college aptitude test, character rating, recommended units, health certificates, evidence of ability to pursue college work, permission of the president or other college official, business experience, specific unit requirements, honorable dismissal from previous school, college work requirement, four years residence, teachers certificate or experience, and no special requirement at all. As single methods of admission for regular students, six in the above list are outstanding, namely, transcript of credits, College Entrance Board examination, examinations devised and administered by the local institution, high-school diploma, high-school subject certificate, and rank in high-school graduating class. The percentages of institutions in the various classifications which use the above methods singly vary a great deal. For example, whereas 12 per cent of the institutions in the New England region use the high-school diploma as a single method of admission for regular students, 33 per cent of the institutions in the South use this method. Again, 80 per cent of the institutions in the West use the high-school transcript of credits as a single method for regular students, whereas, only 20 per cent of the institutions

in New England use this method. Many other differences which cannot be included here will be pointed out in the complete report of this project.

In addition to the 25 methods of admission used singly for regular and special students, eleven others were reported as being used in various combinations of entrance criteria. That is to say, 36 different criteria are reported by the 517 institutions as being used either singly or in combination in the admission of students. Whereas the methods used most frequently as single methods of admission for regular students are transcript of high-school credits, College Entrance Board examinations, examinations devised and administered by the local institution, high-school diploma, high-school subject certificate, and rank in high-school graduating class, the seven methods used most frequently in combination are transcript of high-school credits, recommendation of principal, personal interviews with applicants, rank in high-school graduating class, recommendations by persons other than the principal, high-school diploma, and character rating.

When the year of adoption or abandonment of certain methods is studied, a few facts are noteworthy. In the first place, six methods are outstanding in the extent to which they have been adopted since 1924. These, in order, are college aptitude test, personal interview, rank in high-school graduating class, recommendations by persons other than the principal, intelligence test, and character rating. The higher institutions, in admitting students, are making quite as frequent use of personal data as data gleaned from so-called intelligence and aptitude tests. It is no doubt fairer to the entering students if these personal data have been assembled by their high schools over a period of years, than if they must supply the information themselves.

Very few entrance criteria are reported to have been dropped since 1924. The two most frequently mentioned are examinations devised and administered by the local institution and high-school diploma. This seems to indicate that in revising their admission standards the higher institutions do not

in general discard an existing criterion when another one is adopted; rather, the new criteria are merely added to those already in use. The failure to drop existing criteria may be due to the traditional hold which they have upon the institutions or to the fact that the institutions have greater faith in a combination of criteria than in a single criterion as a means of predicting success in college.

In an effort to discover unusual plans of admission, space was provided in the inquiry form in which the respondents were urged to describe any innovating plans which were being used in their institutions. Ninety-six respondents wrote in descriptions of plans. Most of these do not represent innovations at all. They were no doubt reported because they were new and untried in the institutions reporting them, but in the general field of admission methods they are not new. However, when these reported innovations are reviewed, a few facts are notable. In the first place, in several institutions all, or nearly all, specific subject requirements have been eliminated. Among these institutions, if any subject requirement is maintained at all, it usually is in English. It is interesting to note that in most of the institutions which have no specific subject requirements a group of subjects is nevertheless recommended. In some institutions certain types of high-school courses are specifically discriminated against, whereas in others no such discrimination is made. Vigorous steps have been taken in many institutions to raise the scholarship standard. This, of course, is not an innovating plan, but was referred to as such by several respondents. This standard includes the rank in the high-school graduating class and the number of subjects which must be represented by certain marks. In a few institutions scholarship and personality have been assigned definite values in evaluating an applicant's record. Many other respondents, without specifying definite proportionate values, indicate that extensive use is made of such requirements as recommendations, character, and personal ratings, and personal interviews. These too, are not innovations. Fewer institutions report the use of intelligence or aptitude tests in the selection of students. Various degrees of emphasis are being placed upon the princi-

pal's recommendation as an entrance criterion. Some institutions state that in the revision of their standards they are not interested in retaining this criterion, while others are enthusiastic concerning its use. Two institutions reported that they give special attention to candidates who have been interviewed and recommended by the alumni of those institutions.

Although not many of the plans mentioned above represent innovations in the general fields of college admission, nevertheless, considerable change from certain methods of admission to others is in evidence. More noticeable than the amount of change, however, is the extent to which additional criteria are being added to already-existing ones. In most cases, the innovations reported are innovations only to the institutions reporting them. When the entire 96 plans are examined, one feels that in general, the changes which have taken place in the methods of admission have been favorable to the entering student. That is to say, some institutions which formerly had only one method whereby students might gain admission have multiplied the methods to take care of students with various abilities and backgrounds. Furthermore, to an increasing extent, higher institutions, in selecting their students, are making use of a number of criteria rather than using only the evidence secured from a single source.

2. Subjects required for admission. In the complete report of this investigation considerable space will be devoted to the discussion of the present requirements in five subject fields, what the requirements prior to the present standards were, and when the change to the present requirements was made. This will be done for all the classifications of institutions in the study and for certain departments within the institutions. However, only a portion of the summary data can be presented here. Two tables will indicate some of the findings.

TABLE NO. I

Average Number of Entrance Units Required at Present in Five Subject Fields, as Reported by the Departments in Institutions of Various Sizes, Regions, and types.

Class- ification and Group	PRESENT REQUIREMENTS										
	English		Mathematics		History & Social Sci.		Natural Science		Foreign Language		Average Total Units Required
	Cases	Average Units	Cases	Average Units	Cases	Average Units	Cases	Average Units	Cases	Average Units	
Enrollment:											
To 300----	177	3.06	160	2.12	155	1.37	121	1.08	124	2.25	9.88
301-500----	220	3.15	213	2.04	197	1.37	145	1.18	146	2.28	10.02
501-1000----	178	3.1	176	2.13	134	1.34	111	1.09	117	2.44	10.1
1001-2000----	239	3.04	214	2.15	185	1.3	154	1.03	110	2.4	9.92
2001-3500----	115	2.94	106	2.27	92	1.31	79	1.	71	1.85	9.37
3501—up----	204	2.84	196	2.02	112	1.1	118	1.08	136	2.12	9.16
Region:											
New											
England	81	3.1	68	2.43	74	1.05	46	1.04	49	3.25	10.87
Middle											
Atlantic	234	3.15	228	2.26	193	1.2	151	1.21	202	2.62	10.44
South----	282	3.12	263	2.42	233	1.53	149	1.02	167	2.25	10.34
Middle											
West----	394	2.84	387	1.85	289	1.27	298	1.	239	1.78	8.74
West----	142	2.84	119	1.78	86	1.32	84	1.33	47	1.87	9.14
Type (Public)											
Colleges and Univers- ities											
Teachers	397	2.92	364	2.06	281	1.21	261	1.	189	2.07	9.26
Colleges and Normal Schools (Private)											
Schools	107	3.23	97	1.68	88	1.7	69	1.27	---	---	*7.88
Colleges and Univers- ities											
Schools -	605	3.07	592	2.23	495	1.3	387	1.13	485	2.36	10.09
All de- part- ments Com- bined											
	1133	3.02	1065	2.11	875	1.31	728	1.08	704	2.24	9.76

*Scarcely any teachers colleges and normal schools report foreign language requirements.

In Table I the average number of units required in five subject fields in various groups of institutions is indicated. It should be clearly understood that in each inquiry form these data were called for by departments or colleges within the institutions. Hence the frequencies in Table I represent numbers of departments or colleges and not number of institutions. In view of the fact, however, that the majority of the returns were for colleges of liberal arts and sciences, the findings may be said to represent institutional situations.

A great many comparisons are possible in Table I. For example, studying the columns vertically, one is able to discern the differences in requirements occasioned by size of enrollment, geographical region, and type of institution, for each subject field and for all subject fields combined. In this regard, pronounced differences in the mathematics and foreign language requirements are discernible among the regions. This, of course, has been pointed out repeatedly in other studies. The total number of subjects required is lowest in the larger institutions (over 2000), in the Middle West and West regions, and in the public institutions. The total requirement in the Middle West is a full two units less than that in New England. Other comparisons could be pointed out at length.

The second summary table has to do with the trends in the requirements in the five subject fields, as revealed by the date of increase or decrease. Almost without exception, all the changes for which dates were indicated were made subsequent to 1899. The extent to which all changes since 1899 have been made since 1924 is shown in Table II.

TABLE NO. II

Trends in Entrance Requirements in Five Subject Fields, as Revealed by the Date of Increase or Decrease.

INCREASE OR DECREASE	SUBJECT				
	English	Mathematics	History & Soc. Science	Natural Science	Foreign Language
Total number of increases since 1899	74	65	62	53	28
Number of above increases made since 1924	40	39	35	30	21
Percent of total increases made since 1924	54	60	56	57	75
Total number of decreases since 1899	33	122	62	83	112
Number of above decreases made since 1924	21	75	27	36	50
Percent of above decreases made since 1924	64	61	44	43	45

The total number of increases since 1899 exceeds the total decreases since the same date in only one subject field, namely, English. In history and social science the frequencies are the same. In the other subject fields the decreases since 1899 exceed the increases. This is especially notable for foreign language and mathematics. When consideration is given to the number of increases and decreases since 1924, the increases are given in excess of the decreases in the fields of English and history and social science. In mathematics, natural science, and foreign language the number of decreases is in excess to the number of increases. This is especially true for mathematics and foreign language. A detailed study of the trends indicates that without doubt further general reductions in mathematics and foreign language may be expected. The institutions in the Middle West and West regions have already made drastic reductions. It may be that the institutions in other regions will follow suit in relieving the secondary schools of a serious burden as regards the entrance requirements in these subjects. On the basis of the data contained in Table II, it seems correct to say that, since 1924, the unit requirements in English and history and social science

have tended to rise, more perceptibly in the former than in the latter; the requirements in natural science have remained practically unchanged; and a definite downward trend is discernible in the requirements in mathematics and foreign language.

3. The junior high school and college entrance requirements. It is of some concern here to know the extent to which the higher institutions recognize the junior-high-school reorganization in formulating their entrance criteria. Specifically, the respondents were asked to specify whether or not their institutions, in recognition of the junior-high-school, admitted students to full freshman standing on the basis of eleven or twelve acceptable units earned in the 10th, 11th, and 12th grades; or, in the case of States having seven-year elementary school systems, in the 9th, 10th, and 11th grades. Approximately a third of the 517 institutions state that, in recognition of the junior high school, adjustments are made in the number and nature of units which students may submit for entrance credit. Neither the size nor type of institution exerts much influence in determining whether or not recognition will be given. However, the region in which the institutions are situated plays a much greater part. The Middle West and West are clearly ahead in the extent to which they recognize the junior high-school reorganization. About a third of the institutions which recognize the junior high-school make a careful check to determine whether or not the eleven or twelve units required for admission actually represent work done in advance of the junior high-school level. The 62 institutions which indicated that certain 9th grade subjects are discriminated against if recognition is given, named 19 subjects which are thus declared unacceptable. They are first year English, beginning mathematics, general science, general history, "languages," Latin, spelling, ancient history, community civics, physiology, botany, political geography, physical education, manual arts, civics, geography, industrial geography, business arithmetic, and bookkeeping.

The recency with which the junior high-school reorganization has been recognized by the higher institutions in the re-

vision of their entrance standards is apparent in the fact that out of 105 institutions reporting dates, 98 specify that the date of such recognition was subsequent to 1925.

B. Difficulties encountered by the higher institutions in their efforts to improve articulation. In studying methods to improve articulation it is not inappropriate to determine what the difficulties are which stand in the way of such improvement. The removal of a difficulty which thwarts improved articulation is quite as helpful as the institution of a new plan to improve it. An original list of nine difficulties was suggested in the inquiry form. This list was totally inadequate to express the woes of the higher institutions, and was increased by the respondents to include 35 different difficulties. Data for the nine difficulties listed in the form are presented in Table III.

DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

TABLE NO. III

Percents of Higher Institutions, Various Classified, Reporting Certain Difficulties
Encountered in Their Efforts to Improve Articulation

DIFFICULTY	ENROLLMENT						REGION				TYPE		Total
	To 300	301- 500	501- 1000	1001- 2000	2001- 3500	3501- up	N. E.	M. A.	S.	M. W.	PUBLIC Colleges & Universities & Normal Schools	PRIVATE Colleges & Universities	
Lack of cooperation from the state department of education-----	1	3	5	5	--	--	--	2	5	3	2	3	3
Lack of cooperation from the Secondary schools-----	10	14	16	13	8	--	2	13	18	14	2	7	12
Entrenched opinion in the college faculty-----	10	11	9	15	28	10	6	10	12	13	19	7	12
Influence brought to bear by standardizing agencies, tending to minimize freedom-----	13	8	8	14	4	8	4	8	12	12	10	11	9
Lack of objective evaluation of the already existing entrance criteria-----	11	14	16	14	36	18	14	10	16	18	17	19	16
Lack of specific subject-guidance in the secondary schools for pupils planning to enter college-----	45	56	48	41	44	33	35	42	55	52	35	41	47
Lack of secondary-school guidance of pupils into appropriate activities after graduation-----	27	33	32	35	40	28	20	32	39	32	27	40	32
Lack of well-organized guidance work in colleges and universities-----	15	23	25	33	20	15	14	13	33	23	22	33	22
Lack of effectiveness in colleges and universities in properly orientating and instructing the freshmen-----	15	20	26	30	20	13	18	15	26	21	25	26	21
Total number of institutions in each group-----	128	138	109	78	25	39	51	109	118	180	59	70	114
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A great many interesting facts could be pointed out concerning the data in Table III. Only a few, however, can be mentioned here. For example, although the percentage is small, it deserves to be mentioned that 10 per cent of the 517 institutions report that standardizing agencies bring an influence to bear upon them which minimizes their freedom in promoting articulation. Furthermore, the percentages of institutions indicating this difficulty are higher in the two regions where such agencies are especially strong than in the other three regions. Again, among the public and private colleges and universities, it appears that the public institutions are less concerned than the private about specific subject guidance in the secondary schools, and are more concerned that secondary-school graduates will receive some sound advice as to what sort of activity they should engage in after the completion of the high-school work. Perhaps it is to be expected, since only persons connected with higher institutions answered this inquiry, that twice as many institutions place the responsibility for unimproved articulation at the door of the high school as place it at the door of the college. However that may be, one fact of great significance seems to be indicated by the data. That is, the four difficulties which are named by the largest percentages of all the institutions have to do with guidance. In other words, in the minds of the respondents for the 517 institutions the greatest hindrance to improved articulation at present is the lack of effective guidance programs either in the secondary schools or in the colleges and universities.

Data from some of the inquiry forms returned by secondary schools seem to justify the higher institutions in subjecting high-school guidance work to criticism. Sixty per cent of 761 private secondary schools fail to give definite guidance to their pupils regarding continued education following the completion of high school. Only 26 per cent of 2,196 public secondary schools keep any record concerning the success in college of their graduates. It seems clear that such records are necessary as a basis for guidance work among pupils who will graduate later, and as a means of correcting any weaknesses in the program of the school which are thus brought to light.

Without claiming that effective guidance programs will solve all the articulation problems, it is nevertheless safe to say that articulation can be greatly improved if such programs are built up in both the secondary schools and the colleges. Furthermore, such programs would be doubly effective if they represented the coordinated activity of the higher institutions and the secondary schools constituent to them.

C. Plans in operation for the improvement of articulation.

It is not enough to enumerate the difficulties which render articulation ineffective, and to hope that they will in some way be removed. It is necessary that constructive steps be taken to overcome them. This section of the present report, therefore, is especially significant because it is concerned with the plans which the higher institutions and the secondary schools have in operation in their efforts to improve articulation. Consideration will be given first to the plans fostered by the higher institution. Nine plans were listed in the inquiry form. Following these, a separate section of the form was set aside for the description of plans other than those included in the list which had been tried out and proved unusually successful. Table IV presents the data for the nine plans suggested in the form. Special attention will be given later to the other plans described by the respondents.

Percents of Higher Institutions, Various Classified, Reporting Various Plans
In Operation For the Improvement of Articulation

PROCEEDINGS OF THE WASHINGTON, D. C. MEETING																				185
TABLE NO. IV.																				
PLAN	ENROLLMENT					CLASSIFICATION										REGION		TYPE		Total
	To 300	301-500	501-1000	1001-2000	2001-3500	3501-5000	N. E.	M. A.	S. M.	W.	W.	Colleges & Universities	Teachers Colleges & Normal Schools	Colleges & Universities	Private					
Scientific research designed to evaluate certain entrance criteria-----	5	7	10	9	24	26	10	11	10	7	12	17	8	9	10					
Joint committees composed of secondary-school and college representatives-----	5	4	10	13	20	21	10	9	9	6	15	14	6	10	9					
Maintenance of a "go-between" official who contacts the secondary schools-----	16	23	28	24	20	28	27	34	14	21	24	23	18	25	23					
Inspection of secondary schools by members of the college faculty-----	6	9	16	10	16	36	12	13	13	9	20	21	10	11	12					
Special conventions for college and secondary-school authorities-----	11	17	20	23	32	26	27	17	16	15	27	26	13	19	18					
Cooperation with the State department of education-----	41	42	48	46	52	51	31	50	46	50	32	61	54	40	45					
Cooperation with accrediting associations or the State or National Education associations-----	39	45	48	44	48	49	20	44	45	49	44	46	38	41	44					
Cooperation with secondary schools by providing curriculum and building advice, library lists, etc.-----	11	5	9	17	24	26	8	8	8	16	15	27	18	5	12					
Evaluation of the college records of students from certain high schools-----	23	29	35	32	36	49	27	35	30	31	31	36	30	32	31					
Total number of institutions in each group-----	128	138	109	78	25	39	51	109	118	180	59	70	114	313	517					

TABLE NO. IV.

The data in Table IV are self-explanatory. A summary examination of the data creates several general impressions. Only two will be mentioned. In the first place, the four plans used most frequently by the higher institutions may be said to represent about the minimum of *direct* cooperation with the secondary schools. Indeed, all four of these plans might be used as means to bring pressure to bear upon the secondary schools, if the higher institutions were so disposed. Of course, accrediting associations and State departments of education are responsible for the maintenance of certain standards and do not care to have individual institutions violate these standards, but neither of these agencies is opposed to direct cooperation between the colleges and secondary schools to bring about a more thorough-going understanding and acceptance of the existing standards, and even to subject them to careful tests which may in the end lead to their revision. The plan in Table IV which calls for the greatest amount of equalized cooperation is participated in less by the higher institutions than any of the other eight plans listed. Specifically, nine per cent of the institutions are attempting to improve articulation through joint committees composed of secondary-school and college representatives.

The second observation is even more outstanding. It was pointed out in the previous section that the four difficulties most frequently mentioned as hinderances to articulation had to do with the lack of guidance either in the secondary schools or the higher institutions. When the plans listed in Table IV are considered, plans that involve coordinated guidance activities are not to be found. It may be that at present many of the so-called plans of articulation are too remote to influence the educational and social lives of students, who are, after all, the persons for whom the plans of articulation should function effectively.

Limitations of space make it impossible to discuss all the plans in addition to those in Table IV which were reported by the institutions as having been tried out and proved unusually successful. Such a discussion will appear in the detailed report of this study. Throughout the descriptions of unusually successful plans, however, the prevalence of devices which pene-

trate directly to the pupils in the secondary schools and to those who have immediate supervision over them is noticeable. In other words, the old method of passing resolutions and setting up standards in conferences of authorities from higher institutions, to be reacted to later in similar conferences of secondary school representatives, seems to have been adjudged too slow, indirect, and ineffective. On the other hand, the method of working out devices and setting up standards in cooperation, rather than independently, seems to be proving more effective, reliable, and acceptable.

One of the general inquiry forms of the National Survey was sent to principals of individual secondary schools. In this form the respondents were asked to describe any noteworthy practices which had been developed for the articulation of their schools with higher institutions. Only 33 of the 2,196 public secondary schools responding made any reply to this inquiry. Of the 33, only 22, or 1 per cent of all the responses describe what are really plans of articulation. Others are mere statements of routine fact such as, "Accredited by the University of—"; "Any State college or university accepts our graduates to the freshman class"; "We follow the rules of the University of—so as to maintain our accreditation"; and similar statements.

Not all of the 22 plans referred to represent noteworthy or unusual practices in the field of articulation; however, they indicate the nature of the plans for articulation with colleges which have been developed by the secondary schools. Two facts are outstanding when the plans are studied. In the first place, the most common arrangement is one whereby high-school pupils may register for a limited amount of work in an adjacent college while they are completing their work in high school. This work is sometimes done by correspondence if the institutions are not in close enough proximity to the high school. The second notable fact in connection with the plans is the occasional mention of an arrangement whereby secondary-school and college personnel directors cooperate actively in studying student problems and in setting up devices for the improvement of articulation. The fact that the guidance programs in

high schools and college have in general been separate and distinct, renders this plan rare in occurrence. It is encouraging, however, that a few secondary schools have taken the initiative in bringing about such coordination of effort.

Only a few specific examples of plans of articulation developed by the secondary schools can be cited here. One principal in West Virginia reports that "Our seniors may enroll in—College with only 10 hours recitation work per week in the high school." Another principal in South Carolina reports that "After earning $15\frac{1}{2}$ units from the high school, the University of—will matriculate a student and let him begin his college work while he is finishing his course with us." In a high school in Michigan, pupils within one semester of graduation are permitted by two local colleges to enroll for a subject or two. A principal in Delaware says, "At times the high school cooperates with the University of—in offering post graduate work to failing freshmen." One Principal in California reports cooperation with the offices of Deans in a University in that State. A principal in Texas states that advisory discussions by representatives of the University of—are held in the senior high school. One principal in Ohio reports the use of the radio in improving articulation, particularly in French. A broadcast is received from the State University to aid in bridging the gap between high-school French and its continuation in college. The use of this device in improving articulation in general has many possibilities.

In fairness to the secondary schools, it should be pointed out that if they are to give proper attention to the standing of their graduates they cannot disregard the standards of higher institutions and accrediting associations, in launching new articulation plans or carrying on experimentation. If a school wishes to effect extensive changes in its organization and procedures it is first necessary to receive the consent and guidance of the accrediting associations. Necessarily these schools are few in number, but they do exist. In view of the fact, however, that the colleges at present are unable correctly to appraise the finished product of the secondary schools, an increased amount of far-reaching, carefully-supervised experi-

mentation in secondary schools would seem to be justified and desirable.

It should be pointed out, finally, that certain agencies are at work in this field. For example, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching has in progress a long-time study of the relation of secondary to higher education in Pennsylvania. Also the Progressive Education Association has recently set up a Committee on the Relation of School to College. This association proposes to carry on an experiment wherein several higher institutions will grant special freedom to certain secondary schools as regards curriculums and school procedures. Present requirements in these fields will then be evaluated in terms of pupil success in college. Several State departments of education or State universities for example, The Ohio State University and the University of Minnesota, have also set up comprehensive programs intended to improve articulation. Interest in this problem on the part of agencies such as these will no doubt result in many improved practices.

III Summary and Problems

On the basis of returns from 517 institutions, it has been seen that as regards the methods of admission, the changes which have taken place have in general been advantageous to the entering student. Some institutions that formerly had only one method of admission have increased the number to take care of students with various abilities and backgrounds. To an increasing extent, higher institutions are making use of a number of entrance criteria rather than attempting to appraise a student's academic ability through the evidence gained from a single source. Subject requirements have in general been reduced, more outstandingly in certain groups of institutions than in others. The general reduction has been due mainly to pronounced reductions in mathematics and foreign language. The number of units required in English, history and social science, and natural science has remained about constant or has increased. Increase in the present over the previous requirement is most pronounced in the field of English. About

one third of the 517 institutions recognize the junior high-school reorganization to the extent that they make adjustments in the number and nature of units which students may submit for entrance credit. The institutions located in the Middle West and West grant such recognition more frequently than the institutions in the other regions. The hindrances to articulation pointed out by the higher institutions have to do primarily with the lack of effective guidance work in either the secondary schools or the colleges. The plans in operation for the improvement of articulation reported by the college require in general a minimum of *direct* cooperation with the secondary schools. Plans involving coordinated guidance activities are extremely rare, although the lack of such guidance is recognized as an outstanding hindrance to articulation. Plans of articulation with the colleges fostered by the secondary schools are predominantly schemes by which high-school pupils may register for a limited amount of work in an adjacent college while they are completing their work in the high school. A few secondary schools have fostered comprehensive guidance programs in cooperation with adjacent higher institutions. Several educational agencies are at present active in promoting improved articulation.

If a general statement concerning this investigation may be indulged in, there seems to be a feeling, if the data are not misjudged, among both the colleges and secondary schools, that if the problem of articulation is to be solved at all it will have to be solved at its source. That is to say, the task is recognized as one of developing cooperative programs which will touch directly and intimately the present work and future plans of the secondary-school and college population.

The discussion of Dr. Brammell's paper, Practices and Problems in Improving the Articulation Between High School and College, was opened by Harold A. Ferguson, Principal of the High School, Montclair, New Jersey.

In attempting to stimulate discussion of this subject, a point of view will be emphasized which is not commonly held by high-school principals who may be giving consideration to the problem. It is not unusual, at the present time, to encounter among high-school principals and those on the staff of schools of education, the attitude that college entrance requirements are the great obstacle in the path of educational progress. Usually a number of the eastern colleges are regarded not only as the most rigid in their demands, but also as generally unreasonable. My own experience as a high school principal, of course, influences my thinking, and it fortunately includes, not only eight years in New Jersey in schools from which the graduates have entered as many as seventy different colleges in one year, including the institutions of the East which are regarded as the most selective, but also four years in Ohio. I can recall that my attitude when I was in Ohio was that the public high school had a greater responsibility than merely to attempt to train pupils for college and, particularly, eastern college requirements; I believed with others that the high school should train pupils for life and citizenship. After eight years in the East, I have found that a high school which is qualified through its teaching staff to do a good piece of work can train for life and citizenship, and, in addition, can also train pupils to meet the requirements of any college in the country without endangering the opportunity of attaining the splendid objectives which are claimed for the secondary school. The difference in attitude is due largely to the realization, which has come as a result of experience, that colleges also are trying to solve this problem. Almost without exception I have found that they are willing to make exceptions and allowances for the school which is doing a good job; furthermore, they have multiplied the methods of gaining entrance to college during the last eight or ten years, which fact alone has greatly improved the whole situation. After all, does the solution lie in

changing college requirements which may possibly prevent the high school from realizing its greatest usefulness, or in securing outstanding teachers who are able to provide college preparation as a by-product of good teaching?

