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SECONDARY-SCHOOL
PRINCIPALS**

OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

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Secondary-School Principals**

of the National Education Association

CLEVELAND, OHIO

February 26, 27 and 28, 1934

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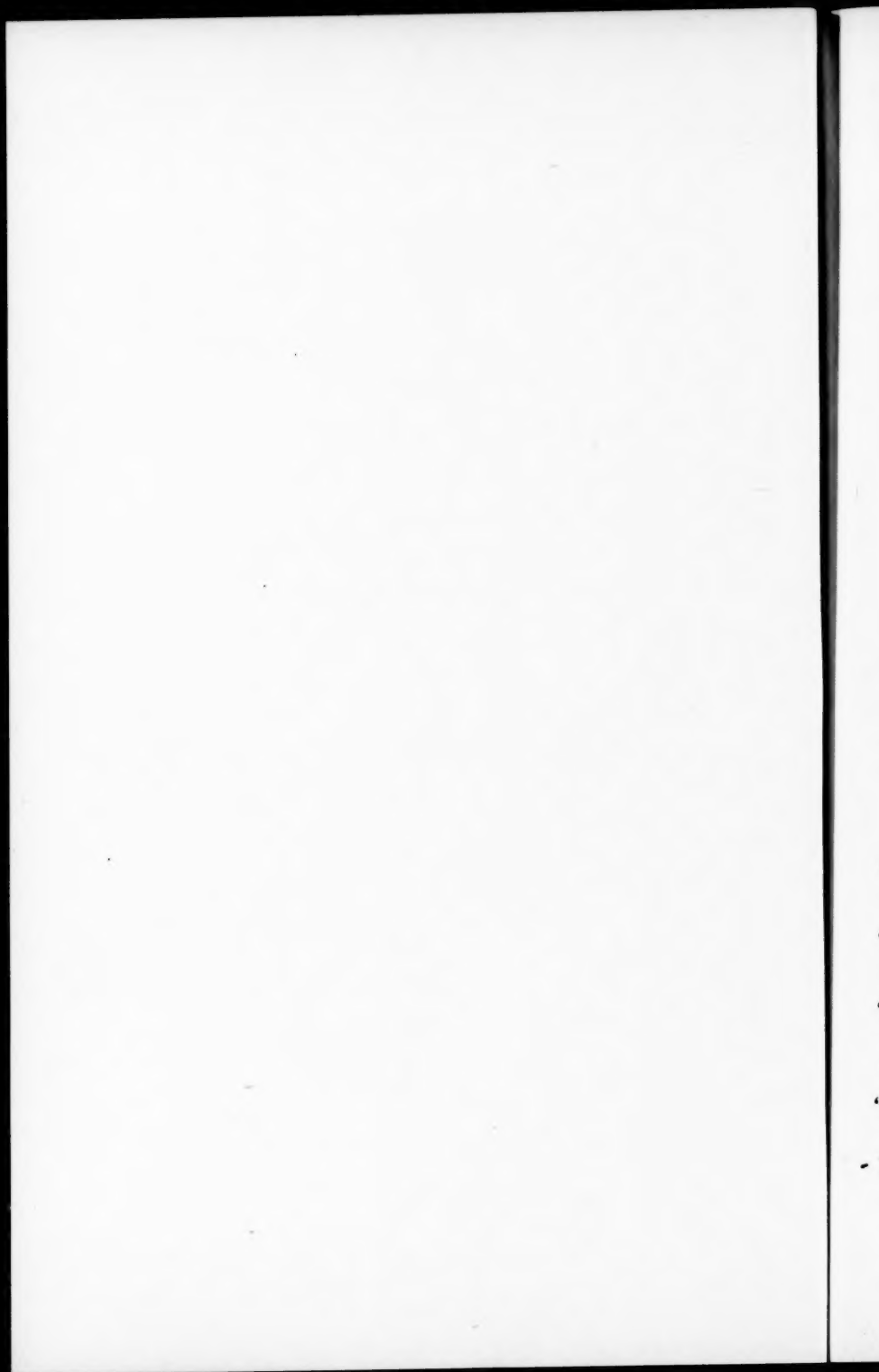


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H. V. CHURCH

Executive Secretary of the Department

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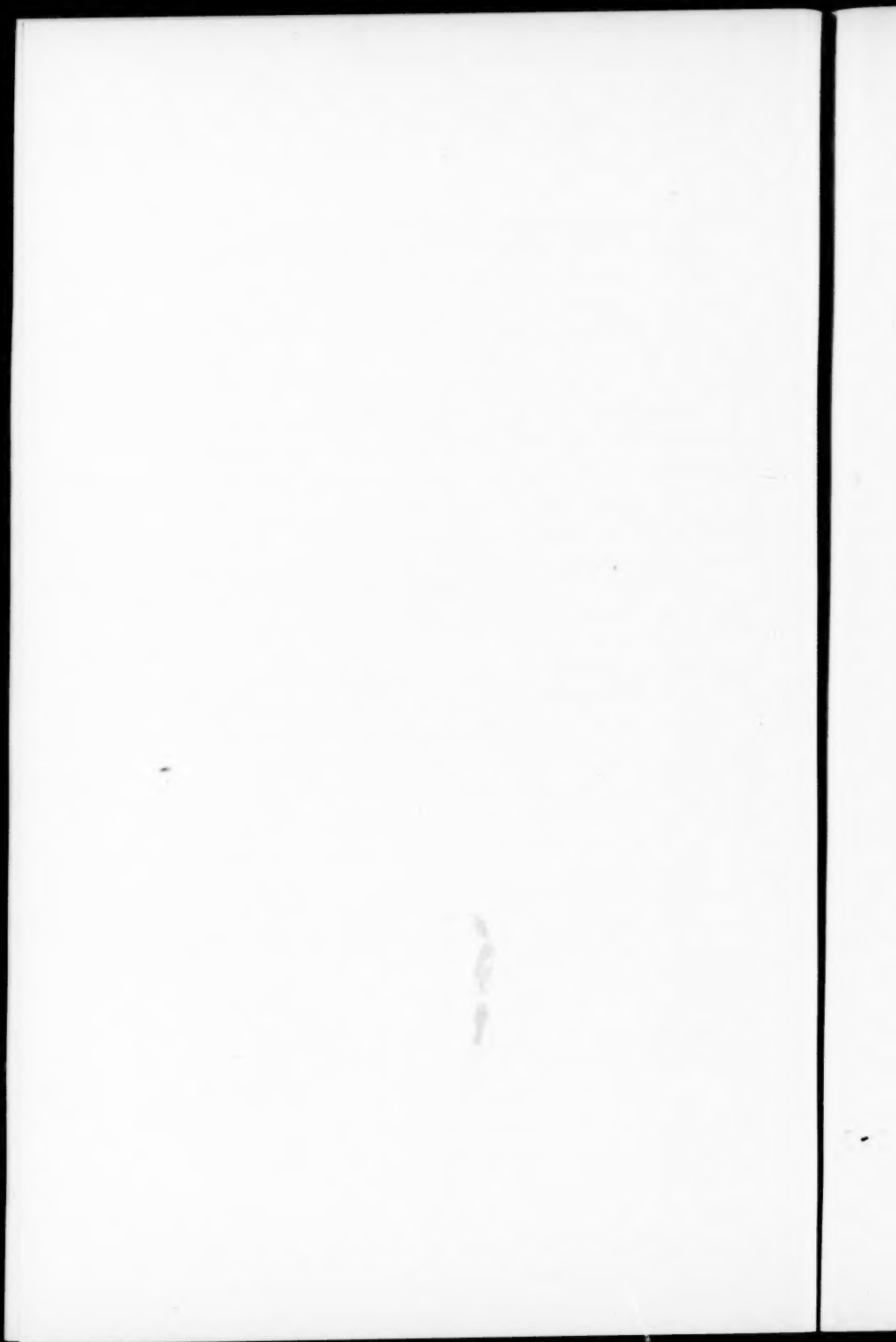
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EIGHTEENTH ANNUAL CONVENTION
of the
Department of Secondary-School
Principals
of the
NATIONAL EDUCATION
ASSOCIATION

The eighteenth annual meeting of the Department of Secondary-School Principals met in Cleveland, Ohio, on Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday, February 26, 27 and 28, 1934.

THE GENERAL SESSION

The first session of the eighteenth annual meeting of the Department of Secondary-School Principals was opened by the Choral Club of the John Adams High School of Cleveland, under the direction of Thomas Roberts, singing:

Come Again, Sweet Love.....	<i>Dowland</i>
Adoramus te.....	<i>Palestrina</i>
Matoma, Lovely Maiden.....	<i>Lassus</i>
Oft in the Stilly Night.....	<i>Brahms</i>
Glory to God, the Father.....	<i>Rachmaninoff</i>

At 1:55 P. M. Professor G. W. Rosenlof, president of the National Association of High School Inspectors and Supervisors, introduced Robert B. Clem, president of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, and Principal Ernest D. Lewis of Childs High School of New York City.

Principal DeWitt S. Morgan of Arsenal Technical High School of Indianapolis read his paper.

THE PLACE OF THE TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL IN MODERN EDUCATION

DEWITT S. MORGAN

Principal, Arsenal Technical Schools
Indianapolis, Indiana

A technical high school is a secondary school whose curriculum organization and practices exhibit its major purposes to be to prepare pupils in the arts and sciences, in the underlying practices in some trades, and to help (with emphasis on *help*) qualify them to engage in a trade or some branch of productive industry.

With this statement in mind as to the character and purposes of the technical high school, may I cite a statement of a committee of the Department of Superintendence as reported in the Sixth Yearbook. The committee said, "Education in a democracy, both within and without the school, should develop in each individual the knowledge, interests, ideals, habits, and powers whereby he will find his place and use that place to shape both himself and society towards our nobler ends."

There must be some highly important implications for education in the social facts which we face if we really believe that education should be definitely helpful to pupils in finding a place for themselves. We hear much about the new population in the secondary school. What is it that is new about the new population? Perhaps first in order of mention is the fact that they have come to the high school in increasingly larger proportion from parental and home background where interests are in mechanical and technical processes. The recent bulletin of the National Survey of Education, *The Secondary-School Population*, makes a comparative study of occupational background of pupils of the school population of Seattle, Washington, in 1920 and 1930, based upon the study of Dr. George S. Counts in 1930.

Now this bulletin does not necessarily imply that these pupils from these occupational groups will find their liveli-

hood in these groups. But we do know that native interest, native aptitude, and social contact which carries with it opportunity, will draw them in the same general occupational direction. Furthermore, we know even more surely that occupational opportunity is largest in these fields. In the United States as a whole in 1930, 40% of all gainfully employed workers were in manufacturing and mechanical industries and trades. In these east North Central states, 53% of all gainfully employed workers were in those occupational classes. With family heritage of interest in mechanical fields, with occupational opportunity most likely there, it does not seem unreasonable that educational interest can best be caught with activities related to these fields of work.

The most pressing problem of secondary-school administration is to find the kind of education which will effectually serve, not alone the 25 who may have opportunity for further training, but at the same time equally serve the 75 for whom the high school is the last contact with education.

The Commission on the Survey of Higher and Secondary Education in California in 1932, under the direction of the late Dr. Suzzalo, reads, "After some years of common schooling, a considerable portion of students in compulsory attendance show a lapse of interest. The fact that such persons display limited ability in liberal studies may indicate that their chief powers lie in other directions than the purely literary or mathematical studies. Here arises the necessity for providing vocational courses of a quality and value equal to, and co-ordinate with, those of an academic nature. This situation involves growing numbers of cases as larger and larger groups of the population move through the school system toward the upper levels of common schooling. New intellectual opportunities and new opportunities for specialized vocational training are then plainly indicated, the more so because little by little the school has been forced to assume responsibilities that the home and industry cannot or will not longer perform."

But it is in place to inquire whether there really is a kind of preparation in the arts and sciences, in the underlying

practices in some trades, which *is* effectual both for the educational growth of those in the high schools and which will actually help them to find their place according to the conditions which they actually face. The problem of finding a place in society promises to be critical enough even for the college-trained for years to come. Certainly it can be no less acute for the larger multitude who will leave school at the end of, or within, the secondary-school period. It seems increasingly clear that the future economic welfare of large numbers of our pupils will depend in large measure upon their ability to "light on their feet" through a series of enforced occupational tryouts in the form of unemployment and re-employment. For many who have these personal attributes which will bring advancement, the rub comes in getting a start. For those who do not possess these personal attributes, it is necessary for them to get many starts. In either case, the offerings which are now common to the technical high schools as we know them are such that certain elementary skills may be developed which will help pupils, especially in the lower occupational groups, gain that all-important thing—an initial foothold—in the industrial order.

This factor of getting initial employment dare not be forgotten in thinking of the kind of training which will help the larger number of our pupils to find a place for themselves.

We make a mistake if we do not think about the practical vocational training which will help our pupils get a start on a job. There must be training which will contribute to adjustment to changing conditions as well as for enlarging opportunity.

To meet this dual problem, it seems that the technical high school is or can be especially adapted, and in this it has a unique opportunity. It can offer a broad industrial training in basic and underlying practices in a range of industrial areas. But at the same time, for those whose interests and personal conditions demand, it can narrow its training early. For others, it can defer such specialized training until a

sound industrial and accompanying academic foundation has been laid.

But we are coming to know that our occupational scheme is not a mere hodge-podge of disconnected and isolated processes despite the fact that extreme specialization and division of labor made it appear to be such. There is a training in arts and sciences of general application which will contribute to occupational adjustment for new manufacturing processes. There are basic *underlying practices*. These persist though new devices come with invention and progress. The turning of woods and the turning of metals, processes of planing, shaping and drilling are basic fundamental practices. The most modern electric-driven, high-g geared, infinitely powerful but infinitely accurate lathe is but a refinement of the simple lathes of earlier days. These modern machines are faster, easier to operate, sometimes automatic, but they are for the most part but new adaptations and refinements of a simple machine to do a basic process. There are basic knowledges of practices and principles without knowledge of which a youth in this modern day finds himself in a daze in modern industry. There are fundamentals upon which we can build a broad technical training. We can make our pupils more able to meet the demands of a machine age, keep them somewhat abreast of modern refinements of basic processes, and at the same time, as ability and maturity will permit, develop a specific skill which in normal times will be in reasonable demand.

Nor does the training of the technical high school need to close the door to further educational opportunity for any pupil. The tendency of many of our colleges to liberalize entrance requirements makes it possible for many pupils whose future is uncertain, who may need to earn their way, to secure technical training and at the same time meet college requirements. This is all possible provided the technical school curriculum is flexible enough to modify the program of each pupil to meet his own individual ability and need. Many of our high schools to-day are graduating pupils who have developed a high skill in commercial art and at the same time

have completed courses which fully meet entrance requirements of colleges and universities. For many of our girls, training in bake shop or in office practice, accompanied by courses required for college entrance, seems to be the solution of the problem of training for those of high ability, high aims, but without money. We should not and we need not make this training for a mechanical age close the road to higher training for any pupil who can profit thereby. We believe that for many the technical high school can solve an educational dilemma. Many now prepare definitely for earning a living and by proper subject election they prepare for higher training if the opportunity ever comes.

Nor is it true that a program of opportunity for technical training will in any way minimize, for those who need it, individual opportunity for cultural and civic training. Very wisely the California commission warns in its recognition of need for definite training as quoted above that "the trade or industrial teacher has the responsibility of socializing or civilizing the student through connecting to the fullest possible extent his vocational activity with the rest of civilized life." We do not believe that the inclusion of technical training in education of our pupils limits in any way opportunity for their socialization; in fact, we believe it is an agency to aid in this. The processes of socialization and civilization are not mere reading books about coöperation and the duties of a citizen. Civilizing of our pupils (as the California commission speaks of it) is not mere getting pupils into discussion groups for an academic discussion of the responsibilities of the individual in an interdependent society. The English schoolmaster has long had as great faith in the civilizing influence of the playfield as he has had in a program of civic teaching through the precepts of the classroom. Very properly can we trust the effectiveness of the projects of our school shops in teaching, but suggestion, the potency of coöperation and we can do this under conditions similar to those under which many of our pupils will work. And apart from concepts and attitudes so important for socialization and civilization (and which come more from suggestion than from pre-

cept after all) we do not forget that the important thing to make of a boy a good citizen is to make it possible for him to make his services sufficiently valuable that society will pay him for what he does; that he can earn an honest living, pay his bills when they come due, live honorably and wholesomely, confident that he and his children can rely on the clarity of his mind, the strength of his body, and the skill of his hands to get food and clothing and shelter. Such is, after all, the foundation of good citizenship.

We believe that the phrase "We live in a machine age" has more than an academic significance for education. It implies need for an adaptation of education to which we hope the technical high school will contribute. Our pupils will live morning, noon, and night with and by machines. In finding their place they are going to meet the need for knowledge of technical processes on every hand. Some will only be able to learn a little, others much; some will need to know but little to perform their humble duties, others will need to know much in positions of great responsibility. But in the age in which we now live and our children will live, a knowledge of the arts and sciences and their applications to the underlying practices of industry will be for the larger majority a basic factor in their success in finding their places in society. We only hope that we may plan and work with sufficient vision and intelligence that we can give them the kind of schools they deserve to have.

Dean Charles H. Judd of the School of Education of the University of Chicago read his manuscript.

NEW STANDARDS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

CHARLES H. JUDD
University of Chicago

When the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools was organized in 1895, one of the first questions which the Association attempted to answer was the same

as that which we are assembled to discuss at this meeting. After due consideration the Association formulated a definition of a well-organized high school. The items which entered into this definition came later to be called standards. The list of standards has in the course of time been greatly enlarged. Agencies such as the Carnegie Foundation and numerous regional associations have contributed new standards and many so-called interpretations have been agreed upon until now a formidable array of requirements confronts any secondary school which asks to be recognized as worthy of approval.

While the North Central Association and other regional standardizing bodies have been active in developing lists of approved schools, state universities, state departments of public instruction and, in some instances, individual institutions of higher education have found it necessary to extend the scope of their approval so as to include secondary schools which do not conform to all of the requirements of the general regional standardizing associations. There are as a result a number of different kinds of approved schools. In fact, one may say that classification of schools depends on the classifier to such a degree that one is forced to question the justification for the use of the word "standard" in describing the bases of the different kinds of approval.

The disposition to be critical of standards is further reinforced by such well-known facts as the following. Graduates of secondary schools which cannot meet the standards of any of the regional associations not infrequently succeed in college quite as well as do graduates of approved schools. It also happens in a distressingly large number of cases that graduates of approved schools fall by the way when they attempt to carry college work. Furthermore, reports regarding graduates issued by two secondary schools which conform fully to the most rigid standards are often of such different degrees of reliability that one finds it impossible to believe that standardization has achieved the result hoped for when the system was inaugurated.

It is a generally accepted view that the time has come when a reconsideration of the standardizing movement will

have to be undertaken. The North Central Association has been working for several years on the problem of reconstructing its system of approval of colleges and has arrived at some very interesting conclusions with regard to the inadequacy of its old standards for colleges. The Commission on Secondary Schools of that Association, following the example of the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education, is preparing to make a thorough study of its standards. The United States Commissioner of Education, who was largely influential in initiating the studies of college standards in the North Central Association, has organized a national co-operating committee to deal with the problem of devising new methods of approving secondary schools.

The dean of a school of education who is called on to state his views as to the direction in which any movement toward a new plan of standardization should trend will, of course, be largely influenced by his desire to see the secondary schools of the country organize their activities in accordance with the results of scientific study of education. One broad, general statement which can be made as clearly indicating the point of view of a dean of a school of education is that nothing can be justified in a secondary school merely on the ground that it is now there. Tradition is a natural guide but very frequently a wholly unsafe guide. That secondary school which complaisantly continues year after year to follow the same curriculum, to proceed in its classrooms by the same methods, to regulate the conduct of its pupils by the same rules of discipline is not a good school.

In order to make the import of the foregoing statements clear by means of a definite, concrete recommendation, I may say that if I were compelled to judge secondary schools on the basis of a single standard I should set up that standard in somewhat the following form: From the principal of each secondary school applying for approval is required a report indicating some particular in which experimental modification has been undertaken during the past year in the curriculum, class organization, methods of dealing with the public or the pupils,

or in some other phase of school work. This report shall include a clear description of the plan of the experiment undertaken and an evaluation of the results obtained by the experiment.

In case a principal reported that no experiment had been undertaken in his school during the past year, I should have no slightest hesitation in putting the school on probation. If a similar condition of stagnation were reported a second time, I should have no hesitation in removing the school from the approved list. It has been one of the most disastrous consequences of the standardizing practices of the past that they have tolerated stagnation. They have allowed schools to regard themselves as good in comparison with a series of minimum requirements derived from the average of a group. They have not compelled schools to compare themselves with themselves and to show progress as an essential evidence of approvable vitality.

The second standard which I should stress would be a standard relating to personnel work with pupils. Concretely, the standard would be as follows: Report six cases in which pupils showing signs of maladjustment in their courses or in their general social relations were fully readjusted through special attention given them by the school staff. Describe the way in which these cases were discovered, the way in which they were treated, and present the evidence that the treatment was successful.

The reason why the foregoing standard calls for six cases only is that this number is sufficient to provide a sample of what the school is doing. If each efficient principal of a secondary school described six cases of effective readjustment of pupils each year, educational literature would be enriched to the point where it would become really stimulating.

The third standard would be as follows: The principal of the school shall cause to be transmitted to the inspector one or more statements from committees of the faculty with regard to plans which they have matured during the year for the cultivation in the pupils of the school habits of reading or

independent effort wholly outside the assignments of any course. Lists of books read or of constructive activities undertaken or of excursions organized and carried to successful completion should be submitted as a part of each statement.

This third standard emphasizes the view that no school is a good school which is limited in its influence on its pupils to classroom exercises. It is a curious fact about the conventional standards used in times past that they call for descriptions of static qualities and deal very little with evidences of effective influence. It can be readily shown that a static quality is no virtue.

The three standards suggested up to this point may be classified as standards relating to symptoms of vitality. I should require each school on the approved list to report on these three standards each year. Reports on these standards will show whether the operations of the school are vigorous and aggressive. I draw a sharp distinction between these standards and those which refer to characteristics of the school which have to do with certain less variable traits. Lest I should be misunderstood, let me pause to say with all emphasis that the distinction which I am trying to draw is not a distinction which deals with comparative importances, but is a distinction which deals with aspects or characteristics that differ in nature. A comparatively permanent aspect of a secondary school is its curriculum or the training of its staff. A more permanent aspect is its building equipment. The building probably does not need to be made a matter of examination more than once in every six or eight years. When the building has been inspected and made a subject of report, it can be assumed from that time on for a number of years. The only question which needs to be raised is the question of the way in which the building is cared for and used. Similarly the staff and the curriculum will change slowly. The gradual changes in the curriculum will be reported when they occur as a part of the program of experimentation called for under the first standard recommended in an earlier section of this paper. Reports on new members of the staff might be re-

quired every two years. I judge that there ought to be a report on the curriculum as a whole at least every three years.

I should like to suggest the form of the curriculum standard which may be thought of as standard number four in my proposed list: The principal shall give an account of the kind of population which surrounds the school, the kinds of positions to which graduates of the school go, the available resources of the community for the support of schools. On the background of the foregoing statements, the principal shall give a description of the curriculum administered by the school, describing the reasons for each course included.

The suggested standard four seems to me to represent a view regarding standards which is worthy of careful consideration. Each school is here thought of as an agency functioning in a community. To be sure, the community must not be narrowly conceived. The reason why attention is called to the positions to which graduates go is that the larger community must be constantly kept in mind. The curriculum is, however, a community service, not a relic of historical pasts brought down from communities which lived totally different lives from those lived by the present generation. The curriculum is an evolving service. Its units do not fluctuate from day to day, but they should change in a tempo which comports with the tempo of social change in the community around the school. If civilization brings to the surface new obligations which arise from new complex forms of industrial or economic organization, the school must change its curriculum service.

It was stated in an earlier paragraph that the order in which standards have been presented is not an indication of their comparative importance. We are now at the point in our discussion where it may be appropriate to say that perhaps the curriculum standard should be thought of as the most important standard in the whole list. It is so important that it should certainly not be allowed to continue to be formulated in the terms in which it has commonly been expressed by the conventional standardizing agencies. The curriculum

of secondary schools has not only tended to remain static in the past; it has been compelled to remain static by the standards enforced by colleges and regional associations. Particular subjects have been specifically mentioned and artificially maintained in the curriculum by highly detailed standards. Suppose that a school should arrive at the advanced stage of intelligence where it decided to let pupils do some of their English as independent reading. Should not the curriculum standard permit the school to adopt a new quantification of its English? Suppose that a way can be found of teaching the useful concepts of mathematics without encumbering the pupils' programs with the trash which scholastic tradition has embedded in the conventional courses in algebra and demonstrative geometry. Should a school be outlawed for improving its treatment of this important subject? There should certainly be a curriculum standard, but not a subject-program which is fixed and universally enforced.

Perhaps enough has been said to make clear the way in which a dean of a school of education would operate in setting up new standards for secondary schools. The sample standards do not fully cover the ground, but they indicate the direction in which reform should move.

I am quite sure that one objection will be raised to the procedure which has been recommended. It will be said that the principal is here called upon to make reports which are intolerably arduous and unnecessarily long. The whole program should be simplified, it will be said, so that an intelligent clerk or an assistant principal at most can check off some twenty or thirty items and be done with the distasteful task of reporting on the school.

I am not unaware of the multifarious duties which must be performed by administrative officers. I am also inhibited somewhat by the demands of common courtesy from speaking on this occasion all that is in my mind. I will not under present circumstances make the statement that most secondary-school principals seem to be almost illiterate if judged by the writings for which they hold themselves responsible. I will not say that

the principal who does not produce with reasonable frequency discussions of some aggressive experiment is falling so far short of his duty and opportunity that he ought to seriously consider resigning. I will not say that the whole profession needs to be stirred by a new type of standard which will drastically eliminate those who object to intelligent and intelligible professional reports. I will merely say that in my judgment there is room for improvement among secondary-school principals in their attitude toward carefully prepared discussions of their doings.

If I have by indirect intimation given a vague idea of what I think standards should do for principals, I may perhaps be allowed somewhat greater liberty in stating what I think of those who enforce standards through inspection. I once operated as an inspector of secondary schools for the state department of public instruction in Connecticut. I know how much easier it is to condemn incompetency by citing the ten commandments than it is to make clear by a plain straightforward statement why a school is inadequate. I know how much easier it is to add up a score card than to form a real judgment. I, too, have been irked as an inspector at the necessity of making reports. With all the experience which I have had and with what I have witnessed of formalism in the operation of standardizing agencies, I am now ready to say that a dean of a school of education regards about nine-tenths of the arduous work done by school inspectors as more courageous than constructive.

I would that standards and modes of accrediting schools might be devised which make the inspector a consultant rather than a jailer. I would that the major attention of our regional associations might be devoted to the collection and distribution of fine statements of best practices rather than to the exposure of the lame, the halt and the blind.

I may be misled by my desires but I think not. I feel confident that the old standards have had their day. They did their service nobly at a time when secondary schools were emerging out of the darkness. The new standards will have to be different, because the whole social situation is different. We are to-

day in possession of scientific instruments of evaluation and we can find on every hand stimulating examples of progress. We have a new concept of public education. We are outliving formalism and petty regard for trivialities. We have learned to think in terms of function rather than in terms of structure.