A recent investigation with which I have been associated conducted among the high-school principals of New Jersey, indicates too often that high schools, in attempting to meet college requirements, are assuming difficulties which actually do not exist. There seem to be at least three reasons for this misunderstanding:

- a. Too many high-school principals are not well enough acquainted with actual college requirements and the allowances and exceptions which colleges are willing to make for the promising candidate. To prove this point, may I read from a number of criticisms of particular colleges received from New Jersey high-school principals. I shall also read along with these, replies received from the colleges in answer to the questions raised.
- b. The second basis for misunderstanding is the fact that very few high-school principals either seize the opportunity or are encouraged by their boards of education to make the necessary contacts with the colleges and their directors of admission. Out of 130 principals questioned, only ten indicated that visits to colleges are encouraged to the extent of having expenses paid, and eight more replied that visiting is permitted but no expenses are paid. Furthermore, only about thirty were furnished with expenses to the meetings of the National Education Association or the Association of the Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States where high-school principals might very well make some of the contacts with college representatives which would lead to better understanding.
- c. Thirdly, despite all that has been spoken and written about guidance, few high schools have yet recognized their responsibility and have organized their staffs in order that pupils may be furnished with the necessary

information at the right time. Colleges, like individuals, fortunately differ. Williams and Bryn Mawr, e. g., require four years of Latin, and, if my information is correct, these are the only two prominent colleges which make this specific requirement. Instead of criticising these institutions for such a requirement, let us be sure that those who are planning to enter them are properly equipped. Pupils and parents will change their objectives if they are informed and reminded from time to time either by the principal, or the staff members whose duty it is to do such work, if the pupil's achievement is not consistent with his objective. People object to receiving unpleasant news at the last minute; if they have the information at the outset they usually are willing to make choices themselves within the boundaries of the possibilities which develop. In order to simplify the problems of guidance, some principals would make all college requirements uniform; they would eliminate foreign language, for example. Possibly, in an occasional college, the waiving of the foreign language requirement might be wise, but colleges must not become similar any more than individuals should be cast in the same mould.

In addition to the foregoing suggestions, the question of what high schools can do to improve articulation between the high schools and the colleges can be very well summarized by a composite statement of four New Jersey principals. Among these principals, representing such suburban communities as East Orange, South Orange, Ridgewood, and Montclair, which send large numbers of graduates each year to colleges all over the country, there is agreement that there should be brought about:

- a. An acquaintance with the actual requirements of each college.
- b. A personal acquaintance with college representatives and the institutions they represent.
- c. A respect for the work which a high school is able to do, this respect to be based upon the achievement of stu-

dents in college, as well as a knowledge of the work which is done in the high school.

- d. A wise use of the privilege of certification.
- e. An encouragement of the comprehensive type of examination for the good student who may be required to take the College Entrance Board Examination.
- f. The use of the College Entrance Board Examination for certain colleges as a validating examination if the pupil's record is "spotty."
- g. A plan of following up the work of pupils after they enter college.
- h. A willingness and an ability on the part of high schools to furnish information about pupils in order that colleges may have a better knowledge of pupils as persons.
- i. A plan of guidance which will make accurate information available and which will assist more intelligently in the direction of pupils toward colleges for which they are prepared.

Up to this point, consideration has been given to the question of what the high school can do to bring about better articulation with the colleges. Now it will be well to ask what the colleges can do to assist the high school in improving the situation.

Four suggestions to the colleges for bringing about better articulation can be stated.

Granted that colleges have the right to be different, and that their requirements by varying as much as they do may well be distinctive, is it necessary to emphasize this fact in the form which is used for the candidate's application for admission? If colleges could come to some agreement on the subject of such forms, high-school principals, many of whom are inadequately supplied with clerical assistance, might be able to supply more significant information about pupils. When col-

leges first accept candidates from a school, or grant the certificate privilege, could they not satisfy themselves as to the type of work done and the courses offered, and eliminate from the blanks for individuals questions as to books used and content of courses?

Among the good colleges, at the present time, the growth of personnel work among the students is significant. Colleges in general might well follow the example of such colleges as Dartmouth, Harvard, Yale, Smith, and Wellesley in their attempts to adjust the college work to the particular needs of the individual. A good example of adjustment to fit individual needs may be found in the tendency among colleges to challenge the abler students, either by excusing them from required freshmen courses, or by giving them advanced work in fields where they have shown special proficiency.

Finally, it is suggested that all colleges should notify schools in September or October of the names of graduates who have actually enrolled. Added to the present growing tendency to report to high schools the achievement of their graduates not only at the end of the first semester, but also at the end of the freshman year, such a practice would prove helpful to the high school. High-school principals have even suggested the desirability of a report of the college activities of their graduates. Colleges might well realize that the greater the amount of information furnished to a school about its graduates, the more probable it is that the school will tend to look beyond the point of mere college entrance to the student's ultimate success in college.

In conclusion, it would seem that better articulation, despite some gaps and rough spots, is possible of achievement. All colleges are eager for the graduates of the public high schools who are capable of profiting from college training. The problem is one of mutual concern and, may it be said, is receiving the sympathetic consideration of a growing number of representatives of high-school and college groups at the present time. In order to stimulate the efforts of the high-school prin-

cipals, it may not be amiss to suggest that the situation presents the greater challenge to the secondary schools.

Then Principal A. J. Burton, East High School, Des Moines, Iowa, spoke as follows: The aims and procedures suggested by the Sub-Committee on Principles of the Committee on Relations of Secondary Schools and Colleges are excellent. These suggestions are along the line that has been in practice by the best teachers of the past. If they can be incorporated in the curricula in such a way that all teachers will use the plan a wonderful improvement will be the result.

The attitude toward scientific education is correct as science is a search for the real truth and that is exactly what we need to make progress in education. Science and industry have made rapid changes during the past few decades and there is no evidence that the goal has been reached. During the next three or four decades the same speed may continue. A large majority of the people of the present age have not developed mentally to the place where they are properly integrated with their environment. Formerly most human beings spent their whole life with connections covering an area of only a few square miles but to-day the environment of the children reaches out over the world which makes it necessary to have a broad view of life in order to be happy and to assist the next generation in enjoying its environment. This condition places a great responsibility on the educational systems as the results of learning are now far reaching.

The secondary schools should be given an opportunity for experimental studies on curricula, organization, guidance, etc., to make sure that the students have an opportunity for an education which will best fit them to enjoy life and improve humanity. Each student should be given training which will closely correlate with his life after school days are over. This will require careful organization of the student body, improved guidance, cooperation between parents, pupils and teachers and changes in the curriculum to improve the pupil's opportunity to progress in the line of their desires and abilities.

GROUP IV

Mr. W. W. Haggard, superintendent of Township and Junior College of Joliet, Illinois led Group four in the West Lobby, Wardman Park Hotel.

Dr. Frank N. Freeman, Professor of Educational Psychology of the University of Chicago, read his paper, *Mental Hygiene*.

THE REQUIREMENTS OF MENTAL HYGIENE IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

FRANK N. FREEMAN,

University of Chicago, Professor of Educational Psychology

In my introductory discussion I shall deal with what I conceive to be the more general conditions which are necessary in order to preserve and promote mental hygiene in the secondary school. I shall leave to my colleagues, who have had more intimate experience with the detailed procedures in a program of mental hygiene, to deal with these detailed procedures. I shall confine myself more largely to the general organization of the school and to those activities which may be carried on by the regular teacher, and shall not deal specifically with the practices of individual counseling or with the special treatment of problem children. These matters are essential to a program of mental hygiene, and I am sure they will be discussed adequately during the course of the meeting.

The first feature of our educational procedure, which has a bearing on the child's mental health and which is one of the important elements in the school's program or the improvement of mental health, consists in the standards and demands which are made upon the child.

The first requirement we should lay down concerning the standards and demands we set before the child, is that they should mean something to him. It is obvious that he cannot grasp their full meaning, since this presupposes that he has

had the later experience in which their meaning will be revealed to him, but it is certainly desirable that they should mean as much to him as is possible. Meaningless, routine drill is not of any value in itself. Drill is necessary, but the child should see as much of the purpose of the drill as his experience enables him to see. The child should be given as clear an insight into the whole process of his education as it is possible to give him. He should see education, in general; as one of the functions of society and should understand the part which he is playing in the whole mechanism of society when he goes to school. He should see the process of education both as general preparation for taking his share in the general undertakings of citizens and in performing his part by becoming a worker in one of the specialized vocations of the world. By thus seeing himself, and by seeing the process of education in its larger setting, he will see the meaning of the particular tasks which he performs in the school.

The second requirement concerning the standards and demands which we place upon the child is that they shall be properly adjusted to the ability of children at the various levels and stages of advancement, and that they shall be adapted to the abilities of individual children. Improperly adjusted standards interfere with mental health in two ways. Standards which are too easy fail to awaken the child to vigorous activity and may even cause him to underestimate his powers. Standards which are too difficult, on the other hand, cause the child to fail and set up one of the most serious obstacles to mental health—a feeling of inadequacy and inferiority. This feeling is not confined to the task which first produces it but may pervade the individual's entire mental life. In adjusting demands to the individual, account must be taken not only of the individual's general ability but also of his ability in special lines of endeavor. Particular care must be taken to observe any special disabilities which the child may have and to give him such education in overcoming these special disabilities that he may have a continuous sense of power and mastery.

A second set of factors which have an important bearing upon the mental health of the pupil comes under the general

head of methods of teaching, either general methods or special methods. A method which is very widely used and which forms an integral part of much of our education, but which is probably responsible for a good deal of anxiety and ill health, is competition. Competition may, perhaps, be said to be the successor to punishment as a method of motivating school work. It may be argued that competition is present in all adult life and that the child should, therefore, be prepared to meet competition by working under competitive conditions in the school. But the argument may be turned the other way. If a non-competitive regime, or one in which competition is less emphasized than at present, is found to be more conducive to mental health and more satisfactory all around in the school, may the school not lead society in the direction of less emphasis on competition and more on co-operation. Many critics of modern social life believe that excessive competition is responsible for much of our distress and even some of our economic disorganization. It seems that the school should not merely follow society in matters of this sort which touch the fundamental principles of behavior, but should freely experiment and lead the way to improved forms of social organization. Undue stress on competition undoubtedly leads to anxiety and to deep-seated feelings of inadequacy on the part of individuals who habitually fall behind in the race. While, therefore, it may not be necessary or desirable to exclude competition altogether, it does seem desirable to substitute, so far as may be feasible, a sense of the intrinsic value of an accomplishment in place of the mere desire to beat somebody else.

The recognition of the intrinsic value of an accomplishment is also opposed to another type of motive which is not always distinguished from it. This motive may be described as interest in the subject itself. Interest is one of those concepts which may cover a variety of notions, each of which may shade almost imperceptibly into the other. The two types of interest which I should like to distinguish may be called objective interest and subjective interest. In a sense, of course, all interest is subjective in that it is an attitude of the individual toward an object or an activity, but the source of this attitude may be

widely different. In one case the individual may be interested in an activity because he believes it to have value apart from his own personal concerns. In other words, he conceives it as having objective value—value for itself or value for mankind and not only for himself as an individual. This type of interest gives dignity to an enterprise and lifts it out of the realm of individual whim or caprice. The other type of interest is that in which the individual wishes to perform an activity because he has a momentary impulse to do so or because he sees it to be connected with his private well-being.

It may be thought that the subjective type of interest, while it is socially less desirable than the objective type of interest, is more favorable to the integration of the individual's impulses and, therefore, to mental health. However, I believe that quite the contrary is the case. The individual whose interests are bound up with his own concerns is much more likely to develop a general feeling of the futility of his enterprises than is the person who feels that they have an importance independent of his own personal desires. If this is the case, it means that interest should be built up, not primarily upon purely subjective evaluation, but rather upon our more objective sense of the importance of one's undertakings. Children, youth, and adults all like to feel that the things they are doing are serious and that they contribute something to the general well-being. The sense of importance which such a feeling gives is a potent factor in the integration of one's impulses.

The teacher has a very large share in helping the child properly to evaluate the enterprises which he undertakes. On the one hand, the teacher, from his broader background, helps the child to grasp intellectually the significance of the courses of study which he is pursuing. In the second place, the teacher communicates to the child his enthusiasm by a sort of contagion. This means that the teacher must both have a grasp of the meaning of what he teaches and must be enthusiastic about it. No teacher who does not have intelligence or this enthusiasm is qualified to teach. We cannot expect the understanding or the enthusiasm to develop in the child by spontaneous gen-

eration. The child must contribute his part but the teacher must exercise the leadership.

When it comes to the details of execution, as contrasted with the leading ideas, the teacher should also serve as a guide to the child; but there is a danger that the teacher will attempt unduly to dominate the details of the child's activity. This not only interferes with progress in learning but also endangers the child's mental organization. Teachers are, as a class, rather inclined to control too minutely the exact procedure which the child shall follow in learning. The guidance of learning is a very delicate procedure, as the experiments in supervised study have shown. On paper it appears to be an easy thing to guide the child's thinking step by step until he arrives at the goal of a certain procedure. This has been found, however, to be a very difficult thing to do in practice. This difficulty has been attributed to our lack of knowledge of the steps in learning and it has been thought that we could overcome the difficulty by a better understanding of these steps. Undoubtedly a better understanding of learning will enable us to guide the child's learning more intelligently, but it is questionable whether we should ever set up as the goal a mechanical, detailed guidance of the child through every step.

The difficulty with the attempt to guide the child through detailed steps is that we interfere with the organization of his activities in fairly large units. The best examples of the way not to guide the child's activities is found in a certain type of physical training. The type of training I refer to is the one in which the group stands at attention and goes through a series of movements, each one in response to a separate and sudden command. This military type of training is not, in my judgment, suitable even in physical education. The mechanical regimentation of the individual to group action, which is represented by this form of training, is not the kind of group activity which prepares the individual for co-operative undertakings. It prepares him only for a mechanical type of obedience. This type of training does not produce the sort of organization of his activities which the child will find necessary in our present-day civilization.

One fact which we should keep in mind in our attempt to guide the child is that there are variations in tempo from individual to individual. Some modification may be made in this tempo by training and by general environmental conditions, and the average difference in tempo between city dwellers and country dwellers is an evidence of the influence of the environment. Nevertheless, individual variations exist and must be respected. A teacher with a very rapid tempo is in danger of disorganizing a child of relatively slow tempo by his impatient attempts unduly to hurry the child up.

Aside from this there is a certain continuity in the individual's performance which represents the following out of a course of action which he conceives in his own mind. There may be no real advantage in following out a succession of actions in one order rather than in another. But if the individual has projected his activities in one order it may disturb him considerably for another individual arbitrarily to break into this order and to attempt to modify his program.

All this does not mean, of course, that the teacher should not help the child to learn to follow a more advantageous as distinguished from a less advantageous procedure. It means, however, that such help can be given better when the activity is being planned and the general program is being laid out than when the activity is being executed. It may be necessary at times to help the pupil in the midst of the execution of an activity in order to point out to him the exact point at which he is making a mistake, but this should be the exception rather than the rule. The child should be given the opportunity and encouraged to organize his activity in larger and larger units. The chief fault in the training of the individual by military methods is that when he is left to go on his own he is not capable of managing his own affairs. He, therefore, fails to meet many of the demands made upon him, and his whole behavior falls into a disorganized state. The only way a person can learn to organize his affairs is by being given opportunity and help in organizing his behavior in progressively larger units.

The measures which I have been discussing thus far have to do with setting the general conditions which favor the proper organization of the child's behavior. In addition to setting these general conditions, much particularized attention must be given to individual children. This attention is partly for the purpose of preventing the development of undesirable attitudes and habits and partly for the purpose of remedying undesirable attitudes or habits which have already been formed. This individual handling of the child is what we ordinarily designate by management. The teacher has a very large measure of responsibility for promoting the mental health of the student through intelligent management. The purpose of such management is commonly conceived to be simply the establishment of good order and the attainment of externally acceptable behavior. Good order and acceptable behavior are, of course, important. But if we fix our attention only on external behavior, we shall overlook important conditions which have a large bearing upon the child's mental health.

From the point of view of mental health, we may, perhaps, summarize the aims of management as being the development of a sense of responsibility, on the one hand, and of a sense of personal adequacy, on the other hand. If the child lacks the due sense of responsibility, he develops an attitude of ego-centricity. He overvalues his own concerns and his own desires in contrast to those of others. This is the attitude of the spoiled child, and unfortunately it is not confined to childhood. One who has not developed the proper sense or the due sense of his own adequacy, on the other hand, is dominated by fear and anxiety. He feels himself incapable of meeting the demands which are laid upon him. This attitude is frequently due to the fact that the child has been held under too strict domination by authority, perhaps the authority of a parent or of a teacher, or that the demands have been made upon which he was not able to meet.

The unwillingness or inability to meet the responsibilities which are laid upon the individual frequently result in evasions and in rationalization. The skillful teacher will be able to help the child in many cases to recognize his evasion and rationali-

zation and to face reality more fearlessly. This is accomplished partly, of course, by suiting the demands to the ability of the child—a procedure which has already been discussed. It is frequently necessary, however, to re-educate the individual, to develop in him a different attitude, and to build up through gradual stages the ability to face his tasks and perform them without evasion.

As a preparation for this type of guidance, it is desirable that the teacher should acquire some facility in detecting his own evasions and rationalizations. He may, perhaps, make a start by learning to detect the rationalizations which are made by other persons. It is always easier to see the other person's rationalizations than one's own. After a little practice in detecting others' evasions, one may learn to detect his own. This will enable him better to deal sympathetically with the evasions of the pupils. I may illustrate rationalizations from examples given by Dr. Goodwin Watson in the White House Report of the Sub-committee on Mental Hygiene in the Schools. Among some of the common evasions are: 1. Pretending or developing illness to avoid something unpleasant. 2. Outbursts of misbehavior to attract attention or relieve monotony. 3. Disparaging remarks about other pupils in the hope of raising his own status. 4. Bossiness, loud voice, domination to conceal inner trepidation. 5. Pretending not to want something which is desired but is not at once attainable. (The sour grapes attitude). 6. Bullying younger children as compensation for inadequacy with own group. I recommend that the teacher study the entire list given in the original report.

There are certain methods of management often used by teachers which are obviously contrary to the principles of mental hygiene. Such, for example, are the use of fear and punishment as a strong motive, the indulgence in sarcasm or nagging, the expressions of liking or aversion for individual pupils of the class, the holding up of a pupil to ridicule as, for example, calling him a dumbbell. It is surprising how often we will find otherwise skillful teachers using these discredited methods. They undercut the very root of effort by the child through destroying his confidence in himself. I am afraid that

they are sometimes compensations by the teacher for the feeling of his own inferiority.

I have attempted to sum up some of the important general conditions which seem to be necessary for the promotion of the mental health of the students. The speakers who follow will add to these general remarks further general considerations and will add advice concerning specific practices which they have found in their abundant practical experience to promote the mental health of the students.

Mr. O. Granger, Principal of Haverford Township Senior High School of Upper Darby, Pennsylvania, led in the discussion.

In the discussion after Professor Freeman's paper, Mr. O. Granger, principal of the Haverford Township Senior High School, Delaware County, Upper Darby, Pennsylvania, offered the following: The principal must develop the point of view of the mental hygienist and attempt to organize the school around the individual. He should attempt to organize the school so that the institution serves the needs of the largest number of individual students. He should have the point of view that the school is administered to teach pupils rather than to teach subject-matter.

In a program of organizing the school to apply the principles of mental hygiene, he should start with adjusting the school to one pupil, then another, and so on until the school is serving the needs of every student. He should not reorganize the school to be consistent with a general theory, or scheme, handed from the universities; and he should not attempt to reorganize the school after a scheme that works well in some other community. He should, day by day, try to make the school serve the needs of the individual students in the school at the time.

He should attempt to proceed scientifically in education somewhat along the line that the medical profession follows, making our teachers' meetings clinics. He should develop a vocabulary that enables him to talk about a student problem

with some degree of analysis. He must have other terms to explain what we now call laziness and carelessness, etc. He must have some other way of dealing with students in place of failing them. He should develop a classification of symptoms of mal-adjustment, and then a procedure in diagnosis and a technique in remedial work, as well as in case histories.

He must decide who will do the work, whether he is to employ a specialist or whether each teacher is to handle his own cases. He should develop the point of view that it is necessary for the classroom teacher to do the work, and that the specialist, or the principal as a specialist, should provide the leadership, that the matter of pupil adjustment is one of adjustment between the teacher and the pupil.

He must build up a body of case history as a guide in the treatment of cases. These should be the record kept on the cases which he works on. I suggest that it would be well for the principal's department to have a "clearing house" where case history might be accumulated and then distributed so that we can all profit by the experiences of other workers.

Mr. Edward H. Stullken, Principal of the Montefiore Special School of Chicago followed.

Mr. Edward H. Stullken, Principal, Montefiore School, Chicago, Illinois, went on with the discussion: Every school system has many individual pupils who because of their behavior test the patience and ingenuity of teachers, principals, and other school authorities. The school is more important in the lives of such children than in that of ordinary children because it is not only an educative force, but also often the only agency giving them an opportunity to adjust to the world in which they live.

The education of the past, which has frequently been concerned with a narrow, intellectual development, has failed to take into account that problem children need adjustments,—such as developing their personalities, securing emotional stability, developing a sense of security,—more than mere intellectual development. The mental hygiene movement has done a great deal toward giving the school this broader viewpoint of

education. It has resulted in deflecting the emphasis of the teachers' work from the routine of intellectual discipline and drill to the more important task of training the child to meet the real problems of life. One of the psychiatric contributions to education has been the creation in the schools of a mental hygiene viewpoint on the part of teachers, principals, and others rather than in keeping psychiatry as an external and clumsy corrective to all that is unpsychiatric in the school's activities.

The need for a psychiatric point of view in the special school for problem children is self-evident. Behavior, either good or bad, has usually a purposive value for the individual, and behavior that appears pathological or abnormal may be found to be quite logical and normal when the sequence of causes is known and when the entire history of the child's behavior has been studied.

Work with problem boys in the Montefiore Special School of Chicago indicates that the application of mental hygiene principles will assist materially in readjusting and reeducating these boys so that they may become assets rather than liabilities to society. By the application of mental hygiene principles to classroom problems the teacher can go a long way toward clearing up all behavior difficulties that may interfere with the individual child's development. Truancy, misbehavior, and petty delinquencies must be viewed as symptoms of something wrong in the life of the child in relation to society rather than as abnormalities of his nature. The truant and behavior problem child must be considered as a case for special study rather than as an object for punishment. Small classes, individual attention, additional equipment, special services of medical, dental, psychological, psychiatric, and social workers make reeducation and readjustment possible in nearly all cases. Most of the conditions, methods, materials and viewpoints that make this reeducation of the problem child possible are applicable to regular school procedures and if properly applied would prevent many problem cases now found in regular schools. Mental hygiene, therefore, has as great a place in the regular school as in special schools.

WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 24, 1932

DISCUSSION GROUPS

GROUP I

Junior High School Section

The Junior High-School Section met Wednesday morning February 24, in the East Lobby of the Wardman Park Hotel.

Mr. C. H. Threlkeld, President of the Department called the group to order at 10 A. M.

Dr. Francis T. Spaulding, Associate Professor of Education, Harvard University, and Head Specialist in School Organization of the Staff of the National Survey of Secondary Education read his paper entitled, *Is the Junior High School Organization Superior to the Conventional Organization? A Report on Nation-wide Practice.*

IS THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL ORGANIZATION SUPERIOR TO THE CONVENTIONAL ORGANIZATION?
A REPORT ON NATION-WIDE PRACTICE

DR. F. T. SPAULDING
Associate Professor of Education
Harvard University

The National Survey of Secondary Education has included among its projects a study of the organization of secondary schools. This particular study has concerned itself simply with organization, and not at all with details of subject matter or methods of teaching. It can therefore, throw only partial light on the question of whether any one type of secondary school is superior to any other. The study does not, as a matter of fact, attempt to "prove" in any conclusive way either superiority or inferiority; it does, however, seek to supply comparable data which may have bearing on such matters.

The data which the study has gathered have not yet been completely analyzed. Hence not all the conclusions which the

study will eventually make possible can as yet be definitely stated; the conclusions which touch on certain details of organization in various types of schools are, in particular, still in doubt. But the analysis to which the data have already been subjected has been carried far enough to justify a tentative report on certain of the study's findings.

Information gathered in the study bears upon a number of significant questions concerning the movement for secondary-school reorganization. The study has given chief attention to organizations of special promise. It has sought, in particular, to discover what forms of existing secondary-school organization offer greatest likelihood of providing thoroughly comprehensive and flexible adjustments to pupils' needs. The study may be able at length to offer certain definite conclusions with respect to this question. Within the scope of the present paper only the results of certain subordinate investigations can be set forth. These investigations have centered about two major questions: first, what sort of school organization has the junior high school movement actually produced? and second, how does the organization of the typical junior high school compare with that of the corresponding grades in conventionally organized systems?

Before dealing with these questions in turn it will be well to define with some exactness what is meant by "organization" as that subject has been treated in the study, and to describe the methods which have been used for obtaining descriptions of the organization of various types of schools. A clear understanding of both these matters is of fundamental importance in any just evaluation of the study's conclusions.

The study has not conceived school organization as a matter merely of the admission and classification of pupils, nor of the scheduling of classes, nor of provisions for individual differences. It has assumed that organization consists in the arrangement of all these matters at once, in conjunction with all the other internal and external "workings" of the school, so that the school may operate smoothly and effectively in every part. It has assumed, further, that organization is not a

subject to be studied piecemeal, one phase of it in one school and another phase in another school; it must be studied in all its major ramifications at the same time and in the same schools if any sound estimate of it is to result.

The study has, however, avoided a definition of organization in terms of the subject matter or the process or the results of teaching. It has assumed that within the framework of a thoroughly "good" organization—however "good" is defined—the subject matter and the methods of teaching may be correspondingly good, or they may be only average, or they may be definitely poor. A school's organization is understood to be all those arrangements which provide *opportunity* for effective education; the organization does not in and of itself offer a guarantee of effective education.

Put in briefer if somewhat more academic terms, the study has considered the organization of a school to imply all the provisions made in that school for the effective and harmonious functioning of the school's major activities in due relation to each other.

The task of studying school organization, with "organization" thus defined, has of necessity involved the securing of a large amount of information about each of many individual schools. That information has been obtained for some hundreds of schools through the use of an extensive check-list, so designed as to call forth from the principal of any given school an accurate and comprehensive description of his school's internal and external workings. The check-list was arranged to provide for at least a sampling of each school's activities under nine major features of organization, as follows: (1) the admission and promotion of pupils; (2) the arrangement of instruction, in terms of departmentalization, the size of classes, the length of school sessions, the use of standardized tests, and the adoption of special schemes which make possible direct attention to individual differences; (3) the scope and arrangement (but not the detailed content) of the program of studies; (4) provisions for the articulation of the school with other school units; (5) the composition of the teaching staff;

(6) the scope and arrangement (but not the detailed content) of the school's extra-curricular program; (7) the school's provisions for the educational and vocational guidance of its pupils; (8) arrangements for the supervision of instruction; and (9) the school's housing and equipment. Under each of these heads school principals were asked to indicate the provisions which their schools were actively making to afford an appropriate framework for effective instruction.

Whether the reports which were received through these check-lists were entirely accurate in every case can of course not be definitely established. Efforts were made both to secure careful attention to the check-lists by those principals who received them, and to gauge the accuracy of a selected group of check-list returns as an indication of the accuracy of the reports as a whole. The reports from some thirty schools which were inspected at first hand after their check-lists had been returned proved to have depicted the organization of those schools with remarkable exactness. Specific items were occasionally misunderstood, but no extensive errors in reporting were anywhere apparent; and the honesty with which individual principals had testified to weaknesses in their school organizations was a matter of particular notice. Concerning the reports as a whole it may probably be fairly assumed that they represent as accurate a return of the information for which they ask as could be gained by any method short of extended first-hand study of each individual school.

As to whether the schools described in the check-list returns represent a fair sampling of the groups of schools to which they belong, that too is a matter which cannot be definitely established. The task of securing representative schools of the conventional type proved an especially difficult one; the nature of the sampling provided in that group of schools will be indicated later. Reorganized schools were selected in the first place according to a plan which provided a random sampling on a statistical basis. Principals responded to requests for cooperation, however, in such different proportions for different types of schools, that the original representation was in certain respects very largely destroyed. The five hundred

reorganized schools finally included in the study were drawn from all the more prominent types of reorganization, from a half-dozen distinguishable sizes of schools, from each of five major-size groups of communities, and from all sections of the country. Their average size is, nevertheless, somewhat greater than the average size of all schools of the types to which they belong; and there is reason to believe that because of other factors than size they represent the better schools of their types in larger proportions than the average or poorer schools. Both these defects no doubt influence the apparent characteristics of the typical reorganized school as these characteristics are portrayed by the data of the study. The data probably give a somewhat unduly favorable description, rather than a notably unfavorable one, of current practice.

All these limitations need to be kept clearly in mind in interpreting the results of the study's attempt to describe the typical reorganized school. The limitations may well be repeated for the sake of emphasis. The study's descriptions and comparisons are in terms of organization alone, and not in terms of detailed subject-matter offerings, methods of teaching, or results of instruction. The data for the comparisons here presented were obtained through the use of an extensive check-list, and are subject to whatever defects may necessarily attach to data gathered by such a method. The schools which supplied the data are probably not entirely representative of their types; their averages seem in general to be somewhat above the true averages for the country as a whole.

What sort of school organization, then, has the junior high school movement actually produced?

The typical junior high school, as it is revealed in the 367 check-list replies from schools including junior high school grades, is a three-year school comprising grades seven, eight, and nine, and enrolling slightly under four hundred pupils. It has been in existence since 1926; before that year the school system of which it is now a part was organized on the eight-four basis. The junior high school is housed in a building erected specifically for its use. Senior high school grades are

sometimes housed in the same building, but the junior and senior high school grades are under separate administrations. In the opinion of the junior high school principal, the school equipment as a whole is reasonably adequate for junior high school purposes. The principal finds that the provisions for health and physical education are not entirely satisfactory, however, and usually certain other features of the plant have, in his judgment, not been well cared for.

The typical junior high school admits to its seventh grade pupils promoted from the sixth grade of the elementary school, on the understanding that these pupils have satisfactorily completed all their sixth-grade work. In exceptional cases the junior high school grants admission to over-age pupils who are recommended by elementary-school teachers as capable of profiting by junior high school work, even though such pupils may not have completed the required courses of the elementary grades. The junior high school makes no systematic use either of standardized achievement tests or of intelligence tests as a basis for admission.

Promotion in the junior high school is annual. The typical school employs some form of promotion by subject, but there is no agreement as to whether promotion by subject shall apply to all subjects, to "major" subjects only, to "minor" subjects only, or merely to such subjects as the schedule of classes may allow in individual cases. Promotion is ordinarily contingent upon a passing mark in the subject in which advancement is sought, together with the teacher's judgment that the pupil who is to be promoted possesses the ability to do the work of the succeeding grade. Industry and application are occasionally taken into account in individual cases, and a pupil's chronological age is sometimes a deciding factor. As in the case of admission, achievement tests and tests of intelligence are not employed.

The typical school provides a schedule of classes under which each pupil works with six different teachers in the seventh grade, with six in the eighth grade, and with five in the ninth grade—the reverse of a gradual introduction of de-

partmentalization. Each junior high school teacher is responsible, usually, for only a single subject, though the average teacher must present that subject in all three grades.

Classes in the typical school enroll ordinarily about thirty pupils. The smallest class enrolls fourteen, and the largest (a class in a non-academic subject) enrolls forty-nine. Seven class periods, each approximately forty-five minutes in length, make up the usual school day.

Tests both of achievement and of intelligence are used for sectioning pupils in certain classes, and occasionally for the diagnosis of difficulties in learning. The school does not employ such tests for assigning pupils to specialized subjects or curricula, for prognosis or guidance, or for research.

The typical school employs individual instruction techniques in some of its classes. In some of its classes, likewise, it pays special attention to so-called "socialized" methods of teaching. It has adopted some form of ability-grouping in a considerable number of classes. Provisions for individual coaching of slow pupils in certain subjects represent its only additional arrangement (so far as its general organization is concerned) for meeting individual needs. Bright pupils receive no special attention, except as they are provided for in ability-groups; no make-up or opportunity classes are offered for slow pupils or for pupils who have failed; and no credit is given for out-of-school projects or studies.

The typical school's program of studies is of either the constants-and-variables type or the multiple-curriculum type—more commonly the latter. Except for an elective in music, all seventh-grade subjects are required; the list of subject-fields includes English, social studies, mathematics, science, art, required as well as elective work in music, home economics for the girls and industrial arts for the boys, and physical training. Foreign language is added as an elective in the eighth grade, and art is offered in this grade for a half-year only; the other eighth-grade subjects are continuations of those offered in the seventh grade. In the ninth grade English, social studies, mathematics, science, and physical training are re-

quired; foreign language continues as an elective; art disappears from the program; music, home economics, and industrial arts are placed entirely on an elective basis. The list of separate subjects which are elective thus consists of one subject in the seventh grade, two in the eighth grade, and four in the ninth grade. Agriculture is not offered, either as a required subject or as an elective; nor is business training, though when the program of studies is of the multiple-curriculum type a commercial curriculum appears among the basic curricula, as well as college-preparatory, general, industrial arts, and home economics curricula.

The break between the seventh grade of the typical junior high school and the sixth grade of the elementary school is not a sharp one so far as concerns the number of different subjects which appear in each pupil's program or the opportunity for election of subjects. Promotion by subject, however, is suddenly introduced; and the difference in the extent to which teaching is departmentalized in the two grades is a notable one. The junior high school sometimes modifies the subject matter offered in its seventh-grade classes to meet the special needs of pupils admitted from the elementary school. Its general supervisors and certain of its subject supervisors give occasional attention to the integration of subject matter and methods of teaching between the sixth and seventh grades. Otherwise, the junior high school pays no direct attention to articulation with the elementary school in the matter of its formal curriculum. No conferences are held between the teachers of the two school units, nor is the curriculum in either unit a product of committee deliberation in which teachers of the other unit have had a share.

Articulation with the senior high school is somewhat more directly cared for. The number of subjects in each pupil's schedule, the opportunity for promotion by subject, and the extent of departmentalization, are approximately the same in the tenth grade as in the ninth. The opportunity for election of courses is considerably greater in the tenth grade. Provision is frequently made by which pupils promoted to the senior high school may take certain junior high school subjects to meet

their special needs, though junior high school pupils cannot anticipate senior high school work. The articulation of subject matter and teaching methods is presumably advanced by the fact that certain teachers are engaged in teaching in both the junior high school and the senior high school, that senior high school teachers are appointed as members of committees on the subject matter of junior high school courses, that conferences are held between the teachers of the two school units, and that the junior and senior high school grades have in common both general supervisors and subject supervisors who give at least occasional attention to the integration of subject matter and methods. It is to be noted, however, that articulation between the schools seems ordinarily to take place from the top down; senior high school teachers have a voice in the formulation of junior high school courses, but junior high school teachers have no corresponding influence upon senior high school work.

The greater influence of the senior high school teachers is perhaps in part explained by the composition of the junior high school teaching staff. No junior high school teacher in the typical school is paid a salary as high as that of the best-paid senior high school teacher in the same system, and the lowest junior high school salary is lower than the salary of the most poorly paid senior high school teacher in the system. The difference between junior and senior high school standards is reflected within the junior high school itself, in that teachers appointed to ninth-grade positions must hold college degrees, whereas seventh- and eighth-grade teachers need not be college graduates. Prior teaching experience is not insisted on in the case of junior high school appointments; but all teachers must have had at least fifteen semester-hours of professional training. As a result of these requirements (some of them only recently put into effect), only one out of five of the junior high school teachers fails to hold a college degree, only one in seventeen has had no professional training, and only one in seventeen again has had no previous teaching experience. Five teachers out of six have previously taught in this same school. One-third of the teaching staff are men.

The typical school's extra-curricular program is an extensive one. Practically all the pupils are enrolled in home-room organization; a considerable number of them engage in club activities, extra-curricular athletics, and pupil-conducted assemblies; and at least some pupils are active in a general school government, in musical organizations, school publications, and school social affairs, and in school exhibitions and graduations. Pupil activity is encouraged by the fact that pupils are either required to take part in some form of activity or are given to understand that if they do not choose to participate they must devote their extra-curricular periods to study or to other assigned tasks. Participation in extra-curricular activities does not, however, carry credit toward promotion or graduation, nor is it required for promotion or graduation. Three half-hour periods per week are regularly set aside for extra-curricular activities, of which one is devoted to home-room activities, one to clubs, and one to pupil assemblies. Other activities are conducted outside of school hours. Financial support for the extra-curricular program is obtained from dues, sales of tickets to entertainments, subscriptions to school publications, the sale of advertising, and the like. From the financial standpoint, both the extra-curricular program as a whole and the separate activities of which it is composed lead a largely catch-as-catch-can existence.

Between the extra-curricular program of the typical junior high school and extra-curricular activities in the elementary school there is no apparent connection whatever, except that some of the activities offered in the junior high school are offered also in the elementary school. The gap between junior and senior high schools is, by contrast, not a marked one. The extra-curricular program of the tenth grade closely parallels that of the ninth. But the only definite provisions made to articulate the extra-curricular programs of the junior and senior high schools consists in an arrangement by which certain teachers act as sponsors of extra-curricular activities in both schools.

The guidance program of the typical junior high school includes a slight attention—but only slight attention—to the

guidance of elementary-school pupils before they enter the junior high school. Sixth-grade pupils have the work of the junior high school explained to them by their elementary-school principal or teachers, and occasionally such pupils are given assistance in choosing specific subjects which will be open to them when they enter the junior high school. Elementary-school pupils do not visit the junior high school prior to their admission to the school, and no measures are taken to acquaint any considerable number of their parents with the nature of the junior high school program.

Once enrolled in the junior high school, pupils are given group guidance by their home-room teachers both during the first two or three weeks of school and more or less continuously thereafter throughout the junior high school period. They receive no systematic individual guidance when they first enter the school; nor, indeed, can the majority of pupils count on receiving individual guidance during the junior high school period. When such guidance is given, it comes, as in the case of group guidance, from the home-room teachers. Major emphasis in guidance is placed on the choice of specific subjects of study, but some attention is devoted also to participation in extra-curricular activities, to vocational choices, to ethical conduct and etiquette or "manners", to health, to methods of study, and to use of leisure time. Though the parents of practically all the pupils are kept informed concerning their children's special problems, the use of printed reports furnishes the chief means of communication with the home; parents are not reached in any large number of cases either through individual interviews or through group meetings.

The guidance of junior high school pupils with respect to their future activities in the senior high school is less extensive than their guidance in strictly junior high school matters. Ninth-grade pupils have the work of the senior high school explained to them by their junior high school principal or teachers; occasionally they visit the senior high school. Their introduction to senior high school problems consists almost exclusively of assistance in the choice of the specific subjects or curricula which they are to pursue in the tenth grade.

Their parents receive printed or mimeographed materials describing the senior high school requirements and program of studies. Except in these ways, the junior high school does not directly concern itself with its pupils' senior high school plans.

The provision of a comprehensive program of guidance is no doubt handicapped, in the typical junior high school, by the fact that the school has no special guidance staff; whatever guidance is offered must be provided by the principal and the regular classroom teachers, with no outside assistance. The school keeps detailed cumulative records concerning individual pupils, on which appear (in certain cases, at least) scores from standardized tests of achievement and ability, reports of physical examinations, and teachers' ratings of pupils' achievement and general scholastic ability. Conferences are occasionally held with individual pupils and their parents; the conferences are supplemented with formal notices and reports and occasional personal letters to parents. Group guidance is offered through home-room periods, assembly talks by the principal or members of the faculty and by laymen, excursions to observe workers in specific vocations, and the school's extra-curricular program. The school offers no systematic guidance classes or classes in occupations; it makes no direct use of exploratory or try-out courses in its guidance program; it maintains no contact with parents through visits to pupils' homes; it has no arrangements for following up pupils who have left the school.

The junior high school makes no provision whatever for the articulation of its guidance program with the program of the elementary school. A degree of continuity is achieved between the programs of the junior and senior high schools in that certain of the teachers who take part in the junior high school program take part in the senior high school program as well, and occasional conferences are held between junior and senior high school teachers concerning the guidance of individual pupils in the senior high school grades. Otherwise the junior high school guidance program is formulated without direct reference to its integration with that of the senior high school.

Finally, the general supervision of the work of the typical junior high school is carried on by the superintendent of schools, the junior high school principal, and certain special-subject supervisors. There is no assistant principal. The principal is the only supervisory officer who devotes his attention primarily to the junior high school; the superintendent of schools has obviously a diversified responsibility, and the special-subject supervisors are ordinarily as much concerned with either the elementary school or the senior high school as with the junior high school. All of the supervisory officers engage in classroom visitation and in conferences with individual teachers. Both general faculty meetings and departmental meetings play a part in the school's supervisory program. Curriculum revision, the systematic examination of new textbooks, and the use of school "visiting days" are commonly employed as means for the improvement of teaching during the school year; summer study is emphasized as a further means of increasing efficiency.

This, then, is the organization of the typical junior high school, in so far as the schools included in the study may be considered typical. Of course no single school actually exists which is exactly like the school that has just been described. The data gathered in the study offer abundant evidence that one of the most notable characteristics of present junior high schools is the extreme variety of their internal organizations—a variety which makes it virtually impossible for any existing school to be singled out as a fair example of what is to be found in junior high schools in general. The description here given is a description merely of the prevailing features of organization in the junior high schools of the study. Were a boy or girl to be entered at random in one of these schools, these are the arrangements that he would be most likely to find waiting for him.

It is apparent that the arrangements are not all that might be desired. The junior high school affords opportunity for a surprising variety of extra-curricular activities, it is true; classes in curricular subjects are on the whole not unduly large; slow pupils and over-age pupils are provided for in

a measure through certain schemes for the adjustment of teaching to their individual needs; the program of studies allows some degree of differentiation; the teaching-staff has for the most part been professionally trained. But the curriculum as a whole still retains a predominantly academic cast; the extra-curricular program seems to be maintained quite as much by administrative mandate as by its own inherent appeal to pupils' interests; provisions for individual differences largely neglect the brighter pupils; the school makes small use of potentially valuable instruments of measurement and diagnosis; arrangements for articulation with the elementary school below and the senior high school above are in almost no particulars highly developed, and in important phases of the school's work are entirely lacking; and provision for the guidance of pupils—a major function of the junior high school—has gone little beyond a rudimentary stage. All this is true, it must be remembered, of the organization typical of a group of junior high schools which are presumably somewhat better organized than the average. In the light of that fact, more impressive evidence than this could hardly be found in support of the thesis that no mere formal adoption of a junior high school pattern will produce reorganization worthy of the name.

Perhaps it would be appropriate to take further stock at this point of whatever general implications there may be in this description of the typical junior high school. Facts as to the organization of the typical school are fully significant, however, only when they are interpreted in relation to corresponding facts as to the organization of so-called unreorganized schools. Hence it will be well to consider immediately the second of the major questions with which this discussion is concerned; How does the organization of the typical junior high school compare with that of the corresponding grades in conventionally organized systems?

The original plans for the study called for check-list reports from a group of eight-year elementary schools and four-year high schools which could fairly be compared with reports from the junior high schools. Returns were secured from more than fifty four-year high schools, but only thirty elementary

schools supplied descriptions of the organization of their seventh and eight grades, and of these thirty, thirteen were in systems which contained reorganized as well as conventional schools. So far as concerns the organization of the ninth grade, the check-list returns from the four-year high schools are probably fairly comparable with the reports from the junior high schools represented in the study. Because of the nature of the elementary-school group, however, comparison of the conventional schools and the reorganized schools in minute detail will probably serve no very useful purpose. Even so, a statement of the major respects in which the two types of schools differ may be of some interest.

The most striking difference between the junior high school and the conventional school as the two are here represented, appears in connection with articulation. Meager though the provisions for articulation appear to be between the ninth and tenth grades in the reorganized system, they are notably more extensive than the provisions for articulation between the eighth and ninth grades of the conventional system. Arrangements for integrating subject matter and teaching methods in the conventional school consist only in the appointment of general supervisors, or special-subject supervisors, for the elementary school and high school in common. There is an abrupt break in the number of subjects included in pupils' schedules, in the opportunity for promotion by subject, and frequently in the extent of departmentalization—matters in which the junior high school provides a gradual transition at this point. There is a similar break in the organization of the extra-curricular program in the conventional school. Pupils devote considerably more time to extra-curricular activities, and are given notably greater freedom in their choice of extra-curricular activities, in the ninth grade than in the eighth, and the only tie between lower-and upper-school programs consists (as with the reorganized school) in the fact that certain teachers occasionally serve as sponsors in both schools. The integration of the guidance program alone seems to be no more poorly provided for in the conventional school than in the reorganized school; but the fact that the two schools are on a par in

this respect is not so much a matter of the merits of either type of organization as of the defects of both.

Articulation is somewhat better provided for, however, between the sixth and seventh grades of the conventional school than between the sixth and seventh grades in the reorganized system. The differences here consist chiefly in the fact that the elementary schools report frequent conferences on subject matter and teaching method between teachers in the two grades, in addition to the contacts maintained through supervision, and that certain elementary-school teachers act as sponsors for extra-curricular activities in both grades. So far as articulation directly affects the pupils' programs, the transition in the curricular program at this point seems to be of the same general nature in both schools; the transition in the extra-curricular program appears to involve a less sudden break in the conventional school than in the reorganized school. Arrangements for the articulation of the guidance programs are lacking in both schools.

To balance the gain in articulation which the junior high school has apparently brought about at the top, against the loss in articulation which it seems to have produced at the bottom, is a task that must be undertaken with caution. In so far as the data here presented give a reliable indication of present conditions, they would suggest a net gain rather than a loss. It must be granted that the junior high school has, in a sense, produced two gaps where only one existed before. It must be granted also that arrangements for articulation do not in themselves produce effective integration. Even with these reservations, however, there is some reason for believing that the arrangements which the typical junior high school provides promise on the whole a more effective integration of school work than that which exists under the conventional school organization.

Aside from the matter of articulation, there are certain clearly evident differences between the junior high school and the conventional school in the general organization of the ninth grade. For reasons suggested earlier, the ninth-grade differences deserve to be analyzed by themselves.

The conventional ninth grade differs most notably from the reorganized ninth grade in its arrangements for a program of guidance. Guidance of conventional-school ninth-grade pupils is carried on not by home-room teachers, as in the junior high school, but by the high-school principal with the occasional assistance of class advisers. Guidance classes or classes in occupations are lacking, as they are in the junior high school also. In addition, no systematic provision is made in the conventional school for home-room periods, the problems dealt with as subjects for guidance are fewer in number than in the junior high school, and cumulative records play no part in the guidance program.

The absence of home-room periods in the conventional ninth grade is encountered again in connection with the extra-curricular program. The activities-schedule for the conventional school, moreover, frequently includes no more than two periods each week. The activity-periods are twenty-five minutes in length, as compared with approximately thirty minutes in the junior high school. The variety of extra-curricular activities open to the pupils is, however, practically as great as in the junior high school.

One special handicap under which the conventional ninth grade must work is of interest; the school principal reports a building in which the shop equipment is seriously inadequate.

In contrast with these shortcomings, ninth-grade organization in the conventional school offers certain presumable advantages over that of the junior high school. Ninth-grade classes in the conventional school tend to enroll approximately twenty-five pupils, as compared with thirty in the junior high school; and the largest conventional-school classes approximate an enrollment of only thirty-four pupils, as compared with the junior high school's forty-nine. The ninth-grade program of studies in the conventional school offers greater opportunity for election of courses than does the program for the ninth grade of the junior high school, though the subject fields represented are identical for the two schools. Of the ninth-grade teaching staff in the conventional school, nine teachers

in every ten hold college degrees, as compared with only four teachers out of five in the junior high school as a whole. Finally, the conventional-school principal, unlike the principal of the junior high school, ordinarily reports no serious inadequacy in his school's equipment for health and physical education.

Except in the matters of articulation and guidance, the balance between ninth-grade organization in the junior high school on the one hand and the conventional school on the other would thus seem on the whole to be surprisingly even.

The balance between the two types of seventh-and eighth-grade organization is also surprisingly even. Perhaps because of the nature of the elementary schools used for comparison, the differences in these grades affect major features of organization in a less wholesale fashion than is the case with guidance, for example, in the ninth grade; the differences tend to be found in small items of practice, and frequently offset each other directly.

The conventional school, for example, is perhaps at a disadvantage in that it offers promotion in the seventh and eighth grades by grade only, instead of by subject; but it tends to atone for this disadvantage by allowing semi-annual promotions, and by using achievement tests (which the junior high school does not employ for this purpose) as a partial basis for promotions. The conventional school is presumably favored by the fact that it introduces departmentalization somewhat less abruptly than does the junior high school; its classes, however, ordinarily enroll an average of approximately thirty-five pupils rather than thirty, and it provides a daily schedule of seven periods which are only forty minutes in length instead of forty-five minutes. The conventional school provides more frequently than does the junior high school for individual interviews with parents in connection with its guidance program, and for visits to the homes of its pupils; but it compares unfavorably with the junior high school in that it does not make systematic use of home-room periods in its guidance program.

Certain further advantages and disadvantages are less easily checked off against each other. On the side of the ledger presumably to the credit of the conventional school are the facts that this school makes systematic use of achievement tests in admitting pupils to the seventh grade, and that it uses standardized tests of both achievement and intelligence in its guidance program. On the unfavorable side of its ledger are the facts that the conventional school ordinarily provides no electives whatever in its seventh-and eighth-grade program of studies; that it allows for no organized pupil-participation in school government; that it offers only two twenty-five minute activity-periods each week, as contrasted with three thirty-minute periods in the junior high school; that only one-seventh of its teachers are men, and that fewer than one-fifth of the teachers hold college degrees; that its staff is not engaged in any systematic revision of the curriculum; and that its shop equipment is reported to be seriously inadequate.

How are all these varying elements to be interpreted? He would be a rash critic indeed who would assert, on the basis of these data, that the typical junior high school organization is measurably superior to that of the conventional school. He would be no less rash a critic who would maintain that reorganization has brought about no changes in organization which are of value. The truth seems to be that reorganization has been accompanied by certain changes in emphasis which do not in themselves stand out altogether clearly, and which must be matched against different points of emphasis in supposedly unreorganized schools.

Perhaps the following conclusions may be reasonably justified. They are advanced with full recognition of the limitations of the present study, and with allowance for the nature of the groups of schools which the study has used in its comparisons. If they seem to be less clear-cut than might be desirable, it is because the data of the study have not led to wholly definite and exact generalizations.

First: the typical junior high school offers only a limited number of the varied adjustments to pupils' needs which have

been urged by active proponents of such schools. Emphasis has apparently been more directly placed on the development of the extra-curricular program than on any other major feature of the school's organization; the adoption of a comprehensive guidance program, the use of reliable measures of ability and achievement, and provision in the school organization for the special needs of the brighter pupils, seem in particular to have received less than their due share of attention.

Second: the organization of the typical junior high school probably compares favorably, nevertheless, with that of the corresponding grades in representative unreorganized schools. There is reason to believe that reorganization has produced a definite development of arrangements for articulation between the elementary-and secondary-school units. In all probability, moreover, the guidance program in the ninth grade of the typical junior high school, meager though that program now is, is more comprehensive than the guidance program in the ninth grade of the conventional four-year high school. The organization of the junior high school program of studies is likewise worthy of note; the introduction of elective offerings in the reorganized seventh and eighth grades contrasts strongly with the conventional elementary school's adherence to a completely required program.

Third: the movement for reorganization has presumably had a not inconsiderable effect upon the organization of conventional schools as well as upon that of the reorganized schools. Though the extent of its effect upon conventional schools cannot be exactly determined, it has probably lessened the differences between the supposedly "traditional" organization and the newer types of organization. In special aspects of the school's work, it may possibly have stimulated individual unreorganized schools to greater changes than the changes made in numerous schools which have professedly been reorganized.

To know what sort of school the typical reorganized school is, to know how the reorganized school compares with the conventional school—these are matters of interest to nearly ev-

everyone who is actively engaged in secondary education. They are likely to be matters of fundamental importance, however, only as they suggest the direction which reorganization should take from now on.

The direction which reorganization ought to take cannot be determined in the light of present conditions alone. If any "best" form of organization is at length to be hit upon, it will in all probability have to be defined in terms of educational goals which lie beyond present achievement, and of educational methods and machinery which are as yet unheard of.

Nor can any study of organization itself, narrowly conceived, set a standard by which progress should be judged. School organization is obviously no more than a means to the school's achievement of effective instruction; and organization can be soundly evaluated, in the last analysis, only through intensive study of the relation which it bears to both the goals, and the methods and materials, of effective instruction.

The information which the present study supplies needs to be interpreted with due regard for all these matters. Thus interpreted, it must almost inevitably suggest certain fundamental questions with respect to the junior high school movement as a whole. What are the obstacles which have prevented, thus far, a greater fulfillment of the generally accepted goals of reorganization? Does the fact that junior high schools in general have not introduced certain supposedly desirable changes imply a serious shortcoming in our educational system, or does it imply simply that changes desirable in theory have not in all cases been found desirable in practice? What can be learned from practice in the many schools which have done much more than the typical school to provide a comprehensive and flexible framework for their instruction? And what can be learned, by contrast, from those other schools which have been unable to provide even as comprehensive an organization as the average?

Data concerning typical practice can obviously afford no immediate answer to such questions as these. The most fruitful suggestions as to ways of improving school organiza-

tion are likely to be found not in typical practice, but in the procedures adopted in outstanding schools. The present study has devoted its chief attention to such schools, and can promise, as has been said, certain outcomes which indicate more or less definitely what types of organization are likely to be effective and what types are not. Meanwhile, data on typical practice may, perhaps, make possible a clearer and more direct understanding of the problems of reorganization which lie ahead.

IS THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL ORGANIZATION SUPERIOR TO THE CONVENTIONAL ORGANIZATION? A REPORT ON NATION-WIDE PRACTICES

(Discussion)

H. A. GLASS

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Dr. Spaulding's report indicates that typical junior high school organization is probably superior to the conventional school organization in the following respects: (1) an extensive and effective extra-curriculum program, (2) a more definite program for guidance, (3) considerable differentiation in the program of studies, (4) promotion by subject, (5) better articulation with lower and higher schools, (6) buildings and equipment that are more adequate for the education of pupils of this age. The report also discloses that the conventional school is stronger than the junior high school in the aspects of organization listed below: (1) teachers are more highly trained academically, (2) classes are smaller, (3) articulation with the elementary school is more satisfactorily worked out. Disregarding all other considerations, among which must be that of the probable influence which junior high school development has had in producing similar changes within the organization of the conventional school, it seems that one must admit a superior type for the junior high school or else condemn the foregoing aspects of its strength as being undesirable.