Professor Thomas H. Briggs of Columbia University read his paper.

WHAT CONSTITUTES A GOOD SECONDARY-SCHOOL AND BY WHAT STANDARDS SHALL IT BE EVALUATED?

THOMAS H. BRIGGS

Teachers College, Columbia University

After all the years that we have spent in developing secondary schools and in discussing what they ought to be, no one of us should be embarrassed by the question we are set to answer. But, in entire frankness and in humility, I confess that I, for one, am embarrassed. You and I have never reached any complete agreement on what a good secondary school is, and in the short time allotted each speaker no one of us can adequately even outline his own conception. But perhaps we can set forth some of the details and some of the principles to be considered in reaching an answer.

Standards can be of two kinds. The first is the kind set up some years ago by our associations of colleges and secondary schools and generally copied by every state department of education. These "present wooden standards," as Commissioner Zook in his recent masterly paper calls them, concern the attendant machinery of education. They are easily used in evaluation; they were much needed at the time when they were formulated; and they have proved of great value in the period when the nation was multiplying schools and improving the facilities for education. It seems now unfortunate, as we look back over the past fifteen or more years, that they

were not supplemented by other standards that served to direct education itself. But let us not be too severe in our condemnation. Such standards have served useful purposes. We all agree that they need to be replaced by better ones.

Another kind of standard measures adequacy in terms of objectives, the competence of a school to do the work for which it is established and maintained. There have been many attempts, both here and in other countries, by central authorities to measure the accomplishment of students who have pursued the courses offered. The principle is sound enough, but it has been so administered as to thwart sound educational purposes. Almost if not entirely without exception the set examinations have attempted to measure the extent to which pupils have mastered traditional subject matter, and as a result they have unfortunately emphasized in the minds of both the profession and the laity the importance of that subject matter and of perpetuating it. This has been the result of our College Entrance Examination Board, of the New York Regents, and of the various agencies in the several European countries. Recent studies stimulated by the international Conference on Examinations have impeached both the validity and the reliability of the European examinations, and those commonly given in our own country have long ceased to command the respect of those who know the facts.

But although the examinations have been badly made and have in consequence had maleficent effects, the principle of measuring results is sound. Schools by and large need some check-up to insure that their energies are rightly directed, and unless the evaluation is made by impartial agencies the public can have no assurance that its money is wisely spent and its children are properly educated. Before Herr Hitler disrupted the program the German Republic was promoting a plan to set up very definite objectives for all secondary schools, to leave to each Gymnasium the decision as to what means it would use to achieve them, and then to measure by the best means possible the achievements. Perhaps one of the greatest sins to be laid at the door of the dictator is his interruption of this program. We could do worse than adopt it.

But objectives of secondary education, soundly based, clearly enunciated, and definitely directive, are precisely what we do not have. We have never had them. It is true that from the beginning in our country we have set forth in broad general terms objectives for secondary education, but like political platforms they have been neglected and forgotten in administration. The earliest Latin Grammar Schools were professedly organized to prepare boys for service to church and state, the Philips Andover Academy was established to train youth for "the great end and real business of living," the first public high school was "to bring the powers of the mind into operation [and] to qualify a youth to fill usefully and respectably many of those stations, both public and private, in which he may be placed," and to-day we speak of training leaders for the new citizenship. But when we look at the curricula offered and prescribed from 1635 to 1934 we have difficulty in associating the means proposed—the Latin, the mathematics, and the rest—with the professed objectives. A measurement, however unscientific it may have been, of achievement in terms of the declared objectives would betray ineffectiveness now, though to a less degree, as it would have done when Ezekiel Cheever wielded his rod in Boston. Perhaps we need such measurements, examinations by an impartial central authority, of the extent to which stated objectives are achieved, to stimulate us to sincerity and consistency.

Our spirit has been that of *laissez faire*. Some highly professional leaders have realized the need that secondary schools have of guidance, but have felt that in the formative period we had best not standardize too strictly lest experimentation and progress be hindered. This spirit has certainly not hindered experimentation, but with equal certainty it has not to any notable extent stimulated it. There have been many experiments, it is true, mostly in minor and loosely related matters; but we have developed no habit and no technique of carefully evaluating novelties; and, unfortunately, we have by and large no ardent desire to incorporate into general practice even those procedures that seem successful. We are a conservative people, as the uniformity of our secondary

schools without central compulsion proves, and we change slowly. We even procrastinate shamelessly to incorporate into our programs what the most scientific research proves. Far more schools now need guidance into better practices than need freedom to an experimentation for which they have neither the vision nor the competence.

I have hearty sympathy with the movement to restate our standards, and I have no doubt that the commission of the North Central Association will formulate a set far better than any that we have had before. But by logic I am compelled to the conclusion that before we can propose satisfactory standards we must far more definitely than we have done before agree on what we want secondary schools to produce. In the field of mechanics we have standards definite to the thousandth of an inch. Why? Because in designing a radio tube or a carburetor we decide first of all precisely what we wish it to do. Although even in mechanics such precision as I have mentioned is not always used, the principle of objective desired is the beginning of planning and of evaluation. A purchaser wanting a motor truck, considers what work it will have to do, decides on the characteristics that seem desirable, and then in those terms considers the offerings of the market. The objectives of secondary education may of necessity at present be somewhat less definite; but if we do not at first decide what we want the institution to produce, how can we plan its procedure, either in general or in detail, and how can we evaluate its success?

It is futile to retort that we don't want an exact and uniform product. Certainly we don't. But what *do* we want the secondary school to produce? If we say youth better prepared for the service of church and state, we ascertain what these institutions demand and then devise means of training youth to perform the required services "justly, skilfully, and magnanimously." If we say youth trained for "the great end and real business of living," we have first to learn what that ideal requires before we can either plan or evaluate. If we say leadership, we must as a basis for everything subsequent con-

sider the kinds of leadership desired—not such certainly as Al Capone and banker Mitchell and promoter Insull and the demagogic senator from Louisiana have manifested—and then specify the qualities and activities necessary to insure it. If we say competent to share richly in the cultural heritage of civilization, we must first know what that culture is and then plan the training that one must have to receive and enjoy it. It should be manifest that our primary need is agreement on objectives that are soundly based, clearly enunciated, and definitely directive. Without them we can neither plan wisely nor evaluate sensibly.

For a number of years I have struggled to clarify my own mind on these matters. But the task is difficult and exceedingly complex, the struggle leading one into consideration of the most fundamental problems of life as well as of education in general. About some of them I have come to be reasonably clear. I have tried not only to learn what the good life is but also to approximate it in some of its many phases. I have for my own guidance formulated definitions of education, non-restricting but guiding and stimulating. I have examined and considered various types of organization proposed and used to facilitate education. I have attempted to evaluate devices of many sorts as means of achieving desired ends. I have visited many classes and in them found manifestations of everything from ignorant aimlessness to superb purposeful genius. And yet I confess in humility that I am not sure that I know what a good secondary school is. By the ideals that I have formulated I can judge that in one part or another a school is to a certain extent good. But, like you, I need the help of all the combined wisdom in our profession to know more definitely the large objectives that the school is expected to achieve, so that by such criteria I may judge of the school's value.

Like most other things in life, a school is seldom, if ever, wholly good or wholly bad. It may have a poor entrance and a good exit, good teaching and relatively useless subject matter, a fine record system and poor results to record—and all of these assets and liabilities run, as we all know, through an

amazing range from the best to the worst. "Good," as Josiah Royce long ago taught in his *Studies of Good and Evil*, is meaningless until qualified by a prepositional phrase. A school must be adjudged good for something, and that something must be defined before one can make a meaningful evaluation of a school's worth. Consequently I am skeptical and hopeless of any attempt to prepare a set of standards that do not develop from clear definitions of the most fundamental matters.

When I have attempted to lead my students into an understanding of this principle and of my definitions that are intended to direct and stimulate without restriction, I seldom hear a dissent. They are likely to accept the principle and to approve the definitions. But then, with the exception of that rare and delightful genius who loves to think for himself and to blaze a path through the wilderness, they are likely to proceed by asking for some authority to tell them exactly what a good high school should do. Recognizing that the great majority of men and women who become successful administrative officers and teachers have neither the time nor the genius to think the problems through for themselves, to build detailed programs on foundations of principles, I am ready to accept any temporary help that standardizing agencies can provide. But ultimately the leaders must go back to fundamental principles and then evaluate in terms of them.

The demand for new standards is just another evidence of the growing sense of need for more fundamental concepts of education—indeed of the meaning of democracy and of life itself. Such concepts must be formulated and popularized before the new program for high schools can be made. And I have undisturbed faith that we are steadily growing into a state of mind that will be satisfied with nothing less than a basic attack on the whole problem. The Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education is attempting to do some of the spade work necessary before the first stones of the foundation can be laid. When enough of us keenly realize the need, the means will, I have no doubt, be abundantly provided to finance the construction.

There is a vast difference, on the one hand, between emphasizing the need for laying a foundation before remodeling the structure in which we are to work, emphasizing the need and proposing, however vaguely, a plan for procedure, and, on the other hand, the irresponsible criticisms and demands that somehow, miraculously and immediately, secondary education be reformed. From various quarters we hear that secondary schools must create a new social order, that they must abandon the old edifice before the plans are approved or even drawn for a new one, that we must evangelize for a new program before we have even agreed what ends we wish to reach, that we must create fused curricula, abandoning such wealth as empiricism has developed. I have no hostility to a new social order, providing it is better than the one in which we live; but before moving out of a home that has proved not wholly bad, common sense demands that the promised land be of proved superiority. And always there are other possible havens than the one loudly advertised by an agent who has never kept his own house in order. I would encourage evangelists, providing they are devoted to a gospel which they understand so thoroughly that they can convince us of its superiority to what may be revealed by wiser men. And, incidentally, I am skeptical of any evangelist unless he manifests that the gospel which he promotes has made his own life enviable. I have no objection to fused courses, providing they do not merely melt base metals and offer the amalgam as pure gold. I welcome the frontier thinker, providing his frontier is not a barren desert or a miasmatic morass. But I am sick unto nausea of charlatans in education, no less than in politics, finance, and religion, who by sweeping condemnation damn all of your work, who with loud reiterations of empty clichés advertise empty bottles, who by vague promises emanating from shallow thought tempt you away from fundamental building, and who by solemn mien hiding vague indefiniteness urge you to abandon your own thinking and to follow their own peculiar will-o'-the-wisps. "That way madness lies."

Reform we do need in secondary education; every one admits that. Civilization has again marched ahead while most of the schools are still two, three, or more stations behind.

But change is not necessarily progress; and safe and wise progress is not possible until we are orientated, until we have decided in what direction we wish to go. Minds accustomed to immediate practicalities become impatient with the tedious thinking necessitated by consideration of fundamental principles. But if they are not willing to do such thinking themselves, they should at least appreciate the need and possess themselves in sympathetic patience while the work is being done. Healthy reform takes time, but it is the only kind worth while. Instead of becoming too impatient and either following quackeries, on the one hand, or subsiding into contented and thoughtless robots, on the other, let us insist on a fundamental rebuilding of secondary education, participate in it if we can, encourage every honest effort, and after the program has won our understanding and approval, translate it into the most efficient practice.

The Point of View of the High-School Teacher was presented by Walter Bissell, of Central High School of Cleveland.

WHAT CONSTITUTES A GOOD SECONDARY SCHOOL?

The Point of View of a High-School Teacher

WALTER L. BISSELL

Teacher, Central High School, Cleveland

A good secondary school must meet the challenge of the times.

Everywhere drastic economies have increased the teacher's load. The first challenge to the teacher is to do as good a job, better if possible, with less time per pupil to do it in. He must conserve time and strength by calling upon the pupils for greater coöperation in the work of teaching. For instance, English teachers spend too much energy in checking errors in composition work. Pupils, all but the dullest, can be trained to check each other's work. Let a class build its own composition scale and use it in evaluating the work of its members.

Much of the distress in the world to-day is traceable to the inadequate training of the citizenry in social and governmental coöperation. The teacher and school must meet this challenge by training for citizenship more seriously than ever before. Splendid school projects carried out by members of a student council or by a few pupils voluntarily working for an honorary service award suggest the possibilities of the school as a laboratory for training in social service. Why not broaden the scope? We have courses in applied art; why not a course in applied social service? It could be handled in a manner analogous to that of physical education. It would be a correlation between the history department and the home room teacher. Credit would count for graduation. In such a course the theory of community living might be taught perhaps one day a week, but the greater part of the credit would be earned by actual service performed in the school and in the school neighborhood.

Our graduates to-day are going out into a disillusioned world. Idols have been smashed, war has been stripped of glory, captains of finance discredited, and ideals turned topsyturvy. Perhaps the gravest danger to our youth is not his realization that he goes out into a world that has no job for him, but rather the realization that he faces a world of confused ideals. If we destroy for him the glamour of acquisition and the glory of power, we must give him other ideals in their place. As never before we must dramatize for him the conquests of the craftsman, the tradesman, the scientist, the artist, the social worker.

In the absence of Mr. Bacon, his paper was read by title.

WHAT CONSTITUTES A GOOD SECONDARY SCHOOL AND BY WHAT STANDARDS SHOULD IT BE EVALUATED

The Point of View of the Secondary-School Principal

FRANCIS L. BACON

Principal, Evanston Township High School
Evanston, Illinois

No one would like to know the answer to the question, "What constitutes a good high school" more than the average high-school principal.

The insistent immediate and future concern of the high school principal with standards for buildings and equipment must perforce, be related to the most economical use of all physical facilities. Adequate space, by all means, but a hitherto unknown flexibility of standards is highly desirable. These standards should be determined and applied through the findings of research in respect to architectural suitability, building materials, space provisions, and adaptation of apparatus and equipment. What constitutes a good high school in these respects would not rest, except in a few specific items, upon comparability of a given situation to a set of previously arrived at standards but rather upon the degree of effectiveness to which all of the available physical factors have been utilized.

May I hope that principals will agree when I say that the high-school principal should know what he wants and how to go about getting it. The principal must be an appraiser of values, an interpreter of standards, and an translator of ideas into realization. Although I do not presume to speak authoritatively for the American secondary-school principalship; it is my desire to point out with necessary brevity a few observations on this conception of the principalship and its relation to the topic under discussion.

Much is said about college admission standards but there is little the individual high school can do in the determination

of these standards. The high school can and probably should concern itself markedly with the influences which the college preparatory standards exert upon the standards of instruction and the organization and content of the curriculums. Certainly it may be strongly argued that secondary schools should set up their own standards for graduation requirements, for scholastic achievement, and for the suitability of subject matter,—and all of these, quite apart from college specifications.

Subject content and methods of presentation need a new set of evaluated standards on the basis of what is truly best for the pupils. An indication that principals are alert on this point is evidenced by the committee created by the Department of Secondary-School Principals upon the objectives, the issues, and the functions of secondary education. The high school especially needs the development of standards which may be effectively translated into the life of the pupils and of the community. Existing and past standards have been too intimately related to the pedagogical world. How well does the school meet the needs, the interests, and the capacities of its pupils and what place does it have in the supporting community? The answers to these questions will give significance to a determination of what constitutes a good secondary school.

In the past the high school has often been particularly concerned with its percentage of failure, with attempts to keep the general failure rate reasonably low, and to balance off the various subject fields with favorable comparisons in failure percentages. It should be recognized that a high school isn't necessarily doing the best work because its general failure rate is low or because the per cent of passing is as high in Latin or geometry as in any other subjects. Our standards for success or failure may well be vamped to rest upon the adaption of the material to the ability of the pupil taking it. Pupils who cannot profit in reasonable proportion to the time expended should probably fail, provided the school has made a sincere and intelligent effort to discover and direct pupil abilities, interests, and needs.

This latter statement emphasizes the point that the real standard of the school should be related to an adequate and

wisely administered guidance program so that failure, in any instance, should either be a reflection upon the school whose functions in direction and diagnosis were at fault or upon the parents who did not support the school standard. A good school must meet this test satisfactorily from within its own organization and, at the same time, carry understanding to the home and obtain aid from the parents.

Another way of measuring school efficiency develops out of the situation I have been considering. We need a new interpretation of the standards we have created in respect to marking schemes and devices. Our individual personnel and guidance work plus the findings of research should be developed sufficiently to measure individual capacity of the pupil over against his actual achievement. There is nothing new about this as an idea. We have written and talked much about such a measurement but we have yet to elevate this important consideration to the significance of a standard by which the school is to be judged. Under such a plan the only mark deserving consideration would be that which measured the relationship of accomplishment to capacity. Conceivably, if standards in guidance, in properly adapted materials and in objective measurements of pupil capacity were sufficiently accurate and effective, there would be only the failure of those pupils who had not done as well as they knew and were capable of doing.

Possibly another standard by which the good high school could be judged is in respect to the specific provisions for those pupils who do not respond to abstractions, who cannot or will not think; but whose emotions may be an ever ready and productive source of response. There are high-school principals who believe that what a school does for such pupils is a more significant indication of effective education than what is done for a no larger number who are winning honors in abstract subjectmatter. Should we not generally agree that the development of this consideration as a standard of school efficiency is more important than the list of mechanical indices which we now possess?

Another possibility which may have received less attention than it deserves may be summarized under the name of agen-

cies of pupil expression. We are not, in this instance, thinking primarily of the creative arts. They are however included in our hasty consideration. How well do high-school pupils express themselves in all of the written and oral forms of practical communication? Our standards are apparently lacking in these respects. We are thinking beyond the mere test of the classroom to demonstrations of expression in the activities of the school and of the community. Are there standards, too, which operate for the group in the realm of school and outside expression agencies? Too often there is a weak and meagre effort at a classroom standard and no attempt, worthy of name, at the application of even a meagre standard to the presentation of a school play or other similar group activity. Social forms of expression also receive little, if any attention, from the standpoint of carefully weighed standards of judgment or control. Unfortunately the lack of standards in these regards within the community, oftentimes nullifies the superior standing of the school in its relationship to the specific pedagogical standards, which are supposed to set up the formula by which our main question of what constitutes a good school is answered.

What are the ideals of the good school? Instantly comes the question how are we to measure them? We shall escape this major difficulty and we trust, adroitly, by leaving the answer to our accomplished program collaborators. Suffice it to point out the fact that each school by design, or by utter lack of intent, gives ample indication of its idealistic or motivating spirit. Perhaps it is expecting too much to hope that a workable standard may be offered amid such intangibles. The fact remains that the morale, the spirit, the manifest idealism of the school may not be wisely ignored in any attempt to determine what constitutes the good school. Obviously a direct effort to establish ideals or attitudes within the school should be skillfully tuned to the possibilities for practical realization.

The good school will have harmonized the relationships between play and work, leisure and recreation. Our standards in this field have been woefully insufficient or worse. Probably the pupil load for those who have conscientiously tried to carry it, has been much too arduous in energy and demanding in time. Artificiality of standards in such matters have, no doubt,

contributed to the larger operation of the "get by" attitude. Certainly many pupils do practically no work other than that involved by mere attendance. The variance in achievement among secondary schools is well enough known by principals and college admission officers. How many pupils work too hard? How many are affected nervously by too much mental strain and too little physical activity? How many wear themselves out with excessive play and recreational activity and allow their mental equipment to be slightly, if at all, stimulated by scholarly endeavor? What checks and balances are there in the program of work and play relative to an understanding, appreciation and maintenance of good health? Do organization and methods combine to the fostering of efficient work habits with adequate knowledge of working techniques and methods of study? How well have the ends of leisure and of work been translated into immediate values, into conscious application to the life that now is? All of these are questions which cannot remain unanswered in any intelligent appraisal of the factors which constitute a good high school.

The insistence of brevity has given the major consideration to a few possibilities concerning standards which especially affect the pupil. We shall not attempt to develop implications which would set up particular standards for the teacher. It is especially important to stress, however, the significance of effective teacher understanding and responsibility if we are to realize improvements in standards.

May we emphasize, that most of all, the making of a good school will depend on superior mental abilities, effective personal attributes, and the potentiality for continued growth on the part of the teaching staff.

Objectives of the secondary school which may be interpreted into practical standards are particularly important, not only as measures of what is being done but as directional stimuli to better purposes and more equitable accomplishment. The school has been and must continue to be the standard bearer against a multitude of varying interests and forces which ever conspire to a lowering of the most worthy ideals and the highest achievement.

At the close of the session the following names were presented as the nominating committee: Milton D. Proctor, Principal, Westbrook Seminary and Junior College, Portland, Me.; Paul E. Elicker, Principal, Newton High School, Newtonville, Mass.; Harold A. Swaffield, Principal, Roger Ludlowe High School, Fairfield, Conn.; R. E. Boyles, Principal of High School, Washington, Pa.; Oscar Granger, Principal of Haverford Township High School, Upper Darby, Pa.; Dana Z. Eckert, Principal of Herron Hill Junior High School, Pittsburgh, Pa.; Harold A. Ferguson, Principal of Senior High School, Montclair, N. J.; J. H. Davison, Principal of South High School, Lima, Ohio; John Barnes, Principal of High School, Grosse Pointe, Mich.; A. A. Rea, East High School, Aurora, Ill.; H. H. Helbe, Principal of High School, Appleton, Wis.; A. J. Burton, Principal of East High School, Des Moines, Iowa; B. C. Tighe, Principal of High School, Fargo, N. D.; S. B. Tinsley, Principal of Girls' High School, Louisville, Ky.; S. L. Ragsdale, Principal of L. C. Humes High School, Memphis, Tenn.; Roy C. Bigelow, Supervising Principal, Johnson City, Tenn.; A. F. Bittner, Principal of Grant High School, Portland, Ore.

THE STANDARDS STUDY COMMITTEE

GEORGE E. CARROTHERS

Professor of Education, School of Education, University of
Michigan, and Chairman of*The Standards Study Committee*

The six regional accrediting associations, covering the entire territory of the United States, including the Canal Zone and a few secondary schools in other countries, have placed the names of approximately 4600 secondary schools on their membership lists and have thus given them the stamp of approval. Who can say whether these are the best public and private schools in the United States? How many of the 4600 are actually rather weak and inefficient schools? How many of the non-members are better secondary schools than the poorest 500 or 1000 of the members? Who knows? Or, to put it another way, what are the elements which go to make up a good high school?

The commissions on secondary schools of the six regional accrediting associations have set up a *Standards Study Committee* with the task of finding an answer to the question, What is a good high school? These associations have voted funds for use in getting this work started. The Commissioner of Education has rendered valuable assistance in getting the study started.

Each regional association has a set of standards for use in selecting schools to be approved as members. Yet the standards are for the most part quantitative in nature and quite detailed. These have been built up piece by piece, standard by standard, over a long period of time, and, as some claim, possibly without due regard to changing social conditions. In other days when schools lacked buildings, equipment, trained staffs, and many other advantages now provided, it may have been necessary to require a certain length of class period, a certain number of days in the school year and other supposed quantitative guarantees of good educational production in order to obtain the desired result.

Quantity is still of great importance and quality of output is of still greater importance. In the course of time and in the midst of considerable educational progress, it may be that a good quality of production is possible without the necessity of meeting all of the carefully developed, specially prescribed, quantitative measures. At least there are a goodly number of schoolmen interested in secondary education both in college and in secondary schools who believe that this question of standards is well worth studying. This is the first and most important reason for launching the study.

A second reason for this undertaking is to try to see if there can be found some way whereby the regional associations may come to be considered somewhat less as police and somewhat more as helpful, stimulating, encouraging friends. At present it appears that too large a part of the work of the accrediting agencies is that of checking up on member schools to see that they do not violate any of the sacred rules and regulations. Some of this will doubtless always be necessary, but the chances are that a thoughtful, careful sympathetic study of conditions may reveal a way whereby the main emphasis may be shifted over to the helpful assistance of growing, dynamic schools which are anxious to render the best kinds of service to the boys and girls. These schools are in need of and anxious to receive help. The regional associations ought to be in the most favored positions for helping such schools.

The idea of a coöperative attack on the problem is not new, but it is being worked a little harder at present than it has been for some time. The impact of the six associations, thinking and hammering on the one problem at the same time throughout the nation ought to be immensely better than any association working alone. As the work progresses and tentative conclusions are reached, it is the expectation that each association will analyze the findings and that each will adopt and adapt those portions which may be found to be suitable and beneficial in their respective parts of the United States. It is not thought that uniform standards or criteria could or should be developed for the accrediting of all secondary schools throughout the country.

The present appears to be a very suitable time for the inauguration of such a study. First, the twenty-eight volumes of the National Survey of Secondary Education are just being received from the press. A large amount of useful information and carefully organized data is thus made available for the use of the Standards Study Committee. These volumes are in handy, usable form. The data which they contain ought to be of very great assistance in making this proposed study. At the same time this research work being carried on throughout the country ought to furnish a good channel out through which the information, collected by the Office of Education at a large expense, may flow to the secondary commissions and the numerous membership schools of the associations. The members of the research staff will also be able to help departments of secondary education in colleges and universities to get a better idea of the material published in this National Survey. The hope is that this Survey may not be just another collection of figures to be published and filed away for future reference. It is hoped that at least some of the volumes, and whatever is of worth in all of the volumes, may be taken from the shelves and actually tried out in progressive secondary schools. This Standards Study Committee ought to be of help in disseminating this useful material.

(1) What constitutes a good secondary school? We do not know.

(2) By what standards should it be evaluated? We do not have a satisfactory answer to this question.

Since the accrediting agencies cannot answer these two questions in a manner satisfactory to themselves decision has been reached to stop talking and do some acting. We are undertaking a carefully planned, nation-wide study of secondary schools and of the criteria by which they should be evaluated.

TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 27, 1934

Second Session

The second session of the convention met in the Assembly Room of the Hollenden Hotel at 9:30 A. M. Tuesday, February 27, 1934. Principal P. H. Powers of East Technical High School presented Robert B. Clem of Shawnee High School, Louisville, Ky., who is President of the Department of Secondary-School Principals.

Assistant Principal E. C. Allen, of Cass Technical High School of Detroit, spoke without notes on *The Trends in the Development of the Technical High School*, in which he reviewed the salient points of the Industrial Revolution.

Principal B. F. Comfort of Cass Technical High School of Detroit presented his paper, *Textbooks and Lesson Outlines in Technical High Schools*.

TECHNICAL HIGH-SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS

BENJAMIN F. COMFORT

Principal, Cass Technical High School
Detroit, Michigan

When technical high schools came into existence in the United States (1906) there were no textbooks covering secondary-technical education. Colleges devoted to technical instruction had their own handbooks, but textbooks for those of high-school age were unknown. Some courses had been developed in the trade schools of Munich, Germany, but what was done there was a professional secret and therefore American technical secondary schools were forced to develop their own textbooks.

February 1, 1907, the doors of the Cass Technical High School were opened in the old Cass building and 110 students were enrolled. In the summer of 1910 we began to equip a new annex and put in two machine shops, a pattern shop, mechanical drawing rooms, forges, and a strong equipment for chemistry and physics. But here is where our hardest task

developed: What should we teach and what should we not teach? At this juncture we called in the leading industrialists of the city, with their engineering staffs, and had outlined then and there what they required their mechanics to know; their draughtsmen, their accountants, and office men to learn. The consequence has been that everyone of our courses fits in with the practical demands of industry. We revise these courses yearly.