Progressive development of this type of school demands leadership with a vision as to its ultimate possibilities; a keen appreciation on the part of principals and teachers with regard to the accepted functions of the school; a definite and continuous program for the education of teachers concerning the aims, purposes and functions of junior high schools; and a plan for the retention of teachers in a given situation until they have thoroughly mastered the underlying principles and fundamental techniques applicable to junior high school teaching.

The past discloses for junior high school organization an unparalleled development. The time has been short, the obstacles many, and yet development of this particular type of school has been the marvel of the educational world. The present finds a school that is probably more adequate in its provision of opportunity for effective education than does any other particular segment of our public educational organization. Not only does it more nearly approach the standards set for it than does any other type of school found in our present-day educational set-up, but it has, without any serious doubt, been influential in bringing about many of those desirable changes that have been worked into the fabric of organization in other schools.

The future of the junior high school seems bright. It is a young institution, unhampered by tradition, and manned by a personnel that in many respects out-ranks teachers in the older types of schools in zeal for their work, in appreciation of the problems of adolescent childhood, and in willingness to try out new methods and techniques. Out of the slowly evolving junior high school organization will in all probability come the solution of many of our most perplexing educational problems. Upon this point the future alone will speak. Let us hope that this New School will direct us to better days for education.

GROUP II

Senior High School Section

The Senior High-School Section met in the Theatre of Wardman Park Hotel at 10:25 A. M., Wednesday, February 24, 1932.

Mr. L. N. Morrisett, Principal of Classen High School, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, was in charge of this group.

Dr. Ben D. Wood, Professor of Collegiate Research, Columbia University presented his material without manuscript.

GROUP III

Junior College Section

The Junior-College section met in the Florentine Room of Wardman Park at 10:30 A. M., Wednesday, February 24, 1932.

Mr. Louis E. Plummer, Principal of Union High School and Junior College, Fullerton, California, was in charge of the group.

Dr. George F. Zook, President of the University of Akron, Akron, Ohio, read his paper entitled, *Relative Merits of the 6-4-4 Plan of Organization*.

RELATIVE MERITS OF THE 6-4-4 ORGANIZATION

GEORGE F. ZOOK

President of Akron University, Akron, Ohio.

When I accepted a place on this program, I did not fully realize that I might be made the party of the first part to a lively debate as to the relative merits of two forms of educational organization. As soon as the true situation began to dawn upon me thoroughly I think I lost a little interest in the

whole matter; first, because of a sudden realization of my incompetency to say anything authoritative on the subject; and, secondly, because of a suspicion which increases with the years, that we are always inclined to magnify too much the importance of educational machinery.

One can not possibly imagine a time in the past or in the future when nation-wide uniformity as to educational units has been or will be desirable. Economic and population conditions in different regions of the country, within each state, even within a county of a state, are so diverse as to make one educational set-up practicable in one place and entirely impracticable a few miles away. Furthermore, the growing tremendous emphasis upon the study of students as individuals leads us all to realize that we are dealing with young people who are developing at different paces and to whom all units of educational organization are arbitrary.

I am therefore personally inclined to feel that there should be a considerable variety in educational units suited to various conditions and circumstances. Not only would I admit immediately that there is a place for 6-3-3-2 organization as well as for 6-4-4 but I would go further and encourage any other combination which for any reason may chance to gain favor. Each of them has its strong points. We are now in the throes of a vigorous discussion concerning educational reorganization which in itself is a very hopeful sign. It is only through experimentation that we shall gain anything in the way of uniform practice by common consent.

In this discussion I shall not attempt anything in the way of a complete analysis of the situation. I intend merely to review a limited number of the more important factors which seem to me to argue for a junior college of greater length than two years—a situation which requires at least the reorganization of the senior high school in combination with the junior college. Whether this will ultimately result in 6-4-4 I am not quite certain. I have always believed that through a complete reorganization of the secondary grades, including the junior college, we can accomplish about the same objectives in twelve

or thirteen years that are now obtained in fourteen. The experience of Kansas City, Mo. seems to point in this direction. In any case the unit including the junior college will, I believe, be longer than two years.

I do not need to tell you that our present educational units are traditional. Having once served in the capacity of teacher of history I have great respect for tradition. I believe that it generally accumulated experience and wisdom. I believe that the old educational units including eight and nine grade elementary schools served well an older form of American society. I know also that American society is constantly undergoing tremendous changes the significance of which we at the moment probably do not realize. Usually in a belated way we educators attempt to adjust our educational system to the changed conditions.

This situation accounts for the large amount of discussion which has been going on in this country for several decades as to what is the field of secondary education. First we spent a number of years convincing ourselves that the field of secondary education properly included the seventh and eighth grades. The junior high school was born and after a large amount of promotion was established in a considerable proportion of our urban communities.

Unfortunately those who were interested in secondary education did not take an equal interest in the possibility of extending the secondary unit upward. The result is that in general they hurried to get a realignment of educational units in secondary education including the seventh and eighth grades without first giving adequate consideration to the upper level of secondary education. Even to-day they are neglecting the task sadly, partly perhaps because having been so vociferous in announcing the virtues of 6-3-3 they naturally hesitate to advocate so speedily a reconsideration of the whole program, and partly because not having had junior college education within their control and having criticized the colleges so unmercifully for mismanaging the affair they hesitate at last to assert that they are really more capable of managing this unit

of education than those who are identified with the field of higher education. As a result, a large part of all of the discussion relative to junior colleges has proceeded from those who are identified with higher institutions and who, therefore, have no direct responsibility for the conduct of the present high school program. Until junior-college education can become at least equally the concern and responsibility of secondary school administrators as well as of professors of education and college presidents, the consideration of it is bound to be a bit academic and action problematical.

I am no worshiper of the figure four. I do not know anything about the possible virtues of the first "four" in 6-4-4 and not much concerning the second one. I think also that as the junior college movement grows on the one hand and master's degree work on the other, the present four-year college will tend to become more and more a two-year, three-year and, five-year institution as well as a four-year college. This seems to me to be a situation devoutly to be hoped for.

Neither do I think that there are no virtues in 6-3-3-2. Particularly do I feel that there are many smaller communities which can not support public education beyond the present high school. From these communities eventually will come a rather large proportion of the students who are enrolled in the junior colleges. Others who are resident in the community where a junior college is found will follow the traditional course of going away from home to college upon the completion of high-school work. Thus whether the junior college unit is a two-year unit or a longer one, there is bound to be considerable shifting in student personnel from the earlier to the later grades. This means that any educational unit which attempts thorough integration of work through a longer unit will encounter difficulties of this kind.

Furthermore, it must be admitted that especially where a two-year unit is adequately supported in either general or semi-professional education, it has been able to demonstrate a rather remarkable degree of strength and effectiveness. It will survive because it is both useful and traditional.

The fundamental difficulty with the junior college at the present time is that it is being claimed by the four-year college on the one hand and by secondary education on the other. The colleges refuse, perhaps wisely for the present, to give it up altogether. The secondary schools have not much precedent and not as much interest as they should have in making it an integral part of the secondary-school system. Consequently we let it grow up as a lousy orphan which is sought after by two families. One insists that it belongs to the family of higher education; the other to secondary education. Personally, I suspect that, under certain conditions, it will feel at home in both families. Also in some instances it may feel that it can take care of itself rather well without family connections. In other words, for the problem which has been raised in this discussion, I can not imagine—as I have already said—that any uniform solution is either possible or desirable.

There are, however, certain considerations which I believe merit attention in the direction of closer integration of junior-college work with the field of education, either above or below it. I believe that where the enrolment is large enough this can be done in the regular four-year undergraduate college because it has been and is being done. The present four-year college could not possibly have attained its present strength and effectiveness without having inherent virtues, some of which will perhaps be lost in any reorganization. I believe, therefore, that wherever feasible it is desirable to have the junior college closely integrated with the four-year college on the one hand or with the secondary-school system on the other.

Most of the proponents of junior colleges believe that the field of their interest may properly be included in secondary education. I believe that to be true. What then is secondary education? To me it is that period of education which is devoted to a general broadening of one's knowledge and conceptions of the physical and social world, which prepares young people with the tools of knowledge necessary for advanced study and which offers a completion education to those who are interested in and fitted for the vocations and semi-professions. It is well known that the first two of these objectives comprise

the main work of the first two years of college as well as the work of the high school. So far as content is concerned, there is no great difference between high-school chemistry, foreign language, rhetoric, biology, elementary mathematics, and history, and the corresponding courses in college. Not only do they duplicate one another but in the transfer of students from high school to college there is an inevitable overlapping of subject matter which is impressive in amount and which, to say the least, is not wholly defensible. I believe that the practical identity or similarity of subject matter in the high school and junior college and the great likelihood of wasteful overlapping where a student passes from one independent educational jurisdiction to another amply justify the belief that a close integration of junior-college work with the high-school program may ultimately prove to be more effective than either the independent junior college or the first two years of the four-year college.

Let us turn to the student himself for a moment for guidance in this matter. I know very little relative to the psychological argument involved in the situation. I think most of us are convinced, however, that the individual student goes through a rather gradual development. Owing to differences in ages of students and to the different times at which these changes take place in individuals, it is obviously difficult to select any particular period when there should be a sharp break in educational units. Rather, this situation seems clearly to indicate that the student should be subjected to the smallest possible number of such experiences. This situation is one of the chief reasons why I have always felt that a short unit as, for example, two years, is usually neither desirable at the junior college or any other educational level. The psychological argument, therefore, seems to me to point clearly to the smallest number of units, hence somewhat long in duration, which are consistent with the major psychological changes in individuals.

Let us take the student's choice of a future occupation as a problem. Sometime prior to his junior year in college he must make up his mind whether he will branch off into some form of vocational education, whether he will perhaps remain

a little longer and prepare himself for one of the growing number of semi-professions, whether he will follow engineering, commerce, or veterinary science, whether he will prepare himself for the professions of law, medicine, or dentistry or whether as a liberal arts student he will major in certain fields of work with some possibility later of teaching these subjects in high school. In other words, the secondary school including the junior college is the great period of occupational selection for a student. In this process of selection he needs constant guidance and help. He needs to be studied as an individual over a series of years for trends and tendencies in his interests until with this help he has made an occupational adjustment for himself. To the student the matter is a continuous problem until it is settled. I believe that where an educational organization is set up to handle this kind of thing with unified records and personnel as, for example, at Pasadena and the La Salle-Peru-Oglesby Junior College and high school, it can be handled more effectively than in two separate units. As against this fine situation, witness the difficulties which the colleges everywhere experience in securing more than the bare official record relative to entering students. I realize that as yet we have not had a great many demonstrations of the possibilities of this close integration of work between the high school and the junior college but I have personally been considerably impressed by what I have seen along this line at John Tarleton Junior College in Texas, Kansas City, Missouri, and Stephens College in Missouri and by what I have read and heard about the 6-4-4 plan in Pasadena, California, and Hillsboro, Texas, and the curriculum study now going forward in Tulsa, Oklahoma.

Let us look at some of the practical situations arising out of the lack of integration. In our attempts to elevate and preserve the standards of college work we have, in the North Central Association, for example, insisted that college and high-school students be placed in separate classes whereas as soon as they are admitted to college they have considerable latitude to roam either below or above their class levels. We tell a junior college and high school that the two units must be separately organized and administered so that if a high school and

junior college such as Tulsa, Oklahoma wishes to unify its administration and curricula it must ask the special consent of the Association. I remember also officially informing the high school and junior college at Little Rock, Arkansas that they must separate the faculty of the junior college from the high school, no matter how desirable it might seem to be to have the college teachers of history devote themselves exclusively to their subject by teaching in the high school. Better teach a course in college physics instead. We have never felt quite like insisting on entirely separate buildings for junior-college and high-school subjects respectively but we have suggested that it was desirable. At least a wing of the building or certain floors should be set off for the use of recitations in the junior college. Separate libraries and separate laboratories are not considered absolute necessities but they are highly desirable. If the gymnasium or the auditorium is available there is no objection to their being used by the junior college.

What I wish you to notice in this whole procedure is that those who are dealing with these situations naturally tend to unify the administration, integrate the courses, mix the students, use the same buildings, and equipment and employ the same faculty in the high school and junior college. In the name of good standards for the four-year college we have arbitrarily ordered and enforced this separatism until it now has the sacredness of tradition behind it, strongly supplemented by the fact that in large part the two fields of work are controlled by two independent educational jurisdictions who have never in the past proved and possibly never in the future will be able to prove that they can co-operate with one another effectively and economically. I believe that if the accrediting agencies, the state departments of education, the state universities, and all of those who have conscientiously labored to elevate college standards through the divorce of high school and junior college will take the heavy hand of authority off this situation and seek quality of performance in other ways, the high school and junior college will naturally seek closer relations with one another. Ultimately I believe there will be a marriage, in some instances a remarriage, of two fields of effort that have a nat-

ural affinity for one another and which, I believe, would live peacefully and happily under the same roof.

Next I am impressed with the implications of financial economy in some such plan as the 6-4-4. In these days we must needs take all of these possibilities very seriously. Experience and reason both tell us, I believe, that in a two-year junior college we are more likely to have a smaller total enrollment than when the unit includes a longer program. Small units in education we know to be expensive. The little one-roomed school house is going because it is both ineffective and expensive. Professor S. P. Nanninga, after studying the "Costs and Offerings of California High Schools in Relation to Size" states that "the curve representing the distribution of cost per pupil for total current expenses . . . and size of high school, reveals that there is a steady decrease in cost up to a school of approximately 500 in enrolment." Dr. Phillips showed us some years ago that the smaller teacher training institutions were more expensive and I feel sure less effective than the larger ones. Professor Floyd W. Reeves, a few years ago, produced data for the North Central Association which seemed to show clearly that a small college of 300 students should cost approximately 50 per cent. more per student than one of 750 students or more. I need not multiply illustrations because I believe that the general point is evident and commonly accepted.

In this connection may I remind you that of the 455 junior colleges listed by Dr. D. S. Campbell in his latest directory of the junior colleges 423 or 93 per cent. have an enrolment of less than 500. As long as junior colleges continue to be operated as two-year institutions, it seems to me that if they are widely extended a large proportion of them will continue to be small and therefore ineffective or expensive. It follows, therefore, that if they are large enough to be economically organized they must be merged into an educational unit of longer duration than two years. I believe that as time goes on and people insist on the utmost economy in expenditures for education, as even now they are doing, this situation will have greater and greater weight.

Considerable light on this subject is shed by the study of Mr. Lee Martin Chamberlain recently published by the University of Kentucky. Mr. Chamberlain made a study of thirty public junior colleges of the Middle West with special reference to the use of buildings and equipment as related to associated administrative problems in junior colleges. In this study Mr. Chamberlain found the following comparisons in the use of rooms.

Rooms used jointly by high school and junior college	Rooms reserved for junior college use only
Academic classes.....	48.4%
Chemistry Lab.....	17.5%
Physics Lab.....	10.0%
Biology Lab.....	42.5%
Science Lecture.....	27.5%
Drawing Rooms.....	37.5%
	55.4%
	40.0%
	38.8%
	47.5%
	39.4%
	60.0%

Mr. Chamberlain naturally concludes that "special reservation of rooms for junior college use commonly results in unnecessary and expensive duplication of facilities."

The whole situation is complicated by the difference in length of class periods commonly found in high schools and junior colleges respectively. The class period in high school is ordinarily 40 minutes in length; in college, from 50-55 minutes in length. So far as I know, there is little scientific knowledge to support either of these two class lengths. At any rate, an experiment now proceeding at the Iowa State Teachers College calls into question the standard used by the colleges and universities. But unless one or the other of the two units yields on its traditional practise there is practically no opportunity even to consider the joint use of room space and equipment. As a result, the high school and the junior college, ignoring the factor of possible economy in public expenditures, urge that they respectively be guaranteed their own individual empires in which they can each be lord and master of all they survey.

The other alternative is what amounts to subordination of the interests of one, usually the junior college, to the other. Mr. Chamberlain describes an extreme case as follows: "At

the time of the survey, the dean of the junior college had, by strenuous efforts, succeeded in fitting in his schedule fairly well with the rather inflexible high-school program and had obtained for himself and his faculty rather limited facilities in the way of offices and consultation rooms. Following the lead of the principal, the director of athletics had refused to cooperate with the dean of the college, and, as a consequence, the athletic and physical education program of the college was rendered almost wholly ineffective. A splendid gymnasium, a swimming pool, and an elaborate athletic field were being utilized by the college at only such odd times as they might be free from high-school use. To make the matter more difficult, the director of athletics seemed to be making a studied effort to insure that the 'open' periods were as limited as possible. Under such conditions the work of the junior college was seriously handicapped, and there was constant friction in the administration of the two programs."

It may be an evidence of a college president's autocracy but somehow I wonder, other things being equal, whether you wouldn't like to join with me in shaking up that situation! Doubtless the case is a bit extreme but it is symptomatic. I see no real solution for these difficulties except a thoroughly unified administration, having at its disposal the opportunity to use room space, laboratories and equipment in the most economical and effective manner possible. The only exception to this statement is a situation where both high school and junior college are sufficiently large so that such economies tend to disappear.

Under these circumstances it seems to me that in spite of the edicts of accrediting agencies and other arbitrary standards to the contrary, there is a persistent tendency toward closer integration of the administration, use of rooms and equipment, faculty and students of the high school and junior college. Proof of this tendency is supplied by the recent study of Grayson N. Kefauver and Catherine Bullard of practices in 104 public and private junior colleges. "In forty per cent. of the situations the same person is at the head of both institutions." In 19 per cent. of the other cases the principal

of the high school is responsible to the head of the junior college or vice versa; total 59 per cent.

"In 72.7 per cent. of the junior colleges some of the junior college teachers also teach classes in the high school."

In 45 per cent. of the cases, junior college students are permitted to enroll in high school classes, usually in order to make up high school deficiencies.

In 11.5 per cent. of the cases, the junior college is on the same site with a high school but in separate buildings; in the same building but in a separate section, 28.8 per cent; in the same building but with junior-college headquarters, 18.3 per cent; in the same building with no separation, 20.2 per cent; total with some connection in the use of buildings, equipment and grounds, 78.8 per cent.*

Finally may I allude to the reactions of a considerable number of junior-college administrators with whom I have come in contact. They have told me, particularly those connected with private junior colleges, that the two-year period is too short a period for them to secure satisfactory results. They do not have the students long enough to do so. Students come and go almost before one is aware of it.

Furthermore, the large turnover in students at the end of each year leaves these institutions with considerable uncertainty as to whether their enrolment will continue to be substantially the same or whether it will be much smaller or larger. The very life of the institution seems in constant jeopardy because of such great changes or possibility of change in its enrolment.

For these reasons I have found an ardent desire among junior-college executives to extend themselves in one direction or the other. The privately controlled junior college often looks back with regret to the palmy days before accrediting agencies eliminated the preparatory departments especially the latter years. Others, both public and private, aspire

*Teachers College Record, December, 1931, pp. 251-261.

to raising themselves to the status of a regular four-year college where occasionally other circumstances do not justify the action. In other words, I think there is plenty of evidence to show that a very large proportion of those interested in the junior college are convinced from personal experience that the two-year unit is not the best arrangement either from the point of view of economy, permanence, or educational soundness. Those of you who have never attempted it please put yourselves in imagination in their places and answer the question for yourselves as to whether you would like to exchange your situation for an independent two-year unit.

I do not by any means wish to contend that this opinion so frequently found among junior college people is either unanimous or conclusive but I do think that it is significant and impressive and that it amply justifies the growing number of attempts which are being made in the direction of establishing a junior college unit of longer duration than two years.

By way of summary may I say that there seems to me to be a growing conviction among educators both secondary and higher that the subject matter of the junior college curriculum is of the same general character as one finds in the high-school curriculum; and that the arbitrary separation of high school from junior college leads inevitably to a considerable amount of unnecessary and wasteful duplication which could be avoided by a closer integration of the two programs of work. I believe further that the arbitrary separation of junior-college students from the upper level of high-school students is not defensible from a psychological point of view and that it makes far more difficult than needs be the program of vocational guidance which ought to be one of the great accomplishments of secondary education. I believe that the divorce of high school and junior college leads to uneconomical use of classrooms, laboratories, and equipment; unco-operative, or even unharmonious administration between the two units; uneconomical use of faculty; all leading, except perhaps in the largest junior colleges, to greater expense than the results probably justify. Finally, it seems to me that there is what amounts to an ardent desire on the part of most of

those interested, and participating in the junior college movement, to get away from these conditions and to merge the administration, the students, and faculty of these two units, integrate the curricula, and develop the greatest economy in effort and money consistent with high standards of work. Personally I am convinced that although progress has so far been somewhat slow, these objectives can be attained through the establishment of not more than three administrative units in education up to and including the junior college.

The second paper of this section was on the *Relative Merits of the 6-3-3-2 Plan of Organization*. Dr. Walter C. Eells, Professor of Stanford University, read his paper.

RELATIVE MERITS OF THE SIX-THREE-THREE-TWO PLAN OF ORGANIZATION

WALTER CROSBY EELLS
Stanford University

Any one who reviews, even superficially, the literature dealing with the six-four-four plan of organization cannot but be impressed with the unusually large number of articles that have been written and speeches that have been made in favor of this proposed form of educational reorganization. He will be equally impressed with the scarcity of the literature dealing with the prevailing type of junior college organization, which is either of the six-three-three-two or six-four-two type, or some similar plan in which the junior college unit is two years in length. Yet there is a distinct need for a full and fair presentation of the advantages as well as the disadvantages of both systems. In this discussion, I shall not try to consider the whole field of elementary and secondary education, as suggested by the full phrasing of the topic, but shall confine myself in this junior-college section of this association to the junior-college aspects of the subject.

There is danger that the busy, practical school administrator, without time to examine critically the question in all of its basic aspects, hearing so much of the advantages of the

progressive six-four-four plan, will come to believe, on account of the mere frequent repetition of the same statements, that there is only one side to the question and that he is distinctly unprogressive if he does not work toward it as rapidly as possible. There is no difficulty in finding numerous presentations of the advantages claimed for the four-year junior college.

Outstanding ones have been made by Harbeson and Sexson, of Pasadena, by Wood of Stephens, by Koos of Chicago, by Eby of Texas only last week at Richmond, by Commissioner Cooper in a recent article in the *School Review*, and by President Zook of Akron on previous occasions as well as to-day. Search as one may, however, he will not find a single systematic presentation of the other side of the question prior to the paper which I presented at the meeting of the junior-college association at Berkeley a year ago. It seemed to me then, and still seems that such a systematic presentation should be made so that the thoughtful student of junior college problems as well as the busy administrator may have the advantages and disadvantages of both systems clearly set forth and then have the opportunity to weigh the arguments, both pro and con, and draw his own conclusions.

The statement which I made a year ago in this address was considerably amplified in three chapters of my book *The Junior College* which appeared last summer. In the brief time allotted to me this morning, it would be useless for me to attempt to reproduce the hundred and more pages which I devoted to a discussion of this topic, nor is it called for in the phrasing of the topic upon which I have been asked to speak—"The Advantages of the Six-Three-Three-Two Type of Organization." In my book one chapter was devoted to tracing the development of the six-four-four plan and to a statement of the eleven chief reasons which had been urged in its favor by its most substantial advocates. The next chapter was devoted to answers to those eleven reasons. There is nothing that Dr. Zook has said this morning, I think, which cannot be classified under those same eleven headings. I wish I had time to answer them here, but it is not

possible. I can only refer you to my answers in the chapter in my book which deals with them. In the time which has passed since I wrote my discussion of those eleven outstanding arguments I have seen no reason to change the statements and arguments there presented in rebuttal, while some additional developments have strengthened my conviction of the essential soundness of them. In that chapter I also pointed out a half dozen disadvantages of the six-four-four plan, some rather temporary, incidental to transformation to a new system, but of vital importance to the administrator; others more fundamental and permanent. These also I must pass by with only this incidental reference.

ADVANTAGES OF THE TWO-YEAR TYPE

Another chapter states eight positive advantages of the two-year type of junior college and considers evidence gained from actual experience with the four-year unit as compared with the two-year one. Allow me to quote, in somewhat condensed and modified form, from certain portions of this chapter, in presenting to you as briefly as possible what seem to me to be outstanding advantages in the two-year junior college which merit your thoughtful consideration.

1. *The ease of adjustment to existing administrative practice.* If the six-four-four plan could be adopted *in toto* in all parts of the country by administrative decree there would be no difficulty of adjustment to existing administrative types. This would be possible in a strongly centralized government with education under the control of a single cabinet officer, as in France for example, but it is impossible in a nation such as the United States, so strongly committed throughout its whole existence to local independence, initiative, and self-determination in educational matters. In the words of a former chief executive, "It is a condition and not a theory which faces us." The condition is that there is not any one system of secondary-school organization in the United States, but no less than 43 such systems or variations of systems according to the classification of the Federal Office of Education.

The two-year type of junior college, however, articulates with all but three of the main types, the six-four-four with scarcely any of them. There are some eighteen thousand units of other types with any of which the two-year junior college articulates without bisection and disruption of the secondary-school unit below it, as is necessitated by the six-four plan. In spite of all that has been said and done toward reorganization on the junior high-school basis in this century, the four-year high school is still the prevailing type, there being over twelve thousand such institutions in the country. Are students in all these institutions to be denied the opportunity of the junior college, unless and until such time as the four-year high schools which they are attending are willing to cut themselves in two squarely in the middle in order to achieve the six-four-four type of organization?

With transfer of students, mobility of population, necessity for articulation with the high-school units as actually found—it is quite evident as a practical matter that the two-year institution is the only one that will fit the great variety of educational conditions actually existing in the country. The flexibility of the two-year institution, its possibility of convenient adjustment to all prevailing types of secondary-school organization with a minimum of administrative friction and realignment, forms one of the strongest *practical* arguments in favor of the two-year institution.

2. *Advantages of new contacts.* The advantages of new contacts on the part of the student are worth considering. There is a general feeling in Europe that students gain considerably by attending a variety of institutions. In America there has been more of a tendency for a student to remain in the same institution for a long period of time. There are some advantages in this, from the standpoint of friendships, interests, and loyalties. On the other hand there is a tendency toward restricted viewpoints and continuation in a rut. There is value in change, even in the same city, as well as in continuity.

There has been a marked increase in student migration and flexibility in the United States in the last few years.

One of the smaller California junior colleges (Santa Monica) last year enrolled students whose high-school work had been taken in no less than 58 high schools in 20 different states. It also had transfer students from 28 different institutions of higher education. In one of the larger California junior colleges (Sacramento) this year the student enrollment represented 235 different high schools, 87 of them from outside of California.

The student undoubtedly gains much in educational outlook and breadth of vision, from contact with a variety of instructors and with a different student body. The wealth of new and stimulating contacts in another institution are very valuable experience for the average student. To have three such experiences, instead of one or two in the entire range of his "secondary educational" experience is likely to be highly profitable and stimulating.

3. *Development of leadership.* Development of leadership is an exceedingly important function of college education. It is a truism that the college men and women of to-day are to be the country's leaders of to-morrow. One of the most important agencies for development of leadership is that of student activities. It is quite obvious, however, that mere membership in student clubs, societies, teams, or other organizations does not in itself develop leadership to any marked extent. Vicarious training for leadership is not likely to be highly successful.

It is the holding of responsible offices that is most potent. One learns to do by doing. It is the president, the manager, the captain, the committee chairman who develops real leadership in his group. It is perfectly natural and inevitable in the four-year institution that the majority of such positions should go to the upper classmen. The high-school graduate must wait three or four years before he has an opportunity for collegiate leadership. With the high school and junior college as separate units, however, the same student has two opportunities for such training in leadership. In the two-year junior college he waits but one year, instead of three, for election to

the most responsible offices in student organizations. He may not hold as prominent an office, but the potentialities of it for training in leadership do not depend upon the size of the office but on the way in which the individual fills it when given the opportunity and responsibility. Opportunity comes far more quickly in the two-year institution.

4. *Transitional advantages.* Much was written and said in the earlier years of the century regarding the "classic gap" between the elementary school and the high school. The transition was too sudden and abrupt from one institution to the other. As a result the junior high school was developed, which, among other valuable contributions, acted as a transitional institution and has succeeded very largely in closing the disastrous gap formerly so noticeable.

Similarly there has been an equally bad gap, in many cases, between high school and university. The tragic freshman portality in many universities has been pointed out by many writers, amounting in some cases to fifty per cent or more. The junior college, like the junior high school, has operated to close this unfortunate gap and make the transition easier from high-school limitations to university independence. The development of these two institutions has broken up what was formerly two hazardous and often disastrous steps of unnecessary difficulty, into four much shorter and easier ones. The steps of the educational stairway have been shortened and the upward progress of the student made "safer and saner."

Experience has shown that the jumps from the grade school to the four-year high school and again from the four-year high school to the four-year college were too long for safety and happiness in many cases. Have we any reason to suppose that transitions from one unit to the other of the six-four-four plan will not be equally difficult and unhappy? The length of the units has not been changed; they have merely been shifted two years. Is it not likely also that transition from the upper four-year unit to upper division university freedom may still be fraught with difficulty and peril?

The tendency of a quarter-century of American education has been toward breaking up educational progress into a large number of easier steps with shorter transitions. This transitional function, at the college level, is actually accomplished in a multiplicity of ways. It is found in increased freedom and responsibility, in modification of classroom methods and requirements, in greater independence in the use of the library, in freedom from study hall requirements, and other necessary high-school restrictions, and in more mature disciplinary methods. The two-year junior college is exactly in line with this apparently desirable educational tendency and is a part of it. The six-four-four plan is not.

5. *Vocational preparation.* A full university course is increasingly a prerequisite for entrance to most of the so-called professions. High-school preparation is sufficient for most of the so-called trades. Between these two levels is a great group of occupations which are coming to be known as semi-professions, for which both experience and expert opinion are coming to agree that two years of college training is both necessary and sufficient. These are found in the field of engineering, of commerce, of agriculture, of home making, of nursing, of librarianship, of newspaper work, and in many other fields. One study of 28 such semi-professions showed 200,000 young people entering them annually in the United States, but in most cases with no specific junior-college training for them.

The junior college has had a striking growth in the past few years—the attendance increasing from 50,000 to 100,000 in only four years. The danger in this phenomenal increase, which is likely to continue for some time, is not that too many of our young people will go to college, but that too many of them will want to go from the junior college on to full university courses and prepare for professional life. It would be unwise and unfortunate for a majority of junior-college students to plan to enter professions already for the most part overcrowded, and for which their talents and abilities do not fit them. The ambition for college training above the high-

school level needs, not repression and frustration, but guidance and direction.

It is much better that such semi-professional courses be offered in a two-year unit, than in a four-year one. Permanence of vocational choice is unstable, especially when made in the earlier years. Occupational intentions at the middle of the high-school period are often not formed, or if formed are far from stable. The previous speaker himself, Dr. Zook, said not long ago, in a discussion of vocational education and the junior college, "Progress has been discouragingly slow, chiefly, it seems to me, because many if not most boys and girls of high-school age do not begin to think vocationally until about the time they graduate from high school." (*School and Society*, 23:603). It follows that it is much better to concentrate vocational preparation in a more intensive two-year course following the high-school period of indecision. It is noteworthy that most of the private schools of business, commerce, and engineering which have in part filled this need in the past have had courses whose duration is two years or less.

Perhaps the most outstanding semi-professional work in the country is being developed under the direction of Dr. W. H. Snyder in the two-year junior college at Los Angeles, where some eighteen carefully planned and semi-professional courses have been organized and fully three thousand young people enrolled in them this year.

The possibility of relatively short intensive training of two-year duration in various semi-professions at the most advantageous period, immediately preceding entrance to the occupation, is one of the strongest arguments for the two-year junior college for the very large group of students who should not go further in their collegiate education.

6. *Advantage of homogeneity of age.* Much stress has been placed by the advocates of the six-four-four plan on the advantage of the four-year institution from the point of view of adjustments to ages of psychological maturity. With the establishment of the gradual as distinguished from the older

saltatory theory of development, however, as supported by numerous studies reported in such a book as Brooks' recent *Psychology of Adolescence*, this argument loses much of its force. When to this fact is added the striking variation both in age and psychological maturity found in any school system, it becomes of still less importance.

Not only theory but experience supports the view that the four-year group of students in the last two years of high school and first two of college do not form a homogeneous group. Edinburg, Texas, enthusiastically adopted the six-four-four plan, and abandoned it after two years trial, primarily, according to its administrator, because "senior high and college students do not mix well." Menlo Junior College, California, has been widely known as a junior college for men experimenting on the "double-four" basis. Statistical evidence so far gathered point to the conclusion that twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth grades are relatively homogeneous. In that institution, when the eleventh grade students were separated from the junior college and handled with the high school group it was noteworthy that most of the perplexing disciplinary problems vanished. The president of another strong two-year junior college, formerly on the four-year basis, told me last year that most of his disciplinary problems disappeared when the two high school years were eliminated. Almost the same identical statement was made to me by another experienced administrator only last week.

Here it is chiefly desired, however, to point out an entirely non-controversial feature that the age-group and its accompanying physical, social, educational, and psychological characteristics whatever they may be, is certainly much more nearly homogeneous in each of these respects in the two-year institution than it can possibly be in the much wider spread necessarily found in the four-year institution. Even if as many as 90 per cent of the students in the upper four-year unit were physiologically mature, as we are sometimes told, 100 per cent of those in the two-year period would be, with whatever psychological advantage may come from this greater homogeneity.

7. *Distinctive collegiate atmosphere.* College atmosphere is elusive and intangible when a definition is attempted, but it is very real and important to achieve, and not difficult to recognize. It probably can be maintained in either a four-year or a two-year junior college, but the effort is less likely to be successful in the former case. It is doubtful whether calling high school juniors and seniors "college" students is going to make them real college students in the eyes of high school graduates, upper division students, their parents, or the public. The great danger is that the four-year junior college, in which normally a considerably preponderance of the students should be found in the two high-school years, will tend to be more "high-schoolish" in atmosphere than collegiate. When the student has graduated from high school—a well-established student landmark in parent and student consciousness—and then goes to college, even if only to "junior college," he feels the distinct break in atmosphere, spirit, and traditions. He is much less likely to have this feeling in an institution which begins at the middle of the high school period.

8. *Psychology of the American People.* For generations it has been the deepest desire of thousands of American parents to give their sons and daughters the benefits of a "college" education. Going to college has been the great American ambition and is rapidly becoming the great American habit. America may not know exactly what the college stands for, it may not recognize the technical distinctions between "secondary" and higher education, but it is very sure that college means something distinctive and worth while. In the popular mind college means an institution following high school graduation, not merely a glorified and amplified high school. It is difficult enough to get the concept into the public consciousness that the two-year junior college is real college; it will be far more difficult for it to feel that "college" is a centaur-like hybrid—half high school and half college.

Of course the six-four-four advocates have a quite simple solution to the situation. Just drop "junior" from the vocabulary entirely. Call the lower four-year unit "high school" and the upper one "college." Then America can go to college, only

beginning two years earlier. There are already a bewildering array of institutions that call themselves "colleges" from barber colleges on up. Surely it would do no harm to drop the "junior" and have still another variety of college. It should be remembered however, that there are some hundreds of standard four-year colleges in the country, almost all of them definitely built upon a foundation of a four-year high school course, and that these are not going to perish over-night, nor for a long time to come.

OBJECTIONS TO THE TWO-YEAR UNIT.

There is only time to consider two objections that have been raised to the two-year unit and that have not been sufficiently considered in other connections already.

1. *Development of traditions and college spirit.* Various writers have expressed the belief that two years is too short a time to instill the tradition, sense of atmosphere, ideals, habits, attitudes, or whatever else may be essential to the formation of "college spirit." As President Wood of Stephens College has so aptly expressed it, "The minority is continually striving to absorb the majority." Superintendent Sexson of Pasadena would leave no room for doubt in his categorical statement: "It is impossible to develop a very dynamic school spirit in a two-year institution."

Can a two-year institution develop a dynamic school spirit? One essential for school spirit is a feeling of freedom and independence on the part of the students, and a feeling of unity in a common purpose. This is more likely to be found in a two-year institution with a separate plant and school consciousness, than in one where lower division students with separate clubs, diverse study hall regulations, and other necessary disciplinary restrictions tend to break up the unity of feeling and experience. Fortunately, however, it is not necessary to depend upon theory, for the experience of many two-year junior colleges is available for study.

Several California junior colleges have an interesting four-class system, where there is a mid-year class of consider-

able size graduating from high school as seems to be increasingly the situation, especially in the larger centers. The institution is divided into four classes instead of two—high and low freshman, and high and low sophomores, with semi-annual class elections. In some institutions a classical flavor is preserved by designating these the Alphas, Betas, Gammas, and Deltas. The advantages of the four-class college system are preserved only in accelerated form—the tempo is a little faster to coincide with other aspects of American life! The four-class system is not at all necessary, however. From visits to over thirty California junior colleges and from conversation with students, faculty, and graduates I cannot see but that there is as fine an institutional loyalty, college spirit, and distinctive atmosphere at comparable two-year junior colleges as is to be observed at Pasadena. Even Principal Harbeson of Pasadena frankly recognizes the situation with reference to these two-year colleges as contrasted with *a priori* theory, when he says: "They have developed a school spirit of greater dynamic quality than, *a priori*, would have seemed possible in a two-year organization." In these two-year colleges the minority seems to have been quite successful in its efforts to absorb the majority.

Brief mention may also be made of Stephens College, widely known four-year junior college for women. As far as can be judged by all evidence available it would yield to none in credit for splendid college spirit and institutional loyalty on the part of the six hundred or more young women annually enrolled in this progressively experimental junior college. Am I confused in my argument? Is not Stephens College the best known example in the private field of a four-year junior college? It should be noted that Stephens College, according to its current catalog, has only 25 students in the lower two years, or less than four per cent of the entire student body. It is 96 per cent a two-year junior college! At Stephens however, the minority seems to be singularly successful in its efforts to absorb the majority and instill in them the "Stephens spirit." I visited an outstanding four-year junior college in Texas last week. Where a few years

ago over half of the student body were enrolled in the lower division, now less than ten percent of them are found there.

2. *Ambition to become four-year, degree-granting colleges.* There is some danger here, but to recognize it is to guard against it. This has been done by law in many states where extension upward is forbidden. Unquestionably such development is justified in some cases, however, as in the development of the College of the City of Detroit in America's fourth city from the former Detroit Junior College. But is it necessary, in order to prevent such development, to weight down every two-year institution with an additional two years below because a few institutions, whether justifiably or not, may develop ambitions to add two years above? Unwarranted ambition may be as dangerous for the junior college as for Caesar. Shall the innocent majority, however, be penalized and encumbered for the possible future sins of the minority?

How great is the real extent of this danger? Dr. Campbell, secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges tried two years ago to trace the fate of all junior colleges in the country which have died, merged with other schools, or expanded into four-year senior colleges. He was able to discover exactly eleven, since the beginning of the movement, which have become four-year senior colleges, an average of much less than one year. In the same period several times this number of four-year senior colleges have decapitated themselves to become junior colleges. While my own studies have indicated that some institutions should be included which are not in Dr. Campbell's list, nevertheless, the balance is decidedly on the credit side of the junior college ledger!

Many of the objections urged against the two-year junior college turn out upon examination to be what the attorney designates "irrelevant and immaterial." Many are based upon *a priori* grounds, and vanish when submitted to the acid test of experience.

CONCLUSION

The junior high-school movement has been sweeping the country during the last decade, but even it is far from universally accepted. There are over two thousand three-year junior high schools in the country, with a philosophy and experience of their own, as they are successfully occupying a unique and valuable transitional region between elementary and high school. Does it not seem a bit unfortunate, to say the least, when the junior high school idea is just getting into the consciousness of the educators and the taxpayers of the country, to turn now and say, "After all, the six-three-three plan which we have been promoting so confidently and enthusiastically, is all wrong. Don't adopt it. Or, if you have adopted it, junk it. It is the six-four-four plan that represents the ultimate, the *summum bonum* of educational reorganization." When the six-four-four plan was presented at Harvard University in 1922 it was Professor Inglish who urged that it should not be seriously proposed in the East, since they were only beginning to adjust themselves to the underlying philosophy and practical application of the six-three-three-two plan, and that it would confuse and not clarify the situation to propose the six-four-four plan at the same time. Similar sentiments have been expressed more recently by other eastern educators.

Ray Lyman Wilbur says that we are about ready to stop the "fetish worship" of the numeral four in American education. In contrast with this tendency, the six-four-four plan proposes to intensify and perpetuate it.

It is fortunate that we do not all agree on educational policies. Educational progress results from difference of opinion, from clash of points of view. It would be a drab, monotonous, uninteresting world if we all saw alike. There seems to be no immediate danger that the junior college world will be drab, monotonous, uninteresting! Educational progress results from difference of opinion—if that difference of opinion is followed by constructive experimentation and scientific evaluation. If the six-four-four plan is best, it will win out. It will demonstrate its worth in spite of all arguments

of university professors to the contrary. It is well, however, for us to examine all aspects of the question before entering upon such a far-reaching plan of educational reorganization.

It is quite probable that we shall continue to have a wide variety of types of educational organization, both public and private, in different parts of the country. It is the glory of a democracy that our schools are not all poured in the same mold—and that they should not be.

Exactly two centuries ago, occurred the birth of that great American leader which we commemorate here this week in the beautiful city which bears his name. Following a historic declaration of independence from unjust outside domination, he led the struggle to make that declaration a reality; and in his final words as a public official he warned his fellow citizens to avoid "entangling alliances" with other peoples.

In my judgment the junior college is not to be merely an appendix to the high school—and not merely a prefix to the university. It can and should have a personality, an individuality, a mission of its own. Commissioner Cooper recently traced the junior college in California through the periods which he designated infancy and youth to vigorous young manhood.

Is it not time for this vigorous movement to make an educational declaration of independence from unjustifiable outside domination? It should be given certain rights of educational self-determination. It should, of course, work shoulder to shoulder with other units of the school system in achieving the democratic American ideal of full and adequate educational opportunity for all, but it also should be cognizant of the dangers of "entangling alliances" which, it is to be heard, may result from complete administrative amalgamation with the upper two high school years. In my judgment, in its ultimate form, it is destined to occupy a unique position in the American educational ladder—unmistakably higher than a glorified high school; distinctly lower than the scholarly specialization of the University—an ally of both, but avoiding "entangling alliances" with either.

GROUP IV

Technical and Vocational School Section

The Technical Section met at 10:20 a. m. Wednesday, February 24, 1932, in the West Lobby of Wardman Park Hotel.

Mr. Albert L. Colston, Principal of Brooklyn Technical High School, Brooklyn, New York, presided.

Dr. Lewis A. Wilson, Assistant Commissioner for Vocational and Extension Education for the State of New York, read his paper on *The Place of Technical and Vocational Education in Secondary Schools*.

THE PLACE OF TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

LEWIS A. WILSON

Assistant Commissioner for Vocational and Extension Education for the State of New York.

Industrial and technical education in the public schools after nearly twenty-five years of experimentation, accompanied by the usual handicaps and mistakes of any new movement, is gradually emerging as a vital part of the secondary-school programs of many states. In the early days most of the educators and industrialists were skeptical of the value of the industrial and technical training provided by the public schools. Only a few saw in the movement the possibilities of a much needed and efficient type of training for large numbers of young people. As a result those largely responsible for its development were faced with the double responsibility of demonstrating its value to the educator and industrialist as well as overcoming the prejudice of parents because of the general belief prevalent at that time that industrial education was developed primarily for the mentally inferior.

The early development of industrial and technical training in the public schools was surrounded by both favorable and unfavorable conditions. The need for it and other forms

of vocational education was recognized in principal. Many states enacted vocational education laws and provided special state aid to districts maintaining approved schools. By 1917 Congress had passed the Federal Vocational Education Act and shortly after made federal funds available to the States for the purpose of developing the work. Few educational movements have had better legal provision for their development or greater financial support afforded them by the state and federal governments.

The conditions usually surrounding the development of the early industrial and technical schools, however, were unfavorable and often detrimental. The schools were usually housed in old, (often abandoned) elementary or secondary school buildings, poorly adapted to the work and usually not located to serve best the needs of the community. In many cases the industrial and technical courses offered were copied from those in distant cities and had little value in training for local needs. Many schools were handicapped by lack of equipment and supplies and often the work carried on in the school had more of the characteristics of manual training schools than industrial or technical schools.

One of the greatest handicaps in the early development of industrial and technical training was the attitude of the teachers and principals of the elementary and secondary schools. They felt it was an inferior kind of education developed for the boy or girl who was incapable of doing the work of elementary or general high school. As a result usually only boys and girls who were mentally retarded or slow or who were incorrigible were sent to the industrial schools. Normal children who were interested in industrial or technical training were urged to take general academic or college preparatory courses. As a result many of these schools organized and equipped to provide industrial and technical training requiring a high degree of skill and technical information were filled with students incapable of profiting by the training.

From these early beginnings there have developed some very distinctive programs of industrial and technical training

which have demonstrated their value and won the unqualified support of many educators and leaders in industry. Many of these schools have splendid buildings and equipment, excellent corps of teachers, carefully selected student bodies, well prepared courses of study, and an intimate relationship with industry that insures the practical character of the work and also makes possible under normal business conditions the placement of the graduates in desirable positions in industry. The experience of these better schools has resulted in a more complete understanding of the services these schools can render boys and girls and the groups to be served. The combined experiences of these schools is sufficient to indicate the place of technical and industrial education in our secondary schools.

May I take two or three minutes to point out certain trends in industrial occupations that have a bearing on the subject under discussion. The opportunities in industrial occupations, under normal business conditions, for young people of varying abilities and aptitudes are greater than ever before. Many uninformed persons believe that the high degree of specialization in industry has greatly decreased the opportunities for trained workers. With the development of the electrical, automotive, aeronautical communications and chemical industries, a wide range of industrial occupations, that were practically unknown thirty years ago, are now open to our young people. These industries as well as the older industries require large numbers of skilled workers and workers with technical training. In many of these manufacturing industries are produced products that require large numbers of trained workers to keep them in repair. The automobile repairman, for example, must not only possess many skills of hand but he must have an understanding of electricity and its application to starting, lighting, ignition, and a knowledge of the principles of an internal combustion engine to be a thoroughly competent worker. The total number of skilled and technically-trained workers in industry is probably greater to-day than ever before. Industry is not static. It is constantly changing and the workers are frequently required to

become familiar with new material, new machines, and new processes.

The two great changes in industrial employment during the past thirty years have been the rapid increase in number of workers with technical training and the rapid decrease in the numbers of manual laborers. There is every reason to believe that the number of technically-trained workers will continue to increase with the development of new industries and new services and the modernization of old industries. On the other hand, the number who perform heavy manual labor will continue to decrease. The utilization of power has lifted the burden of heavy manual toil from the backs of millions of industrial workers. To-day the machine operator has replaced the manual worker. The working day and week are shorter, the working conditions are better and the range of employment opportunities greater than ever before.

Many writers decry the era of the machine age and point out the unemployment brought about by the technological development. They overlook the fact that technological development is largely responsible for the employment of millions of persons in gainful occupations. They also forget that if we were dependent upon the simple industries of one hundred years ago equally large numbers of people would be out of work. If we abolish the machine and require human labor to perform the tasks now performed by steam, electrical and gasoline power we should need, as Dr. Wickenden, has recently pointed out, at least 5,000 millions of human slaves in America, more than double the total population of the world, to perform the work which has been lifted from the backs of men because of research and invention.

During the recent years the high schools, faced with the responsibility of providing an education, adapted to meet the needs of an ever-increasing number of boys and girls, have made an effort to develop industrial and technical courses for young men and women who desire to prepare themselves for industrial employment. Large numbers of young people are not primarily interested in the usual general or college pre-

paratory courses. They are much more concerned about an educational program that will furnish them with the essentials of a good high-school education and at the same time provide a very definite and broad basic training for some field of industrial employment. In some communities the industrial and technical training are a part of the educational offerings of a general high school. In the larger cities separate technical and industrial high schools have been provided for the work. In both types of schools the shop and laboratory equipment is of such a character that the students are assured of a training in the fundamental tools, machines and technical work of the occupation they wish to enter.

The industrial high schools maintained by the cities, open to boys and girls who have completed the work of the eighth grade, usually offer two-year industrial courses, although some schools offer three and four-year courses. The schools are in session six clock hours daily. The student spends three hours each day in the particular industrial shop which will prepare him for entrance into the industrial occupation in which he is interested. The other three hours are devoted to English, history, civics, general and applied mathematics, science, and drafting. The longer school day with eight forty-five minute periods daily enables the student to secure a training in both the social and economic responsibilities of good citizenship.

The nineteen industrial high schools and departments in New York State have an enrollment this year of approximately seventeen thousand boys and girls. The facilities provided for this work are inadequate to meet the demand. Thousands of boys and girls are refused admission due to the limited accommodations. The schools offer 49 different industrial courses for boys and eight for girls. Each course has been planned to meet the local needs for young workers in carefully selected industries. The co-operative relationships between the school, the employer and employees virtually insure every boy being placed in the occupation for which he has received special training. These schools do not turn out a completely trained industrial worker. They do, however, give the student a care-

fully planned training in the basic skills of an industry, a thorough understanding of the materials used, and excellent training in the mathematics, science and technical theory of the occupation. These schools also enable students to determine, under the guidance of carefully selected skilled industrial workers who have been specially trained to teach in these schools and in well equipped shop and laboratories, whether or not they like the work. If they do not it is possible for them to transfer to another department. If they have found the work they like the training is an invaluable aid in the preparation for a vocation.

The technical high schools or departments provide a special training for the young men and women who wish to prepare for junior technical occupations. They are open to those who have completed the work of the junior high school or the first year of the four-year senior high school. These schools are in service six clock-hours daily. The courses are three years in length and the students carry the usual high-school work in English, history, civics, and more than the average high-school work in mathematics and science. In addition, the pupils major in some particular technical subject, i. e. machine design, industrial chemistry, chemistry of textiles and dyes, building construction, estimating, structural drafting. Only students who have ability in mathematics and science are qualified to take these courses as these subjects are essential in the training for technical occupations. No attempt is made to develop hand skills. The special training is in the technical subjects necessary for the preparation of a student for an industrial position requiring a technical training. The teachers of technical subjects are graduates of schools of engineering or architecture who have had at least three years of practical engineering experience in the work they teach. The graduates of these schools receive a State Regents Diploma in technical subjects. Several engineering colleges admit, without condition, the graduates who desire to continue their education. The majority who do not go on to college are placed, under normal business conditions, in positions affording excellent opportunities for further training, experience, and

promotion. For the high-school boy who is interested in entering industry these technical courses of secondary grade offer a range and quality of training not known in our secondary schools ten years ago.

Last year about 9,000 students were enrolled in the technical high schools and many sought admission who could not be accommodated. The Buffalo Technical High School, the Brooklyn Technical High School, the Textile High School of New York City, and the Technical Department of the Utica Free Academy are nationally known for the quality of their work. The facilities which these institutions have for secondary technical instruction are unequalled. Other technical high schools and departments in New York State while not so widely known are of high character and meet local needs.

The work of the industrial and technical schools have demonstrated its value as a part of our secondary school program of education. It provides for large numbers of high-school boys and girls a type of training adapted to their abilities and needs. It has awakened a new interest in many boys and girls to continue their education. In one high school last year over 50 per cent of the entering boys voluntarily elected an eight period program of industrial and technical work in place of the four or five period programs in the other high-school departments. Both technical and industrial education have for their primary purpose the training of the individual. Unfortunately many people think of it as training for industry. While it is true, that it is intimately related to industry—its primary purpose is to train the individual for one of his major responsibilities of life—that of economic citizenship.

Dr. Grayson N. Kefauver, Associate Professor of Education of Teachers College, Columbia University, and Principal Specialist in School Organization of the Staff of the National Survey of Secondary Education read his paper, *Some Issues Involved in the Organization of Specialized Secondary Schools*.

SOME ISSUES INVOLVED IN THE ORGANIZATION OF SPECIALIZED SECONDARY SCHOOLS

GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER

Associate Professor of Education Teachers' College, Columbia
University and Principal Specialist in School Organiza-
tion, National Survey of Secondary Education.

Changes in function and changes in the number, characteristics, and needs of the students have brought about changes in the organization of secondary education. The four-year high school has given way in many communities to the junior and senior high schools, and in some communities, the form of organization has been affected by the addition of the junior college. These changes have been made because of a recognition of the inadequacy of the earlier forms of organization and a belief that the newer arrangements would better serve the educational needs of the youth of the community.

The horizontal organization of the secondary school has varied with the community and there has been sharp conflict of judgment as to whether the objectives of secondary education can be achieved better by comprehensive or by specialized high schools. The case for the comprehensive high school was well stated by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. "The comprehensive (sometimes called composite, or cosmopolitan) high school, embracing all curriculums in one unified organization, should remain the standard type of secondary school in the United States . . . the well-organized comprehensive school can make differentiated education of greater value than can the special-type school, because it aids in a wise choice of curriculum, assists in readjustments when such are desirable, and provides for wider contacts essential to true success in every vocation."¹ Specialists in vocational education have been less enthusiastic about attempts to provide vocational education in compre-

¹Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education, pp. 24-25. Bulletin No. 35 of the Bureau of Education, Department of Interior, 1918.

hensive schools. ¹Snedden has presented a vigorous challenge of the possibility of providing such training in the high school. "From consideration earlier adduced, it should be evident that one of the most preposterous, and if it were not for the tragic consequences, ridiculous illusions which American educators have vaguely cherished is that of integrating profitable forms of vocational education in our high schools." He argues for a large number of specialized vocational schools.