Therein begins the story of the textbooks. At first we hired as many graduate engineers who had been out in industry, and who had the necessary experience and aptitude for teaching as it was possible to secure. When we got to be a school of 3000 or 4000 we had to standardize our instruction just as the auto industry has standardized parts. Thus we commenced standardized lesson-sheets, laboratory manuals, and textbooks.

In Cass Technical High School we have never introduced to the pupils in the day school any shop or laboratory courses until the same course has been thoroughly tested out in evening school with the adults. If the adults found it practical and profitable, they popularized it and then we were ready to adjust it and modify it to the needs of the younger minds.

Now the procedure in all of these course developments has been to concentrate those advanced in technical instruction around the department heads. Then these department heads were encouraged to compile manuals of instruction, shop and laboratory standards, and textbooks to cover the ground of each one's specialty. The department heads uniformly teach in the evening school and that is where the major developments are tried out. The evening school, therefore, becomes a testing laboratory for the day school. A real contribution to secondary education has been made in twenty-five years by these technical schools.

To show what technical high schools have done in formal publications, I wrote to technical high-school principals and have the following list of textbooks, giving title, author, publisher, and price. This list of textbooks represents the essence of a valuable experience.

Principal Albert L. Colston of Brooklyn Technical High School discussed the papers.

Third Session

A few over one hundred were in attendance at the luncheon in the Ballroom of the Hollenden Hotel on Tuesday at 12:30 P. M. This was known as the Junior High-School Principals' Luncheon.

Superintendent W. L. Bogan of Chicago addressed the luncheon group on *The Place of the Junior High School in the Present Organization*.

THE PLACE OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL IN THE PRESENT ORGANIZATION

WILLIAM J. BOGAN

Superintendent of Schools

Chicago, Illinois

The place of the junior high school in the present organization was determined by its function, which in general is the adaptation of education to the special needs of pre-adolescence and adolescence. True, man learns during all phases of his life, but there is no doubt that certain periods are much more responsive to educational treatment than others. The period of adolescence is one of these.

The discovery that adolescence requires special educational treatment was one of the prime causes for the inauguration of the junior high school. Many years ago, Dr. G. Stanley Hall, in lecturing to a group of school principals on the subject of adolescence, placed much stress upon the dangers of that period.

The fundamental principles of education brought down the ages through clan and tribe and school system and philosopher are: CONTROL THESE POWERFUL FORCES THROUGH EDUCATION; AND PROTECT AGAINST THE WORST DANGERS BY PROVIDING LEGITIMATE OUTLETS FOR

ANIMAL SPIRITS. The junior high school was the result. Adolescence was given special treatment. Educators at last realize that Heaven and earth are perpetually opening up new treasures for the adolescent. Sometimes over night he changes from chrysalis to butterfly. Always, he longs to try his wings and explore new worlds. The call of adventure is strong. The appeal of the spirit is overpowering. Boys and girls who had been bored by the routine of the lower grades, especially the brighter ones who had been held back by the dull ones, as they saw the subjects of high school carried down to them and were given an opportunity to peer across wide horizons into other worlds, brought a new force into education. The junior high school was formed by a peculiar juxtaposition of time and place and motive. Dynamite, fuse, and match were ready for the explosion.

Dissatisfaction with older methods, older ideals and older forms of administration clamored for change. The conservatism of the secondary schools was criticized. In elementary schools the improvements in methods were marvelous; outside the schools ideals of education were changing rapidly; but the secondary schools could not break their college shackles. In this crisis, the public turned to the schools for training in citizenship, a training which the junior high schools provided. The time was opportune to emphasize the theory and training necessary to make good citizens. How did citizenship become the special task of the junior high school? It was free to experiment. The sight of the wonders of our world, particularly the world of physical and social science, stimulated the pupils to freedom and independence such as could rarely be found in the regular elementary or secondary schools. Secondary teachers said that the junior high school pupils were prone to over-emphasize the things of the spirit to the neglect of the form. No doubt, they became cocky and conceited. Rules and regulations were sometimes treated lightly. Formalism, however, had been altogether too potent in the older methods. Perhaps a change may come through the spirit that will produce more lasting results. Conceit will do little harm, for life will chamfer the corners and shrink the ego.

Is there need for an institution that will give special emphasis to the spirit of creation, the development of thought and freedom and independence and character? The need is proved by the break-down of civic morale in all parts of the nation. Recent years have witnessed a wide-spread failure of leadership and character among men in all classes of society. Ideals that were held sacred have been discarded. Sacrifice for the community has been rare. Greed and selfishness of all kinds have affected the people. The redistribution of wealth, commonly known as the depression, found rich and poor unprepared for the sacrifice. Prosperity following the War had gone to the heads of millions. Simple life with simple pleasures and contentment ended. In political life this period was a reminder of that of Walpole and of the Georges in England, when corruption was rife in high places and representation in Parliament was purchased like groceries, not only by the nobles but by the kings as well. At that time very few seemed to comprehend the moral implications of those acts, or if they did they cared little for the results until they were shamed into a sense of righteousness that finally made the standards of legal and political life in England the admiration of the world.

It is impossible to apportion the share of the blame for present conditions among home, church, school, and general environment, for all of these factors are dependent upon all the others. However, the school man need not concern himself greatly over the failure of other institutions to achieve their objectives, but he should give careful consideration to the weaknesses, deficiencies, and even failures of public education. Shall we who try to mold the destinies of the nation through the education of youth accept conditions as they are, or shall we make full use of this instrument for the utilization of the ideals of adolescence without fear or prejudice? Goethe says:

The century has given birth to a great epoch, but
The great moment finds a petty generation

Must we go down in history as a petty generation?

The junior high schools occupy a strategic position for the development of freedom and independence. It is not much of an exaggeration to say that the old time school system devoted

eight years to the acquisition of skill in the use of tool subjects and four years to the earning of college credits. The few who developed independence along this route were fortunate, for the passing of examinations meant emphasis upon memory work in all recitations. All children were taught the rudiments of education, but in accomplishing this feat the schools minimized the necessity for developing independent citizens in a democracy. Perhaps this is not as strange as it appears, for every attempt to achieve independence in this land of the free is fraught with many dangers. The individual who lifts his head above the crowd is usually taught the error of his ways. If he is a teacher he may find himself a target for the powerful politician. This servile condition is not of our day only. Plutarch, for instance, tells of the jeer Aristippus bestowed upon a stupid father who had asked him what he would take to teach his child. The answer was: "A thousand drachmas;" whereupon, the other cried out, "I can buy a slave at that rate." "Do so," said Aristippus, "and thou shalt have two slaves, thy son for one and him whom thou buy for the other."

The junior high school is well-placed for the development of thought. The period of exploration, the period of new and fundamental experience, is the period when thought may be developed. It may be said that thought comes—or stays away—naturally; that it cannot be developed, but surely experience teaches even the low mentalities. The world was shocked when psychologists, during the War, discovered through their army tests that the average mentality of our people is that of children of twelve or fourteen years old. This fact, if it is a fact, should not shock us out of our senses, for if those who are more than twelve years old, mentally, will think back to life at twelve, they may discover that at that age they were dependable members of the community. They had many responsibilities and they performed their tasks as well as, if not better than, some who ranked higher on the intelligence scale. The thinking of this type may never be of very high grade, but surely it may be deep enough to enable them to recognize and follow sane leadership.

Creation, independence, character, reasonable freedom, and practice in citizenship are fundamentals of democratic edu-

cation. They blossom forth, if ever, at the junior high-school age—they should be captured, controlled and developed.

Fourth Session

In the afternoon of Tuesday, February 27, 1934, three groups were in session. Charles Forrest Allen, Principal of West Side Junior High School, presided in the Assembly Room.

The state supervisor of the junior high school of New York, Harrison H. VanCott, read his paper, *The Social Significance of the Junior High School*.

THE SOCIAL SIGNIFICANCE OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

HARRISON H. VAN COTT

State Supervisor of Junior High Schools
New York

"Society is the collective aspect of personal thought", says Cooley in his *Human Nature and the Social Order* and goes on farther to state that only in so far as a man understands other people and then enters into the life around him has he an effective existence. "What is it to do good in the ordinary sense?" he asks. "Is it not to help people to enjoy and to work, to fulfill the healthy and happy tendencies of human nature, to give play to children, education to youth, a career to men, a household to women, and peace to old age?"

The imaginations, feelings, and attitudes of individuals have social control in their power. When individuals fall below their society norm in their imaginations, feelings, and attitudes, as demanded by the society itself, they become handicaps to social advancement whereas those who fall above these same norms become constructive citizens. Society is continually changing. Organization, disorganization and reorganization follow each other in order. The old order changeth

giving place to new, and the new product cannot be encompassed by the same retaining wall of social standards.

A progressive society is one which continually attains new and higher levels or standards of living resulting from keener imaginations, more sensitive feelings and nobler attitudes in answering the question, "Am I my brothers' keeper?"

Because of past experiences in living, social controls tend to become crystallized. Folkways, customs, institutions, laws, governments, and educational programs persist through the years and successfully resist change until the power of appreciation of individuals for improved procedures demands that they be changed.

To-day society is changing in many ways. Past practices of people in high places and in low places, in the individual world, the international world, the agricultural and the business world have led society astray and have aroused the people, as a whole to the support of a fearless leader. Imaginations, feelings, and attitudes toward society and government are not so apathetic as in 1929. A new America will result from our present dilemma.

Let us examine briefly some of the forces which tend to disorganize society in the hope that we may get some light upon the obligations of society so to educate its people that the processes of disorganization may not gain an ascendancy over the processes of organization.

The ways of living of the family, the community, and the individual determine social solidarity. Forces of disorganization are at work within each.

The Family.

The family is the basic unit in the whole social structure but family living norms change to keep pace with changing conditions. Family disorganization does not occur suddenly. Family folkways and customs are too much institutionalized. The factory system of production, and the employment of mothers outside the home result often in unsupervised children who are the source of a large number of social misfits. Many

current ideas concerning the practices of free love and sexual satisfaction are successors to the ideal family norm of constancy and fidelity. Is the family good for producing children only? No, raising and training them are even more important to social welfare.

Is the maintenance of the physical attributes of a home important? Yes, but an affectionate home where love abounds, which gives a safe background for the new experiences and discipline which any social group should provide for its members, is more important. The home is a place where individual differences may be recognized and individual personality developed.

The family should be an education center for planning a better family organization. Coöperation is a needed asset on the part of both husband and wife to maintain a constructive family life. When the school helps to maintain wholesome family life it becomes socially significant.

The Community.

A community is characterized by a commonalty of interest. Queen¹ says, "A community consists of persons who are able to act together in the chief concerns of life. This tendency to act together is the most important element in the delimitation of a community."

Lack of feeling of all for group interest; failure to think in terms of the community regarding personal ambition of paramount importance rather than service to community; a disregard for attitudes of older people by youth; the haughtiness of foreign children toward their parents and the community, after they begin to learn; the fact that religion as a factor in social control has lost its early ascendancy; the fact that there has been a decline in interest in politics which is evidenced by the fact that many of our best citizens are no longer among the candidates for political office, are all factors that make for community disorganizations.

¹Stuart A. Queen. What is a community?
Social Forces, May 1923.

Community efficiency depends on the number participating in the affairs of the community.

Other community liabilities are: criminals, bootleggers, prostitutes, drunkards, gangsters, and others who have offended the *mores* of the community and who are not functionally integrated with the interest of the community. This group also includes those classes who are segregated by culture, racial or ecological barriers such as immigrants, negroes, and inhabitants of slum areas. Another division of this social group of non-participants are those whose occupations limit their activities such as night workers, individuals who commute and a third group of professional men who pay little attention to group activities. Again, the extent one participates in community affairs depends upon his community residence and its permanency. Mobility and social disorganization seem to vary directly with each other. Vice or anti-social behavior thrives in highly mobile areas in cities. The youth is what he is to an amazing degree because of his geographical position. Where he lives and how long makes a difference. "There is no one to care" echoes through the halls of thousands of rooming houses. When persons care for each other social organization tends to become stabilized. The life organization of the individual and the stability of the community depend for their efficient functioning upon healthy group relationships. The small town adolescent who cries "nothing to do and no place to go" uses his free time in sex discussions and sex experimentation despite the inhibiting force of community opinion. The home seems to be declining as a recreational center. In the majority of recreational community enterprises profit is a primary objective. The movies, cabarets, night clubs, road-houses, burlesque shows, and prize fights offer scarcely anything which elevate social living to a higher plane.

The movies are included because of what they might be made to accomplish in re-creating the imaginations, feelings and attitudes of those who attend instead of de-creating them as is so often the case. Elliott and Merrill give the following statistics concerning the de-creational effects of the movies.¹

¹Elliott and Merrill, *Social Disorganization*, Harper Brothers, pp. 642-643.

From attending the movies,

- 49% of 110 inmates of a penal institution claim to have received the idea of carrying a gun
- 28% claimed to have received ideas of a holdup
- 20% claimed to have received ideas of stealing techniques
- 21% claimed to have received ideas of ways of stealing and eluding the police.
- 25% of 252 adolescent girls admitted sex relations with men after the movies
- 41% claimed to have received ideas of wild parties after the movies
- 38% claimed to have received ideas of truancy
- 33% claimed to have received ideas to stray away from home
- 23% claimed to have received ideas that they were motivated to commit sex delinquencies
- 29% claimed to have received ideas of a gay wild life

What does censorship stand for? What should the schools do to protect its emotionally sensitive adolescent youth from the de-creational movie? When it does do something it will become more socially significant.

The Individual

The individual's code of behavior embodies those things which the individual will and will not do. Each individual organizes his life on the basis of what he is and what he wants to be. In a great measure this depends upon what he learns. As a result a status in life is acquired. This is his most precious possession. Few who lose it ever recover. The adolescent individual becomes disorganized easily. His instability, his compelling social instincts, his antipathy to adult dominance, his lack of foresight and his eagerness for adult life as he thinks he sees it are attributes which tend to disorganize him as an individual and cause him to act in anti-social ways. Two hundred thousand juvenile court cases are being recorded annually in our country at the present time. About 26% of the boys' cases are for truancy, and 27% for acts of carelessness or mischief; 25% of the girls' cases are for being ungovernable and 21% for sex offense. Approximately 10% com-

mit burglary or run away. Colored and foreign born children furnish the larger number of juvenile delinquents. Urban centers furnish more than rural centers. Nearly six times as many boys as girls were brought to court. The factors responsible for this delinquency are chiefly bad companions, adolescent instability, early sex experience, school dissatisfaction, and poor home conditions. Delinquency is fostered in no small degree by gang life. Gang life provides the adolescent with a definite pattern of unusual behavior generally accompanied by individual habits of vulgarity, gambling, smoking, drinking, and sex indulgences. Oftentimes motion pictures teach technical details in the practice of the holdup, murder, and shop lifting, but the older bad companion is more often the teacher.

Much of the above material has been paraphrased from *Social Disorganization* by Elliott and Merrill.¹

The junior high school is primarily a social institution. It is designed to minister to early adolescent boys and girls physically, mentally, socially, and morally. During the adolescent period many social instincts manifest themselves as never before: i.e., gregariousness, sympathy or fellow feeling, love of approbation, renown, fame and glory, the spirit of altruism, and interest in sex. Pringle in his *Adolescence and High-School Problems* so names them and says, "*The cardinal problem of adolescence is how best to foster and nourish these social instincts in the interests of strong character and right habits of living.*" Herein lies a task for the junior high school. If the development of these instincts is thwarted and neither nourished nor fostered, defense mechanisms will be set up and more disastrous than beneficial results may ensue for society and for the individual himself.

If the gregarious instinct is not recognized and a chance for organization is not given to all in a wholesome school atmosphere where youth can plan and execute programs of interest to themselves then those from interstitial areas especially, because their home conditions are not favorable for keeping

¹Harper & Brothers, 1934.

children in the home, will form their own gangs and will follow the lead of older and adult gangs, which operate to the disorganization of society through the medium of organized crime.

If the instinct of sympathy or fellow feeling is not nourished and fostered in wholesome ways, loyalties to gangdoms, brothers in crime, and sisters in debauchery, may easily result and the number of addicts to crime will thus be increased.

If the instinct which calls for approbation, fame, glory, and renown is not satisfied as a result of the exertion of youth's best effort in wholesome ways then it will be sought probably by the exertion of his best effort in unwholesome ways. The whole wide world and each individual in it is seeking for approval and if not in wholesome pursuit then in the next best and most alluring. If school environment does not afford a place for the winning of approval to what sort of an environment will Evelyn and Irving, Angelo and Antoinette, Ikie and Rachel, Mickie and Katy and all the rest go for approval?

If the spirit of altruism is not fostered by helping youth to be altruistic honestly the chances are he will be altruistic dishonestly. Many a high-school boy or girl has been caught stealing money not because he or she was a thief but because of a desire to get a doll or a drum for a favorite younger sister or brother.

If the interest in and desire for sex knowledge is not nourished in wholesome ways by answering questions truthfully and by giving opportunity for private and confidential conference concerning sex life with some one who commands the respect of the boy and the girl, then the desired information will be sought on the street and in the home environment and the truth may be so clothed in filth, lies, disease, and debauchery that the health and happiness of the eager listener may be jeopardized if not destroyed for all time.

In the light of the many forces of disorganization in society, the social instincts of adolescent youth which must be

satisfied and the fact that the publicly supported school must aid in the construction of an efficient society, if it fulfills its proper function, we are confronted with the question, "*What can the junior high school do about it?*"

In my opinion it can and must arrange situations wherein early adolescent boys and girls will be guided in the successful practice of interesting and wholesome acts of behavior which will nourish and foster their social instincts so effectively that they will carry over into their lives beyond the school years an inspiration for living clean, wholesome, effective and efficient lives.

This is a large order. It should challenge the careful thought and study of every administrator. We have been so traditional in our thinking and so reluctant to make our school programs satisfy the seven cardinal principles of education, although they were formulated twenty-five years ago, that we still have the academic objective rather than the social objective in the foreground. Worthy home membership is one of those objectives. Well, what has been done to teach adolescent girls and boys coöperation in the home, the sacredness of the marriage vow, the obligations and responsibilities of fathers, mothers, brothers, and sisters to each other, the requisites for a happy home life, the opportunities for better homes in other surroundings than theirs, the care and upkeep of the house, or the furnishing of the home? What are we doing to glorify wholesome family life? How many times have you or your teachers visited in the homes of your boys and girls in order to better appreciate their problems?

Another of the cardinal principles is *good citizenship*.

What are we doing to improve community life? Are we helping our boys and girls to satisfy the altruistic instinct through community service clubs, to respect their elders by helping them to know some fine old people, to become interested in government by allowing them to help plan and to participate in a school government which they can call their own, or to recognize and have reverence for a divine power through the medium of a star club, a flower club, a nature club, or a microscope club?

Are our buildings and grounds open evenings and Saturdays and Sundays for wholesome recreational projects or do other de-creational projects outside the school attract our sensitive adolescent youth? Are we doing what we ought to help youth appreciate the aftermaths of lawlessness, crime and warfare, or the effects of patronage upon efficiency in service? Are we showing them the meaning of true statesmanship? Are we so eager to satisfy the academic objective that we are losing sight of the more important social objectives?

What are we doing to help each individual boy and girl of ours catch a vision of the marvelous opportunities which are his if he will do his best? Everyone is different from every other, his individuality, his family and his environmental assets and liabilities; his physical, his mental, his social and his moral weaknesses and strengths; his power of imagining the finest things in life, his feelings and his attitudes toward others. All are there in embryo waiting for nourishment and release into a life of constructive or destructive efforts. What are we doing to develop self directive, open-minded, unbiased thought power? The guidance program is an individualized program. It is for each pupil who differs from all others. Its objective is growth. What growth? In my opinion it doesn't matter so long as it is wholesome *growth* and if the subject *wants to grow some more*.

A thrift program may help to preserve a home some day; a courtesy and kindness campaign may help in maintaining a happy home atmosphere somewhere; an appreciation lesson on Watt's *Sir Galahad* may set up ideals for lives of service somehow; Channing Pollock's play, *The House Beautiful*, may inspire to beautiful family relationships. A study of the forms of social evils in contrast with types of service may do much for enlightening the eager mind of youth; a sheet metal course may catch the interest of a delinquent boy and hold him in school; a Christmas card sent to a youthful criminal may touch his heart and bring him to his senses; a chance to play with his gang on the school court or play field may keep an innocent youth away from a gangster hero; a truthful answer to an honest question may steer a girl or a boy away from a life

of shame. Perhaps a school could get along without pupil participation in government and with less work but would the attitudes of pupils toward law and order be as wholesome? Perhaps traffic squads are unnecessary but if they teach responsibility to the officers, are they not valuable? A school newspaper may require a lot of work, but if it engenders a sound public school opinion, it is most valuable in the development of good citizenship. "Good government is the lengthened shadow of the good citizen." Good citizenship is an individual matter and depends upon the behavior patterns of each individual citizen.

In conclusion, the junior high school will be socially significant when the developing imaginations of youth are so fired, their sensitive feelings so affected, their growing desires so satisfied, and their changing attitudes so molded by virtue of its program, that lives of service will become goals to be fought for in spite of family or community or personal handicaps, and they will want to obtain them. Our boys and girls need visions to guide them. What visions for service are your junior high-school programs giving to your boys and girls?

H. E. Binford, Supervisor of Secondary Schools of Louisville, Ky., read his manuscript.

ARTICULATION IN LOUISVILLE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

H. E. BINFORD

Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Secondary Schools
Louisville, Ky.

Quotation—"There must be an investment of much time and effort in the study of the ever-recurring problems of articulation."

I propose to tell briefly the story of articulation in Louisville, confining the remarks chiefly to articulation problems between the elementary-junior-and-senior high schools.

Louisville's first junior high school opened at the late date of 1928. By next fall upon the completion of a new unit housing 2400 pupils, the complete transition from the 8-4 plan to the 6-3-3 or 6-6 plans will have been made and the children of the 7th, 8th and 9th grades will nearly all be housed in buildings built since 1928.

An urgent need for curriculum and course of study revision in the Louisville junior and senior high schools was recognized shortly after the junior high-school program was begun. However, little was accomplished in the way of a six year program of secondary education until the year 1931-1932.

In the fall of 1930, under the leadership of the Superintendent of Schools, committees were appointed in all subjects. During that school year a few meetings were held. The chief purpose for the year was for all members of the committees to acquaint themselves with the general problem of curriculum construction and the special problems of course of study construction in their special subjects.

The courses of study for the junior and senior high schools are being produced by committees of teachers. The chairman in some subjects are the supervisors of those subjects. In other subjects the chairmen have been heads of departments in the high schools and in 1931-1932 devoted full time to this leadership. General direction of the work is one of the duties of the Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Secondary Education.

The teacher committees are composed of one teacher from each junior high school and one from each senior high school. These committees often work in smaller groups called sub-committees.

The first product is tentative. In some instances this is largely the product of the chairman. The second draft of any course is modified as a result of experimentation with the first. It represents not only the work of the members of the committee but embodies the best thought of all classroom teachers plus the suggestions of the administrative staff. The principals of the schools were especially helpful with suggestions in producing the second draft. The principals, while not active mem-

bers of the committees, are invited to attend as many meetings of the committees as their many other duties will permit.

While our chief object in this work is seriously to attempt to provide the teacher with subject matter, devices, and procedures which will aid in carrying out the objectives of high-school education, we believe that an almost equal value of curriculum revision lies in the process of the making. Those who are helping are rekindling their intellectual life and in many instances gaining a viewpoint impossible to obtain in any other way. This purposeful thinking will have permanent value in future years because of renewed interest in the problems of education. This, with increased pride in our schools, will carry over to the lasting benefit of the youth who are already citizens of Louisville.

Changing society brings about changes in our objectives which in turn necessitate changes in the curriculum. We recognize this evident fact. However, after the second draft of a course of study is made it should remain in force with only minor changes for a few years. Only by testing and noting the outcomes over a period of years can the effects of a course of study be scientifically determined. We cannot constantly be changing to satisfy individual desires, motives, and caprices. We hope to adhere rather closely to a given course of study until such time as a majority of teachers, after scientific study of results, determine upon a more desirable educational procedure.

One author has said the program of studies and the teacher are the two most fundamental agencies for the education of children. Along with our construction of courses of study our program of studies problems were more definitely determined.

A wide departure for Louisville in the senior high school program was to establish a major and minor plan instead of the traditional curricula. The traditional curricula provided for very little choice after the curriculum had once been selected. This new plan which provides for majors or minors in ten subject fields has been a very successful plan in solving many of our pupils' articulation problems.

We are rather confident that these changes with carefully planned courses of study will do more than any other single agency toward solving our articulation problems. The courses are so planned that "individual differences," including all that that expression covers, are partially taken care of. Minimum requirements, enrichment, suggested activities, time left for individual teacher initiative to have its chance, all are provided for in the courses.

The following briefly explains the then and now (before and after course of study construction) in the field of business subjects in our secondary schools.

Then:

1. *Lack of uniformity* in objectives, accomplishment, offerings, subject-matter placement and texts.
2. *Guidance* was of such type as to direct in large numbers, pupils with low I. Q.'s into commercial department and to direct students of higher intelligence away from department regardless of needs of pupils and demands of business.
3. The *exploratory courses* did not really explore the field of business education—explored typing only.
4. No attention given to *consumer education*.
5. Such training, as was given in subjects offered in the field of business education, did not always develop definite skills and correct habits upon which subjects in senior high school are developed. Examples: Typewriting skills, such as correct fingering. Junior Business Training, such as handling and interpreting correctly business forms.

Now:

1. An increased amount of uniformity with a sequence in subject matter which leads to further development of that subject matter in senior high school.
2. By placing in the courses of study some general information on guidance for counselors and requiring,

in the exploratory course, a study of the traits and characteristics needed for success in the various fields of business explored, some improvement in pupil placement has been shown.

3. An exploratory course has been developed which explores the majors and minors of all the commercial subjects in the senior high school. A broader view and a more serious examination of the senior high-school offerings has resulted.
4. Consumer-education for all pupils in both senior and junior high schools, is being developed. In the junior high school it is a required subject.
5. Through united effort of the teachers of both levels of secondary field specific and integrated objectives have been determined; correct skills enumerated and specific habits listed so that the need for breaking down some habits and reteaching others has been eliminated. This is especially true of fingering and machine manipulation in typewriting and handling materials in junior business training.

CONCLUSION

Because of the youth of the 1-6-3-3 or the 1-6-6 organization in Louisville, we realize that even our articulation problems may be painful for some time to come. We feel that there has been a rapid growth toward mutual understanding. Most of the above mentioned agencies and devices are proving helpful. Sympathetic attitudes are being developed among all groups involved. While there may have been some unfortunate attitudes at first, cooperative effort with resultant understanding is removing friction and discord. The philosophy of articulation seems to increase mutual respect of the workers and happiness for our children.

Will French, Associate Superintendent of Schools of Tulsa, Oklahoma, read a paper on *A Tradition-Free Curriculum for the Junior High School*.

A TRADITION-FREE CURRICULUM FOR THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

DR. WILL FRENCH

Associate Superintendent

Tulsa, Oklahoma

It is easy to assume, especially in these days, that it is always desirable for a school to be entirely free from tradition. Such, however, is not the case. The desirability of such freedom depends upon the amount and degree of conflict between the school's traditional practice and the functions of the school in the social situation in which it operates. Conflict of this character usually arises out of the natural tendency of an educational practice to persist long after the reasons for its existence have perished. If these reasons begin to die off in large numbers and in quick succession, the school may suddenly find its whole program deprived of most of its traditional support. This paper proposes that however well supported the curriculum program of the junior high school may have been in the recent past, there is now evidence of a widening gap between that program and the functions of this school in the present and impending social situation, and that, therefore, we especially need at this moment a tradition-free curriculum for the junior high school. The writer also proposes upon the basis of an examination of the present functions of this school to suggest the outlines of such a curriculum.

This first paragraph reveals a point of view with respect to the responsibility of a school to its supporting society upon the acceptance of which the validity of much that is said hereafter is based. That responsibility is the one implied in what may aptly be called the investment theory, since Briggs in 1930 in his Inglis Lecture enunciated the doctrine that "The State supports free public schools to perpetuate itself and to promote its own best interests. Education is, then, a long-term investment that the State may be a better place in which to live and a better place in which to make a living."* In the

*Briggs, Thomas H. *The Great Investment, Secondary Education in a Democracy*, P. 8, Harvard Univ. Press, Cambridge, 1930.

four years which have intervened since Briggs first stated this principle, it has not been seriously challenged. An indirect denial of it may underlie the position of those who hold that the school should build a new social order. However, until we have a clear-cut example of a school which has built such a new order in spite of the protestations of the old order, we may assume that the degree of leftness which a school exhibits is one which the supporting society is willing to see it manifest as a possible means of "promoting its own best interests." Certainly we may contemplate in sorrow if not in fear, the sad examples of a number of new-order educators who have found the neck of the old generation not quite limber enough to make their creative experiment in social reconstruction a great success. This paper, therefore, holds to the education-as-an-investment point of view as the most practical facing of the total situation in which public schools operate.

If this investment idea of education is accepted, a number of deductions of significance here may be made: (1) Society has a right to expect returns on this investment. (2) The decision as to what returns are desirable is not one to be made by the educator alone. He only assists in this task along with other members of society, and is followed only in proportion as he is able to convince society that his proposals have merit. (3) His professional training makes his the task of determining how these returns, once agreed on, shall be secured. (4) The returns considered adequate by society a short time ago, may suddenly become inadequate. (5) The educator must at such times appraise his program in the light of these recent social changes to see whether old returns are now inadequate and what new returns are desirable. (6) He must at such times, if possible, offer modifications in the educational program which in his judgment will give society the kind of returns it seeks. If these are logical deductions, we are concerned in this paper with the answers to the following questions:

1. Have there been such recent social and economic changes of probable consequence to education?

2. Do these changes mean that the traditional program of the junior high school will make larger or smaller returns on the investment?
3. If there have been such changes as are mentioned in the first question, what sorts of returns does society now value more highly and what less highly?
4. What changes in the program of the junior high school could we propose to make in order to give to society larger amounts of the kinds of returns which it now desires from its investment in education?

The first two of these questions need not delay us long. There will be few to deny that the last four years have seen the most profound and sudden shifts in social and economic thought since the first industrial revolution. The conservative commentator may say we are seeing major changes in the structure of capitalism and the social order which grows out of it. The more liberal observer may speak of the crack-up of capitalism. As we in this country are just beginning to hope for an orderly readjustment under the New Deal, fresh trouble breaks out in Europe to add more evidence of the widespread and fundamental nature of the present movements. Perhaps "the old order changeth, giving place to new." Neither can anyone well deny that such a violent social and economic upheaval can occur and not disturb the equilibrium of all institutional life. The superficial tremblings so far experienced by institutions are but the slight surface tremors preceding the real shocks which will later rock them. The schools have not and cannot hope to escape—and quite possibly they should not want to. The secondary school is already under some criticism and this extends not only to its form or organization, but to its content or curriculum. The more fundamental and far-reaching the social and economic shifts become, the more certain it is that the demands made upon the schools will require basic curriculum reorganizations.

Assuming, then, as a matter of being prepared for the worst or the best—according to your point of view—that recent and impending social and economic changes are causing

the State to revise its list of desirable returns from its investment in education, it is pertinent to examine the trend of these changes to discover, if possible, the probable nature of the new returns from education which the State is likely to demand. It is probably too early in the course of the movement to speak with any certainty about details, but it is not too early to begin projecting the general direction of the curve of change which events are beginning to establish. The writer will risk three points at which the State is and will demand a larger and different return on its investment in education than it has heretofore sought.

The first return: A people with a vision of the possibilities of the high levels of human happiness and welfare now available to all in a society of plenty which would consciously and purposefully organize its people coöperatively to seek such levels of living for itself. A people who know of and are practiced in the techniques useful in working together for the attainment of this goal.

The second return: A people who regard the natural resources of the society as material to be utilized by it to make higher levels of living possible for all, and who value science and technology because of the great contribution they can make toward the effective use of the materials of this environment to this social end.

The third return: A people each of whom is as well developed a physical, mental, and spiritual being and personality as his nature and capacity make possible; whose weak points have been overcome or removed as is possible; whose strong points have been built up to capacity and each of whom is, therefore, able to participate effectively and happily in the life of a high-grade social order.

Society's demand for more of each of these three returns is justified and implied by every phrase of Briggs's statement of the investment theory. For example, "to perpetuate itself," "to protect its own best interests," "a better place in which to live and a better place in which to make a living." Each of these three is also supported by the trends of recent

events. We surely move toward a socially controlled order and away from an individualistic one; toward a planned group life from *laissez-faire*; toward one in which economic and political life must subserve socially justified goals and away from an order in which economic and political favorites have exploited both the human and natural resources of society. Liberalists in America from Roger Williams to Franklin and Jefferson to Parker, Wilson, and Dewey have always held before our eyes the vision of such a social order in America. As James Truslow Adams phrases it in his *American Dream*, this country for some has always been conceived as "a land in which life should be better and richer and fuller for every man with opportunity for each according to his ability of achievement. * * * It is not a dream of motor cars and high wages merely, but a dream of a social order in which each man and each woman shall be able to attain to the fullest stature of which they are innately capable and be recognized by others for what they are, regardless of the fortuitous circumstances of birth or position." Even individualism in America has been justified because it seemed to offer an open road to such a social order. And now under a changed social and economic setting, America is forsaking individualism and is giving enthusiastic support to its first broad attempts at a planned order of social control. It is but a new path toward an old goal.

It may, therefore, be no total loss of time for us to examine these three proposed returns, broad and general though they may be, and measure our present curriculum program against them as the new criteria of its social value. Under the investment theory, once returns are agreed upon, educators working in the schools have but one major concern. That is to recommend a program which in our professional judgment will yield a maximum of the desired returns. The question is not how much of these returns can society count upon the school's traditional curriculum to produce, nor is it what reasonable modifications in the curriculum offering can be made to produce a slight increase in the amount of return to be expected from education. Both of these questions set the

school's program ahead of society's right to demand certain returns from education. Both give the traditional school curriculum the inside track and require society to win its return as best it can. They both involve a half-hearted acceptance of the investment theory. The real question is what program of education, irrespective of the school's traditional offerings, can we propose with at least reasonable assurance that returns of the desired character will be forthcoming. This calls for a curriculum offering as free from traditions as the present desired returns are different from those which may have been desired by society in 1925. We should then have, in effect, a tradition-free curriculum.

With this professional obligation in mind and with the three tentatively stated returns now sought by the State in mind, we may outline a curriculum program for the junior high school which makes a direct attack on the problem of meeting the State's demand for these specific returns. To the writer, such a program appears to have four aspects.

The first return which society seeks obviously concerns itself with social relationships. The State thinks that education can do something about developing more power to handle present social problems and to improve social situations now existing to the disadvantage of the state. The problem is to learn to live at high levels in social groups of increasing size and complexity. Such current social problems and situations as are within the experience of junior high-school pupils need to be studied and lived through as the subject matter of this aspect of the school's program. "Man's problem is now man" might be said to be the theme of portions of Kilpatrick's *Our Educational Task*,¹ and this should be the dominant theme of secondary education. This will, of course, involve the really serviceable material of the social studies. To this will be related some of the literature of what is now the English class with other good reading material less classic in nature added. It will utilize some aspects of mathematics as graphing and simple statistical techniques which are useful in thinking

¹Kilpatrick, W. H., *Our Educational Task*, University of North Carolina Press, Chapple Hill, North Carolina, 1930.

about and comprehending social data. It will call to service any subject matter now conventionally assigned to any subject if it can be used in the better understanding of the social situation being studied. Thus then will the basic social function for the entire period of secondary education be discharged by assembling present subject matter for use where it functions in the understanding of some social situation.

The purpose here is for all children to become familiar with how group life is now carried on; the advantages and disadvantages of it examined; its strengths and weaknesses observed and studied. To become acquainted with the problems involved and to study the merits of various proposed solutions. To see some of the background to these problems and situations without becoming so involved in the backgrounds as to forget the foregrounds. To get some experience in good methods of procedure to follow in solving social problems and in meeting situations by having an opportunity to live in groups where life is lived at high levels and where its problems and situations are solved and met cooperatively and democratically. In sum, to give the experience with group living that will emphasize the satisfactions to be gained by high grade group life and thus promote the desire and power to sustain it at such levels. The first responsibility of the curriculum of the secondary school is to do absolutely everything it can to create as much of that power in as many young people as the best program of education which we are capable of conceiving, can do. The very continuance of the social life of mankind seems to depend upon whether we can generate such power faster than the need for it develops. This social-life aspect of the curriculum must then make a direct, and effective attack upon this central problem of our modern world.

The second return from education which we have pictured the State as demanding involves the management and use of the physical inheritance, the natural resources of the State. In this State, the economic and industrial aspects of life are to be purposefully made subject to social ends. Technology is to be the servant of social progress, not its master, nor even a free lance. Its power in the promotion of this so-

cial end will be too freely recognized to permit society to run any risk that this power will be misunderstood, unappreciated, or poorly applied. The second functional center of secondary education to be proposed is, consequently, the technical and scientific aspect of education dealing with the use and control of the physical world in the interest of social progress. This social emphasis is scientific and technical education has been in a decidedly minor key. It is proposed that this scientific aspect of education be postulated on the proposition that the natural resources of a society are to be used and developed solely in the interest of public welfare and that the function of science and technology is to guide and direct this process so that the maximum in social progress may be attained with the minimum expenditure of the natural resources. Thus, while part of the daily program of the junior high school will be concerned with the "Man-Man relationship" a second part will deal with the "Man-Thing relationship"¹ with Man in either case the controlling element in the combination. Problems and situations in this second core commonly involve large use of science and mathematics and we may expect to find the subject matter of these departments well represented here but arranged in an order for use in meeting a life situation. Thus the aspects of these subjects vital to any problem or situation within the ability or interest of junior school pupils will be included. Other really vital portions of these subjects will as a matter of course be included in connection with the more complex problems or situations considered by older students so that in the end the subject will be as adequately covered as current living makes necessary. Since all of this material will be included because of its social usefulness or value and since, as stated, the whole point of view will be that of educating children to see how the physical environment can be managed and used to improve man's social status, the social emphasis in technical education will be greater than to-day. Thus even science which heretofore has been only covertly a social study will then become one overtly.

¹Rugg, Harold O., *The Great Technology*, Preface, John Day Co., N. Y., 1933.

The third return calls for the full development of each individual member of the society. This is sought by the state purely for selfish motives and not through any altruistic interests it may have in the welfare of individuals as such. The State recognizes that it has two assets out of which it must build its life. One of these is its natural resources. Economists and sociologists agree that without an adequate and varied supply of such resources no high levels of social living can be long maintained. Our second return shows that the State realizes the need for wise and complete use of this asset. The second of the State's assets is its human resources. Unless this last asset is properly developed the first asset will be inadequately used or misused. Only when the two are fully developed in unison can the best obtainable level of life be reached. This development of the second asset depends upon the extent to which the innate capacity of each individual is attained. His weaknesses must be strengthened and his talents developed. Thus by minimizing his minus points and magnifying his plus points, the net capacity of each individual will reach its maximum and hence that of the whole society, its maximum. The State, therefore, regards failure to overcome a remedial weakness or failure to develop adequately a strength as so much human resources lost to its use.

The third phase of the program of the junior school is then concerned with providing opportunity for the discovery and exploration of special abilities and capacities and the meeting of special needs. Some of these will, of course, become evident in connection with the first and second aspects of this school's educational program, but there are many other abilities, capacities, and needs not falling within these fields, the development of which will be of value to society because a source of gratification and pleasure to the individual.

Three particular functions will be performed by this phase of the junior school's program. First, it will permit opportunity to those who by reason of the enriched character of their experience as children, have early developed rare ability in any special field or a deep and abiding interest in any special activity, to pursue this interest or enlarge upon this talent

as a regular part of the school program. These opportunities may vary from a good recreational hobby to artistic creation. Or again this phase of the school's program may provide time for additional reading or more experimentation along lines started in the social science or scientific phases of the program. It may be an individual affair which the student will pursue in the library, shop, laboratory, studio, or any other appropriate place. On the other hand, it may be an activity, such as keeping up one's ability in conversational French or playing in a large or small instrumental group which he will carry forward only in company with others. Whatever the character of these interests, one-third of the program, if desired, can be devoted to them and always the school will furnish whatever of assistance, guidance, teaching, or leadership is appropriate to the situation.

In the second place, here the students will have an opportunity to investigate and explore fields of curiosity; just an opportunity always available to find out what is over on the other side of any mountain that forms a part of a pupil's intellectual horizon. No deep or permanent interest or well developed capacity is here assumed. The whole idea is to keep boys and girls in the habit of satisfying intellectual curiosities as they arise. Nothing is so creative of a stale and stagnant mental life as the habit of inhibiting all promptings of curiosity. It is the power behind natural child learning now all too soon disciplined out of existence. Yet, "the cultivation of interests, starting with the relatively undifferentiated human needs and drives, is one of the chief functions of education."¹ Moreover, if all of life is to be educative as it should be, then something within the individual must urge him to follow out after intellectual promptings instead of habitually dismissing them as "out of my line." Somewhere in the education of adolescents, provision for developing this mental attitude ought to be consciously provided.

The third function of this aspect of the school's program is to furnish an opportunity to any student to make up any

¹Freeman, Frank N., "Proposed Educational Reforms—Some of the Major Issues," *The Nation's Schools*, Vol. XII, No. 1, July, 1933.

shortages or deficiencies in his educational or personal equipment. Unusual weakness in such a basic skill as reading, a particular need for an additional skill such as typewriting, a remedial speech defect or a physical condition requiring special exercise are examples of types of need which children may develop and for which adequate provision should be made as a means of raising capacities and abilities to their highest levels. Many of these shortages and special needs developed in adolescence and at the time seeming relatively unimportant may account for major weaknesses in adult life. A society which like the one we have projected, counts every inadequately or improperly developed human capacity as so much wasted potential social wealth, will expect its educational system early to discover and correct as far as possible incipient weaknesses and shortages as they develop. Without provision for this third aspect of the work of the junior school which permits free development of individual interests, which urges exploration by building intellectual curiosity and which repairs incipient weaknesses, society will dwarf its cultural and aesthetic future and weaken its economic structure.

With these three major aspects of the junior school's program in mind, we may think of the school day as divided into thirds, one-third being devoted to each of these three phases of the work. It will not be necessary to subdivide further the day into periods for the study of many subjects or to alternate on successive days of the week between subjects. In any third of the day, the work will be unified around its underlying functional purpose. It is even possible to suggest that work in a large interest center such as one concerned with public health and sanitation will call for unification of the first and second aspects of the school program because involving both social study and science. Thus still further unification and integration will be provided for. In any case, material from any of the present subjects will be utilized as and when needed because that material will be useful in connection with understanding an aspect of life which is being studied or lived by pupils. Pupils with interest and ability in such subject material as is not being utilized in connection with either of these

first two aspects of the school's program can find opportunity to follow this personal interest, if of any social value whatever, as a part of their work in the period of the day devoted to the promotion of society's third function for this school. Thus, with these three functional centers, we unify the program of education around social purposes, integrate the work of pupils into larger related wholes, eliminate an array of subject titles without losing any of the socially useful material now taught under them and simplify the whole administrative setup of the secondary-school curriculum. Such a junior school will be a natural development from our present junior high school in which the spirit of a functionally active educational program is bound to earth by the inherited formalism of the older high schools.

In conclusion, this paper has sought to accept the responsibility resting upon the school under the Briggs theory of public education as an investment by the State. It has set up what seem to the writer in the light of recent social and economic trends, to be three returns which the State now seeks with increasing eagerness from its investment in education. It has then on the basis of these three returns outlined a functional curriculum program for the junior high school with three principal aspects and has argued for the pursuit of these returns through this program without reference to what may or may not have been appropriate and approved content or arrangement of subject matter or method of teaching in any previous period.

Only once before, if ever, has secondary education in America been faced with such an opportunity, such a responsibility, and such a challenge. The birth of the American Academy may have signalized such an occasion. For the American Academy was born of the liberal educational theories of Benjamin Franklin. His ideas of a curriculum for this new secondary school, says Briggs, "were revolutionary".¹ So, for three-quarters of a century, this new secondary school gave some promise of becoming the means for the realization

¹Briggs, Thomas H., *Secondary Education*, pg. 77, Macmillan Co., N. Y. 1933

of a democratic program of secondary education in America. It failed of this high possibility, however, continues Briggs, "because there were no provisions for developing detailed plans of procedure for converting to the new philosophy, teachers who were saturated by tradition and for guiding them by supervision to appropriate practices."²

Since the demise of the Academy, a new profession of secondary-school administrators has sprung into being. It is an acknowledged part of their task to convert teachers to a new educational philosophy and to guide them by supervision to appropriate practices. Therefore in the present educational crisis our profession of secondary-school administrators as well as the secondary school itself, is on trial. The supreme test is the development of a curriculum as free from social, economic, and educational tradition as the secondary-schools' functions under the new dispensation, demand.

In the Club Room under the direction of James E. Blue, Principal of Rockford High School of Illinois, the junior-college group met. President R. L. Moore of the Junior College of Mars Hill, North Carolina, presented the first paper, *The Teacher, the Solution of Our Problem*.

THE TEACHER, THE SOLUTION OF OUR PROBLEM

R. L. MOORE

President of Mars Hill Junior College
Mars Hill, North Carolina

The problem is not the founding of the school but the finding of the schoolmaster.—HORACE MANN.

Our problems are numerous and must have attention, but we must beware lest bewildered by the multitude of them we fall into the helplessness of the centipede, which trying to decide which one of his hundred legs to move first, in his confusion, couldn't budge an inch.

²Ibid, pg. 88.

Again, there is the greater problem of our moral breakdown. Did you read the article by Dr. Paul H. Douglas of the University of Chicago in the March, 1933, Bulletin of the Association of American Colleges on "Has Higher Education Failed"? After referring to the fact that the high tariff leaders in Congress have sat at the feet of teachers who almost without exception were free trade in teaching, and the further fact that those whose teachers championed world peace have themselves become outspoken advocates of big navies and a nationalism which is dangerous to world peace, he says, after listing some college men who have become reformers, "It is also true that if we look over our unsavory political machines, we find that in an extraordinary large number of cases they have been dominated or abetted by highly trained college graduates." Dr. Douglas then names men and the universities they represent who have figured in corrupt politics in New York, Philadelphia, even this city. Harvard, founded to promote piety, morality, and "knowledge," has fallen from its high place in furnishing the moral and religious leadership of a nation.

Having put the emphasis upon making a living rather than making a life, we have intensified greed and selfishness. The Golden Rule has been given a back seat, and big business has taken the saddle, and the exploiting of weaker peoples goes on.

The trouble with us is not material but spiritual. What did we have in 1928 that we did not have in 1933? The soil produced bountifully, there was no drought, no epidemic, no invading foe, no disaster of any kind. The same factories, the same water power, the same equable climate, the same supply of money, the same people—yet prosperity one year and depression the next with millions starving and freezing. The things seen are unchanged, the things not seen—faith, hope, love—have during the years suffered disintegration. We have been defeated in the things of the spirit. We have let things press in on us—the world is too much with us—we have made the practical the highest good and have left out the profound, magnifying the material and leaving out the spiritual.

Go back 1900 years. A young Teacher at the age of 33 had just closed His work on a wooden cross just outside Jerusalem. For 40 months He had had a group of a dozen men with Him in training. With lakeside and hills for laboratory and classroom He trained and inspired and transformed this group of fishermen and insignificant learners into forces that changed the currents of history. In this connection these words of Dr. Glenn Frank are worth repeating:

"He was not interested in giving His hearers new information. He was interested in giving them a new way of looking at all information, old and new. He was not interested in having His hearers absorb a mass of standardized information, but in having them think about the pressing problems of their own lives. He was not interested in increasing their understanding. He was not concerned to have them practice remembering. He wanted them to practice thinking. Jesus would have a hard time getting an appointment to a \$1,500 instructorship in a modern university."

A few centuries before, Socrates taught in the parks and streets of Athens and left an impress that lives yet, and nearer our own era is Mark Hopkins. These justify the assertion that it is men, not bricks and mortar, that make a seat of learning. The atmosphere in many schools, great and small, is as cold and dead as the stone in their walls. It takes a great teacher to create an atmosphere in which the spirits and souls of men may grow.

Every one of you who have amounted to anything have somewhere along the way had a great teacher, one whose love of knowledge, enthusiasm, high ideals, deep convictions, and moral earnestness are reincarnated in you. You may have found her in the elementary grades, or in high school, or in college as a teacher of philosophy who steadied you in the days of doubt and confusion and faltering faith. You know who I am talking about and are grateful that your paths crossed.

However difficult and trying conditions may be, the way out or through appears when a man is found, a Washington, a Lincoln, a Wesley, a Frances Willard, a Page, a Patton. We

shall make progress in the solution of our educational and moral problems as we find teachers of unselfish and beautiful spirit, apt to teach, with burning zeal for right. If for a period of ten years we should forget in large measure our problems and should center our efforts in finding and developing great teachers, is it not certain that we would be farther along the way than we are? If we could reinstate the simple, reverent, rigorous virtues of the Puritan fathers we might save ourselves from the mushiness, the ease-loving, pleasure seeking craze of these latter days. Teachers, genuine teachers, correct in vision and outlook, will work marvels.

And so I plead that we find worthy teachers and give them a chance to teach. Is it not possible to free them from the making of so many reports? I think I have discovered a sort of shudder passing through a faculty of teachers when the superintendent or principal goes off to study or to meetings of this kind. He invariably comes back with some new type of report, a handful of questionnaires that call for laborious effort in compiling statistics that all too often are never used by anybody for anybody's good, or an assortment of tests to be tried out on innocent victims. Relieve your teachers, I pray you, of the drudgery of so much written work, relieve them of mechanics and demand vital teaching.

Let me plead, in the second place, for relief from fear of losing one's position. Suppose that at the beginning of this century we had deliberately started out to produce a generation unselfish, true to the best that has come down to us as the heritage of the past, willing to serve, and desirous of knowing and doing the right; suppose that in the little schoolhouse back in the cove as in the great city school we had got across to those who sat twelve to sixteen years at our feet that "public office is a public trust"; suppose we had put the emphasis on making men with "great hearts, true faith, and ready hands"—"men whom the lust of office does not kill, men whom the spoils of office cannot buy, tall men, sun-crowned, who live above the fog in public duty and private thinking", would not things be different now?

And so I present the problem of problems—the finding of the schoolmaster, the finding and training of teachers whose vision, horizon, heart power, and teaching ability are unquestioned and of superior quality.

In this process of developing a new order of teachers our colleges must accept a higher responsibility both in the selecting of those who are to become teachers and in the process of training them. Many courses in education are evidently of little value in the making of the type of teachers needed. And many of these courses revitalized should probably be placed later in the curriculum. Should a teacher specialize on a foundation less than that required of a lawyer or a physician? The certification departments of our states must also look more carefully to the quality of men who are granted certificates. Ought any man to be licensed until his character is attested by good and true evidence? In my state the veriest moral leper ever graduated can get a certificate to teach if he has the required number of hours of education. Would it not be a step in the right direction to grant the privilege of teaching for only one year after graduation, the renewal of the certificate to depend upon evidence that the teacher has personality and power to inspire pupils, exerts a wholesome influence in community affairs, lives above reproach, and gives promise of making a superior instructor or school official. There must be a process of elimination also, this process to be speeded by certification departments, superintendents, and school boards, as fast as new teachers can be found.

There are better days ahead. We have cried from the depths, and the answer comes afar. Ideals are practical. Let us cherish the highest, in the spirit of these words from the distinguished editor of the *Journal of the National Education Association*, Dr. Joy Elmer Morgan:

“Is it not plain that what the world needs just now is a new devotion to great ideals: In statecraft, in business, in industry, in law, in the church, in science, or in teaching can anything be more intensely fruitful and practical than a renewed faith in the higher and finer things? Hour after hour, day after

day, we are all facing situations where there is choice between the higher and the lower. It takes but a little common sense and a will to choose the higher path—to change the whole course of a life, a school, a nation, or an age. A little more faith, a little more idealism and the confusion of to-day may give way to the fairest dawn the world has seen."

The second paper was read by Dean J. J. Oppenheimer of the University of Louisville, Louisville, Ky., *Some Problems Confronting the Junior College Movement*.

SOME PROBLEMS CONFRONTING THE JUNIOR-COLLEGE MOVEMENT

J. J. OPPENHEIMER
University of Louisville

The Concern of the Secondary Principal and Teacher.—The rapid growth of the junior college and its accompanying reception by the people of this country make it imperative that any forward-looking person connected with secondary education recognize that the junior college is being accepted as an integral part of our educational system. While it is true that the junior college movement has been more closely identified with that of higher education, than with that of secondary education, the trend has been unmistakably toward its inclusion in the field of secondary education. The high-school principal must concern himself with this problem of the junior college for three reasons: (1) Because in all likelihood he will be faced with the problem of establishing one in the near future; (2) Because if he is not so confronted he must at least face the problem of articulating the curriculum and program of studies with that of a junior college; and (3) Because he will find in the study of the junior college many interesting suggestions which may have bearing on the improvement of senior high-school education. This paper is concerned with the problems confronting the public junior college. Its chief purpose is the consideration of the possibilities of a unified institution which will include the present senior high school

and junior college. In the presentation of the thesis of a unified secondary institution certain problems of importance to furthering its development will be presented.

The Social Scene and the Junior College.—For education to be effective it must be based upon the social, political, and economic elements in contemporary life. The student of modern secondary education must constantly orient himself in reference to the profound social changes that are taking place. Too much of secondary and higher education has been determined by cultural patterns that are long outmoded, if, in fact, they ever existed. The long servility of the high school to college domination and to the great tradition of culture as an ornament has left deep impresses upon the high school as an institution. Consequently, its present conservatism may be a natural outcome. It may well be that the long fight for liberation has blinded the fighters to the opportunities of the newer freedom. These are insitutional changes and, as such, are more perceptible; but the slow, visible changes of the whole of social life are less noticeable. What are these changes?