The extent of use of specialized schools in the cities of the country cannot be easily determined. The title of an institution frequently gives little indication of its program. Many so-called technical schools were first organized as strictly technical schools and they retain their original title even though the present program may be comprehensive in character. One of the best known comprehensive high schools of the country, labelled comprehensive by its former principal in a description of it, carries the title of technical school. In some cities, one notes a tendency toward decentralization and in others one finds a movement toward centralization.

An attempt will be made here to define some of the issues involved in deciding upon the form of horizontal organization. A few data will be drawn from the findings of the National Survey of Secondary Education and the scope of the investigation made on this problem in the Survey will be described briefly.

Specialized secondary schools are proposed and adopted in some cities because it is believed they make possible a more effective program of vocational education. Whether specialized schools are required, will depend in large measure upon the degree of specialization needed to make the training of value to students in their later vocational work. If a high degree of specialization is required and if it is desirable to have very extended training in that narrow specialty, with a possible requirement of elaborate equipment, there is strong

¹David Snedden. *The Vocational Education Movement: A Critical Inventory of Policies*. In *Objectives and Problems of Vocational Education* (Edited by Edwin A. Lee), p. 415. McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1928.

argument for the specialized institution to achieve the vocational objective of secondary education. The extent of specialization believed by some to be desirable is shown by the following recommendation for an efficient plan of vocational education by ¹Prosser: "The teaching content applies so directly and specifically to the occupation that it has functioning value for this occupation only." The variation of activities within an occupation, the extent of change in work in different occupations, and the proportion of students who fail to enter the particular occupation for which they train have caused some to wonder whether such extreme specialization is necessary or desirable. It has been suggested that the recent developments in occupational life present need for a broader basic training and less restriction to the activities in a narrow line of work. Decision on the degree of specificness of training needed will affect the validity of the claim for specialized secondary schools.

A second issue in the horizontal organization of secondary education lies in the extent to which it is considered desirable for the vocational objective to dominate the total secondary-school life of students. The program of some specialized schools place great emphasis on the vocational and give only incidental attention to the other objectives of education. One not infrequently hears the comment that a student ought not to remain in school because he lacks the ability to enter a vocation on the skilled level, inferring that the only reason of importance for students to attend secondary schools is to qualify themselves for an occupation of a higher level. While this objective must be conceded to have large significance, many will challenge this narrow conception of the function of the secondary school. The larger the emphasis to be given to the vocational objective, the more valid the claim that students should be segregated for purposes of vocational training.

A third issue involved in the horizontal organization of secondary education is the effect of segregation of students

¹Charles A. Prosser. *A forecast and Prophecy*. In *Objectives and Problems of Vocational Education* (edited by Edwin A. Lee), p. 438 McGraw-Hill Book Company. 1928.

in specialized schools upon the attitudes between different social groups. Some have feared that the vocational schools would become "class" schools and that the influence would be toward increasing class consciousness and divisions between such social groups. Others have contended that such divisions exist in the comprehensive high schools and that the close associations of students from different social and economic levels in the same school make students more conscious of the differences than when they are segregated. The specialists in vocational education have attached less significance to this issue than have those concerned with the entire program of secondary education. In so far as segregation makes secondary education less "democratic" by increasing class divisions, it handicaps definitely the achievement of the social objective of the school.

A fourth issue concerns the possibility of providing a sufficiently effective program of guidance which will cause the students to make the most effective use of the available facilities. The organization of specialized schools sets up certain barriers which must be overcome by a program of guidance if such schools are to function properly. The guidance program should be adequate to cause students to resist the tendency to attend the school located nearest to their home and to go to the school in the city which provides the training they desire. The guidance program should be adequate, also, to cause students to resist the tendency for students to go to the school which enrolls their friends and to seek out the school in the city which offers the desired vocational training even though only a few of their friends are enrolled there. It should be adequate to cause students to resist the tendency to attend the school of higher social standing and seek out the school preparing for their chosen occupation. It should provide preliminary exploration and guidance so that students will have become sufficiently certain of their vocational objective that they will be likely to continue in the school which they choose. If students should drop their vocational objective and shift to some other objective, the guidance program should be adequate to cause students to resist the tendency to

remain in the school in order to stay with friends and to continue in the school activities with which they have become associated, and to shift to the school which provides training for the new objective. Anyone with experience with high-school students will recognize the afore-mentioned responsibilities as being difficult of attainment. The claims for the greater vocational-training efficiency of specialized schools assumes that guidance can be made sufficiently effective to provide the service called for. To admit that the obstacles to providing such service are unsurmountable is to admit a serious defect of a plan of specialized schools. This issue concerns the possibility of developing a program of guidance sufficiently effective actually to do the things which are assumed.

A fifth issue concerns the staff of the secondary school. Specialists in vocational education claim that the needs of vocational education are not given due recognition in comprehensive high schools because the principal and staff are academically minded, attaching large importance to the academic subjects and small importance to the so-called vocational subjects. This charge may sometimes be explained by the extreme enthusiasm of the vocational teacher for his subject and lack of appreciation of other parts of the program of the school, but in some cases this complaint is probably justified.

Other issues might be mentioned, but it is believed that the more important have been described. The cost of the training may be mentioned as a possible issue, depending partly upon the form of vocational training which is finally considered to be desirable or necessary. The size of the community affects the plan of organization. The large city with a number of Secondary schools presents opportunity for the uses of specialized schools whereas the small community has only one high school.

Many communities follow a plan of compromise between the specialized and the comprehensive plan of organization of secondary education. The comprehensive schools offer only the curricula for which there is adequate demand. If a small number of students should desire courses offered only in some other school in the city, they are required to go to another section of

the city. Many of the specialized high schools offer other than the vocational courses for the students living in the immediate district. This plan is followed especially by the technical high schools.

The judgments of members of the staffs of different types of schools were obtained for some of the issues connected with the horizontal organization of secondary education. Nearly two thousand teachers in eleven cities cooperated. The comparisons disclose less difference in judgment than has generally been assumed. Academic and vocational teachers do not differ greatly and teachers in different types of schools do not differ greatly, although certain significant contrasts are noted. Vocational education is considered to be of large importance by all groups. On the average, academic teachers in academic schools give it a lower rating than the academic teachers in other types of schools. However, the academic teachers in the comprehensive high schools gave a rating of slightly higher importance than the academic teachers in the vocational school. The industrial teachers in the comprehensive also gave a higher rating of importance than the industrial teachers in the vocational schools. These findings, at least, challenge the assumption that the staffs of comprehensive high schools are not sympathetic with the need for vocational training. It should not be inferred, however, that the teachers in the different schools believe in the same form of vocational education.

The judgments of teachers concerning vocational education were also obtained on the amount of time that should be given to vocational course by students who plan to go directly to work after leaving school. On the average, the academic teachers in the vocational schools would have such students carry more vocational work than the academic teacher in any other type of school. Academic teachers in the comprehensive school would have them carry less, and those in the academic schools would have them take still less. The industrial teachers in the vocational school would have such students spend a larger fraction of their time in vocational courses, than the industrial teachers in the other type of schools. In all types of schools, the industrial teachers would recommend that students

who go to work after completing high school should take more work than is recommended by the academic teachers in the same schools.

The belief that segregation has some influence on the attitudes of students has already been mentioned. Teachers believe that such segregation has had some effect in creating and fostering feelings of social differences between the vocational and the academic groups. The teachers in the academic schools believe the effect to be larger than the teachers in the comprehensive high schools, and they, in turn, believe it to be larger than do teachers in the vocational schools. The industrial teachers in the vocational schools believe that it has very little effect. It is significant that all groups are in agreement in thinking that separation of students fosters feelings of social differences.

The group spirit and morale of vocational students is believed to be better when they are segregated in specialized schools. The commercial teachers in the vocational schools is the only group believing the morale of vocational students to be somewhat weaker when segregated. The academic teachers in the vocational schools judge the advantage to be larger than do the academic teachers of the academic and the comprehensive schools. The staffs of the different types of schools do not think this influence on the morale of the vocational students is large, but on the average, they concede some advantage and teachers in the vocational schools judge it to be larger than do teachers in the other types of schools. The work attitude of vocational students is thought to be improved by association with academic students, although the influence is judged to be very slight.

The teachers of different types of schools were also asked to give their judgment on the program of vocational training. The teachers in the vocational schools believe that the vocational training offered in the comprehensive high schools is somewhat too general in its nature and content to give information and skills specific enough to be of definite value on a job after leaving school. Those working in the comprehensive

high schools indicate much greater satisfaction with the present form of their offering. The industrial teachers in the vocational school believe that the most effective vocational training can be given in strictly vocational high schools and give second choice to cooperative part-time courses. The industrial teachers of general and comprehensive high schools give first preference to the comprehensive high school and approve cooperative-part-time training and the vocational school to an equal degree. The commercial teachers of the commercial and vocational schools give first preference to the cooperative part-time training and second preference to the vocational school. The commercial teachers of the comprehensive school favor the comprehensive school and give second preference to the cooperative part-time courses. There is a definite tendency for teachers to believe that the form of organization in which they are working represents the best form of organization. This tendency was noted also for the administrative heads of the different schools, although a systematic summary was not made of their judgments. This tendency for workers to consider desirable the program in which they participate is interesting and stimulating to one trying to summarize the thinking on the issues involved in the organization of secondary education. However, one soon becomes convinced of the undesirability, and even impossibility, of accepting the judgments of those working in vocational education because of the conflicting opinion. In so important a phase of education, objective evaluative data ought to be obtained.

The investigations of the National Survey of Secondary Education will provide some information which will bear upon certain of the issues previously considered. A general canvass has been made of the program of vocational education in a thousand high schools of all types, all sizes, and located in all sections of the country. This analysis includes industrial, commercial, home economics, and other forms of vocational education. A very intensive study has been made of a selected group of cities. These cities were chosen because of the excellence of the work in vocational education and because they represent different forms of organization. In these cities are city

trade schools, state trade schools, technical high schools, commercial high schools, comprehensive high schools, general high schools, and academic high schools. A careful canvass has been made of the vocational courses in these different types of schools. The extent to which the different types of schools recognize the social, health, and recreational objectives of secondary education will also be canvassed. The characteristics of the students enrolled in the different vocational courses in different types of schools have been summarized for schools in ten cities. Data were obtained for about eighteen thousand students. This canvass represents an attempt to determine who is being served by different types of schools and courses and the effect of organization upon the selection of students in different courses.

The effect of segregation of students in specialized schools upon the attitudes of the different groups toward each other is being measured by a special test which has been constructed for this purpose. The measures for students in comprehensive high schools will be compared with similar measures for students in specialized schools.

The most effective measures of vocational education are the extent and use of the training received, and the adequacy of the training for meeting the requirements of the job. Data have been obtained on the vocational activities since leaving school for about seven thousand students who have gone through different types of schools. What proportion of them enter the occupation for which they trained? What proportion of the time since leaving school have they spent in occupations trained for? How many years were they out of school before they had opportunity to engage in the occupation trained for? What salary did they earn? How does that salary compare with salaries of other workers who entered the occupation without preliminary training? These questions will serve to illustrate some of the analysis made of the data on former students. It is believed that the different types of data obtained in this investigation will throw some light on the issues raised earlier in this paper.

LUNCHEON SESSION

At 12:30 P. M. Wednesday, February 24, 1932, about two hundred members sat down for luncheon in the Gold Room of Wardman Park Hotel.

Mr. C. H. Threlkeld, President of the Department presided.

Mr. H. V. Kepner, Principal of West Side High School, Denver, Colorado, and member of the National Council of the National Honor Society made an announcement that Mr. Edward Rynearson, President of the National Council desires copies of rituals of induction, accounts of chapter practices and activities, and any other items of interest to member chapters sent in to him at once.

Ballots of the ticket for election of three members to the National Council were then distributed:

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL of the NATIONAL HONOR SOCIETY

Vote for Three

- ☐ L. W. BROOKS
Wichita, Kansas
- ☐ P. C. BUNN
Loraine, Ohio
- ☐ FRED MITCHELL
Lynn, Mass.
- ☐ W. L. NEWTON
Rome, New York
- ☐ H. C. SIEBER
Red Bank, New Jersey
- ☐ M. CHANNING WAGNER
Wilmington, Delaware

The following were elected:

L. W. Brooks, M. Channing Wagner, and H. C. Sieber.

Mr. W. W. Haggard, Principal of Township High School and Junior College, Joliet, Illinois, and Member of the Finance Department made a digest of the report of the Treasurer. The report is given below. The report was adopted.

REPORT OF TREASURER
DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS
 of the
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

January 1, 1931 to December 31, 1931

RECEIPTS

Balance in Bank		235.24	
Annual dues from members	\$ 5,460.40		
Sale of Bulletins	771.44		
Sale of Blanks	444.00		
Honor Society receipts	9,729.38		
Interest on bonds	787.29		
Life Insurance Premiums	6,905.51		
Automobile Insurance Premiums	635.82		
Loans	63.77		
Bank error	10.00	24,807.61	25,042.85

DISBURSEMENTS

Secretary's Office			
Postage	770.92		
Printing	383.33		
Refund of dues to members	52.00		
Clerical services	3,056.75		
Supplies	364.88		
Equipment	309.57		
Drayage of bulletins	19.25		
Security bond, Secretary	2.50		
Audit of treasurer's accounts	35.00		
Insurance of bulletins	12.40		
Bank charges, exchange	1.20		
Cheques being collected	81.10		
Loans paid	63.77		
Refunded on bulletins	7.75		
Teller's difference	2.00		
Balance in bank, bank closed	2.87	5,165.29	

Honor Societies

Engrossing charters, and supplies -----	560.03	
Refund of charter fees -----	15.00	575.03

Bulletin No. 33, (October, 1930)

Printing -----	765.33	765.33
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Bulletin No. 34, (January, 1931)

Printing -----	619.81	
Postage -----	20.20	640.01

Bulletin No. 35, (March, 1931)

Printing -----	1,543.80	
Postage -----	50.31	1,594.11

Bulletin No. 36, (April, 1931)

Printing -----	412.15	
Postage -----	19.61	431.76

Bulletin No. 37, (May, 1931)

Printing -----	480.12	
Postage -----	20.37	500.49

Bulletin No. 38, (October, 1931)

Postage (1st mailing) -----	25.40	25.40
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Conventions in Detroit & Los Angeles

Hotel expenses of Pres. & Sec. (Detroit) -----	89.80	
Office expenses of President (Detroit) -----	17.12	
Office expenses of President (Los Ang.) -----	8.88	
Expenses of speakers (Detroit) -----	25.00	
Expenses of Secretary (Detroit) -----	44.37	185.17

Convention in Washington, 1932

Expenses of President -----	26.45	26.45
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Consultative Committee

Expenses, Chicago meeting -----	16.85	16.85
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Life Insurance

Premiums paid -----	6,467.22	
Premiums refunded -----	453.13	6,920.35

Automobile Insurance

Premiums paid -----	613.42	
Premiums refunded -----	8.00	621.42

Bonds

5 First Mortgage Bonds* -----	6,000.00	
Accrued Interest -----	80.00	6,080.00
Balance in bank, December 31, 1931 -----		\$1,495.19

*There are now in the safety deposit vault box of the Department \$35,000 in bonds. One year ago the Department owned \$27,000 in bonds.

February 15, 1932.

The Finance Committee,

Department of Secondary-School Principals
of the National Educational Association,
Berwyn, Illinois.

Gentlemen:

We have audited the accounts of the Treasurer of the DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS of the NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION for the year ended December 31, 1931, and now submit our report together with the attached statements of Receipts and Disbursements for the year and Investments at December 31, 1931.

The following is a classified summary of the Receipts and Disbursements for the year ended December 31, 1931, details of which are submitted in Exhibit A:

RECEIPTS:

Revenue:

Dues and Fees.....	\$15,121.93	
Sales of Bulletins, etc.....	1,217.69	
Interest	707.29	\$17,046.91
Insurance Premiums.....		7,541.33
Miscellaneous		63.77
		\$24,652.01

Disbursements:

Expenses:

Bulletins	3,988.75	
Conventions and Committees.....	228.47	
Honor Societies.....	560.03	
Administrative	5,009.27	\$ 9,786.52
Insurance Premiums.....		7,510.19
Miscellaneous		63.77
Investments Purchased.....		6,000.00
		\$23,360.48
Receipts in Excess of Disbursements..		\$ 1,291.53

It will be noted from the above summary that the total revenue receipts for the year, \$17,046.91, exceeded the total expenses of \$9,786.52, by \$7,260.39. This balance and net receipts of \$31.14 from other sources, a total of \$7,291.53, has been accounted for by the purchase of additional investments, \$6,000.00, and an increase of \$1,291.53 in the cash balances which amounted to \$1,565.96 at December 31, 1931, compared with \$274.43 at the beginning of the year.

Real estate mortgage notes and bonds of the par value of \$33,000.00 were produced for our inspection and are listed in detail in the attached Exhibit B. Interest on these securities of the par value of \$25,500.00 was in default at December 31, 1931.

Cash on deposit at the First National Bank of Chicago on December 31, 1931, amounting to \$1,387.96 was reconciled with the bank statement furnished by the depository. The balance of the cash funds, \$178.00, we are informed represents cash in Treasury at Washington.

Payment for printing Bulletin No. 38 has been deferred pending settlement of the amount of the claim.

In the course of our audit we made comprehensive tests of the transactions recorded on the books, but our examination was not extended to confirm the receipts by correspondence with the members, etc.

We wish to acknowledge the courtesies extended to our representative in the course of his work.

Yours respectfully,

EDWARD GORE & CO.

EXHIBIT A

CASH RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS

Year ended December 31, 1931

RECEIPTS

REVENUE:

Dues and Fees:

Members Annual Dues.....\$ 5,454.55

Honor Societies Fees..... 9,729.38

15,183.93

Less—Refund of Fees..... 62.00 \$15,121.93

Sales:

Bulletins 771.44

Blanks 444.00

1,215.44

Less—Refunds 7.75 \$ 1,207.69

Miscellaneous 10.00

Interest on Investments, etc..... 787.29

Less—Accrued on Investments

Purchased 80.00 707.29

\$17,046.91

OTHER RECEIPTS:

Insurance Premiums:

Life 6,905.51

Automobile 635.82

7,541.33

Loans 63.77 7,605.10

Total Receipts.....\$24,652.01

DISBURSEMENTS

EXPENSES:

Bulletins:

Printing Bulletins:

Number 33—October 1930.....	\$ 765.33
Number 34—January 1931.....	619.81
Number 35—March 1931.....	1,543.80
Number 36—April 1931.....	412.15
Number 37—May 1931.....	480.12

\$ 3,821.21

Postage and Insurance..... 148.29

Drayage 19.25 3,988.75

Conventions and Committees:

Detroit Convention:

Hotel Expenses.....	\$ 89.80
Office Expenses.....	61.49
Speakers	25.00
Los Angeles Convention.....	8.88
Washington Convention—1932.....	26.45
Consultative Committee.....	16.85

228.47

Honor Societies:

Engrossing Charters, etc..... 560.03

Administrative:

Clerical Services.....	3,044.45
Postage	783.32
Printing	383.33
Supplies and Equipment.....	679.35
Accounting	35.00
Returned Checks.....	75.25
Surety Bond—Secretary.....	2.50
Miscellaneous.....	6.07

5,009.27

\$ 9,786.52

OTHER DISBURSEMENTS:

Insurance Premiums and Refunds.....	\$ 7,510.19	
Loans	63.77	
Investments Purchased.....	6,000.00	13,573.96

Total Disbursements.....		<u>\$23,360.48</u>
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Total Receipts in Excess of Total Disbursements.....		<u>\$ 1,291.53</u>
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SUMMARY OF CASH ACCOUNT

Year ended December 31, 1931

CASH BALANCES—January 1, 1931....		\$ 274.43
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YEAR 1931:

Total Receipts.....	\$24,652.01	
Less—Total Disbursements.....	23,360.48	1,291.53

CASH BALANCES—December 31, 1931		<u>\$ 1,565.96</u>
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EXHIBIT B

INVESTMENTS—MORTGAGE NOTES AND BONDS

December 31, 1931

PROCEEDINGS OF THE WASHINGTON, D. C. MEETING

233

NAME	DESCRIPTION	Maturity	Par Value
James E. Melich and Pauline Melich.....	6% 1st Mortgage Gold Note	Aug. 24, 1934	\$15,000.00*
Dominick Nemunis and Barbara Nemunis.....	6% 1st Mortgage Gold Note	Aug. 10, 1932	3,000.00
The Presbyterian Church of Berwyn.....	6% 1st Mortgage	Nov. 1, 1935	3,000.00
Donald Cliff Apartments.....	6% 1st Mortgage	Nov. 1, 1935	2,000.00*
Gust Koclanes and Efstrateas Koclanes.....	6% 1st Mortgage	Jan. 15, 1936	2,000.00*
Elston-Central Park Building.....	6% 1st Mortgage	Feb. 1, 1938	1,000.00*
Alamito Dairy Company.....	6½% First Mortgage	May 1, 1936	1,000.00
Northern Illinois Supply Company.....	7% First Mortgage	May 1, 1932	500.00
The 924 Edgecourt Place Building.....	6½% First Mortgage	Aug. 1, 1935	500.00*
Austin-Park Building.....	6% 1st Mortgage	Aug. 15, 1936	5,000.00*
			\$33,000.00

*Interest on these bonds was in default at December 31, 1931.

Mr. Louis E. Plummer, Principal of Union High School and Junior College of Fullerton, California, presented the following resolution:

That the executive committee of this Department of Secondary School Principals take under consideration the appointment of a Commission to study and to restate the Principles and Objectives of Secondary Education.

Dr. Briggs has again challenged this organization to more serious thinking and to action. "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education" of 1918 has been more positive influence in the reorganization of secondary education than any bulletin ever published. Much has happened since 1918. With the completion of the Nation-wide Survey the problems can be approached in a more scientific manner than before. I believe this is the logical time to begin a reconsideration of these objectives in the light of recent progress. I hereby present the above motion.

Jesse B. Davis
Boston University.

Mr. Milo H. Stuart, Assistant Superintendent of Schools in charge of Secondary Education of Indianapolis made a brief report for C. O. Davis' Committee on the Tercentenary celebration of the founding of secondary schools in the United States. The celebration will take place at the 1935 meeting.

Mr. Francis L. Bacon, Principal of Township High School, Evanston, Illinois, made the report for the nominating committee as follows:

OFFICERS FOR 1932-1933

President—W. W. Haggard

Educational Position Superintendent, Joliet Township High School and Junior College.

Mailing address, Joliet, Illinois.

First Vice president—Robert B. Clem

Educational Position, Principal Shawnee High School.

Mailing address, Louisville, Kentucky.

Second Vice president—E. E. Church

Educational Position, Supervising Principal, Junior-Senior High School.

Mailing address, Parkersburg, West Virginia.

Secretary-Treasurer—H. V. Church.

Educational Position, Superintendent, Morton Secondary Schools.

Mailing address, Cicero, Illinois.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE—

Name—Harrison C. Lyseth

Educational Position, State Supervisor of Secondary Education, Maine. Mailing address, Augusta, Maine.

Name—M. C. Jones

Educational Position, Principal, High School.

Mailing address, Huntington Beach, California.

On motion the report was adopted.

The session closed with the masterful address of Tom Skeyhill, *George Washington, a Human Study*.

NATIONAL COUNCIL

MEETING OF NATIONAL COUNCIL AT WASHINGTON, D. C.

Meeting of the National Council of the National Honor Society at Wardman Park Hotel, February 21, 1932.

The National Council met at 1:30 P. M. Present: Members—Allen, Baker, Brooks, Kepner, Seybold, and Church. Absent: Members—McDaniel, Murdock, Plummer, and Rynearson.

The term of the following members expire: Brooks, Murdock, and Seybold. The following were nominated: L. W. Brooks of Wichita, Kansas; P. C. Bunn of Lorain, Ohio; Fred C. Mitchell of Lynn, Massachusetts; Harry C. Sieber of Red Bank, New Jersey; Walter L. Newton of Rome, New York; and M. Channing Wagner of Wilmington, Delaware.

On motion of member Allen it was decided that all principals in whose schools are chapters shall be members of the Department; and further, that no new constitutions be approved until the principal of the school applying for a charter shall become a member of the Department. Seconded by member Brooks, and carried.

On motion of member Kepner, Edward Rynearson was elected President of the National Council. Seconded by member Seybold, and carried.

Adjournment on motion of member Baker.

DEPARTMENT MATTERS

National Honor Society

Over ten years ago the Department of Secondary-School Principals (then the National Association of Secondary-School Principals) organized the National Honor Society with the end in view of stimulating scholarship in the secondary schools of the United States. To-day there are over one thousand chapters and these are in the best high schools in the country. The four objectives of the society are: to create an enthusiasm for scholarship, to stimulate a desire to render service to promote worthy leadership, and to encourage the development of character. Every high-school principal who has a chapter is enthusiastic over the productive results of this organization in his school.

Direct all requests for literature to H. V. Church, 3129 Wenonah Avenue, Berwyn, Illinois.

WARNING

The National Honor Society has met with such great success that imitations are springing up in different parts of the country. These pseudo honor societies seem to have largely a commercial objective, and plan to exploit scholarship for financial ends. Members of our department are warned to beware

of any plan to sell pins or emblems to pupils under the guise of scholarship, and are urged not to lend their aid or influence to such organizations.

The Department of Secondary-School Principals recommends only the National Honor Society and the National Junior Honor Society.

THE NATIONAL JUNIOR HONOR SOCIETY

The National Junior Honor Society is patterned very closely after the Senior Honor Society. The Junior Society is designed for ninth and tenth grades in four year high schools, and for eighth, ninth, and tenth grades in junior high schools. This organization is now a going concern, and already there are a number of chapters, both in senior high schools and junior high schools. The national constitution, the model constitution, and booklet of information as well as the application blank will be sent on request.

Direct all applications to:

H. V. CHURCH, Executive Secretary
3129 Wenonah Avenue, Berwyn, Illinois.

SEALS AND MEMBERSHIP CARDS

Membership Cards—Since the organization of the National Honor Society there has been a growing demand for membership cards in the organization. Cards of membership both for members of the National Honor Society and for the members of the National Junior Honor Society are now on sale. The cards ($2\frac{1}{2}'' \times 3\frac{3}{4}''$) are engrossed on a fine quality of cardboard, have the emblem of the Society embossed upon them, and require only the insertion of the name of the member.

The price of the cards is five cents apiece.

Seals—The Seal ($1\frac{1}{4}'' \times 1\frac{1}{2}''$) is a gilt embossed sticker to be affixed on the diplomas of members of chapters. A replica of the emblem is embossed on the seal.

The price of the seals is five cents apiece.

Plaques—A bronze wall plaque has been designed and manufactured. Schools that have chapters of the National Honor Society will now have the opportunity of having this plaque. It consists of a solid bronze casting mounted on a walnut back. The size is thirteen by sixteen inches and the weight is ten pounds. A chain is furnished. All lettering, as well as the name of the school chapter and the emblem, is raised and polished above the bronze background.