1. Despite the present curtailment of funds for education, there is an unmistakable demand for the extension of popular education beyond the senior high school into the area of the junior college and a trend from formal education to greatly increased facilities for diversified adult education. It would be a strange reversal of a historic movement to witness a decline in demand for popular educational opportunities.

2. The gradual acceptance on the part of government, business, and industry, of a belief that social institutions are amenable to human planning and control will make radical changes in what we teach concerning the social order. Any social planning must include education. To avoid serious social conflicts of all sorts a great deal more energy must be expended on higher education including the continuing education of adults. No longer can modern society depend upon the learning of children as the sole instrument of social progress sufficient for a life time. Education is life long.

3. The rapidity of change in technological processes will require a much broader type of vocational education than the

former type of specific training. In the same connection pre-industrial education must make the individual much more adaptable to economic changes.

4. The change from an economy of scarcity to one of plenty will entail the decrease of working time and delayed entrance into economic life. If these trends are certain, then more general education, especially in those subjects which may contribute to leisure activities, must be increased. The so-called fads and frills—arts, music, drama, crafts, literature—must become a larger element in education.

5. Four years of economic stringency should have chastened us into placing more emphasis upon moral and spiritual values. No thoughtful American educator can read the sobering words of the "Report on Recent Social Change"¹ and not attempt to bring about a change of attitude and social behavior in his pupils.

Note these brief quotations from the report: "Fully realizing its mission, the Committee does not wish to assume an attitude of alarmist irresponsibility, but on the other hand it would be highly negligent to gloss over the stark and bitter realities of the social situation, and to ignore the imminent perils in further advance of our heavy technical machinery over crumbling roads and shaking bridges. There are times when silence is not neutrality, but assent.

"Finally, the Committee is not unmindful of the fact that there are important elements in human life not easily stated in terms of efficiency, mechanization, institutions, rates of change or adaptations to change. The immense structure of human culture exists to serve human needs and values not always readily measurable, to promote and expand human happiness, to enable men to live more richly and abundantly. It is a means, not an end in itself. Men cling to ideas, ideals, institutions, blindly perhaps even when outworn, waiting until they are modified and given a new meaning and a new

¹*Recent Social Trends in the United States*. A Report of the President's Research Committee on Social Trends. Vol. 1, lxxiv and lxxv (Introduction)

mode of expression more adequate to the realization of the cherished human values. The new tools and the new technique are not readily accepted; they are indeed suspected and resisted until they are reset in a framework of ideas of emotional and personality values as attractive as those which they replace."

6th and last. Modern life demands greater emphasis upon integration. Many mechanical changes, such as improvement in travel and communication, increase of urban life, the deeper understanding of human relations, the universality of knowledge, the unity of sciences, and the realization of the unity of the human organism emphasize the necessity of synthesis, common purposes, and significant interrelations. This is quite different from a world made up of dualisms and compartmentalizations.

The Junior College and the Depression.—Notwithstanding the drastic reduction of budgets for educational purposes the junior-college movement has continued to grow throughout the depression. Dr. Doak Campbell, Secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges, reports that in the latest census of junior colleges, there were 514 junior colleges in the United States—210 publicly supported and 304 private in 1932, as against 493 in 1931.¹ These have a total enrollment of 103,530. There are junior colleges in every state of this country with the exception of Nevada and Wyoming.

ENROLLMENT IN JUNIOR COLLEGES IN THE U. S. A.
IN 1931-1932.

YEAR	Total No. of Jr. Colleges	Total No. of Students	Number of Public Jr. Colleges	No. of Students	Number of Private Jr. Colleges	No. of Students
1932	514	103,530	210	70,221	304	33,309
1931	493	96,555	189	60,345	304	36,210
Per Cent						
Increase ..	4%	7%	10%	14%	0%	
Per Cent						
Decrease ..						9%

The above figures indicate an increase in the number of public

¹"Directory of Junior Colleges," 1934, *The Junior College Journal*, 4:205ff (January 1933)

junior colleges of 10% and in the enrollment of these colleges an increase of almost 10,000 students, or 14%. The number of private junior colleges has remained the same with a decreased enrollment of approximately 3000, or 9%.

Dr. L. V. Koos, one of the foremost authorities of the movement, says: "- - - The acceptance of the junior college in the thinking of both educator and intelligent layman is now even more widespread than the distribution itself. *Not that acquaintance with the movement is universal*, but that conviction of its significance is sufficiently prevalent to remove all doubt on the score of the persistence of the institution. This conviction has been greatly strengthened during the period of the depression, in fact, *by* the depression. In these days of shrunken family incomes students at the college level have turned in increasing proportions toward local educational institutions, and the influence of one of the potent factors in the development of the junior college has been accentuated."¹

The depression and its accompanying changes brought about in the organization and theory of our economic life, along with the changes in secondary and higher education, and likewise, the changes brought about in the development of the junior college through experience and formal experimentation, have accentuated a number of problems closely related to future development of the junior college. These problems have direct bearing upon the future of secondary education:

1. Is the public junior college to be a free public institution, or is it to be restricted to those who can afford to pay tuition?
2. As far as local public education is concerned, is the junior college to be an integral part of secondary-school organization?
3. Is the new junior college to be the people's college in reality, or maintained for a selected group—the senior college preparatory group?

¹"Training of Junior College Teachers," *Junior College Journal*, 4: 163, (January 1934)

4. Is the new junior college, or if you please the upper level of secondary education, to be unified from the standpoint of curriculum or to be a mosaic of many unrelated units?

Problem of Financial Support.—In these days of economic stringency, one would be a *heretic* who did not recognize the priority of the problem of financial support. Accurate data are not available, but there are evidences that restriction of public funds has caused the abandonment of some of the junior colleges, and in many cases it has compelled boards of education to charge tuition. There is likewise evidence that some boards of education have felt junior-college education to be a luxury, at least not an essential part of public secondary education. But public opinion has been aroused. The protests that have arisen from the closing of the Crane Junior College in Chicago show that a large part of the public do not agree with that board of education. The depression has focused more clearly the problems in regard to financial support, namely: (1) How many junior colleges are needed? (2) How and where shall junior colleges be located? Are local communities solely to be permitted to determine this question? Have we not learned from experience in locating high schools? (3) How large a school unit is needed to support an effective junior college? (4) What are the sources of support for the junior colleges? (5) Shall it be a free institution? These are insistent problems, but already in the brief development of the junior-college movement materials are being gathered that are helpful in answering them. A few will be presented. In those states in which public junior colleges have developed, data concerning the amount of support necessary for an adequate junior college program are being assembled. Dr. Judd¹ in his comments on the development of the junior college as a phase of American education supports the conclusion of Dr. L. V. Koos, who has set the following requirements: (1) That the community should be at least 30,000 population; (2) That the enrollment should be at least 200; and (3) That the community should spend from at least \$185 to \$215 per capita, depending on the method of determining

¹Judd, Ch. H., *Problems of Education in the United States*, p. 65.

the number of students in the college. Holy, who has studied middle western conditions, set the population at 17,000, the assessed evaluation at \$30,000,000 if the local district carried total cost, and an enrollment of 150.¹

In his careful analysis of criteria, Dr. W. C. Eells suggests as a reasonable assessed valuation at \$15,000,000, high-school enrollment of 500, but he emphasizes quite rightly the importance of a survey as a method of determining the location of a junior college.²

The second fiscal problem of junior colleges concerns itself with the sources of support. Local junior colleges receive state support in two states, California and Mississippi.³ Opinion varies from that of total support from the state to complete support from local taxation. Most authorities agree that the public junior college should be a part of the local secondary educational system. Three state surveys of higher education in Texas, California, and Georgia have made such pronouncements. However, this is not to say that junior colleges shall receive no state aid. They should receive aid along with other units of secondary education. It is generally conceded by all serious students of educational support that more of the burden of support must rest on the state instead of on the local taxing unit. In these recent days many advocates of public education are demanding federal support for education. If the principle of equalization of education is carried to its logical and practical conclusion some states must receive Federal aid. Dr. Groves of the University of Wisconsin, a leading tax expert in this country and a former tax adviser of the Treasury Department, advocates the inclusion of education in the Federal budget.³ But the slowness with which state legislatures have responded to the need of equalizing educational opportunities within states and the tardiness of the Federal Government in responding to the dire needs of the schools of

¹Holy, T. C., "Criteria of Establishment of Public Junior Colleges," *Thirteen Yearbook of the Department of Secondary Principals of the National Education Association*, Bulletin No. 25, pp. 308-18.

²Eells, W. C., *The Junior College*, pp. 556-573.
op: cit. pp. 556-573.

³Groves, H. M., "A Tax Policy for the United States," *The New Republic*, 77: 357 (February 1934)

this country would indicate that public opinion will have to be more thoroughly aroused if any radical changes are made in support of education.

If the junior college is to be the terminus of general education and thus round out the secondary school, then there can be little argument that it shall be a tuition free institution. I cannot see how any other conclusion can be derived if the premise is granted. True, in an emergency, exceptions must be made. Likewise, more adequate methods of equalizing funds must be derived, but the fundamental principle remains. Can we afford more public education? The students of public finance say we have the wealth. The question is: Do we desire to spend more of our national income for education? If the public agrees, the responsibility is on the schools to make good an increased investment!

Problem of Organization.—If it is agreed that the public junior college can be supported, then what form shall the junior college of the future take? A separate institution called the college or junior college? A three year institution? Which? At present it is decidedly a two year institution or the lower division of a four year college of liberal arts. There are strong advocates of the six-four-four plan. There are equally strong advocates who believe this new institution should be a two year organization. If one takes a single community the recent survey of the Pasadena plan of organization presents very convincing evidence of the feasibility of the six-four-four plan. Dr. W. M. Proctor, who directed the survey, says: "The Director of Research Studies can say unhesitatingly that the four year high school as it has been developed in that city under the existing six-four-four plan is both an administrative and educational success."¹ He supplies a large amount of data to support the efficiency of this plan, such as:

1. Pasadena with a six-four-four organization is at the top of cities of her size in holding power.

¹Proctor, W. M., *The Six-Four-Four Plan of Organization in Pasadena*, p. 89 and pp. 191-196

2. Over half (52%) of the students are enrolled in terminal and vocational courses. This refutes the commonly accepted statement that students will not enter non-college preparatory courses.

3. A careful study of 14,000 children in four California communities in regard to physical maturity revealed that certainly a four year span including grades 11 to 14 is no more a violation of homogeneity than a four year span embracing grades 9 to 12 inclusive.

4. The faculty of the junior college believe the combination junior college and senior high school affords better curriculum and extra-curriculum opportunities. It must be remembered that this evidence is taken from one junior college and consequently no generalizations of country-wide proportions can be made. However it is sufficient to warrant serious consideration and to stimulate further investigation.

In the National Survey of Secondary Education, Dr. L. V. Koos has appraised all of the significant experiments in reorganization of the junior college. He has looked upon the movement as a whole. He concludes:¹

"The foregoing analytical description of the special organization considered has been accompanied by a partial attempt at appraisal, sometimes factual and sometimes speculative. Although the brief examination that has been possible finds most, if not all, to be promising innovations, no one of them has reached a stage that it does not require further scrutiny and further improvement in the light of results of such scrutiny."

The interesting facts are: (1) That there is serious experimentation in this field of organization; and (2) That the thesis of reorganization for economy of time and integration warrants further study. Other parts of the educational system could well afford to emulate this willingness to test results by critical methods instead of by dogmatic assertions. There is considerable evidence to the effect that notwithstand-

¹Koos, L. V., "The Training of Junior College Teachers," *Junior College Journal*, 4:164, (January 1934)

ing the opposition of most accrediting agencies to any sort of organic connection between the junior college and the senior high schools, there are in reality many administrative connections. Let me cite two cases: (1) Approximately seven-eighths of the public junior colleges and almost three-fourths of the State junior colleges are housed on the same sites of the high school;¹ (2) Dr. Koos reports that in a survey of the junior colleges in California almost two-thirds of the instructors carried teaching responsibilities at both high-school and junior-college levels.²

What place will the junior college hold in the school organization of to-morrow? Dr. C. H. Judd, who has never been given to making futile prophecies, thinks that the American school system of the future will be composed of a six-year elementary system preceded by a nursery school unit or kindergarten unit or both, and a six-year secondary school composed of a lower and upper division. The upper division will include a present junior-college organization. He presents a challenge in this fashion:

"What is needed in the United States and what is being vaguely demanded by society is a new scheme of education. The details of this scheme cannot and will not be determined by the vested interests of the present administrative units. They will be determined by the results of studies which utilize the techniques of psychology and the other social sciences."³

Problem of Function.—Organization makes possible functional changes. What are the functions of the junior college? Is it to be a replica of the first two years of the standard college? Is it to be a vocational school? Is it to be a diluted college for those who cannot succeed under the rigid discipline of higher education? Is it to be a terminal institution? Isthmian in character? A people's college? An institution for

¹Spaulding, F. T., Frederick, O. I., and Koos, L. V., *The Reorganization of Secondary Education*, pp. 414-415.

²Koos, L. V., "The Training of Junior College Teachers," *Junior College Journal*, 4:166, (January 1934)

³Report of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, State Higher Education in California, p. 34.

education of adults? A post-graduate course in the senior high school? The best statement I can present to you is that made by the Commission of Seven on State Higher Education in California. It says:

"The junior college period is the last stage of the upper or secondary period of common schooling, the dominant purpose of which is general to all the purposes of civilized life in so far as different students wish to or can achieve them."¹

"The Commission recommends that it be the policy of the State Board of Education to recognize that the system of junior-college education may properly include groups of functions or services, five in number, as follows: (1) Social intelligence, (2) Specialized vocational, (3) Pre-professional, (4) Pre-academic, and (5) Adult."²

One can readily see that the junior college is to be a unit in the school system and that it has multiple functions. It is broadly conceived to take care of the advanced needs of secondary education. The discussion of the curriculum adjustment will include more detailed account of the manner in which these functions are to be carried out, but a brief explanation may be necessary to understand some of the terms. The social intelligence curriculum is an innovation in secondary offering in that it provides for rounding out the general education of the student by giving him a unitary conception of our developing civilization. It is functional in character; it endeavors to acquaint the student with the insistent problems, the workings, and the agencies of contemporary life. Vocational curricula which for years have been the sole concern of the technical institute, have been instituted in the larger junior colleges. These courses are terminal in character in that they prepare the junior-college student for entrance into the out-of-school life. As yet, adult education has not been closely identified with the junior college. If the junior college of the future is to be the capstone of the educational system of most communities, then what better service

¹Ibid, p. 35.

²*Report of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching*, State Higher Education in California, p. 34.

could it perform than that of meeting the educational needs of adults of the community? With the radical changes in the economic life, there can be little doubt that adult education will be one of the community's major concerns. If the junior college does not meet this challenge some other agency will. The task of making the junior college more than a college preparatory institution will require radical change in popular belief. The belief that there can be any other kind of higher education than that found in the college of liberal arts is strange and new. The idea that adults after college graduation should return to school is fantastic. Yet just this seems to be what the future holds. If the junior college meets the challenge to become the people's college, it must have multiple functions. It cannot cater to one group, however worthy that group is. To serve effectively the advancing needs for higher education, it must be an institution most sensitive to the great changes in economic, political, and social life.

Problem of Curriculum Articulation.—In light of an integrated upper secondary unit the problem of reorganization of the curriculum is the most neglected problem with which we are faced. If the chief objective of the senior high-school-junior-college unit is to round out the period of general education, then much attention should be paid to the nature of general or liberal education. The issue is this: Is there anything resembling continuous education between the curricula of senior high school and the junior college when there is such disparity in aim and content? Let me be a little more explicit. If one takes the time to analyze the changes that are taking place in the curricula of the liberal arts colleges of this country, I believe he will find a surprisingly large number that are reorganizing their junior-college courses with the view of giving the student a survey of modern knowledge and its relation to contemporary life. Of course, there is yet much to be done. Let us in a more or less dogmatic way differentiate the nature of the older and the newer types of the curriculum organization in the secondary field:

Older Type

Educational experience made up of many small, isolated, detailed units of learning.

Accomplishment of learning expressed in terms of summation of certain numbers of unrelated credits or hours. A cultivation of unrelated courses.

Subjects or courses kept in compartments; boundaries strictly observed.

Materials logically organized, especially in terms of needs of subject development.

Learning of isolated facts, principles, etc.

Tool value stressed.

Use mainly for future; courses are introductory to a next course.

Newer Type

Educational experience made up of well integrated patterns of learning which continue to expand into larger implications.

Accomplishment of learning expressed in terms of ability to use things learned; especially in terms of solving one's immediate problems and obtaining insights and meanings.

The inter-relations between meanings and courses are stressed; the various aspects of a phase of civilized life are presented.

Materials organized psychologically in terms of the student's need of orientation and growth. These must in turn be logically organized.

Learning of attitude, facts, methods and principles meaningful to the learner.

Thinking which will reconstruct one's living is sought.

Use mainly in the present to orient the student to his own growth in a changing environment.

If the newer objectives dominate the curriculum of the unified upper secondary school, certain changes may be expected, such as: (1) A relatively fewer courses than exist at present; (2) Broader or more inclusive courses similar to survey courses; (3) Courses that continue for the four years instead of a semester; (4) A great deal of integration or fusing of subjects similar to courses in junior high school but of a much more advanced nature; (5) Inclusion of more fields such as psychology, philosophy, and *certainly* the fine arts; (6) Greater stress on the significance of contemporary life; (7) Promising innovations in the field of curriculum construction such as unit organization of materials.

If one is seeking suggestions regarding the type of curriculum that may be expected in the newer junior college, he

may well consider the curriculum of the General College of the University of Minnesota. The objectives of the courses are well stated in the following extracts:

"The General College of the University is designed primarily to provide broad intellectual training to that large body of students who seek an overview of life and of man's activities rather than specialized study. . . . These new courses tend to build in the mind of the intelligent student a background of understanding of the present world. They give him the vital comprehension of what other men and women do. They teach him also why and how things are done. They should, therefore, serve to satisfy his intellectual curiosity and to prepare him for enlightened living in his public and private relations."¹

Director McClean and his associates have shown their ability to construct a curriculum which admirably carries out this objective of social intelligence. A list of the courses will aid one in understanding how inclusive has been their aim. Some of the courses are: *Basic Wealth*—a course designed to give the student a realistic picture of the basic sources of all wealth, natural resources, plant life, and animal life; *Human Biology*—general biological concepts in relation to mankind, the human body, its structure and operation, and personal and community health; *Our Economic Life*; *Technology*; *Euthenics*—which include the management of the home, house planning and furnishing, textiles, food and nutrition, and designing and financing the home—open to both men and women; *Appreciation of the Fine Arts*; *Background of the Modern World*; *Formation of Public Opinion*—which includes shaping public thinking; the newspaper and periodical and their functions, propaganda campaigns; *Human Development and Personal Adjustment*—personal and applied psychology and mental hygiene; *Vocations*; *Earth and Man*; *Biography*; and *Education of the Modern World*.

Are these courses and others like them the type of content our senior high schools need? It may be that such courses

¹General College of the University of Minnesota, 36:7 (July 27, 1933)

would not be adaptable to the intellectual and social level of the senior high-school student, but this question can only be settled experimentally. On the other hand, the tested experiences of such junior colleges as Long Beach, Stephens, Kansas City, and Pasadena would restrain one from making the bold assertion that juniors and seniors in the present senior high school are incapable of a quality of work comparable to that of college freshmen. Liberality in removing restrictions for the benefit of honest experimentation by such accrediting agencies as the North Central Association is falsifying the old excuse that standing of high-school pupils will be jeopardized. Little objection can be expected from the colleges. Just what effect such a fundamental reorganization of content would have upon the curricula of the junior college and senior college is problematical. Koos and others have shown that for over one hundred years there has been a gradual settling of the college courses into the senior high school. With the democratization of education, there is little reason to believe that this movement has stopped.

To those who hold that one of the major objectives of the senior-high-school-junior college is to prepare students for academic or professional work, there can be no objection. However, there is a growing accumulation of evidence that this job is not being done in a uniform way. I refer to findings in the Pennsylvania Study of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. The wide variation among the graduates of high schools of the same rank and the varied accomplishments among the graduates of the same high school have led Dr. W. S. Learned and others to advocate the possibility of the accreditation of individuals and not of institutions.¹ Certainly a serious study of the curriculum requirements of those who intend to take professional or specialized academic education would be very much to the point. The techniques that Dr. W. W. Charters has employed in the determination of the curricula of professional schools and of that of determining prerequisites hold interesting possibil-

¹Learned, W. S., *College Admission and Guidance*, A Reprint from the Educational Record, pp. 11-37.

ities. His techniques would determine elements, such as facts, principles, and traits instead of the traditional method of requiring a new grouping of existing subjects. To what extent these differentiated curricula will contain the same content no one can say. Many advocates of the new education hold as a tenable hypothesis that a genuine functional curriculum which serves the living interests of youth will be the best preparation for academic and professional studies. In support of this contention are two facts: (1) The increasing demand of professional schools that students who aim to enter them must have more general or liberal education; and (2) The realization in the fields of technical education that a broader education is mandatory for making the individual more adaptable to technological changes.

But any curriculum reorganization without provisions for student guidance would be educational waste. In addition greater provisions for individual instruction, and better methods of measurement must be made. But discussion of these problems deserves more time than I have at my disposal.

Summary.—By way of summary let me return to the two major issues concerning the future of the public junior college, namely: (1) Adequate support to make it a free institution; and (2) Its reorganization to make it in truth the people's college. Both of these issues are bound up with the problems of democracy in education and of democracy in society. Despite isolated attacks and too frequent experiences that can be enumerated, the American people have determined that the elementary and high school shall be free public institutions. They have not so determined that higher education shall be free to all. In light of our historic tradition of free education, evidence that youth will increasingly be barred from the economic life, and of the need of more education to carry on our institutional life, and of our material wealth to support more education, can we say that the American nation has decided to limit free educational opportunities to twelve years of schooling? Can a democratic nation depend for its own existence upon the discarded theory of education that twelve years of schooling will provide enough of intellectual

stimulation to guarantee learning and adequate adaptations throughout life? Can a democracy that is rapidly displacing an outworn economic theory of rugged individualism, hold to an analogous theory in education? The public junior college is and will be the front line of the struggle between the advocates of democracy and dictatorship.

With Harrison C. Lyseth, State Supervisor of Secondary Education of Maine, presiding in Parlor A, Professor J. Paul Leonard, of William and Mary, opened the program at 2:30 P. M. with his paper on *The Course of Study in Secondary-School English*.

THE COURSE OF STUDY IN SECONDARY-SCHOOL ENGLISH

DR. J. PAUL LEONARD

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Williamsburg, Virginia

If we accept as sound the policy of universal secondary education, we have the guide for determining the function of the secondary school and a basis for understanding the characteristics of its personnel. To unify our approach to the study of the high-school curriculum, let us pause a moment to examine these matters of function and personnel.

We are confused in principle, restricted in content and instructional materials, and controlled by the requirements of the college. Yet we have the equipment and a sufficient number of pupils to dominate the situation if we chose to do so. An organization like the Department of Secondary-School Principals has the potential power to unify nationally our concept of the purpose of secondary education, to liberate the high-school child from the oppression of college dominance, to construct a curriculum suited to the growth of the adolescent child, and to exert a vigorous and unrelenting leadership in demanding the replacement of the present program with the new. Singly we are ineffective; collectively we could dictate.

We need courage to defy tradition and an educational program to prepare children to accept change. If the public schools cannot get support from those they have educated, we *are indeed* in need of a change, for our pupils have not caught the highest purpose of education—the capacity to keep on growing. To teach children how we got the way we are is important, and we have labored early and late to make certain that our pupils know that; verily, we have sacrificed our joys of living that they might repeat that accurately. But where are we going? Now, as never before, change is the order of the day. The present situation in America gives us an opportunity for which we have been waiting. If we miss this chance, we miss the greatest privilege we have ever been given. To meet this opportunity what shall be our program? What shall be the function of the secondary school in present society? I shall not here review critically previously formed statements of the purpose of the secondary school, neither shall I propose a list of functions. You have a committee working on that task now. I do wish, however, to present and to develop briefly three challenges which the secondary school must face, challenges which demand unity and synthesis of content commonly presented as organized bodies of knowledge.

First of all, we must give meaning to the struggle of man for the achievement of his ambitions and desires. All struggles have been by natural law fundamentally individual, but some have exploited society, while others have advanced it. One man achieves his ambitions by subjugation of his fellow men. He compels men to die for his conquest. He crushes to achieve. Such has been the history of ruthless industrial leaders and of imperialistic nations.

Another man guards his own freedom by protecting that of all men. He believes in the principle so excellently expressed by Thomas Paine: "He that would make his own liberty secure must guard even his enemy from oppression; for if he violates this duty, he establishes a precedent that will reach to himself." The boomerang of freedom through oppression has come home to us the last four years more force-

fully than ever before. By sharing, we prosper; by enslaving, we suffer. This, I say, must be impressed upon the child, and our secondary school must accept the teaching of this principle as one of its major purposes. The story of man's struggle becomes our content; the inculcation of the ideal of protection for all, our aim.

In the second place, we must explore the possibilities in our present social order. What are our resources? Never before have they been so bountiful. That we have starving amidst plenty, that we have work to be done, that we have idle materials with which to shelter and clothe ourselves, that we have machinery to ease our burden is common knowledge. Man's endurance of necessary hardships with fortitude is his heritage and is to his glory, but to accept planned defeat in a world that could be gracious is a disgrace to his courage. Man will not continue to embrace that which gives him displeasure and which destroys his self-respect. The surest way to inspire him to secure the essentials of life is to build our curriculum around such possibilities, and so to teach them that a determination to secure an equitable share of these resources will become virtually a religion with the child. This may well become a second principle.

Following these two challenges, a third suggests itself—what can we do about it? Needless to say, no one knows the exact pattern our future society will take, but there are signs and signals, there are already indications that definite patterns are being formed. How can we all be sure of food and clothing? How can we have reasonable economic security? How can we obtain the freedom which scientific achievements make possible? In other words, how can we order our living so as to achieve those ambitions and desires arising from the potentialities of modern resources? "But," you say, "you want a heaven." I answer, "No, I want relief from the earthly torments of Hell." A planned society is what I am talking about, planned for the protection of all men. This may become a third principle, and these three concepts—a belief in the principle of freedom through sharing, a grasp of the potentialities of modern life, and a determination to secure an

equitable distribution of social resources—represent a challenge to the builder of the secondary-school curriculum who desires to meet the problems of mass education in modern society.

Let us pause just a minute to glance at our secondary-school population. There is a characteristic of the modern adolescent which definitely distinguishes it from the youth of previous generations. It is an attitude of mind, a way of thinking and living, and arises from the very fibre and elements of the society in which we live.

The pattern of life into which our present youth are born is a curiously complicated one. There is no dominant Puritan religious ideal, no great unified desire for the exploration of land, no combined loyalty to any common cause which solidifies our ideals and endeavors, such as we had during the civil and world war periods of our history; even devotion to the common aim of great industrial expansion as waning. We have divided loyalties, debated values, divergent causes. Such a state of society gives youth instability. What we were once sure of, we now doubt; those things we thought secure have perished; those ideals to which we formerly clung vigorously have been abandoned, our older codes of ethics have been invalidated.