The price is \$30.00, which includes transportation and packing.

Order only from:

H. V. Church
3129 Wenonah Avenue, Berwyn, Illinois.

NATIONAL HONOR MEMBERSHIP CERTIFICATES

In response to repeated demands, the Department of Secondary-School Principals has prepared membership certificates 8½x11 for members of the National Honor Society. These certificates are lithographed on artificial parchment with the die of a facsimile of the emblem stamped in gold. They sell for ten cents apiece postpaid.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

The publications below are sent postpaid. In lots of ten or more of the same issue a reduction of ten per cent is granted, and the shipment is by express collect.

PUBLICATIONS

First Yearbook, 1917, Kansas City.

Papers on Student Government, Cardinal Principles, Supervised Student Activities, Supervised Study, Measurement

Tests, Credit for Quality, and Relations between High Schools and Colleges. (87 pp.).....\$2.00

Second Yearbook, 1918 Atlantic City.

Papers on The All-Year Schools, Administration, Physical Education, Military Training, Social Life, Junior High-School Curriculum, and the Place of the Junior College (66 pp.).....\$2.00

Third Yearbook, 1919, Chicago.

Papers on Student Government, Cardinal Principles, Democracy and High School, Social Science, Curriculums, Homogeneous Groupings, and the Social Recitation (87 pp.).....\$2.00

Fourth Yearbook, 1920, Cleveland.

Papers on Training for Leadership, Technique in Teaching, Program of Small High School, Continuation Schools, Social Studies, High School Principals, Homogeneous Grouping, and Co-operative Courses. (114 pp.)\$2.00

Fifth Yearbook, 1921, Atlantic City.

Papers on Pupils with Less Than Average Ability, Moral Education, Character Education, the Principals' Duties and Intelligence Tests, (69 pp.).....\$2.00

Sixth Yearbook,—(out of print)—

Seventh Yearbook, 1923, Cleveland.

Papers on Guidance, Rating of Pupils, Moral Training, Sex-Social Training, Finances (2)*, Curricula (4), Social Life, Platoon Plan, Student Activities, Cardinal Objectives, Physical Education, Deans of Girls (4), Compulsory Education, and Supervision. (150 pp.).....\$2.00

*Figures show number of papers.

Eighth Yearbook, 1924, Chicago.

Papers on Retention, Student Activities, Adjustment of Curriculum to Pupils, Faculty Meetings, the Small High School, Teacher Development, Finances (3), Social Science (4), and Deans of Girls (5). *Junior High School: Curriculum (4) and Guidance, Junior College: in California, Co-ordination of High School, and Place of.* (221 pp.)\$2.00

Ninth Yearbook, 1925, Cincinnati.

Papers Guidance (4), International Relations (3), Rural High Schools, Administration, College Relations, Curriculum (2), Physical Education, High-School Principals, Scholarship, Junior High School (3), Ability Grouping, and Teacher Training. (207 pp.)\$2.00

Bulletin No. 10, January, 1926.

Abstract of Books and of Magazine articles on Administration and Supervision. (32 pp.)\$2.25

Bulletin No. 11, Tenth Yearbook, 1926, Washington.

Papers on Social studies (2), International Relations (2), Record Forms, Fraternities, Scholarship, Administration (5), Curriculum (3), Personnel Charts, Guidance, Marks (2), Principals, Student Activities (2), National Honor Society (5) and Culture. (259 pp.)\$2.00

Bulletin No. 12, May, 1926.

Abstracts of Books and Magazine articles on Administration and Supervision. List of, and Rituals of Induction to Chapters of the National Honor Society. (46 pp.)\$2.25

Bulletin No. 13, October, 1926.

Abstracts of Books and of Magazine articles on Administration and Supervision. (20 pp.)\$2.25

Bulletin No. 14, January, 1927.

Abstracts of Books and of Magazine articles on Administration and Supervision. (28 pp.)\$2.25

Bulletin No. 15, Proceedings of the St. Louis (1927) Meeting.

Papers on Modern Youth, Curriculum (4), School Achievement, Physical Training, Size of Class, Junior High School Curriculum (2), Six-Year High School, Chaos in Secondary Education, High-School Publications, Place of the Junior College, Improving Teachers in Service, Pupils of limited Ability and Tests. (251 pp.)\$2.00

Bulletin No. 16, April, 1927.

Directory of Members. (106 pp.)\$.25

Bulletin No. 17, May, 1927.

Abstracts of Books and of Magazine articles on Administration and Supervision. (29 pp.)\$.25

Bulletin No. 18, October, 1927.

Abstracts of Books and of Magazine articles on Administration and Supervision. (26 pp.)\$.25

Bulletin No. 19, January, 1928.

Report of the Committee on Guidance in Secondary Schools. (94 pp.)\$.60

Bulletin No. 20, Proceedings of the Boston (1928) Meeting.

Papers on Education in Russia, In India, Internationalism (3), Small High Schools, Character Training, Specialist in Secondary Education, the Visiting Teacher, Rating of Teachers, Curriculum (2), Business and High Schools, Supervision (4), and Guidance (2). (206 pp.)\$2.00

Bulletin No. 21, April, 1928.

Abstracts of Books and of Magazine Articles on Administration and Supervision. (31 pp.)\$.25

Bulletin No. 22, May, 1928.

Abstracts of Books and of Magazine Articles on Administration and Supervision. (24 pp.)\$.25

Bulletin No. 23, October, 1928.

Abstracts of Books and of Magazine Articles on Administration and Supervision. (16 pp.).....\$.25

Bulletin No. 24, January, 1929.

Abstracts of Unpublished Masters' Theses in the Field of Secondary-School Administration, University of Chicago. Also a Directory of Members. (202 pp.).....\$1.00

Bulletin No. 25, Proceedings of the Cleveland (1929) Meeting.

Papers on Supervision (7), Curriculum, Articulation, Training Pupils to Study (2), Selection, Guidance, Use of the plant, Commercial Education, and Surplusage of Teachers. *Junior High School*: Schools of Ohio, Schedule Planning, Character Training, Teacher Training, Individual Differences, Electives, Short Unit Courses, Vocational Training, and Obligations of Junior to Senior High School. *Junior College*: Function of, Criteria for, Relation to University, Present Status, Service to Community, Orientation Program, Duplication of Courses, and Future of Junior Colleges (pp. 389).....\$2.00

Bulletin No. 26, April, 1929.

Abstracts of Books and of Magazine Articles on Administration and Supervision. Constitution of National Junior Honor Society. (pp. 35).....\$.25

Bulletin No. 27, May, 1929.

Rituals of Induction for the National Honor Society (pp. 32)\$.25

Bulletin No. 28, October, 1929.

Abstracts of Books and of Magazine Articles on Administration and Supervision. (pp. 28).....\$.25

Bulletin No. 29, January, 1930.

Reports on Studies in Class Size and on Failures. Biblio-

graphy on Relative Efficiency of Classes of Different Sizes.
(pp. 44).....\$.25

Bulletin No. 30, Proceedings of the Atlantic City (1930) Meeting.

Papers on Curriculum, Guidance, Technical Courses, Graduation, Finances (4), Standards and Future of High Schools. *Junior High School*: Finances, Reading and Articulation. (4). *Junior College*: A State Institution (2), Standards, Articulation, Terminal Courses, Four-Year Junior College, in California, Curriculum, and Teacher load. Reports of Department Committee on Investigation of Secondary Education. (pp. 301).....\$2.00

Bulletin No. 31, April, 1930.

History and Organization of the National Honor Society,
(pp. 26).....\$.25

Bulletin No. 32, May, 1930.

Diploma Practices in Secondary Schools. (pp. 31).....\$.25

Bulletin No. 33, October, 1930.

Abstracts of Books and of Magazine Articles on Administration and Supervision. Also a Directory of Members. (pp. 91).....\$.50

Bulletin No. 34, January, 1931.

Abstracts of Unpublished Masters' Theses in the Field of Secondary-School Administration, University of Southern California. (116 pp.).....\$.50

Bulletin No. 35, Proceedings of the Detroit (1931) Meeting.

.....\$2.00

Papers on Philosophy of Education (1), of Secondary Education (2); Guidance (2); Extra-Curriculum Activities (2); Teaching Methods (1); Curriculum (1); Dramatics (1); Teaching load (1); Department Heads (1); and Libraries

(1). *Junior High School*: The Principal (1), Function of (1), Guidance in (1), Home room Program of (1), and Parent-Teacher Activities of (1). *Junior College*: Finances of (1), Defense of (3), Curriculum of (1).

Bulletin No. 36, April, 1931.

Abstracts of Unpublished Masters' Theses in the Field of Secondary-School Administration, University of Southern California, concluded. (pp. 68).....\$.50

Bulletin No. 37, May, 1931.

A Study of the Influence of Departmental Specialization on the Professional Attitudes of High-School Teachers Toward Certain Administrative Problems. (pp. 70).....\$.50

Bulletin No. 38, October, 1931.

Secondary-School Administration Abstracts, and Directory, (pp. 112).....\$.50

Bulletin No. 39, January, 1932.

Abstracts of Unpublished Masters' Theses in the Field of Secondary School Administration, Ohio State University \$1.00

Bulletin No. 40, Proceedings of the Washington (1932) Meeting\$2.00

UNIFORM CERTIFICATES

The Department of Secondary-School Principals has been distributing uniform certificates of recommendation for over ten years. At first they were sent out free to the members of the Department, but the demand for the certificates became so great that the printing and mailing charges became a burden to the treasury. Therefore was a change made.

The blanks are used in transferring pupils from one secondary school to another and particularly from high school to

college. The certificates are sent postpaid at the following prices:

Mailing from

Chicago	100	200	300	400	500	1000
1st zone-----	\$.80	\$1.50	\$2.20	\$2.80	\$3.40	\$6.00
2nd "-----	.80	1.50	2.20	2.80	3.45	6.10
3rd "-----	.85	1.55	2.25	2.85	3.50	6.20
4th "-----	.85	1.60	2.30	3.00	3.75	6.45
5th "-----	.90	1.65	2.40	3.05	3.90	6.60
6th "-----	.90	1.70	2.45	3.15	4.00	6.80
7th "-----	.95	1.75	2.55	3.25	4.15	7.00
8th "-----	1.00	1.80	2.60	3.35	4.25	7.20

The blanks will be mailed on receipt of price, or C. O. D.

Direct orders to:

H. V. Church, 3129 Wenonah Avenue, Berwyn, Illinois.

THE STANDARD HIGH-SCHOOL PERSONAL RECORD CARDS

The standard record forms (5x8) which were approved by the Department of Secondary-School Principals at the meeting at Boston are now printed on cardboard suitable for vertical filing systems. This card is especially designed for small and medium size high schools.

Space is provided on these blanks for scholarship records for five years. An extra year is included for pupils of four-year high schools who may desire to do graduate work. It is recommended that six year junior-senior schools use separate cards for the records of the junior and of the senior schools.

When the guidance information called for in the lower right hand corner seems to be of a changeable nature, as would often be true of such items as "Vocational Preference," it is suggested that it be written in pencil so that it can be erased and changed when necessary.

The schedule of prices, postpaid, follows:

Zones	100	200	500	1000
1 and 2	\$1.35	\$2.65	\$4.85	\$ 8.85
3	1.38	2.70	4.95	9.00
4	1.40	2.75	5.05	9.15
5	1.42	2.80	5.15	9.35
6	1.45	2.85	5.30	9.55
7	1.48	2.90	5.40	9.75
8	1.50	2.95	5.50	10.00

The cards will be shipped on receipt of price, or C. O. D.

Direct orders to,
H. V. Church,
3129 Wenonah Avenue,
Berwyn, Illinois.

GROUP LIFE INSURANCE

The Department offers to its members life insurance in its most inexpensive form. The salient features of the plan are:

1. *Low premium.* The premium is ten dollars a year a thousand for those insured for \$3,000. See table below for rates for those over forty-five years of age.
2. *No medical examination* (with exceptions).
3. *Total and permanent disability benefits.* If an insured member becomes totally and permanently disabled, his insurance will be paid in monthly installments.
4. *Conversion privilege.* When an insured member leaves the profession to enter another professional or economic group, he may convert his group policy into any of the policies (except term insurance) customarily issued by the insurance company for the same amount at the current rates of the attained age.
5. *Age Limit is sixty-five years.*
6. *Individual policies.* These show rights of insured amount, and beneficiary.
7. *Current protection.* There are no savings, accumulation, or paid-up features. Insurance is for one year at a time, and is renewable each year, at the option of the insured member.

9. Amounts offered:

\$3,000 for all ages from 21 to 45 (nearest birthday) inclusive. Annual rates for those under 45 years are \$10 a year per \$1000. \$1,500 for all ages from 46 to 65 (nearest birthday) inclusive.

Annual Rates per \$1,000 for those 45 or older:

Age	Premium	Age	Premium	Age	Premium
45-----	\$11.10	52-----	\$16.90	59-----	\$28.15
46-----	11.65	53-----	18.15	60-----	30.40
47-----	12.30	54-----	19.50	61-----	32.90
48-----	13.05	55-----	20.90	62-----	35.50
49-----	13.90	56-----	22.50	63-----	38.40
50-----	14.80	57-----	24.25	64-----	41.50
51-----	15.80	58-----	26.10	65-----	44.90

* Send for application blanks to H. V. Church, Executive Secretary, 3129 Wenonah Avenue, Berwyn, Illinois.

AUTOMOBILE INSURANCE

The Department of Secondary-School Principals is now prepared to offer to its members reduced rates for automobile insurance. If you are interested in protection for your car at a lower premium than you are now paying, fill out the blank on page 46, and send it to H. V. Church, 3129 Wenonah Avenue, Berwyn, Illinois. Be sure to state clearly what coverage you now have, and particularly what you are now paying for this insurance.

If you will fill the application blank and send it to the Executive Secretary, the insurance company will quote their special rate to members. You will receive this quotation, and you can then decide if you can save money by accepting this special rate.

APPLICATION BLANK—AUTOMOBILE INSURANCE

Your name

Address

(Street)

(City)

(State)

Date of expiration of policy you now hold.....

(Policy expires on this date)

Annual premium you now pay. \$.....

Occupation

(Husband's occupation if married woman)

Description of car: Make.....

Type of body..... Year built.....

Factory number..... Engine number.....

List price..... Actual cost.....

New or second hand. Is car fully paid for?.....

(Cross out one)

Mortgage clause to.....

The car is for business or pleasure?

(Cross out one)

Car kept in public or private garage?

(Cross out one)

Address

(Where car is kept)

Coverage you carry

(Place cross in proper square)

☐ Fire ☐ Property: ☐ 500 ☐ 1,000 ☐ 1,500

(Amount)

☐ Theft ☐ Liability: ☐ 5-10,000 ☐ 10-20,000☐ Extra equipment..... ☐ 20-30,000☐ Tornado ☐ Collision: ☐ Full ☐ \$25 deduction☐ Plate glass..... ☐ \$50 deductionMail this application blank to H. V. Church, J. Sterling Morton High
School, Cicero, Illinois.

CONSTITUTION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

ARTICLE I—NAME

The name of this Department shall be the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association.

ARTICLE II—AIM

The aim of this Department is to promote the interests of secondary education in America by giving a special consideration to the problems that arise in connection with the administration of secondary schools.

ARTICLE III—MEMBERSHIP

SECTION 1—Membership in the Department of Secondary-School Principals shall consist of Active and Associate.

SECTION 2—All Principals of Secondary Schools, namely Junior High Schools, Senior High Schools, and Junior Colleges, their administrative and executive assistants, Heads of Schools of Education in Normal Schools, Colleges, and Universities, together with Professors teaching Secondary Education therein and Secondary-School Representatives of State Education Departments, who are also members of the N. E. A., shall be eligible to Active Membership upon payment to the Secretary of the annual fee of \$2.00. Active members shall have the privilege of voting.

SECTION 3—Members of State Organizations of Secondary-School Principals shall be eligible to Associate Membership of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, as a group, by the payment to the Secretary of the annual fee of \$1.00.*

SECTION 4—All others engaged in Secondary Education, who are members of the National Education Association, shall

*Note: This clause shall become inoperative as soon as the respective state organizations can work out provisions for enlisting their membership as active members of this department.

be eligible to Associate Membership upon payment to the Secretary, of the annual fee of \$1.00.

SECTION 5—All members both Active and Associate shall receive all publications of the Department.

ARTICLE IV—OFFICERS

SECTION 1—Officers of this Department shall be a President, First Vice-President, Second Vice-President, and Executive Secretary, who shall be the executive officer of the Executive Committee.

SECTION 2—The Executive Committee shall consist of these officers, the retiring President, and two members of the Department. The Executive Committee shall be representative of Junior High Schools, Senior High Schools and Junior Colleges.

ARTICLE V

SECTION 1—The president shall, in advance of the annual meeting, ask each of the state associations of the Department of Secondary-School Principals to name a representative who shall then be appointed by the president as a member of the nominating committee.

SECTION 2—The nominating committee so constituted shall meet at the annual meeting, elect a chairman, and prepare a list of candidates for the several offices.

SECTION 3—Eighteen members shall constitute a quorum with not less than three from each of the following regional associations of colleges and secondary schools: New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools, and the Western Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Any lack in the representation herein provided shall be filled by nomination from the floor.

SECTION 4—The executive secretary shall be appointed by the executive committee.

SECTION 5—The president shall appoint, subject to the approval of the executive committee, two members who shall with the executive secretary constitute a board of finance who shall act in the capacity of trustees, have custody of the funds of the Department, have same properly audited, and submit annually a report to the Department.

ARTICLE VI—MEETINGS

SECTION 1—The Department of Secondary-School Principals shall hold two meetings yearly. The regular annual meeting to be held at the time and place of the meetings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, unless arranged for otherwise by the Executive Committee of the National Education Association.

SECTION 2—The second meeting of the Department shall be held at the time and place of the annual summer meeting of the National Education Association.

ARTICLE VII—AMENDMENTS

The Constitution may be amended by a majority vote of those present and voting at the annual mid-winter meeting. A proposed amendment must be submitted in writing at the preceding annual meeting, or must be submitted in printed form to all members of the Department thirty days before the annual meeting. In case the latter method is used, such amendment must receive the approval of the Executive Committee before it can be printed and sent to the members of the Department.

APPENDIX

On Wednesday, February 24, 1932, the Department of Superintendence put on a program. Group V. Salient Problems in Secondary Education, in the Hall of Nations of Hotel Washington. Some of papers which were there presented will

be of interest to secondary-school principals, therefore they are here printed.

SUMMARY OF ADDRESS DELIVERED BY WILLIAM A.
WETZEL, MEETING OF DEPARTMENT OF
SUPERINTENDENCE

Group V. Salient Problems in Secondary Education.

TOPIC:—How to maintain a program of individual instruction in the face of shrinking school budgets.

Garfield described a university as consisting of Mark Hopkins the teacher on one end of a log and Garfield the student on the other end. But the picture of the old woman who lived in a shoe more nearly portrays the situation in the public secondary school.

Tutorial instruction does not fit into the practical conditions of school life. The public secondary school must reconcile mass instruction with individual education.

Probably because men considered the tutorial system the proper ideal, various accrediting agencies, believing that a deviation from individual instruction was objectionable, established "standards" for class size. These "standards" in no way grew out of the task at hand or appropriate technique to accomplish the task.

How can we take care of the growing overload without lowering school efficiency? The writer suggests the following steps:—

1. Job analysis and determination of a proper technique.

It is still common for English teachers to give composite rating which include work in spelling and vocabulary building, composition, oral and written, and literature.

Scientific organization must rest on scientific thinking. An analysis of English into its component parts, and a consideration of appropriate technique to

teach each of the parts will begin to reveal situations in which classes larger than "standard" can be taught. If the senior school will accept the proposition that vocabulary building is part of the work of every teacher, and that the spelling activities of the English department shall be confined to the 3000 most common words in the English language the work of the English teachers in spelling can be confined to a testing program. The pupils will master these words outside of class. It is possible to arrange teaching materials for presentation to larger than "normal" groups in grammar, capitalization, punctuation, sentence structure, paragraph writing, the correct form of a letter, etc., etc. Every school should have a graded collection of hundreds of such exercises. The material may be presented in one of several ways. The old principle of false syntax may frequently be applied. The work may be presented in incorrect form and the pupil will set it in its correct form. It may be dictated by the teacher, to be reproduced by the pupil. It may be presented on cards, charts, or projection material for class use. In any case the correct form is always available and the pupil immediately corrects his own work. Periodic objective tests to determine the progress of the pupil to the next unit will help to sustain the pupil's interest.

Exercise in *precis* writing may be presented in text book or mimeograph form. The pupils may make their summaries, after which a model summary may be placed before them, on a chart, on the screen, or in any other convenient form. Again the pupils will at once criticise their own production.

Exercises in outlining may be given to groups of considerable size. The teacher may read an essay well adapted to the purpose, the pupil building up his outline as the teacher reads. Again a model outline will be placed before the pupil by which he shall judge the product.

All this material will lend itself to treatment on individual cards, or class charts, or lantern slides, or opaque projection cards.

Questions like the following also may be treated in larger than normal groups: What is a drama, (illustrate by reading or dramatics); Why should anyone want to write a drama; to read a drama; how does the essay differ from the drama; what are the earmarks of a good novel; why do men write novels; why cultivate a taste for novel reading?

Dramatic readings by the teacher, (every teacher of literature should be a good reader) or by the best pupil readers; interpretative reading of good essays; class presentation of dramatic scenes; demonstration of poetic rhythms; interpretations of poems through music and pictures; singing of old songs in connection with courses in poetry; all these have a place in instruction of groups larger than are now considered normal.

Provided graded material is plentifully arranged on cards and provided suitable testing material is always at hand, it has been demonstrated that a teacher can instruct a class of fifty pupils on an individual basis in intermediate algebra.

With instruction sheets previously prepared, a teacher can take two groups of normal size to the social studies library, provided there is a sufficient number reference books in the library.

2. Testing.

The purpose of a testing program should be primarily to determine what should be retaught. The vicious thing about testing for ratings is that it results too frequently in passing pupils on 60% mastery of 100% of the course instead of complete mastery of possibly only 60% of the course.

The objective testing method should come into more general use.

3. Use pupils in the upper ability levels to help backward pupils and at times to check papers. This will be just as beneficial to the good pupils as to the backward pupils, and will be much better than marking time while the slower ones are coming on.

The speaker is not here arguing for a uniform program for all pupils. Drafting the abler pupils to help the weak pupils does not vitiate the principle of a differentiated program.

The purpose of this paper has been not to set up a philosophical thesis, but rather to find a practical answer to the question, "How can we take care of the growing overload, without lowering school efficiency."

HOW TO IMPROVE SUPERVISION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

W. C. REAVIS

Professor of Education
University of Chicago

The improvement of supervision in secondary schools has been impeded by four inherent difficulties. *First.* The special character of the program of studies in the secondary school has rendered supervision not only difficult for the general supervisor but has also tended to create distrust on the part of the supervised in the ability of a general supervisor to provide other than administrative assistance. *Second.* Many teachers in secondary schools because of inferior professional training have lacked the background essential to the adequate consideration of the problems of improvement proposed by general supervisors. *Third.* The principal as a general supervisor because of lack of training in supervision has lacked the ability to supervise constructively the work of his departmental specialists. *Fourth.* The traditions of the secondary school have tended to create an unfavorable mental set on the part of teachers toward supervision.

The inherent difficulties specified offer formidable resistance to supervision in the secondary school, but they are by no means insuperable. When they are recognized by those responsible for the character of secondary education in any school system, the first step toward their elimination has been made. Other steps can then be taken with greater promise of successful results.

The superintendent in filling vacancies in secondary schools can avoid the employment of teachers who would require extended education in overcoming the inherent difficulties mentioned. Individuals in service must also be made keenly conscious of the changes in attitude desired, and must be induced to undertake systematic training programs in the improvement of instruction.

In the case of principals, the superintendent should see: First, that the rules and regulations of the Board of Education do not place undue emphasis on routine administration and clerical activities, thereby minimizing in importance the professional responsibility of the principal for supervision as has been frequently done.¹ Second, the superintendent should provide sufficient administrative and clerical assistance for the principal to enable him to budget an adequate portion of his time to the performance of supervisory activities. Third, the superintendent should provide the principal with departmental consultants either from the central administrative office or in the persons of department chairmen or heads to give advice regarding the needs for improvement in the department fields. Fourth, the superintendent should provide a budget item which will make possible the purchase of test materials for the carrying on of a supervisory program in the several departments of his secondary schools.

With respect to the new teachers assigned to secondary schools, the superintendent should see that their qualifications are the best that his salary schedule can provide, and that the

¹Analysis of the rules of 200 Boards of Education pertaining to principals show that 65.2 per cent of the rules prescribe administrative duties, 15.8 per cent clerical, and only 12.7 supervisory.

principal have a voice in stating the requirements of the positions to be filled in his school and his reasons for desiring certain individuals from the list eligible to appointment. Unless the superintendent considers the views of the principal in making teacher appointments it is difficult to see how he can hold the principal fully responsible for the work of the teacher assigned to the principal's school.

The foregoing methods employed by the superintendent toward the improvement of supervision in secondary schools are essential but not in themselves adequate. They must be supplemented by direct efforts on the part of the heads of the secondary schools. In this respect the superintendent can be of great assistance to the principals by requiring them to plan and carry out supervisory programs for their schools and to evaluate the results in periodic reports. In the planning of supervisory programs the superintendent and his staff members may offer assistance as consultants to the principals, or the principals may be advised to utilize their department chairmen and teachers in the development of programs. In either case, when a program has been planned by a principal it should be submitted to the superintendent both for the objective information it will provide for him as the responsible leader of the school system, and the subjective effect of the act on the principal himself. Needless to say the superintendent should follow up the progress of the principal from time to time both by inviting informal conferences and by requesting formal reports.

In the planning of a supervisory program the principal should by no means neglect the desires of his staff for supervisory assistance. Despite the inherent difficulties of inadequate professional training and department consciousness, teachers in general are becoming aware of their professional needs. Data collected from 963 teachers of 8 departments in 33 schools show that the teachers desire, in the main, types of supervisory activities from principals not to be secured from the kind of general supervision often employed. Twenty-two per cent of the teachers desired to observe the work of superior teachers, 19 per cent wanted assistance in the diagnosis

of deficiencies in teaching and suggestions with respect to remedies, 14 per cent desired frequent personal conferences regarding their work, 10 per cent were anxious to receive factual data regarding scientific experiments carried on in their respective fields of work, 10 per cent wanted commendation for work considered better than average, 8 per cent considered frequent demonstration teaching desirable, 6 per cent needed assistance in the management of problem pupils, 6 per cent desired aid in the construction of tests, 4 per cent desired assistance in the preparation of lesson plans, and 3 per cent thought they ought to have tested formulas for meeting every kind of teaching difficulty.