At one time in our history there existed a body of knowledge which seemed conclusive and infallible; our schools seized upon it and called it minimum essentials. There was a respect for the authority of the written word, for the teacher, the minister, the banker, the judge, and for the aged. Youth was asked to accept the pattern of society which he had inherited, to bear the load of life, and to pass on the burdens to the next generation. But one word youth has learned spoils all—the pregnant word *Why*. Youth cries out: "*Why* must I accept? *Why* must things be this way? *Why* must I support the present conditions *Why* not change? *Why* should I not use my own intellect to devise a better civilization?" "Our father's generation made a mess of life," they say, "why must I promise to perpetuate his causes or why must I ever pay for his

errors?" That which the laws of nature force them to accept, youth will uphold, and with fortitude, too; but that which man devises to impose, youth will reject. The point is well illustrated by the attitude of the present German youth who refuse to spend their lives in poverty to pay a debt of war incurred by their fathers. Deplore the attitude as we may, the fact remains that the tendency is a reality, and an encouraging one, because if accepted by the present generation it should be a blessing to future children. Inquiry into truth is the attitude of the high-school children; to call it impertinence is to admit our own inability to educate them, for simultaneously we indicate that our own education has stopped, and a person who neglects this modern inquiry into truth is unsafe as a director of youth. Some of these "little rascals," as we long to call them, "have empires in their brains," empires the nature of which we have not dreamed. For these children, much of our old curriculum we can use no more.

So much for a basic understanding to give us a unity of approach to the curriculum problem. With an acceptance of these challenges to secondary education, which I have just outlined, and with a full realization of the modern characteristics of our high-school population, we are ready to approach the main problem set before us—what sort of a secondary course in English shall we offer?

We need not waste time reviewing the present condition in English in our secondary schools to-day. You know that—you attended them and you now administer them. If you feel you need some help, read Miss Dora Smith's recent monograph called *Instruction in English*, one of the bulletins of the National Survey of Secondary Education. She reports very succinctly the condition in our secondary schools to-day.

Our first task becomes the formulation of a sound point of view for the teaching of English in the high school. Such a point of view must necessarily evolve from a study of the purposes of the secondary school and from an understanding of the particular contributions which the subject of English should make to the major aims of secondary education. Re-

duced to its simplest terms English (as a subject) deals with *expression*—the expression of the child and the expression of the artist; the one we pedagogues have dubbed composition; the other, literature. To clear our thinking for the moment let us substitute the word *expression* for the word *English* as a high-school subject. Part of the course would then be planned to teach the child to express himself, and part to teach him to understand the expression of others. The key to all expression is experience; expression is, therefore, the source of literary art and the substance of the child's speaking and writing. The two then are inseparable. In a finer sense, one can no more divorce literature and composition than he can separate art from experience. We cannot go far toward synthesizing our English course until we end the dichotomous division between composition and literature. In saying this I realize the practical danger, for we still have teachers who ask children to write on "Why Brutus failed." Let me treat each phase of expression separately for a moment—expression of the child, and expression of the artist.

"Man is only half himself; the other half is his expression," wrote Emerson. The alert English teacher will show the child that man has always endeavored to express himself; he wanted to make permanent his best ideas. He tried pictures and symbols on stones and trees, he tried music with its power to give vent to moods, he tried to dance, to paint, to fashion stone and wood into permanent form, but his greatest social invention was his language, through which he could inform, give moods, paint pictures, and preserve experiences. When the child enters school, he desires to express himself; when he graduates from high school, he can't be persuaded to write an experience or a feeling. School theme writing has done the trick. Let us, once and for all, get clear in our minds that our present brand of theme writing never did teach children to write and never will. It violates the first principle of creative expression—a desire to make permanent a thought substance or a genuine human experience. In the conventional theme both the substance and the desire are gone. The last blow we administer is the requirement that the child must

punctuate his writing correctly. The theme wasn't worth writing, let alone worth punctuating.

Let me offer a few suggestions for the school's expressional phase of English. Man *writes* and *speaks* his experiences, ideas, and feelings. Both require the same substance, experience; but each has its mechanical characteristics. Oral expression is man's most common medium of expression. It should receive major attention. The natural spoken language of the child is usually his most creative work; that is, it is his truly expressed feelings, ideas, and experiences. Emphasize that. Substitute the development of speaking for the writing of silly themes. Stress oral expression. Encourage it and help the child to do it more effectively by enriching his experiences and by correcting his form. His spoken word is an evidence of his thought, his education, and his culture. Help him to express more effectively his experiences, to organize clearly his ideas, to speak with dignity his feelings, to present forcefully his arguments, and to tell beautifully his passions. Organize your instruction around social centers of oral expression: social convention, relating stories and incidents, interviews, class discussion and questioning, participation in meetings of organizations, telephoning, speaking before groups, buying and selling, and entertaining. Spare the assignment of topics for reports and for what we call *oral composition day*, and seize every spoken sentence as an opportunity to develop a desire to talk and to produce a finer form of expression. Experience, I repeat, is the key word, not yours or the teacher's, but the *child's* experience. Not much else the child knows is worth talking about. Oral expression is not a school activity for given class periods; it is a continuous school experience. Cultivate it always, coax it frequently, and assign it rarely. Make every day and every period an opportunity for growth in the power of oral expression.

Written expression is a somewhat different thing. One writes either to preserve an idea or to present it to one whom he cannot meet fact to face. Like oral expression, the substance of written thought is experience. We have failed on two counts effectively to teach written expression. First, we have

forced writing on topics of inconsequence to anyone. What teacher has not cried, "Oh for a composition of maritous ideas." Again the child's failure is a result of our own inefficiency. And, in the second place, we have taught composition writing as the means of obtaining mechanical correctness. We need less writing in school, not more. Writing must be an opportunity, not a task, and it can become so if the child is allowed completely to saturate himself with ideas and experiences before he can have the privilege of writing. This may sound queer to one who has never tried it, but it *can* be done; *it is being done*. Cultivate ideas, enrich experience, write less, and teach form and correctness as a means of refining some idea worth preserving. Center the teaching of writing around functional social centers of written expression—the friendship letter, the business letter, informal short social notes and school notes, reports to organizations and special groups, verses and short stories, diaries, criticisms, explanations, personal opinion articles and descriptions, telegrams, formal social notes, and memoranda.

Our schools are cultivating much unnatural bookish form in adolescent expression. We try to teach style; we succeed only in making imitators. Doubtless, most of the elements of style are quite beyond teaching, for it springs from the endowment of the writer himself. As English teachers we had better stay, then, where we can do most effective work. Mr. C. H. Ward makes a convincing case for the belief that the arrangement of the parts of a sentence is the most teachable element of style. He proposes, though, the study of syntax to improve and to correct sentence form, using grammar to secure good style in composition. Here one faces the polemic question of the place of grammar.

Doubtless no other traditional subject in school has been open to recent discussion more than grammar. Because of its controversial nature I shall dwell upon it at length. Claims made for the value of grammar have been plentiful—all the way from disciplining the mind to improving sentence structure. It has been taught formally and informally. We have listed it separately, and have squeezed it into the course inci-

dentally. In recent years the validity of nearly all the claims of formal grammar has been challenged, and research students have clearly and convincingly demonstrated that many of these claims have little weight. Dr. Briggs early disproved the disciplinary values of grammar; the late S. A. Leonard labored accurately to convince us that our language is changing and that only pedagogues insist on certain constructions. Stormzand and O'Shea and Rivlin have attempted to list for us the items of grammar which do possess the best teaching values. For the most recent lists of functional grammar examine the article of Miss Verna Newsome in the January 1934 issue of the High-School Edition of the *English Journal*, and my own list in the November 1933 issue of the same periodical. A comparison of the two will reveal an attempt on the one hand to pare grammar down to almost no content, and on the other hand to preserve those items which seem to have potential value until further research can give more convincing evidence. I prefer to reserve judgment and to experiment with children.

We all agree that the child should be taught grammar by someone else, and we probably all agree that only functional grammar should be emphasized. By definition an item of grammar is said to be functional when the knowledge of it "will prevent the commission of an error in English or will assist in the correction of an error already made."¹ But this definition is easy of misinterpretation due to teachers' preconceptions of the function of grammar, and it cannot be applied as a principle until we know definitely which items of grammar actually function in speaking and writing. The knowledge of whether an item actually functions in sentence structure cannot be determined from an intensive and scholarly study of the history and growth of English grammar; nor is it likely to be discovered by a study of the collection of expert opinion; yet, one of our best investigations of this problem rests its major conclusion on the validity of this assumption. Such a study of the expert opinion of English grammar

¹Rivlin, Harry N. *Functional Grammar*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, Number 435. 1930. p. 61.

scholars may tell us what items of grammar possess potential functional values. After the question of possibility has been determined by such a study, the matter of certainty—that is, whether a knowledge of grammar *will* prevent or correct errors—must be determined by an experimental study of the transfer of the knowledge of grammar to its effectiveness in preventing or correcting errors in the actual oral and written expression of children. We have some good evidence to show us what items of grammar possess possible functional values; but, to my knowledge, we have none of importance to tell us the actual transfer values of these items. The answer to this question awaits further experimentation. Consequently, while we honestly advocate the teaching of functional grammar, by misapplication of the principle and by lack of the knowledge of those items of grammar which are actually functional, we continue to teach formal grammar.

We must, first, I have said determine carefully and accurately by experimentation the functional value of each item of English grammar; and we must, in the second place, determine the transfer values of the knowledge of each item. In the third place, we must decide on the grade placement of each item of functional grammar. Language work now has a tendency to precede the developing maturity of the child and to anatomize every sentence and teach the syntax of every element. Language is a vehicle of thought, not a corpse for dissection, and its teaching must parallel the mental growth of the child. Teaching subordination, for example, before the child thinks in terms of complex thought patterns is wasteful. The very nature of such teaching breaks down the functional concept. Here is an excellent and most needed field for experimentation. Studies need to be made to determine the normal language growth of children and to discover where items are most economically learned. There probably is a best time, psychologically speaking, to teach each of the grammatical items. It would be helpful also to know what growths in thought processes are necessary for effective expression.

Until these facts can be determined, what then? I suggest that we take the results of the best studies already made

to show us what items seem to possess the greatest functional values; then choose those items which seem to offer the most satisfactory possibilities for the sound education of the high-school child. These choices must be changed as new facts are revealed. We already have enough evidence, for instance, to show that the teaching of such qualities of nouns as the following possesses little or no functional values: classification of nouns into abstract, concrete, and common; uses of nouns as substantives and as adjectives; nominative and objective cases of nouns; person, and predicate nouns. We are justified in eliminating these from the high-school course. Other eliminations may be secured from an examination of the literature of the field. After these eliminations have been made, the remaining grammatical items which are considered functional may be grouped into the following six major functional concepts of sentence use: (1) Complete sentence concept; (2) Subject element; (3) Predicate element; (4) Modification element; (5) Connective element; (6) Refinements of expression in sentence structure and diction. These grammatical items should then be distributed by years into the junior and senior high school. One principle I should like to emphasize forcefully—Teach no organized grammar in the elementary school. Cycle the items of functional grammar throughout the secondary-school period. The vicious habit of putting all items of grammar in the seventh and eighth grades and expecting the child to remember them throughout his remaining school years will never produce satisfactory results.

Punctuation like grammar has been over-emphasized in our schools; as techniques they have been put above substance and inspiration. The following of rigid rules and the inclusion of an abundance of punctuation are traditions of an earlier educational system. We have been taught never to think of the word *therefore*, for instance, without associating two commas with it. Clarity of expression is the only purpose of punctuation. The idea to be conveyed, not a rule to be followed, determines the need for punctuation. I remember seeing once a manuscript of Stevenson's on the margin of which was written a plea to the printer to put commas where Steven-

son had put them and nowhere else. From printer to teacher we are proofreaders of the works of others. Do not teach punctuation by rules, present it as a means of making clear the ideas the writer wishes to convey to the reader. A safe rule, I think, to give to the child is: *Never use a punctuation mark unless the omission of it makes the sentence ambiguous.*

Like grammar, the study of literature has been a tradition in American secondary schools. From the Old Deluder Satan Act to the present, we have feared that learning might be buried in the graves of our forefathers; and the term learning applied to literature has meant the classics. In fact, someone has defined a classic as a literary selection read only in school. We have, therefore, made the study of literature a labor instead of a pleasure; a lesson to be learned, not a source of enjoyment and the sharing of experience. The content of our course is remarkably similar to that of the past century, our analytic method of teaching, too, has changed slowly. As Lewisohn says, "We operate as though literature, the fullest and most continuous expression of man's life, had stood still in all but outward fashion, while philosophy and statecraft and science had been wholly transformed in the ever swifter currents of time." Our school traditions about literature have darkened our minds about it.

Let me hasten to say that I have no quarrel with the classics. I, as every teacher of literature must do, turn to them again and again; I accept many of their thoughts as universal, as expressing all times and moods. But we must forever remember that the appreciation of an adult is a growth, and that many of the classics were never written for children to read; they speak of human experiences which a child has never shared. Our sole criteria for the selection of literature for teaching in our secondary school cannot be: Is the selection a classic? or, Was it written long enough ago to have stood the test of time? What then shall be our criteria? What should be the characteristics of these selections?

First, of all, I wish to emphasize a point I made earlier. A child is drawn to a selection, first, if it presents experi-

ences he can share. Does he share with the author a feeling or an idea? Does "Mind touch mind?"¹ Is the experience expressed by the author within the child's real behavior or imagination? If it is not, we must acquaint him with it later in his school life. If he ever knows it, he will be better off than if he meets it and resents it. This criterion of experience corresponds with Dewey's concept, "When we experience something, we act upon it, we do something with it; then we undergo or suffer the consequences—we learn something."² If the selection meets this criterion of shared experience then we are ready to apply to it the next measure—Is the expression of the author's experience genuine? Is it a true expression of the creative spirit? Is it a true and accurate record of a reality or is it mere propaganda? This second criterion will rule out much we have taught and bring in much we have overlooked. Poems of mere sentiment, tales for the amusement of polished life, lovely and dignified but unreal maxims of life and death, stories of serene acceptance of needless oppression, expression of untrue feelings even though they be written in good and respectable moral prose and poetry would be discarded for stories of real human experience and of man's determination to subdue tyranny and oppression, and for poetry of vigor and power expressing the true feelings and profound experience of men of all times. We can check our selections by Longfellow's "monition" to writers—the one he gave but did not follow:

"That is best which lieth nearest;
Shape from that thy work of art."

Do our selections, then, portray accurately the genuine experiences of the author? We cannot measure our selections by the leisure or aristocracy of the author. With probably two exceptions, the spirituals of the enslaved negroes are worth more as literature than the writings of their genteel masters. So are the cowboy ballads truer expression of life than much of the polished smugness of many of our New England writers. This comparison brings into bold relief our criterion of

¹Lewisohn, Ludwig. *Expression in America*. Harpers, 1932.

²Dewey, John. *Democracy and Education*. Macmillan, 1916.

mere artifice. An expression of the heart may be crude, but if it is genuine, it is more helpful to modern youth than polished language copied from an age of prudishness.

A third criterion seems to be: Is the language used within the understanding of the child? Is the thought abstract? Are sentences long and involved? Is the vocabulary too difficult? Most of the studies on vocabulary difficulty, including the recent one of the National Council of Teachers of English, have been disappointing. They have not determined difficulty accurately enough for use. They have shown us that major difficulty does not reside chiefly in vocabulary. Abstractness of thought element and complexity of sentence pattern seem to present more of a deterrent to understanding than word difficulty. Doubtless this is related to both of the first two criteria I have suggested. These three criteria—shared experience, genuine expression of the creative spirit, and language within the comprehension of the child—suggest that literary selections must present detailed accurate records of experiences within the realm of child thought and imagination which are written in the fresh natural speech of people—not the language of books—and phrased in a clear, simple and vigorous style. Such literature may do things to children—enrich their experience, refine their emotions, command their appreciation, and carry them into the realm of imagination. It should at the same time make clear to them the fundamental forces in life and their effect upon men, and acquaint them with the way the creative spirit may find its supreme expression in the interpretation of life.

So much for the choice of literary selections. May I say just a word about method. If analysis be the price we must pay for appreciation, we have paid in full. As Aldrich says,

"We vivisect the nightingale
To probe the secret of its note."

But with literature as with the bird, we find the process of vivisection destroys the beauty we seek to find. We must seek the whole, the unity of the thought; that "the style is the man" will become obvious to the child later on. Fortunately,

we have ample research to convince us that we not only lose nothing by teaching literature extensively, but we gain much. Williams, Hosic, Coryell and others clearly show that by using the extensive method we gain greater width of vision, secure excellent preparation for further reading, get as good comprehension, cover many times as much material, and promote better interests. The extensive method proves to be as effective with low as with superior pupils, and, I cannot help but interject this for the benefit of the skeptical: Miss Coryell showed that groups taught by the extensive method passed college entrance board examinations just as well as her intensively taught groups.

So far, I have endeavored to present a point of view for the high-school course in English based on the acceptance of three challenges to curriculum organization. I have frequently indicated the approval or need of research. You are probably asking, "How can this material be put into a course of study for high-school English?"

One may retain in the high school an organized course in English to be taught as a separate subject, and one may even divide it into composition and literature and still achieve many of the objectives suggested in this paper. But a better approach would be a unified course built on the combination of literature and composition. One may do still better, I feel, by subordinating the organized course in English to a large major principle of curriculum organization and ask the subject to contribute its maximum values to the development of this principle. This idea is the basis of the Virginia State Curriculum Program and it is the development of that program which I wish to explain; not from a desire to tell you what we are doing, but to cite the organization as an example of an attempt to give the best answer to your question, How can the suggestions of this paper be put into a course of study?

In the first part of this paper I prepared you for this explanation by laying down three challenges for the secondary curriculum. The meeting of these challenges is a major purpose of the Virginia program. Fundamental to any curricu-

lum program is the determination of the aims of education. What do we want to do for or to children? Without the base of sound educational aims our program lacks proper direction; we are in the sand again. In Virginia we have set up our aims in terms of understandings, attitudes, appreciations, and abilities. Aims indicate the goals or objectives which the teacher and the school must assist the child to realize. The aims of our program are based on the needs and ideals of society and are not drawn from a study of traditional school subjects themselves. In order to secure an integration and an articulation of subject matter, we selected the major functions of social life and have endeavored to fuse these with the interests of children.

These major functions of social life were derived from an analysis of societies—past and present—and are the driving forces in life which have continued throughout all times. They are the persistent elements of civilization, the things for which men have always striven. These become independent variables to guide the selection of content. The following major functions of social life have been chosen: (1) Protection and conservation of life, property and natural resources; (2) Production of goods and services and distribution of the returns of production; (3) Consumption of goods and services; (4) Transportation of goods and people, and communication; (5) Exploration (geographical, industrial, and intellectual); (6) Recreation—for health, leisure and creative expression; (7) Education—formal and informal; (8) Extension of freedom—political, economic, social and intellectual; (9) Expression of aesthetic impulses; (10) Expression of religious impulses; (11) Integration of the individual.

These eleven major functions of social life become guides for the selection of content; our aims determine the direction the teaching shall take. For instance, these major functions demand that we show war as a means man has used to settle disputes, our aims demand that we show war as a social means which can no longer be tolerated.

In order to provide the scope and sequence of the eleven functions of social life, each of these has been broken up into

four statements, each one of which is an aspect of the major function. One of these aspects will be taught each year and all eleven aspects for each of the four years represent our integrated or core-field program.

One must of course have a criterion for determining the yearly aspect. That is, the phase of the problem to be developed each year. This in turn requires the establishment of another independent variable for each of the four years. These have been selected in terms of difficulty and an ever-expanding orientation of the child to social living. These variables are: For year one, a study of the *adaptation of our living through natural, social, and mechanical inventions and discoveries*; Year two, a study of our two major social orders, *industrialism and agrarianism and their effects upon our living*. These first two years' work give the child a background, as it were, a basis for the considerations of the third year: namely, the *effects of changing culture and changing social institutions upon our living*. With a knowledge of what we are and were, and from a study of *change* as such and the possibilities of the present order, we are ready for the work of the last year: what could be the *effects of a continuously planned democratic social order upon our living*? Briefly, the four years would be spent in studying: What were we? What are we? What are our possibilities; and, How can we plan to secure our needs and desires?

Let me illustrate for two of the major functions of social life. Take first the one on *protection of life, property, and natural resources*. Men have always tried to do it. The aspects of this function by years are as follows: First year, How and why do nature and agencies resulting from invention and discovery affect the protection and conservation of life and property? Second year, How and why does the change from an agrarian to an industrial order affect the use and conservation of natural resources? Year three, What advancement in the protection and conservation of life and property is essential in a changing society and how can it be achieved? Fourth year, How can nations through social planning guar-

antee to all the protection of life, property, and natural resources?

For a second example take the *expression of the aesthetic impulses*. The aspects of this function by years are as follows: First year, How does man's natural environment provide worth while opportunities for the cultivation of aesthetic expression? Second year, How do agrarianism and industrialism influence the development of our artistic resources and the adjustment of all individuals to their use? Third year, How do culture areas and changing social institutions influence the development of the fine arts? Fourth year, How can a planning society improve the quality of living for all by utilizing man's desire for beauty? When each of the major functions of social life has been broken up into four aspects, we have the scope and sequence chart which dictates the selection of our content.

The development of certain understandings, appreciations, and attitudes concerning the aspects of each of the eleven major functions of society becomes the chief purpose of our secondary-school program. By this process we synthesize the contents of the curriculum into a core-field program, as we have called it, which draws upon any and all subject matter needed to achieve the desired educational aims: understandings, appreciations, and attitudes. There are three essential organized fields which will contribute material to these aims: social science, natural science, and English. Music and art, too, are integrated with these core subjects. These subjects are then fused into one program and become the core-field course of study. Each subject does not contribute equally to every aspect, but each does make a major or minor contribution to nearly every aspect. For every aspect each subject teacher has an outline of the contribution which is possible for her subject field to make; and, through an administrative technique, these contributions are made simultaneously. Such an organization makes functional the learnings of each field. By way of aside, for it is not pertinent here, but the lack of information may worry you administrators, the study of the content of the core-field for all four years is to be required of

all children; the other subjects ordinarily taught may be offered as electives. In the first year only, the integrated program carries material from the fields of mathematics, agriculture, and home economics. This program for the first year requires the child's entire time.

With the program organized to this point the next step sets up a plan to make this material function in the classroom. We seek to do this by connecting the child's interests with definite activities, which when experienced may achieve the desired aims of education. The program, therefore, has an activity base, and for each activity we suggest the educational aim to be achieved, subject matter and experiences to be utilized, and procedures for effective teaching for the careful evaluation of results. Skills are set up separately, to be learned both incidentally through activities and by isolated drill.

Let me illustrate from two major functions of society to show how the English teacher contributes to the development of the concepts in two aspects of these major functions for the first year of the high school. You'll recall one of our major functions was *production and consumption of goods and services*. The aspect for the first year's study was, *How is society dependent upon plant life, animal life, and minerals?* With the social studies teacher, the child learns about such things as the occupations connected with the production of food and minerals and the interdependence of agriculture and industry; in the natural science class he studies mineral salts in food, the use of plants and animals as food, and the way food is manufactured by plants. In the English class the teacher shows the effects of nature, plants, and animals upon man socially and artistically. The English program then looks like this:

1. The contribution made by plants and animals to beauty in our lives; such as beauties of nature, seeing God through nature, nature as a subject for artistic expression.

2. Man's interest in plants and animals and minerals which takes the form of adventure; such as hunting throughout the ages, life in gold rushing areas, arctic adventures.

3. The pleasurable hobbies and pursuits provided man by nature; such as outdoor sports, exploring, tramping, traveling, etc.

4. Animals as friends and pets of man; such as beasts of burden, as protectors of life, and as subjects for art.

One more illustration will suffice, and here I shall confine myself only to the English phase of the aspects. I choose the *expression of the aesthetic impulses* for year 1, stated as follows: How does man's natural environment provide worth while opportunities for the cultivation of aesthetic expression? The English teacher assumes a major responsibility for teaching this aspect. She may treat her problem in the following manner:

1. A study of the forces in life which give rise to aesthetic expression, such as nature, love, and religion.

2. A study of the way man's environment affects his aesthetic expression.

3. An understanding of the mediums men use to express their aesthetic impulses becomes another phase of this problem: the brush, the chisel, music, and language.

4. Then a study of how each individual child may express in his own life his aesthetic impulses. Here is a splendid opportunity to do a much neglected thing: to help the child see beauty in his immediate environment and to discover ways to enjoy it and to express it.

5. A study of the standards we can use to judge the quality of aesthetic expression. This should begin early and must be developed gradually. It involves a study of the merit of the child's own expression as well as of the expression of others.

It is obvious that such a program is a marked departure from tradition, and the precedent of experience for it is lacking. It is also apparent that such an organization possesses the possibilities of providing for the integration of previously

isolated subject matter and makes functional the study of facts and understandings.

The future teacher must first be oriented to the life about her and to the dominant achievements of preceding generations. She must be taught the methods of synthesizing knowledge if she is to be able to teach it to children. The relation of science to the ideal of freedom; the kinship between economics, history, and sociology; and the place of art in the life of man must be presented as the forces of life which determine the patterns of our civilizations. And last, the teacher must support with fervor the ideals of the school in its attempt to plan for the giving of equality to all men. Such a program will require a reorganization of the college course, and will, doubtless, require four years of study followed by a year of professional preparation.

Modern life requires a new interpretation for modern youth who desire to seek truth. The secondary school as a social agency must meet the challenge of the demands of youth, whose belief in the principle of freedom through sharing the resources made possible by the advancement of science and by social inventions fires them with the determination to build a social order more equitably protecting the rights of all men. A new relation of the materials of instruction in the high school is required, a relationship between former isolated bodies of knowledge which will orient the youth to present civilization and prepare them to achieve their desires through social planning. English as a record of the expressions of men and as a medium of the expression of youth must assume its place in this new program, arranging its contributions to education so as to function in the thought life and the social intercourse of the adolescent child. Toward such a program in the secondary school we are moving. Our duty and our responsibility are clear and our opportunity is present. Not only is our reputation at stake, but our very existence is challenged. We must prepare modern youth to face a modern world, not only the world of the present, but the society of the future whatever form it may take. We can do no less and be true to the ideals we embrace.

Professor Junius L. Meriam read his paper, *The Traditional Curriculum of the High School Challenged by the Activity Curriculum of the Elementary School*.

THE TRADITIONAL CURRICULUM OF THE HIGH SCHOOL IS CHALLENGED BY THE ACTIVITY CURRICULUM OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

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I have taken the liberty to change the form of the title of this paper, from that assigned me, to its present form in order that I may emphasize the one curriculum as pitted against the other curriculum. The high school and the elementary school as distinct organizations are of less concern just now. Then, too, this title, in the form of a declarative sentence is indeed a declaration of opposition between two forces—and forces they are.

This title reminds me of numerous observations when a small boy on a farm. It was regarded for the welfare of the poultry division that occasionally a rooster from a neighbor's flock be introduced to our flock. There was usually a sharp conflict between the home rooster and the newcomer. The adult farmer is author of the saying: "A cock fights best on his own dung hill." However, sometimes the new rooster carries off the honors. Sometimes, too, there is an honorable draw between them.