Sixty-six per cent of this group of teachers indicated that the supervision received by them was helpful, 23 per cent unhelpful, and 11 per cent did not specify whether it was helpful or unhelpful. Analysis of the respects in which the supervision was helpful and unhelpful shows that principals still have much progress to make in supervision. For example, on the positive side 31 per cent of the principals merely confirmed the judgment of teachers regarding teaching which was considered good, 23 per cent aided the teachers in acquiring better teaching procedures, 14 per cent rendered assistance of a general nature which resulted in increased teaching efficiency, 12 per cent aided the teachers in the diagnosis of the learning difficulties of the pupils, 8 per cent helped the teachers to plan remedial measures for the learning difficulties encountered by pupils, 5 per cent furnished aid to the teachers in acquiring better classroom control of the pupils, 4 per cent disapproved practices of the teachers that were formerly considered satisfactory, and 2 per cent demonstrated the classroom practices which they expected the teachers to use.

Of the principals who performed supervisory acts considered unhelpful by the teachers, 27 per cent failed to reveal an appreciation or interest in the efforts of the teacher to make professional improvement, 23 per cent offered suggestions regarded as invalid, 17 per cent condemned practices which the teachers formerly believed and continued to believe to be good, 15 per cent gave approval to practices which the teachers con-

sidered unsatisfactory, 11 per cent interrupted the program of work too frequently, and 7 per cent criticized teaching and offered no constructive measures for improving it.

The foregoing analysis by teachers of the kinds of supervision they would like to receive and the kinds actually received points the way to a constructive program of improvement in supervision to be encouraged on the part of the principals. First, the principal should seek to discover through systematic visitation the individual needs of his teachers; second, he should develop criteria for use in supervision and see that the teachers understand and duly appreciate the criteria; third, he should provide for systematic conferences with his teachers both individually and in departmental groups as a means of specific training; fourth, he should seek to provide incentives that will enlist the interest of the teachers in the professional improvement sought through supervision.

The accomplishment of the first task in supervision, namely, the discovery of the professional needs of his teachers through classroom visitation is difficult for many principals because they have established themselves in their schools as office managers instead of educational directors. If they rely on casual supervision to accomplish the first task the chances are it will not be satisfactorily done. The principal must therefore prepare a time budget for his day that will enable him to visit classroom work systematically.

He can go to science for a method, namely, the sampling method, which will enable him to gather limited data quickly through short visits as a basis for tentative conclusions. By sampling systematically the work of his teachers for short periods of time early in the school term, the principal will be able to make general appraisals of individual needs as a basis for the formulation of his supervisory program for the semester or year. The use of this method makes possible the prompt identification of classroom problems requiring emergency treatment, and also enables the principal to give temporary assurance to individuals who require encouragement and appreciation to accomplish their best work. On the basis of the

findings of sampling surveys the principal can keep himself informed not only of the needs of individual teachers but also regarding the general conditions of his school. If used within its logical limitations and scientifically applied, the method makes possible for the principal through systematic observation a wealth of information not securable in any other way, especially in large schools.

The use of the sampling method by a principal necessitates the development of its complement, the case method. Mere discovery of need on the part of an individual is not sufficient. The need may require diagnostic study which will call for extended visitation of classroom work, detailed personnel knowledge, and quantitative measurement. Again the principal goes to science for the required technique, namely, that of the case method. All available data regarding an individual must be collected, analyzed, and interpreted to the end that training may be provided, remedial assistance given, and professional improvement secured.

The case method is needed for the successful teacher just as much as for the problem teacher. Complete understanding of successful teachers is essential if supervision in such cases is to be constructive. Successful teachers do not require diagnostic study and remedial assistance, but they often require both professional recognition and challenge. Furthermore, they may be stimulated to make professional improvement through the ways they are utilized by the principal in the solution of school problems. They may be utilized for departmental leadership, in stabilizing teachers new to the system in directing the work of substitute teachers, in sponsoring pupil activities, in demonstration teaching, and in heading committees appointed for the study of professional problems.

Supervision frequently comes to an *impasse* in a school because the criteria used in supervision are not mutually understood by principal and teachers. For example, if the principal's conception of a good assignment is a problem clearly understood by the pupils and properly motivated, and the teacher's conception is that of an imposed task, obviously a

criticism by the principal of the teacher's customary assignment given in the last 15 seconds of the class period, "Take the next five pages for tomorrow" will not be understood and will no doubt be resented. The basis for successful supervision must be established through the development of satisfactory criteria for use in the evaluation of classroom work.

Irrespective of the specific criteria which may be set up for the evaluation of classroom work in local schools, at least five general criteria should be mutually understood by both teachers and principals: (1) The pupils should be made keenly conscious of the nature of the learning products which the teacher desires them to acquire. Without the operation of this criterion both learning and teaching tend to become aimless processes. (2) The teacher is responsible for arousing in her pupils the motives and incentives to possess the learning product. Without the operation of this criterion, learning is artificial and teaching is little more than a routine act. (3) The teacher must utilize class-period time for directing and supervising the acquisition of the learning products by the pupils. This criterion fixes responsibility on the teacher for developing proper methods of study as well as determining how well pupils have studied. (4) The understanding or mastery of the learning product rather than mere power of verbal memory must be reliably determined. This criterion requires the use of objective tests and such other methods of measurement as will eliminate possibilities of guessing with respect to learning and teaching. (5) The teacher must strive to create on the part of pupils a favorable attitude or reaction toward the learning products acquired. The use of this criterion intensifies learning and tends to make the learning products acquired valued possessions of the pupils.

Through the use of general criteria, such as those enumerated, vagueness in supervision is averted and mutual understanding on the part of teachers and principal of the phases of classroom teaching is secured. Reliability in the evaluation of teaching by the principal may thereby be increased and self-appraisal by the teachers made possible.

The plan generally used by the principal for acquainting teachers with his views regarding the improvement of teaching and the results of observations of classroom work is the general faculty meeting. In recent years this plan has been criticized by teachers and in some schools allowed by principals to atrophy from disuse. Other principals have continued to use the faculty meeting as a means of making professional contacts with their teachers. An evaluation of faculty meetings by 913 secondary-school teachers shows that principals cannot depend solely on general meetings for follow-up contacts with teachers in supervision. Thirty-eight per cent of the teachers indicated that the only beneficial result secured from such meetings was understanding of administrative regulations and requirements. Twenty-four per cent of the teachers thought that they received moderate stimulation and some practical suggestions; 18 per cent, specific help in dealing with the current professional problems of the school; 9 per cent, much professional stimulation and some practical suggestions; 8 per cent, slight stimulation and few, if any, suggestions; and 3 per cent, discouragement and waste of time.

The general faculty meeting must be supplemented by conferences with departmental groups and with individual teachers. The conference may be called by the principal or sought by a department chairman or individual teacher. In a sampling study¹ of 522 schools, 58 per cent of the principals summoned teachers reegularly for professional conferences and 35 per cent issued a general invitation to the teachers to come to the principal's office for conference when they desired. As a means of encouraging individual teachers to take the initiative with respect to conferences, 21 per cent of the principals provided office hours for teachers.

The follow-up conference as a phase of supervision should neither be left to chance nor should its technique be vague and uncertain. The purpose of the conference should be mutually understood by teacher and principal. As a rule both principal and teacher should have factual material pertaining to the im-

¹Reavis, W. C., and Woellner, R. C. *Office Practices in Secondary Schools*, p. 207. Laidlaw Brothers, 1930.

provement of the work of the pupils to consider. This precaution, if observed, will make for cooperation and prevent the development of antagonism, which often results when the conference is concerned chiefly with personal criticisms of the teacher.

If the principal is unskilled in the technique of the conference, he should analyze his deficiencies and undertake to overcome them, for his success as a supervisor in the last analysis will depend on his ability to utilize the conference period effectively in the training of his teachers. He must establish himself in his school as a constructive critic of learning and teaching if his supervision is to function above the level of perfunctory inspection. The realization of this objective depends on his ability to conduct a successful conference with individuals and with groups.

The development of a program of teacher improvement by the principal through supervision involves the wise use of incentives to professional growth. Professional improvement cannot be imposed by administrative decree. It must be developed through the operation of incentives to professional growth. Incentives as factors in professional improvement are not wholly self-generating; they must be supplied in part by the head of the school through his supervisory program.

Superior teachers may usually be improved through the incentive of professional recognition. By professional recognition is meant confidence in professional ability, not merely commendation. Through consultation regarding professional problems, through the delegation of duties requiring professional knowledge and insight the teacher is stimulated to prove herself worthy of the confidence bestowed by the principal and equal to the responsibility imposed.

The superior teacher can also be stimulated through the incentive of rendering a unique professional service to the school. The preparation of text material for a department, the development of tests, representing the school at an important conference, preparing a demonstration lesson, conducting an experiment, carrying on a research investigation,

or the like may act as a powerful incentive to encourage professional development.

The incentives of professional advancement and salary increase as rewards for professional improvement are strong factors in furthering professional growth among teachers of all efficiency levels, if wisely used and justly administered. However, without a supervisory program these incentives may prove to be trouble makers for the principal rather than means to a desired end. The superintendent of a school system can make possible the improvement of supervision on the part of his principals by placing on them the responsibility for wisely using professional promotion and salary advancement with their teachers as incentives to professional growth.

Even the poorest teachers of the staff may be stimulated by a challenging school environment. Good physical equipment, proper materials of instruction, excellent pupil and teacher morale, efficient administration, and scientific supervision act as incentives to professional endeavor. On the contrary poor equipment, obsolete materials of instruction, low morale of the student body and faculty, inefficient administration, and unscientific supervision may destroy professional ambition and arrest the growth of a corps of teachers.

The improvement of supervision in a secondary school is the direct responsibility of the principal, but the superintendent must decide whether he wants a supervising principal or a building manager. If he chooses the former he must create the conditions which make efficient supervision possible. However, the creation of satisfactory conditions for the principal will not necessarily generate supervision spontaneously. The superintendent must challenge the principal to develop a personal program of supervision designed to stimulate and improve learning and teaching in his school, and must follow up systematically from time to time the progress made by the principal toward the realization of this important goal.

HOW CAN THE HIGH SCHOOL STIMULATE THE INTELLECTUAL INTERESTS OF AMERICAN YOUTH?

JESSE H. NEWLON

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The profession of education must face squarely the fundamental question of whether the American people would look with favor on a high school that would stimulate intellectual curiosity in all areas of experience. It may be that they desire only a high school that will condition youth to think in certain socially approved ways or to think not at all in certain areas of life. If the high school is to play a vigorous and constructive role it must stimulate youth to think constructively, independently, and courageously on the crucial problems of contemporary society. The high school must contribute to making American minds critical of American life. This process involves a freedom of teaching that does not now exist, or at least is not now widely exercised.

Let me make clear that I do not consider that a critical mind necessarily is a destructive mind. The two are by no means synonymous. Indeed, the non-critical mind will in the long run be the destructive mind, for it will be unable to adjust to new conditions. The mind truly critical is appreciative of the riches of our social heritage while recognizing the defects of our social machinery. Perhaps the great task of secondary education is that of cultivating minds that criticize, but criticize understandingly, with deep appreciation and loving kindness, and constructively.

What are some of the obstacles to the cultivation of intellectual interests in the American high school? The first has to do with methods of teaching, broadly conceived. Traditionally, American schools have operated on the theory, implicit at least, that the objective of teaching is the imparting of factual knowledge. Accompanied by elaborate testing programs, such teaching operates to prevent thinking rather than to encourage it. Where the textbook is the student's main source of infor-

mation, where the old recitation method holds sway, with the student learning his lesson primarily for the purpose of repeating it to the teacher, thinking has precious little encouragement. Knowledge is of scant value unless it can be intelligently used. Western civilization has acquired an amazing amount of knowledge in the last two centuries in almost every field of human activity. What is needed is the ability to interpret knowledge, to formulate judgments and carry out policies. The school has not been sensitive to this need.

Due recognition should of course be given to the changes in methodology in the last generation. Slowly we are realizing the futility, so far as thinking is concerned, of a method in which the learner assumes a passive attitude, attempting merely to absorb and retain as best he can the body of conventional factual knowledge that makes up the ordinary curriculum. Gradually we are shifting our method, placing more responsibility upon the student for active participation in the learning process. That psychology which holds that teaching is really impossible, that only learning can take place, is gaining ground. According to this school of thought, reflective thinking occurs only when the individual is confronted with a problem interesting to him or which in terms of his own life and his own motives demands solution. All that has been acquired in past experience is brought to bear in analyzing the new problem, defining its elements, evolving tentative hypotheses, testing them, and reaching conclusions. Thus learning is effective, for knowledge opens the doors to new knowledge. Obviously this is a very sketchy and inadequate statement of a psychology of thinking which many have accepted and are endeavoring to apply in the schools. But such a psychology can be effectively applied only in a school which is closely articulated with the society of which it is a part, which endeavors to make school situations natural and meaningful in terms of life. The advocates of this new theory regard the school as a social institution whose processes are social and whose function is not only to develop the innate capacities of each individual, (and that is of vital importance), but to provide that type of experience,

that allround thoroughgoing education that will best equip him to take his place as an effective member of society.

The operation of this new theory of the school and of learning may be discerned in current educational practice in the recent appearance and popularity of such terms as "the socialized recitation", the "problem method", the "project method", the "unit of work", the "activity curriculum". In harmony with the contention that learning is primarily a process of experiencing, the schools are now more richly supplied with equipment and materials. The library has come to be regarded as a necessity in the school that views learning as an active mental process. Something of the method of the graduate seminar has come into many classrooms. Students are becoming active seekers after truth. Recognition of the educational values in the life of the school outside the classroom has given great impetus to the extra-curriculum movement.

If the procedures just described had gained wide-spread usage, the outlook for the stimulation of intellectual curiosity would be somewhat more encouraging. But the battle is not so nearly won. The picture I have sketched is still too much the exception, too little the rule. Some teachers and schools have moved a long way in the direction of these more vital methods; a great many have been more or less affected by them, the rank and file but little influenced. The textbook still holds sway. Few teachers have any clear-cut notion of the nature and the place of subject matter. Whatever lip service may be given to the newer doctrines, most of us are still operating upon the assumption that the learning of subject matter is the end of education. If we may judge by practice, the conditioned reflex theory of learning dominates the American school. The school (unconsciously, of course) is an instrument to condition the individual to think in certain approved ways. Always a powerful instrument for social control, the school uncritically enforces the ideals and standards of our acquisitive society. It places a premium on the acceptance of these standards. The question is not one of the desirability of the school as an instrument of social control, but rather of the type of mind that the school shall seek to produce. Do we desire to

stimulate intellectual curiosity? If so, we shall move in one direction. Do we wish to determine thinking in advance, to guarantee specific responses to certain cues, such as "America first" or "the sacred right of property", "the Constitution a God-given and sacred document", "Avoid entangling alliances"? If so, we shall proceed in a different way, in fact, very much as now. Whatever our professed intentions may be, we could scarcely point to our high schools as centers of intellectual curiosity in the realm of the social.

If we seek an explanation of this state of affairs, it will be found in the conditions of American life. The American people are not afraid of experimentation, of radical thinking in the sciences, the applied arts, and in commerce. We are perfectly willing to scrap a machine, no matter how expensive, if a more efficient one can be invented. The Waldorf Astoria that might have stood for a thousand years is torn down to make place for the Empire State Building. Gigantic industrial and commercial enterprises testify to our creativeness in business. But in politics, in government, in social affairs we have been sterile for more than a century. To discover great thinkers and inventive geniuses in this field we must go back to the Fathers of the Republic. The American Revolution was a great social upheaval. But since that great period we have produced practically no new ideas and, with few exceptions, no great leadership in social and political questions. Ideas have not been looked upon with much favor in these fields.

It is not necessary to elaborate before this audience the causes for this censorship of thinking in the social sciences. First of all, we have been tremendously absorbed in conquering a continent, in exploiting our natural resources, in building a mighty industrial civilization. National success has made us complacent. Vested interests demand that the *status quo* be maintained. The school has been too much an instrument for the indoctrination of American youth in favor of the *status quo*. The teacher, too, has reflected the American temper. He has been little interested in social problems; has lived largely apart from political affairs. He, too, has cherished a hope, however forlorn, that through some happy venture he might some

day make a lucky strike and acquire a competence. But we have evolved a code which demands that the teacher should be neutral in politics. He may vote his sentiments under the protective anonymity of the ballot, but he must refrain from public expression of them. This has gone so far that in one of our greatest cities in 1928 the superintendent of schools promulgated an order that the issues of the presidential campaign should not be discussed in any school of that city.

So long as this censorship on ideas operates, even though it be self-imposed by a teacher steeped in the mores and ideas of the culture of which he is a part, the American high school will do little to stimulate intellectual curiosity. Youth are intensely interested in the problems of the day. Why should not these problems be brought into the school? We need fewer sacred cows in education. The experimental spirit, the spirit of criticism, must be carried into social realms.

Ours is a period of serious economic and social dislocation. The boasted American system has proved inadequate to the needs of the day. Seven million are unemployed; the farmers are unable to market their crops; hunger and suffering are found on every hand. In many of our great cities government is almost bankrupt. The problems of the next generation demand the highest possible level of social intelligence. Here the school finds its most difficult task, its gravest responsibility.

We have heard much of fostering the creative spirit in education, but many advocates of creative education limit it too much to the arts. The student who can write a beautiful poem, paint a lovely picture, contrive something original in the plastic arts, or construct something new out of the materials of the laboratory or shop, is regarded as creative. This student is honored. The emphasis in creative education has been too much on the aesthetic side. It is true that the new school emphasizes the importance of reflective thinking, but its efforts in this direction have been largely futile. To carry the creative idea into the social sciences implies nothing less than that American youth should make a realistic and critical study of the basic institutions and processes of American life, of our

business structure, of the family, of government and morals. Reference was made a moment ago to the intellectual giants of the days of the American Revolution. I can give point to the thought that I have tried to develop by asking whether you think men like Benjamin Franklin or Thomas Jefferson or a Tom Paine would be regarded as safe teachers for American youth in the high schools of 1932?

It is quite possible that the time is close at hand (say within this century) when we shall have to choose between the stimulation of vigorous intellectual curiosity and creative thinking in these social areas, and disaster to our social structure. As he surveys American life, the thoughtful person can only be impressed with our futility in the face of difficult social problems. We seem unable to think, to formulate policies. On every hand we hear the cry for leadership. Why is it that leadership in America has fallen so far short of the needs of the day? My belief is that the American people have no body of ideas in the social, political, and economic realms with which to work. Their working capital is the body of social ideas of the old agrarian order that ended with the industrial revolution and the rise of cities in the last century. New conditions demand new ideas, but creative thinking in these realms has been frowned upon. Terrific pressure is brought on the school to enforce conformity.

The high school can stimulate intellectual curiosity only if it is free to examine fearlessly the problems of American life and only if we as teachers have the courage commensurate with the task. I am not sure what the final outcome will be. I hope the forces of education will assert themselves vigorously. They may be able to turn the scales of public opinion in favor of freedom of teaching. If the school can be free, it can set up activities that will not only arouse the intellectual interests of youth but will meet individual needs and provide for the innate potentialities of everyone.

If I may close with a personal note, I will say that the events of recent months have encouraged me. I believe teachers and school executives, students of education, are alive to

their responsibilities to-day as never before. If we who occupy positions of leadership in this transition period rise to our responsibilities, we can make education the constructive force that it should be.

It is at this point that you and I face the greatest challenge in the history of American education. It is our business to make the high school a vitally constructive social force. It may be a dangerous business, but we will not measure up to our civic responsibilities unless we have the courage to meet this challenge, to take whatever risk individually it may involve. If I may judge by my own experience, we are altogether more timid than the occasion warrants. Whatever may be the desires or the indifference of the unawakened majority, there is a strong minority of intelligent, socially minded Americans of all parties and in every community that will join forces in making the schools socially constructive. These liberal forward-looking Americans will defend with might and main a school that dares to stimulate the intellectual curiosity of its pupils in every department of life.

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REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON STANDARD
FORMS

Standardizing the Personal Rating Card

During the past year this committee has sponsored an investigation which was prompted by the increase in the number of requests for information of a personal nature about graduates and former students of our secondary schools. More and more are colleges and prospective employers asking us for information about character and personality traits, work habits, social attitudes, and the physical conditions of our former students. The variety of forms in which these inquiries have come have impressed us with the fact that we need to standardize the kinds of personal information which we gather and record so that our records will contain the data which is needed to answer such inquiries. Furthermore, we hope that the existence

of certain standard information in our records will tend to standardize the forms of the inquiries.

In order to find out what the high schools, colleges, and industrial concerns desire in the way of personal information, the committee sent out a request for material to 137 high schools, 147 colleges and universities, and 100 industrial and commercial concerns. The high schools were asked to send the forms used in collecting and filing information concerning the character and personal qualities of their pupils. Fifty-five high schools responded by sending forms. The colleges and universities were asked to send the forms that they send to high schools when requesting information concerning the personal qualities of high school pupils who are seeking admission. Eighty-six colleges and universities responded by sending such forms. The industrial concerns were asked to send samples of all the forms that they send to high schools when inquiring about pupils who have applied for positions. Twelve of the 100 industrial concerns responded. In addition to the reports which were received, a number of the large business and industrial firms in and around Chicago were interviewed and information concerning the personal qualities of their junior workers, was collected. Some valuable information was secured from the rating scales and forms that were used by these firms.

The data secured from this sampling were compared with other studies in an attempt to discover points of similarity or difference.

An analysis of the forms showed a large variety of terms used, many of which were either synonymous or over-lapped considerably in their meanings. After consolidating these terms wherever there seemed to be over-lapping in their significance, it was found that they could all be included under eighteen general titles. Table No. I gives a summary of the frequency of occurrence of the terms in the eighteen groups of personal traits found in the forms of the high schools, colleges, and industrial concerns.

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An analysis of this table reveals the fact that the items of information desired by high schools and colleges and those desired by industry do not receive the same emphasis. Some of the items are high in all three lists while others that rank high in one list are comparatively low in another. There is greater agreement between the high school and college list than between either of these and the industrial list. However, the list is small enough so that the same form can be used in collecting and submitting information to both colleges and industries. If it were desirable to shorten the list some of those having a low frequency could be dropped or combined with others. In preparing a rating blank, it has been thought best to omit four of the traits which have a rather low frequency in all three lists.

TABLE I

FREQUENCY OF OCCURRENCE OF EIGHTEEN GROUPS
OF PERSONAL TRAITS FOUND IN THE FORMS OF
EIGHTY-SIX COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES,
FIFTY-FIVE HIGH SCHOOLS, AND A SAM-
PLING OF INDUSTRIAL CONCERNS

TRAIT—	High School	College	Industry	Total
Leadership, initiative-----	69	140	22	231
Intelligence -----	52	138	18	208
Propriety -----	6	105	2	113
Cooperation -----	56	39	13	108
Industry -----	36	57	11	104
Health (Physical vigor)-----	27	69	7	103
Dependability -----	28	29	8	65
Sociability -----	22	32	9	63
Honesty -----	31	9	19	59
Appearance -----	24	12	19	55
Exactness, accuracy-----	13	4	23	50
Courtesy, tact-----	22	8	15	45
Self-Possession, poise, self-control	11	10	14	35
Judgment, common sense-----	12	14	2	28
Enthusiasm -----	9	5	7	21
Promptness, punctuality-----	1	5	14	20
Courage -----	7	7	5	19
Adaptability -----	3	7	1	11

There seems to be considerable evidence to support the contention that the existence of a personality trait depends entirely upon the nature and extent of the stimulus which may

produce such a reaction. It has been demonstrated that an individual may exhibit certain traits under certain conditions and not under other conditions. Knowing how an individual acts in one situation will not be of service in predicting his action in another situation in which there are different conditions. In other words, traits are predictable to the extent that identities in stimulus reactions are predictable because traits are responses conditioned upon specific stimuli. However, the members of this committee felt that if an individual has exhibited certain reactions under a sufficient number of conditions to make them frequently noticeable to teachers and others associated with him, that they are worthy of record. It seems reasonable that the larger the number of situations in which a reaction is evident, the more the individual can be said to possess that trait. A trait is really a habit of conduct or a mode of adjustment to a given type of situation. Therefore, only those traits or characteristics should be included in this list, which can be definitely recognized and roughly measured in comparing school children with one another in school situations.

In preparing a rating blank, it must be kept in mind that the rating given a certain pupil by a certain teacher must be somewhat subjective and that the existence of the trait can only be measured by comparing its existence in different children and to the degree that it is evidenced in the presence of the person making the rating. This means that while one teacher may rate an individual above the average in a certain trait, another may rate him below the average in that trait depending on the general average of the pupils who have been observed by each of the observers and the extent to which that trait has been exhibited in the presence of each observer by the pupil rated.

It is not the purpose of this committee to attempt to determine the validity of rating scales or rating methods, but rather to set up a record form which can be used for recording the judgments of teachers regarding the existence of certain personal characteristics in order to answer the inquiries of colleges and industrial concerns. With this idea in mind and with the results of the investigation as shown in Table No. I,

the committee wishes to submit the attached form for the consideration of the department. The items included in this form are listed in the order of the frequency with which they have appeared in the consolidated lists in Table No. I, omitting those that it seems impractical to attempt to measure. It is recommended that high schools desiring to use a smaller number of items omit those at the bottom of the list as being the ones called for least frequently. It is suggested that copies of this form be used in securing reports from individual teachers at the time the pupil graduates or withdraws from school and that these reports be consolidated on one card to be kept in the permanent office file.

The committee wishes to recognize the work done by Mr. Herman O. Duncan, a graduate student in the School of Education of The University of Chicago, who, under the supervision of Prof. W. C. Reavis, analyzed the forms secured from schools and business concerns, and prepared the lists of items which have been used in this report. He also did considerable work in checking with other studies of a similar nature.

Respectfully submitted,

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RATING SCALE OF PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

INSTRUCTIONS: In each trait or characteristic, compare the subject to be rated with the average pupil of the same age, then make a small cross somewhere on the line for each trait. Note that the middle of the line represents the average while the ends represent the opposite extremes.

NAME _____ Age _____ Grade _____
 Below Average Average Above Average

1. **LEADERSHIP:** The ability to enlist followers or to influence others.
 |-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
2. **INTELLIGENCE:** The ability to learn.
 |-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
3. **PROPRIETY:** Regard for moral and social standards.
 |-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
4. **COOPERATION:** Ability to work or play well with others.
 |-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
5. **INDUSTRY:** The habit of carrying tasks to completion.
 |-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
6. **PHYSICAL VIGOR:** Enegry, Vitality.
 |-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
7. **DEPENDABILITY:** Regard for duty, habit of keeping agreements
 or carrying out responsibilities.
 |-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
8. **SOCIABILITY:** Ability to mix well and make friends easily.
 |-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
9. **HONESTY:** Integrity, truthfulness, sincerity, trustworthiness.
 |-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
10. **PERSONAL APPEARANCE:** Neatness, good taste, personal at-
 tractiveness.
 |-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
11. **EXACTNESS:** Accuracy and thoroughness in performing tasks.
 |-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
12. **COURTESY:** Consideration for others, tactfulness.
 |-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
13. **SELF-POSSESSION:** Poise, self-control, self-confidence.
 |-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
14. **PROMPTNESS:** The habit of punctuality in meeting appointments.
 |-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|