Now I feel quite at home in both of these curriculum camps. But I wish to do more than merely look on at this "cock-fight." I prefer to play the role of umpire in this conflict. But do not expect a conflict between bantam roosters, but rather a Plymouth Rock of traditional fame, challenged by a Rhode Island Red with a considerable amount of red activity.

The word challenge is a strong term. The party on the challenging side believes that it sees in the party challenged

certain deficiencies or certain characteristics not in harmony with the party of the first part. They are irritating. The aggressor is usually of the self-proclaimed progressive type. He wishes to mend matters. He is sufficiently self-centered to believe that he can contribute to the improvement of the other party.

I plan the conduct of this challenge in three parts; "rounds," if you please:

(1) I shall endeavor to point out in the traditional curriculum of the high school certain policies, certain practices that are definitely deficiencies in the judgment of one who dares to be frankly critical, and honestly helpful.

(2) I shall try to place the activity curriculum strictly in the open. This new movement has unquestionably marked virtues, so marked as to warrant it playing the role of David going out to meet Goliath. But let me be sufficiently judicious to remark that unless some of its gross inadequacies are overcome serious misfortune will take place.

(3) I wish to show how the traditional curriculum of the high school can meet this challenge with such professional spirit and timely courage that real victory is accorded both of our contestants.

To attempt to evaluate the traditional curriculum of the high school within the first third of this paper is a dangerous undertaking; yet more dangerous to try to expose those phases which warrant a challenge by the activity curriculum of the elementary school. I feel sure I shall express views with which many—even most—of you will not agree. I have no apologies to make. Sincere professional disagreements are tonic in educational endeavor. I shall say some things very baldly because of my strong convictions and by reason of not having time to "beat about the bush."

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools took the initiative, in 1928, asking that an extensive study be made "that we may know where we stand in secondary education." The office of Education at Washington was

invited to conduct this survey. Commissioner Cooper was director and associated with him was a staff of experts in secondary education. The results of this study are published in 28 monographs, issued by the Office of Education.

This series of monographs can not give us the whole of the picture of secondary education, but is probably the most reliable account we have of current secondary-school practice and theory. I shall base my evaluations on representative portions of this survey supplemented by my own observation and experience in secondary schools.

Monograph No. 5, "The Reorganization of Secondary Education."

Here we come very abruptly upon one of the occasions for the challenge by the "Activity Curriculum." And I make bold to say that I suspect few of you secondary-school men are aware of how this "reorganization of secondary education" contributes to instigating this challenge. Believe it or not: Extensive reorganization has been effected and is now continuing with little significant regard for the real curriculum work of the school. Reorganization for the purpose of organization—an administrative affair. I have examined this volume of 423 pages, in search of sufficient occasion for reorganization. The first paragraph in this unwarranted long monograph tells the story. "The chief purpose of this study has been to determine what existing forms of American secondary-school organization are of greatest promise. . . . in particular, to discover the effects of the junior high school movement upon practice in school organization" Koos, in his book, "The Junior High School," indicates various forces responsible for this reorganization movement.

- (1) Time is wasted. Pupils do not progress as rapidly as do European pupils. Therefore, reorganize.
- (2) Pupil mortality is great in the upper grades. Therefore reorganize to induce pupils to continue in school—as though continuance in school is a virtue irrespective of the nature of school occupation.

- (3) School authorities desire their schools to be known as "progressive," even if the change made is a mere superficial regrouping of grades.

I invite you school principals to be frank and honest—courageously so. I invite you to agree with me that the subject-matter courses of seventh, eighth, and ninth grades have been given no significant change by reason of the much-boasted reorganization of secondary education. Likewise, grades ten, eleven, and twelve. You will recall this when you face the challenge of the "Activity Curriculum."

It is well to look into reports upon the more prominent of these school subjects.

Monograph No. 20. "Instruction in English."

Here we find many statistical tables and charts presenting a variety of time allotments. Aims of teaching composition—fifteen of these nicely charted, followed by eighteen more labelled "Specific aims of written composition," also nicely charted; then twenty aims of oral composition nicely charted. Fifty-three aims for composition! Chapters follow treating in similar fashion the other two traditional divisions of this traditional English, viz. grammar and literature. In the conclusion of this English survey we find three significant statements:

(1) "There is . . . in composition a preoccupation with matters of form and surprisingly little concern with having something to say."

(2) "The stress upon grammar technicalities . . . seems curiously unwarranted . . . "

(3) "In the division of literature . . . "intensive study of a few set classics persists in a large number of courses."

Are you principals sufficiently intimate with your students to realize that such composition, grammar, classics, are positively obsolete in the current life of red-blooded, buoyant American youth?

On this score a challenge by the activity curriculum is forthcoming. And closely related to English are all the foreign languages. Let me surprise you by putting in this same group the conventional high-school music, art,—yes, and physical education.

Monograph No. 23. "Instruction in Mathematics."

The reorganization of secondary education, referred to above, has left almost undisturbed the arithmetic of grades seven and eight—formerly of the elementary school, now of the junior high. True, some schools report the addition of so-called "general mathematics," but under this caption one readily recognizes chapters from the traditional arithmetic, e. g. fundamental operations, percentage, areas, graphs, arithmetic of business, etc., etc. Algebra in grade nine of the junior high school retains the earmarks and nearly all the other marks of the algebra in the high school before reorganized. This survey reveals in the senior high school mathematics "more emphasis on disciplinary and cultural values than on practical outcomes"

It is playing with fire to even question the prominence accorded this time-honored and almost sacred division—mathematics. Are you principals willing to secure honest statements from your students as to their likes and dislikes in mathematics from grade seven on; and are you willing to be strictly consistent in your advocacy of functional mathematics and your administration of mathematics courses? Again, I am anticipating the challenge which the activity curriculum is soon to make.

Monograph No. 21. "Instruction in the Social Studies."

The survey shows that in the great majority of schools the arrangement of courses in this group is largely as existed before the "reorganization of secondary education." The prevailing plan is:

United States history—	grades 7, 8
Geography	—grades 7
Community civics	—grades 8, 9

World history —grades 10
Mod. European hist.—grades 11
American history —grades 11, 12
American governm't—grades 12

You and I went through this same program.

The survey concludes to this effect; some schools claim great activity in curriculum revision. Other schools have not engaged in such activities. But in both groups the actual content of instruction in geography, history, civics, is essentially as formerly. And these three distinct subjects of earlier years are now combined in a most peculiar arithmetical sum, "the social studies," but each retains its own identity.

Again, I ask you principals if you are in the classroom enough to sympathize with pupils who are obliged to work upon geography quite foreign to lives they are living; on history so much in the past as to have little vital contact with present life; on forms of government rather than on the governing of life. Here is another warrant for a challenge by the activity curriculum.

I have gone far enough in presenting representative situations in your high schools. Have I been unfair in thus boldly questioning the accepted values of English—grammar, composition, literature; in raising serious doubts as to the conventional worth of arithmetic, algebra, geometry; in daring to even intimate that geography, history, civics, are not real social studies at all? But I am earnestly endeavoring to prepare you for a challenge that will surprise—even shock—those of you who are not conversant with the activity curriculum of the elementary school.

I have known secondary-school principals well enough in the past quarter of a century to hear some of your own thoughts just now. To this effect: Whatever be the truth of what has been here exposed, we are not responsible. Social custom, you say, selects teachers prepared to teach these subjects in the conventional way and social custom supplies textbooks loaded with content to be taught. And further, college

entrance requirements dictate the courses and the units with which the high-school graduate must be equipped.

Here is a fourth warrant for the challenge soon to come. And you may expect its first appearance at this point. But before this challenge is made, it is imperative that the activity curriculum of the elementary school be somewhat examined.

Now we are in trouble. English grammar, algebra, American history, these we know. But what is this activity curriculum? Evidence indicates that nobody knows, though many think they do. It is interesting to note that within the past two weeks three studies of these activities have been made public:

(1) The National Society for the Study of Education presents its thirty-third Yearbook on "The Activity Movement."

(2) The Informal Teaching Committee of the New York Principals' Association presents an "Analysis of Trends in an Informal Unit (Activity) Teaching Program." This is published in the January issue of Teachers College Record.

(3) "A Critical Survey of 1000 Activities" was presented this morning before the American Education Research Association by the writer of this paper.

I wish to give you first an epitome of the findings and the conclusions of these three studies. You, as secondary-school principals, probably think that three such studies would clarify the issue and give expression to a notion of the activity curriculum satisfactory to leading educationists as well as to the intelligent public. But not so. The keen and able critic, Bagley, characterizes the activity program as "fundamentally fallacious" in certain respects; as "totally blind to two fundamental facts;" as "perilous" in other respects*. Such criticism is cutting and severe. My own studies of this activity curriculum, in theory and in practice, have led me to agree so far with these criticisms of Bagley and others, that I am unable to see in the activity curriculum, as it now is, a challenge worthy

*See Thirty-third Yearbook, N. S. S. E., Part II, p. 77.

of any retort by the traditional curriculum of the high school. I hope, however, to show certain underlying principles in this activity movement so in tune with modern life—of the best type—that you principals will be pleased with the challenge.

In attempting to give you a very limited word picture of these three quite extended studies, it is obviously impossible adequately to present many phases regarded as important. I think I can contribute perspective by calling to mind the project method of teaching, so popular a decade or so ago. Simply this. Teachers recognized that pupils had difficulties in learning the old school subjects—even indispositions towards such learnings. They recognized that these same pupils acted readily and joyfully in their own affairs—projects they were called. Only a little pedagogical ingenuity was needed to put these two—normal life projects and formal class subjects—together and, presto, we had the effective project method of teaching the Three-R's. This procedure was extensive in the elementary schools. It was used only a little in high schools.

The activity program is an extension of this project method, I shall briefly present four aspects of this movement.

1. The activity curriculum emphasizes child life. Of the normal boy it is said: "He cries, he laughs; he sees, he hears, he feels, he tastes; he runs, he walks, he rests; he eats, he sleeps, he wakes; he whistles and sings; he listens to stories and tell big whoppers, too; he quarrels and even fights at times; he asks questions and gives expression to an apparently independent self; he plays, he works,—and sometimes shirks. All this and much more is characteristic of the boy," and of his sister.* Normal child life is full of movement, rich with joy and gladness and safety allowed large freedom. In harmony with this child life, the activity school provides generously for physical movement—physical exercise and play, excursions and constructions work. The school encourages joy and gladness by basing the program upon interests rather than upon discipline. The child is granted large freedom to choose what he is to do and freedom to change as he sees fit.

*In *Childhood Education*. April, 1925.

2. The activity curriculum emphasizes social contacts. The socialized recitation has been a stepping stone to this new movement. The school has become a social unit. A large measure of informal democracy reigns. Self-government is allowed. And more—increased contacts are made with the out-of-school community, social and industrial. Coöperation is claimed. Group spirit prevails in the school; parents make more positive contributions to the school in response to the extended interests of the pupils. All this due to the so-called social studies, as one of the prominent divisions of the new school curriculum.

3. The activity curriculum emphasizes a principle called integration. This is a new term in our educational nomenclature. But the term is obviously used with two distinct meanings. By some, the reference is to a unit in the life of a child. To use Kilpatrick's language: ". . . a unitary sample of actual child living." By others—a larger number indeed—integration is essentially a further development of the earlier term correlation. Under this notion an activity unit of study carries out the principle of integration when it provides for a correlation of the variety of school subjects. Thus the term is used in relating a school subjects around an activity as center.

4. The activity curriculum emphasizes the method aspect of learning. More than a quarter of a century ago, the psychologist James emphasized the idea that impression depends upon expression. Later, learning by doing was emphasized. And now we have—activity is a learning process. Here is the most conspicuous feature in this activity curriculum. The traditional subjects, with their skills and knowledges, are intimately and almost continually related to the activity. A statement from the last Yearbook expresses the prevailing situation. "... the children's effort is utilized in enriching the required subject matter and in furthering its learning. What the learner does in this way is regarded as a means of getting the subject matter learned."* Here we have essentially the project method.

*Page 71.

In each of these four aspects, a serious weakness is present.

1. The activity curriculum as now prevails coddles and pampers children by catering to their interests. The extreme freedom granted pupils in this new movement becomes a license based on coddling rather than on child welfare. I fear it reflects against the teacher's ability and preparation to guide, rather than does credit to child judgment and self-control.

This serious weakness is not a challenge to the traditional curriculum of the high school.

2. The much-vaunted coöperation in social experience jeopardizes hard, serious, individual work and continued effort. The discipline of accomplishing tasks, laid out by adequately prepared teachers, is lacking. Too much superficial work is done under the guise of social coöperation.

This second serious weakness is not a challenge.

3. Integration has no significance when used to indicate a unit in the normal life of children, and to effect a correlation of school subjects about a life activity is to make relationships without value and heap indignities upon the beautiful activities of childhood.

The activity curriculum now in practice is not a creditable challenge at this point.

4. Activities used to motivate uninviting subjects to be studied as a method of stimulating the learning process is positively belittling to our teaching procedures and a gross devaluation of the life activities of children.

Let us not countenance a challenge here.

This activity curriculum of the elementary school is seriously jeopardized by the four weaknesses presented above. But candid judgment must thus evaluate this curriculum as described in educational literature and as seen in schoolroom procedure. This is the natural consequence of the efforts of teachers whose enthusiasms for progress is not governed by

adequate study of principles involved. You who are responsible for the direction of secondary education are invited to look beneath these weaknesses. The activity curriculum in principle is far more than it has yet appeared to be. I invite your attention to three commendable aspects and to the challenge they make.

1. The activity curriculum of the elementary school is sufficient unto itself and the immediate lives of the pupils; it is not a stepping stone to high-school work. To the high credit of our secondary schools, pupils in the lower schools have never been called upon to pursue certain grammar, or arithmetic, or geography as prerequisites for admission to high school. The activity curriculum pays no disrespect to the high school by utterly disregarding preparation for high-school work.

Here is the first challenge: that the high school assign itself the task of serving youth (12 to 18 years of age) without regard to college entrance requirements. Secondary schools have long been so enslaved to college entrance that the majority of youth are sacrificed for the relatively few. The challenge is direct—that you in secondary schools provide that education which equips youth for participation in home and industry and society. All high schools should be trade schools, in the sense that secondary education serve the large majority instead of the small minority. This is not a new message. But most of our high schools serve the higher institutions rather than youth in the every day walks of life: they are under the domination of the college entrance rather than public service.

The Progressive Education Association has announced a unique adventure. Twenty-seven high schools selected on the basis of progressive tendencies have an arrangement with a goodly number of colleges and universities whereby their graduates will be admitted to freshman standing without complying with the usual requirements. This leaves the high school free to serve local interests. The result of this experiment will be watched with great interest. In the meantime, are our high schools willing to serve their own students rather

than higher schools? There is evidence that college students would probably be of higher order than at present. But that is not our concern just now.

2. The activity curriculum of the elementary school takes its subject matter directly from real life and thus avoids the abstractions which constitute practically all of the subjects of the traditional curriculum. The challenge now is of large dimensions. It calls for a discontinuance of English literature, grammar, composition; of arithmetic, algebra, geometry; of geography, history, civics. Freed from college entrance requirements and social custom, this new procedure in dealing with real activities would be strictly normal. But this challenge must be made more specific.

For some years there has been a distinct tendency to stress in English courses the preparation for wholesome leisure. But let us take a long stride forward. Increasing leisure time is upon us. Better preparation is imperative. In the high school connected with the University of Missouri twenty years ago, we provided a leisure reading room. In this room we placed all the wholesome reading books we could command. A teacher was present, not to teach and make assignments, but to be a leading companion with students who were allowed at least one hour each day in this room. The room was equipped for comfort; rocking chairs, sofas, a variety of chairs and tables, flowers and plants,—even canary birds. But we must now provide much further. Music rooms are needed providing opportunity for choral work and instrumental, and for appreciation. Art and museum rooms are needed, richly supplied with pictures that please and inspire. The moving picture merits a large place in schools, to supplant the unwholesome commercial supply or as a means of helping to improve the choice by moving picture fans. Dramatic work in our high schools is too largely superficial and demoralizing. It is largely for petty show. It merits much more time, attention, guidance, leading to a much higher type of wholesome self-entertainment. A great variety of game rooms are needed, suitably equipped. The social dance, too, a large factor in the recreational life of youth, needs the guidance of our schools. Many complaints are made

against the social life of high-school youth. The schools are largely responsible. Composition, algebra, foreign language, history, etc., etc., an uninteresting daily grind with tedious home assignments, all drive the youth to seek relief in social life, not always wholesome.

Two hours each day of such leisure activities under helpful guidance would be appropriate, not as a teaching-learning situation, but as a part of normal life that rightfully belongs to youth.

This is the challenge for one-third of the school day.

The activity curriculum calls for another two-hour period each day in a variety of work activities, e. g. wood shop and metal, print shop and office, cooking and sewing, laundry and hairdressing, etc., etc., etc. Everybody busy two hours each day in wholesome occupation. What an influence upon habits of industry!

The activity curriculum calls for a third two-hour period devoted to acquiring an understanding of the very complex environment in which we live—nature all about us and human nature all around us. Here is an education far more fundamental than the so-called fundamentals in our schools.¹ But the studies must relate to concrete issues, not to generalizations composing our traditional school subjects. (Professor Bruner, in the January 1934 issue of the Teachers College Record, lays emphasis upon this type of fundamental education.)

Thus the large, inclusive, three-in-one challenge invites the high school to provide a daily program of three two-hour periods, one for leisure activities, one for work activities, one for informational activities. This encompasses the range of the life of youth and does not direct all to college.

You principals are now wondering about the disciplines of English grammar, the algebraic equation, the sequence of history. A third challenge of the activity curriculum invites

¹Compare "Fundamentals in the Elementary School Curriculum," N. E. A. *Proceedings*, 1909 : 169-175.

you to recognize such disciplines, so far as they have values, as strictly incidental to the larger values in the activities of real life. As pointed out above, too frequently the activity curriculum, as the project method before it, serves as a teaching situation, a motivation for learning. Various researches in the elementary school field indicate that the formal skills are yet better acquired when the acquiring is strictly incidental to the activity in which they function. Thus, secondary schools may be justified in placing grammar, algebra, history, and all allied subjects, on the reference shelf, to be used only as the development of an activity calls for its use.

The activity curriculum is a school organization of child life and its environment for the purpose of enriching child-life. This activity curriculum is a bold break from tradition but for the sincere purpose of greater service to children, for their improvement.

The activity curriculum of the elementary school looks upon the traditional curriculum of the high school with sympathy. It realizes the great pressure from above, i.e. requirements stipulated by higher institutions. It realizes also the great pressure in the undercurrent of social custom, expressed in the traditional curriculum. But far more does it realize the yet greater pressure of modern life—service to youth.

The traditional curriculum of the high school is challenged by the activity curriculum of the elementary school to do three things:

- (1) Render service to youth irrespective of college entrance;
- (2) Help boys and girls to participate in the vital issues of current life, in leisure and in work, irrespective of the traditional school subjects;
- (3) Help adolescent youth to evaluate school *arts* as incidental to life *acts*.

WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 28, 1934

FIFTH SESSION

William E. Burkard, Principal of Tilden Junior High School of Philadelphia, presided over the group that met in the Assembly Room at 9:30 A. M.

Frank W. Cyr, Associate Professor of Rural Education of Columbia University, read his paper, *What Can Be Done for the Small Secondary School*.

WHAT CAN BE DONE FOR THE SMALL
SECONDARY SCHOOL

FRANK W. CYR

Teachers College, Columbia University

What can we do for the small secondary school? One of the most serious and perplexing problems in American education is that of providing an adequate educational program in the small secondary school.

Let us attack this problem by considering three questions: (1) What is the importance of the small school in the whole field of secondary education? (2) What are the special problems of the small school because of its size, and most important of all; and (3) How can the small schools provide an enriched curriculum?

First, what is the importance of the small school in the whole field of secondary education?

According to the last Biennial Report of the United States Office of Education for 1930, 54 per cent of the public high schools of the United States have an enrollment of fewer than 100 pupils.

Two special problems of fundamental importance in an attack on the small school situation are: (1) the low pupil-

teacher ratio, and (2) the large number of daily subject-preparations per teacher.

A teacher cannot make five or six daily preparations which include such diverse subjects as Latin, history, and mathematics and do justice to his work. He is constantly faced with the futility of doing careful, thorough work. Here then is a second problem characteristic of the small school which gradually disappears as schools become larger.

These two problems, the low and varied pupil-teacher ratio and the large number of daily subject-preparations per teacher, present two vital points at which the problems of the small school can be attacked. *Techniques and methods for enriching the curriculum must be developed which also increase the pupil-teacher ratio and decrease the burden of daily subject-preparations per teacher.* Such techniques will make possible economical enrichment of the small secondary-school curriculum. What are such techniques and how can they be utilized?

In the small secondary school, it is necessary to understand the functions of secondary education as proposed by educational leaders. It is then necessary to think of each subject in terms of the objectives to be attained and the concepts it is to teach. To make a fundamental attack on the problems of the small school we must *think in terms of the purposes to be achieved and then utilize any methods and techniques which will effectively achieve those purposes.*

The Benton Township Consolidated School of Lackawanna County, Pennsylvania, has developed a broad shop program adapted to the needs of the pupils. First the functions of a shop were studied and objectives agreed upon. Then one large room was built which provides facilities for woodworking, varnishing, sheet-metal work, electrical wiring, auto-repairing, forge work, concrete mixing, harness repair, and plumbing. One end is set off with a glass partition for the science laboratory. Thus in one room a boy or girl may explore and develop his abilities, interests, and capacities.

Following the same procedure in science, we would teach in terms of the principles to be studied and concepts to be developed, rather than, as usual, in terms of textbook, laboratory equipment, and laboratory exercises. To study atmospheric pressure, for example, there are any number of simple experiments with ordinary equipment which are much more stimulating of questioning and further study than many of the usual laboratory exercises with expensive equipment. Professor C. H. Lynde, of Columbia University has about 300 experiments illustrating principles in physics, all of which are performed with equipment found in the home or the ten-cent store. The total cost of equipment for all 300 is less than \$5.00. These experiments with ordinary tin cans, fruit jars, milk bottles, newspapers and sink stoppers, are much more dramatic and stimulating to the imagination than the traditional physics experiments with carefully prepared and expensive equipment, usually are.

An important method of enriching the curriculum of the small school economically is through utilization of community resources. The high school at Carmel, New York, which has an enrollment of fewer than 70 pupils, is utilizing its human resources. A local banker teaches a practical course in accounting. A high-school boy with special aptitudes for banking, as shown from a careful study by the Vocational Research Bureau of Kent Cliffs, New York, works in the bank a number of hours each week during the school day. A high-school girl with an aptitude for painting is taught by a local artist. The village blacksmith trains two tenth-grade boys in his shop, a boy with a decided bent toward medicine works in the doctor's office, one girl works with the school nurse, another with the school librarian and another with a primary teacher. These pupils are obtaining an understanding of occupations in which they are interested that would be impossible in even the best equipped laboratories and shops.

In Lennox, South Dakota, the courses in vocational agriculture and home economics consider the farms and homes of the community as school laboratories. The class in American problems gives major emphasis to farm problems such

as production, surplus, consumption, farm prices, mortgages, rural social conditions and national legislation. Consideration of national and international questions grows out of the problems of the local community and its relations to them.

One of the most promising methods of enriching the curriculum is through supervised correspondence study. This method which has been used by the schools of Australia for 20 years and more recently in New Zealand, Russia, and Canada, was introduced into the United States at Benton Harbor, Michigan, in 1923. S. C. Mitchell, now superintendent, discovered that many students were not receiving the vocational training they needed and arranged privately for them to study correspondence courses. By 1925 this procedure was officially adopted by the board of education as part of the school program. There are now more than 400 courses available to the boys and girls of Benton Harbor through the correspondence department and 136 pupils are enrolled in 22 different courses. According to Gaumnitz, "public institutions offering high-school courses by correspondence are found in 32 states. In 23 of these states this work is carried on at the state university; in one, Massachusetts, it is handled through the extension division of the State Department of Education."¹

Some of the most notable work with supervised correspondence courses has been at the University of Nebraska. The Extension Division of the University in coöperation with the faculty of the teachers college and the state department of public instruction is developing such courses especially adapted to the small high schools of the state. The high-school pupil, through a guidance program, selects the course he desires from a wide variety offered. A local teacher then sees that he secures his materials, has a regular place to study, and offers encouragement and advice. Lessons are mailed regularly to the university where a highly trained subject-matter specialist corrects, comments upon, and returns them. The local teacher need have little or no knowledge of the subject.

¹Gaumnitz, W. H., *High-School Instruction By Mail*, U. S. Office of Education Bulletin 1933, No. 13, p. 34.

These courses cost the small school a total of \$6.00 per pupil, per semester. This is somewhat less if the papers are corrected locally. Supervised correspondence study is merely one method of providing individual instruction materials.

Another method of bringing highly trained subject-matter specialists into the small school is through the circuit teacher. In Ohio, circuit teachers are sometimes employed as members of the county superintendent's staff to teach music in the schools of the county. They travel from school to school on regular schedules. In Maryland, the county music supervisors perform a similar function. In Pennsylvania, 22 counties employ county supervisors of agriculture, and 12 county supervisors of home economics, who are in reality circuit teachers, serving as many as eight different schools and 170 pupils.

There are two general types of methods by which the educational program of the small secondary school may be improved. Those, including the ones just discussed, which take education out into small schools, and those concerned with reorganizing and re-districting schools.

The reorganization of the 8-4 type of school on the 6-6 plan, the consolidation of small schools into larger ones, and the development of larger administrative units are all vitally important. Spaulding, in the *National Survey of Secondary Education*, has pointed out tendencies toward better programs in the reorganized schools, and the economy of the six-year high schools as compared with the 6-33 plan. In the 1934 Yearbook of the Rural Department of the N. E. A., he develops a program for the small six-year high school.

Re-districting is needed to make school district lines coterminous with the natural boundaries of the community. Improved transportation and communication have brought about great changes in rural life. Neighborhoods have merged into communities which are in turn in closer contact with state and national life. Often, however, where paved highways, automobiles, busses, power lines and other modern improvements have entered a community, there has been no

change in the school organization. Consolidations in the past have not always been carefully planned in terms of local conditions, and with major emphasis on provision of a richer curriculum. A scientific study of each situation through careful surveys, such as those conducted in Arkansas and New York State, is of vital importance. An excellent example of how consolidation may provide an enriched curriculum is found in the centralized school district located in Southwestern Lewis County, New York.

Another type of reorganization of utmost importance to the small high school is that which will give a larger local administrative unit, such as the county greater responsibility, in the administration of the educational program. Attempts to perform all administrative duties within the school itself continue to prove costly and inefficient. Many of the modern needs of an educational system including well-trained leadership, supervision, health service, library facilities, and circuit teachers can be provided much more economically by a unit such as the county which includes a group of community districts. A recent study¹ by the speaker shows that in many states, the county superintendent has practically no responsibility for the secondary-school program. Strong local leadership is important to an adequate educational program in the small school.

Conclusion

We have now discussed the importance of the small secondary school in terms of the number of schools, the probable future, and the importance to the whole commonwealth of a healthy, intelligent, well-trained rural population. We have suggested that the principal of the large high school should use his influence to encourage the best possible type of program for the small school. We have then suggested that a scientific approach to the problems of the small school is necessary, and analyzed briefly two special problems character-

¹Cyr, Frank W., *Responsibility for Rural-School Administration* New York: Bureau of Publication, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933.

istic of small schools: (1) The low pupil-teacher ratio; and (2) The large number of daily subject-preparations per teacher.

The methods proposed for developing an adequate program included: (1) Planning the building in terms of curriculum needs; (2) Study and utilization of community resources; (3) Use of individual instruction materials, particularly supervised correspondence courses; (4) Provision of circuit teachers; (5) Reorganization of six-year schools; (6) Scientific re-districting schools; and (7) Development of the larger administrative unit.

Public School Supervisor Mark S. Godman, of the State Department of Education, Kentucky, then read his paper, *The Teacher's Part in the Guidance Program of the Small High School*.

THE TEACHER'S PART IN THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM OF THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOL

MARK GODMAN

Public School Supervisor, State Department of Education,
Frankfort, Kentucky

Guidance in one form or another is a well-established function in most of our secondary schools.

Broadly speaking, the whole process of education should be thought of as a guiding process, a process by which the child through sympathetic direction develops the great end points of his education, knowledge, interests, ideals, habits, and powers.

If our conception of education is that of a guiding and developing process, what then is the teacher's part in this process? His is the major part. This is true because, in the last analysis, the teacher must be the one to guide and direct boys and girls in the attainment of these end points. In the past, too many teachers thought more in terms of subject-

matter than they did in terms of enrichment of personality; more in terms of scholastic achievement than in terms of growth of character. All too many of them looked upon their position as that of an autocrat, fixing tasks and outlining duties. Observation convinces me that far too many of them to-day, even our best-trained teachers, continue to believe that this is their chief responsibility. While a teacher must be concerned about such important matters as subject matter and scholastic records, still his big function is to act as a guide, a director, a counselor, an adviser in the pupil's effort to acquire desired knowledge, discover worth while interests, develop proper ideals and fix desirable habits.

Before teachers can intelligently and effectively guide young people in the achievement of these desired ends and objectives, they must know their pupils. They must know the material with which they work. I say this because in my judgment the real test of teaching is not found so much in degrees or in majors and minors as it is in the way that the teacher works with his pupils. To work intelligently and sympathetically with pupils demands that the teacher know their mental, physical, emotional, and social characteristics. It demands that he know their home life and their duties both within and without the home. He must know their mental age, their previous scholastic records and their attitude toward and difficulties in the subjects that they have and are now studying. He must know their mental and physical health, their hobbies, their natural interests and their probable vocational future. I emphasize this point because in the last analysis, the foundation of that which we call guidance in the school is found in the knowledge that those who teach have of each pupil in their charge.

What I have said so far in reference to the teacher and his part in the guidance program applies equally to the teacher in the large high school as well as the teacher in the small high school. You will note that my subject is "The Teacher's Part in the Guidance Program of the Small High School." Most of the high schools of our country are small. More than one-half of them enroll 100 or fewer pupils. Ob-

viously, these small schools cannot provide a program of guidance that is comparable in its scope and richness to that provided in large, comprehensive high schools with their directors of guidance and their deans of boys and deans of girls. The small high school must of necessity have a program that is simple, a program that is limited, a program that represents a coöperative undertaking of the principal, the classroom teacher, the home-room teacher and the pupils.

When I think of guidance, I think of it in three senses: educational, vocational, and personal. What can the teachers in the small high schools do along these lines? Let us first consider educational guidance. Before the teacher can guide his pupils wisely along this line, he must not only know their individual differences in respect to aptitudes, interests and capacities, but he must be in a position to help them give satisfactory answers to such question as, why should I stay in high school? What electives should I select from the few that are offered? Will it pay me to go to college? What fields of learning are most attractive to me? Where can I best find the training that I desire in institutions of higher learning, and what are the demands that will be made upon me in those institutions? I submit that these are live and vital educational problems that face the pupils of the small as well as the large high schools.

I wish that I had the time to go into detail regarding procedures that I have observed teachers in small high schools employing to help pupils answer these questions. I shall take time for only one. The high school of which I am thinking has 117 pupils enrolled and five teachers employed. My inspection of the school began the first period after lunch, the extra-curriculum period in most of the high schools of my state. On this day, the school was using this period for home-room programs. I went to the home room of the teacher who had charge of the twelfth grade. I discovered that the project which this group had under way was designed to help the pupils to find out satisfactory answers to such questions as, where should I go to college? What are the demands that will be made of me in the various colleges? How had the teacher

gone about helping the pupils answer these and other questions involved in the matter of college entrance? The class had secured catalogs from the various standard colleges of the state, as well as from a number of standard colleges outside of the state. Then they had prepared a list of the various items which they wished to study in these catalogs. A brief historical sketch of each school was made and studied. A study was made of each institution with regard to such items as tuition fees, living costs, and kinds of financial aid open to students. Information was also compiled regarding how each institution was supported and controlled. A chart was being compiled showing the subjects required for entrance, requirements demanded for graduation from each institution and the various kinds of degrees granted. Who did this work, the teacher or the pupils? The pupils did it through committees. The teacher's part was to guide and direct the pupils while they carried on the investigations. I submit that what this school was able to do along this line of educational guidance can be done in any small high school with a graduating class.

Let us think of vocational guidance and what the teacher in the small high school can do along this line. It is now recognized that before one can choose a vocation wisely, he must have information about vocations. It is apparent that the small high school cannot provide expensive, technical vocational training. It can and should, however, provide for vocational information and self-analysis on the part of the pupil regarding his fitness for certain occupations. In my state, we suggest such a course as occupations, vocations, or vocational guidance in the ninth grade. Unfortunately, however, we are finding a problem here. Many small schools either cannot find the time for this work in their narrow curriculum, or they do not have teachers who are acquainted with or are sympathetic with vocational problems. Again, most communities in which these schools are located do not have the industries discussed in these courses and, as a result, pupils do not have an opportunity to visit and study them. Since this is true, too many small high schools either neglect giving

vocational information entirely or are satisfied with having some local professional man or tradesman speak before the student body regarding the problems of his particular line of work. It is my observation that all too frequently those who speak think it is their obligation to amuse and entertain rather than to give a serious presentation of the requirements, advantages, and disadvantages of their respective professions or trades.

As I think of vocational guidance apart from a formal course in the subject, I wonder how many of our teachers in the small or for that matter the large high schools, realize that practically every subject in the curriculum can be employed to give vocational information and arouse vocational interests? Certainly the teacher of high-school geography can find much material which the pupil can study from the viewpoint of one interested in making a choice of a life work. The work in English furnishes an excellent opportunity along this line. Themes may be written on vocational subjects and oral talks may be made regarding industries visited. History and biography, especially a study of the men and women now living, give the pupils an excellent opportunity to analyze the reasons for the success of great men and women. Certainly the teacher of physics can awaken his pupils to the possibilities of a life work in electrical or mechanical engineering and the teacher of biology can give an insight into agriculture as a life work. Even Latin, thought by many as being the most impractical subject in the curriculum, can be made to contribute abundantly to this end. This illustration came to me some time ago in my reading. The class in elementary Latin was studying the word "secretus" (secret). The teacher explained that our word secretary comes from the Latin word "secretarius". (derived from "secretus") which means a keeper of secrets. Knowing this to be true, it was easy for the teacher to make it plain to the pupils that in commercial life a secretary is a keeper of business secrets as well as one who cares for the correspondence of her employer. From here it was easy for the teacher to have the pupils trace the history of this occupation from Roman days to the present.

It was easy for him to have the pupils study the methods and tools used in that time and contrast them with the methods, preparation required, advantages and disadvantages, remuneration, and personal qualifications necessary in this type of work to-day. Apart from the vocational information which the pupils gained by this procedure there were the added advantages that come as a result of the pupils' increased interest in the subject. To them the subject of Latin related itself to life and to the work of the world and as a result lost much of its classification as a dry and impractical subject.

Of course, in attempting to use this plan the teacher must make careful and thorough preparation. He must read about the vocations which he is going to introduce and, if possible, he should visit the places where they are practiced. Teachers who are willing to make this preparation will find that many teaching materials can be procured along this line without cost from leading manufacturing concerns. Again, small schools that are equipped with electricity can secure films at a minimum charge from many industries and institutions of higher learning. Current literature in this phase of guidance offers the interested teacher many suggestions as to how the vocational implications of his subject may be given the pupils.

If the choice of a life-work is not to be left to accident and chance, teachers, especially those in small schools, must be alert to the vocational implications in their subjects. As one has said, "All too many leave school to grope in a 'blind alley'—lost without aim or idea, purpose or ideal, to drift as blind chance and the shifting currents of society may direct—trusting to luck, with money to-day—and broke to-morrow." Industrial life is becoming increasingly complicated and complex. It is hedged about by barriers difficult for youth to scale and bewildering to those who must make a choice. This means that our educational process cannot be simple; it must be rich and revealing in content, abounding in opportunities to discover and to learn. Helping the individual to live happily in this complex world and to make satisfying adjustments therein is a veritable challenge to those who

guide and direct in the ever-changing process of pupil learning and development.

Let us consider briefly how the small high school can aid in solving the many perplexing personal problems that confuse and bewilder youth.

The high-school pupil is an adolescent. Gradual changes have taken place within him until he possesses certain physical, mental and social traits. These confuse and bewilder him. Not being mellowed by experience he is inclined to go to extremes. One minute he may rise to heights of service and idealism that his elders can not attain and the next minute he may sink to acts that shame and embarrass him. Certainly he needs guidance and direction in the close, intimate, and personal things of life. Here is the teacher's richest field of labor. He must bring to the situation understanding, sympathy and a spirit of justice. Of all those who should aid, no teacher in the small high school can play a more important part than the home-room teacher. It is in this capacity that the teacher comes to know each pupil and his problems intimately. It is upon this teacher that the pupil will and wants to lean. If he does not, especially in schools of some size, he may feel that he is lost in the shuffle and conclude that the only way to be recognized is to engage in mischief.

How can the home-room teacher render this aid? He can do it by finding out their personal troubles, their difficulties with their teachers, their home conditions and environment, their associates in school and out, their attitudes, interests and habits, their health and their weaknesses in the fundamentals of their subjects. All of you know how hard it is to get many pupils to tell the whole truth regarding their difficulties in a subject to the one who teaches that subject. This is especially true of early adolescents. Why is it true? The reason is simple. They will not tell because they fear failure. They will, however, tell most if not all to the one to whom they feel close and confidential like their home-room adviser. Since this is true, it is important that principals in the small high schools especially make it clear to home-room teachers that one of their biggest tasks is to sympathetically

guide and direct pupils in matters that are personal and intimate, matters like those of discipline, personal habits, study problems and companionships. Not only home-room activities, but all the other extra-curriculum activities of the small high school can and should be made to contribute to all the phases of guidance that the pupils need.

As I said in the beginning, the teacher is the pupil's guide or director in his effort to acquire knowledge, interests, ideals, habits and powers. This means far more than giving the guidance that will enable him to merely make a living. It means guiding him in discovering his best personality possibilities; it means revealing to him the possibilities to be found in the higher activities of life—activities that involve an appreciation, understanding and capacity to enjoy the best in nature, art, music, literature and life in general. In other words, the life of the modern high school, large or small, must be a revealing life, a creative life, a life in which through careful guidance, knowledge is acquired, interests are stimulated, ideals are developed and habits are fixed that will enable the pupil to successfully and happily contribute his best, both to himself and to the society in which he lives and serves.

Associate Professor of Education of Fordham University, Miss Verna A. Carley, read a paper entitled *Class Size in American Secondary Schools*, written by the speaker and Harold C. Hand, Assistant Professor of Education, Stanford University.

CLASS SIZE IN AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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and

HAROLD C. HAND

Assistant Professor of Education, Stanford University

Although there is an abundance of literature concerning certain advantages of large and of small classes, published

materials thus far made available give no clear indication of the *prevalence* of large classes. Studies conducted by the National Education Association have revealed the present *trend* toward larger classes and toward an increased ratio of pupils and teachers. In order to discover the extent to which class sections of 50 or more students had been introduced into the high school, the investigators in November, 1933, sent a relatively simple form of inquiry to all secondary schools in the United States located in communities of 5000 or larger population, and to one out of every five in communities of lesser size. Usable replies were received from 1800 schools, a full 75% of the 2400 schools approached. The large size classes reported upon in this paper contained in every case more than 50 pupils, and were exclusive of sections in physical education, chorus, band, glee club, orchestra, home room and the like.

It was discovered that one out of every five (21.5%) of the secondary schools included in this study reported one or more large classes.

TABLE I

Number and Percentage of Schools Reporting One or More Large Classes

ENROLLMENT.

(Exclusive of Phy. Ed., Band, Orchestra, Glee Clubs, Home Rooms, etc.)

TYPE OF SCHOOL	Below 500		500-999		1000-1499		1500 & Above		TOTAL	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
JR. H. S.	10	11.4	41	19.1	42	30.0	28	35.4	121	23.3
4 YR. H. S.	9	13.3	21	11.4	16	15.2	52	29.4	98	18.3
SR. H. S.	4	10.0	22	13.3	23	23.5	66	36.5	115	23.1
JR.-SR. H. S.	4	22.2	14	13.3	14	24.0	21	31.3	53	21.4
TOTAL	27	12.5	98	14.4	95	27.3	167	33.1	387	21.5

The percentages so reporting were: 18.3 for four-year high schools; 21.4 for six-year high schools; 23.1 for senior high school; and 23.3 for junior high schools. When the data were tabulated according to size of school, it was revealed that large classes were much more frequently reported by the schools of larger enrollments. Only 12.5 per cent, or one out of every eight, of the schools with fewer than 500 student report-

ed one or more class sections of 50 or more pupils. The proportion reporting large class sections was only slightly larger (14.4 per cent) for the 500-1000 enrollment group. For the schools in the 1000 to 1500 classification, however, this proportion increased to well over a fourth (27.3 per cent). Nearly a third (33.1 per cent) of the schools enrolling 1500 or more students reported one or more large-size classes. For all schools regardless of type or enrollment who reported one or more large sections the median number was found to be 3.

TABLE II

Number of Large Classes*
(Q3, Median, and Q1) by Size and Type of School for Schools Reporting One or More Large Sections

	TYPE				ENROLLMENT				TOTAL
	Jr. H. S.	4 Yr. H. S.	Sr. H. S.	Jr.-Sr. H. S.	Below 500	500 999	1000 1499	1500 & Above	
Q3	7	5	6	4	3	4	5	9	7
Median	4	3	4	3	3	2	3	4	3
Q1	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	2

When the replies were classified according to geographical sections of the country, considerable variation in the percentages of schools reporting large classes was observed.

TABLE III

Percentage of Schools Located in Various Sections of the United States Who Reported One or More Large Class Sections

SECTION	TOTAL NO. WITH LARGE CLASSES		
	REPLIES	NO.	%
New England	237	37	15.6
Middle Atlantic	391	93	23.7
South Atlantic	150	29	19.3
South Central	206	29	14.0
North Central (Lakes)	460	112	26.1
North Central (Plains)	155	41	26.4
Plateau	47	14	29.8
Pacific	154	32	20.7
Total	1800	387	21.5

*Exclusive of Music, Phy. Ed., Band, Orchestra, Chorus, Glee Clubs, etc.

Only 14.0 per cent of the schools in the states classified as South Central reported large sections, while a proportion more than twice as large (29.8 per cent) in the Plateau region so reported. The percentages for the other six sections or regions into which the states were classified in this study were: New England 15.6; South Atlantic 19.3; Pacific 20.7; Middle Atlantic 23.7; North Central (Great Lakes) 26.1; and North Central (Plains) 26.4.

The subject matter fields in which large classes were reported in the present investigation provide pertinent data.

TABLE IV

Number and Percentage of Schools with Large Classes
Reporting Large Sections in Various Subject Matter Fields

FIELD	NUMBER	PERCENT
Music (Exclusive of Band, Orchestra, Chorus, Glee Club)	172	46.4
Commercial	154	41.5
Social Studies	108	29.1
English	80	21.6
Science	72	19.4
Mathematics	66	17.8
F. Languages	24	6.5
Art	23	6.4
Home Arts	4	1.0
Ind. Arts	4	1.0

Of the nearly 400 schools with one or more class sections of 50 or more students, nearly half (46.4 per cent) reported large classes in music, exclusive of band, orchestra, chorus, and glee clubs. A proportion only slightly smaller (41.5) reported large classes in various commercial subjects. Nearly three-tenths (29.1%) were attempting large class instruction in social studies. Slightly more than a fifth (21.6 per cent) reported large sections in English. Approximately twenty per cent had large classes in the field of science. Nearly 18 per cent were giving large group instruction in mathematics. The percentages of schools reporting one or more large sec-

tions drops to around 6 per cent in foreign languages and in art and to only 1 per cent in home economics and industrial arts.

In general, teachers and administrators deplore the necessity of giving instruction in large classes. Although the numerous class size experiments thus far reported lead one to suspect that students taught in larger groups have not suffered, so far as the acquiring of information and understanding is concerned, many educators have nevertheless been unwilling to accept the findings. This unwillingness may be due possibly to the influence of tradition or custom in the matter of class size, but more primarily to a difference in educational philosophy which will not permit them to accept scores on standardized tests of information as sufficient criteria of the outcomes of large or small class instruction. They claim that only a partial knowledge of the effects of large class instruction have thus far been secured objectively.

Attention is called to the more intangible but vital outcomes, to the possibility that pupil interests may not be as effectively nurtured in large as in small groups, that students in large classes may be less able to work at their own pace, feel less free to ask questions or to participate in discussion, and have less opportunity to recite or to secure needed help from the teacher. It is also pointed out that in large classes with the less informal atmosphere the students probably become less well acquainted with the teacher and with the other members of the group, that class procedures in the large sections tend, of necessity, to become too inflexible with insufficient provision for the immediate needs and interests of pupils; in short, that the educational rights of the individual child are endangered.

Harrison C. Lyseth, State Supervisor of Secondary Education of Maine, presided over a group that met in the Cypress Room at 9:30 A. M. Principal Evan L. Mahaffy read his paper entitled, *The Administration of Attendance in Large High Schools*.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF ATTENDANCE IN LARGE HIGH SCHOOLS

HARRISON G. LYSETH

State Supervisor of Secondary Education of Maine

One may say that all schools over 500 may be referred to as large high schools. Certain it is that somewhere between 500 and 1000 in enrollment, there is a point above which no one person in the school is likely to know well every pupil enrolled. At this point, certain pupils get the notion that the school has become so large that they may not be missed at the time the rolls are taken. Experience has shown that frequently pupils who have been in smaller schools become careless in a larger one and frequently take the chance of being truant for all or part of a day. It appears to be the judgment of many principals that a more stringent type of checking procedure must now be set up than that which serves in the smaller groups in which absence becomes obvious on a moment's notice. It is with this group of larger schools and with the administration of the various phases of their attendance procedures that we are to deal.

It is the purpose, however, of this particular investigation to determine present procedures with particular emphasis upon the most common ones and those innovations which seem to indicate promising trends in the various phases of the attendance problem. It is hoped, therefore, that some factual material may be brought out that may be of value to principals whereby they may improve their handling of this challenging problem. Perhaps they may lead to a more progressive philosophy for the solution of the individually different cases in this field.

For the purpose of this paper we are defining that pupil as tardy who arrives in the given room after the time scheduled for the work of the given period to begin.

As regards the place of reporting, the results of the inquiry show that in 165 of the 436 schools reporting there is a

specially designated room or attendance office with a teacher or clerk in charge who disposes of the admission of tardy pupils. The principal's office ranks next in 129 instances. Home room teachers do this work in 73 cases, and in 47 schools the teachers of the pupils' first classes handle it. Of these three procedures the first is to be preferred.

Tardiness between classes is administered in 251 cases by the teacher whose class is entered. In only 26 schools do we find that the pupil is sent back to his previous class to account for his being late. Ninety-six schools report that such cases as these are sent to the special attendance office. The prevailing practice seems to be wisest. Too much time would be lost by the home-room or classroom teacher, were the tardy pupils to be sent some considerable distance to a central attendance office to settle such problems. If there were any considerable number of such individuals in a given period and each one had to have a special interview, the class period might easily be over before the case was concluded. If the teacher of the previous class was responsible for the lateness of the pupil it might be well for him to be asked to account for the case. This should serve to reduce the number of times such an instance would occur. Oral excuses are accepted for all tardiness in 214 schools. One hundred ninety-one require written excuses to be presented either on the morning of the tardiness or on the following morning. Twenty schools allow the pupil to write his own excuse.

Here is a fine place for the use of judgment. Modern procedure does not allow us to overlook tardiness altogether. There are so many places in life where being on time is important. Training to be punctual is undoubtedly worth while. Genuine excuses ought to be accepted whether written or oral. The right person will have no difficulty in determining the genuine from the spurious variety. Those who come late need guidance. We believe that as a rule, excuses should be written and kept on file as evidence if the case becomes chronic.

One hundred thirty-seven institutions report that they reward their punctual pupils at the end of the year by presenting medals, ribbons, badges and in some cases certificates.

Ninety-nine schools penalize all tardy pupils, while 246 just penalize those who have no satisfactory excuses. One hundred seventeen penalize first offenders, while 228 only penalize the chronic ones. Two hundred thirty-five say that they increase the penalty of repeaters in a geometric ratio. The penalty indicated is usually in the form of the pupil paying back to himself, at least the time he has missed.

It is interesting to note the existence of rewards and penalties in this matter of tardiness. There are doubtless those young people who might be stimulated by the winning of a reward. There are also others who would make an extra effort to be on time in order to avoid a penalty. In terms of present day procedures of dealing with children, it would appear that we ought to be able to assist those who have difficulty in this area, by giving them kindly guidance and helping them to appreciate the value of punctuality for its own sake.

Ranking highest among the causes of tardiness are: inaccurate time pieces, 290 votes; late starting, 283 votes; faulty transportation, 257 votes; loitering on the way to school, 174 votes; poor control in the home, 156 votes; indifference on the part of the pupil, 135 votes; running errands in the morning, 129 votes; unusually inclement weather, 115 votes. Of the other 34 causes suggested there are 6 which have received fifty or more votes. These are: general laziness, morning employment, being up late the night before, the first class occurring too early, getting under way slowly on the mornings after holidays and sickness in the family.

On first thought it would appear that some of these factors are not subject to control or improvement by the pupil, however, one might foil even the delay of inclement weather and such causes as faulty transportation and inaccurate time pieces by starting earlier.

Among the suggested solutions of tardiness are the following, listed in the order of their popularity in the minds of principals: making a contact with the home with a view to removing the cause, 249 votes; helping the pupil to see the value of promptness in life situations, 224 votes; requiring the

pupil to make up the time he has missed, 155 votes; helping the pupil to see the importance of meeting business appointments, 148 votes; building up a high morale in the student body, 110 votes; requiring the pupil to come early for a while, 126 votes; and assigning the pupil a definite responsibility requiring his presence before the first class, 101 votes.

The solutions of the tardiness problem are an interesting mixture of procedures, involving at least two points of view. One emphasizes penalties and the other guidance. It may be encouraging to note that there is a distinct trend here toward the recognition of individual differences in the light of the old statement that circumstances alter cases.

Closely allied to being absent from the first class of the day by reason of tardiness is that of being absent from one or more of the classes of the day. While such cases are less common than the other phases of absence, they are usually more difficult because they are usually willful.

The accounting of the pupil for his class absence is done by administrative officers 225 times as compared to the account being given to classroom teachers in 155 instances. The first ranking plan in this division of the study shows that the teacher in charge checks a seating plat for attendance, places (a) in the square for the given day in a classbook, sends a report of this record to the attendance office at the end of the day where the class absence record is checked against the general attendance record for the day by an office clerk. The pupil later is held to account by the principal or an administrative officer assigned to this duty by the principal.

The second most common procedure is that of the teacher calling a roll of names in each class of the day, making a record of the absence on an individual class attendance card and marking each member of the class present or absent on the given day. A list of class absentees is then sent to the attendance office at the end of each period for checking. The classroom teachers then hold to account, the pupils who have been found to be class cutters.

For the purpose of this paper we define partial absence as applying to the cases of those pupils who are excused from the school any time during a given day after they have been enrolled. One is concerned here with the procedures used for the disposition of such cases. They vary between wide limits. At one end of this scale is the school which gives no attention to attempting to keep track of such cases. These few apply the college plan which usually is, that if the pupil misses a given class three times, he must drop the class or be failed in the subject. The other procedure involves a close check, which usually is expected by the parents of the pupil. Practically all schools follow the latter plan.

In 399 schools the pupils who desire to leave the building during the day are required to get special permission to do so. Two hundred and thirty-seven schools make a list of those excused and add it to the daily absence list, at the same time indicating the clock time at which the permission is given. This report is made available to those interested in the situation in 200 cases. Two hundred ninety-two schools record and report the reasons given for the requested permission. Two hundred seventy-seven schools provide such pupils with exit tickets. One hundred twenty-four schools have door monitors who check on those who exit. Seventy-three schools go to the trouble of having every teacher affected by the pupil's leaving countersign this exit card before the pupil is eligible to leave. Two hundred fifty-six schools require that pupils bring back a regular excuse from home to the effect that the pupil did return home or did carry out the reasons given for his missing part of the previous day.

In a large majority of the schools reporting, we find then that a very careful check is made in the cases of these pupils who for one reason or another are given permission to leave the building during the school day.

About 50% of the schools report that positive or negative attendance records of home room absence are kept in a teacher's class book. Approximately 25% list such absence on single sheets, one sheet serving for a given day only. Six per

cent list the names of those absent on a given day in a common notebook. Eight per cent use individual cards. Another 8% place home room attendance records in registers while a smaller percentage use sheets which serve for a week and a still smaller percentage use a larger sheet to record absence for a given month.

The most usually accepted procedure involves: the use of a class book or register by the home room division teacher; reporting daily absence from home room to central attendance office by individual daily sheets and the keeping of a duplicate attendance record, one to be in a home room loose-leaf ledger or record book and the other to be on the pupil's permanent record in the central office. This provides for ease in recording, simplicity in transferring and safety in having a duplicate record. The advantage of the home room ledger is to minimize the possibility of loss, whereas the record card lends itself to ease in filing and finding.

Attendance taking time varies. Forty per cent of the schools reporting take attendance in the home room period before the first class of the day. Ten per cent take it at the beginning of the day and then again at the end of the day.

It would seem that the time of taking attendance varies according to the organization of the school. If school has two sessions per day the check is made twice per day. If the session is continuous but has over-lapping shifts the attendance is taken at a time when all pupils are supposed to be on hand and if all the pupils are supposed to be present throughout the entire day, the home room period is at the beginning of the day.

The method of taking attendance is done in one of four ways. The teacher calls the roll, checks a seating plat, has a pupil assistant perform these duties or the latter in addition to which the teacher checks the pupil report. Sixteen per cent use method number one. Sixty-one per cent use method number two. Thirteen per cent have a dependable pupil perform this service. In the remaining 10%, the teacher checks the pupil assistant's report.

Certainly, if we have in mind the efficient use of the teacher's time during the period devoted to home-room purposes, no teacher should ever be calling class rolls day after day. A seating plat for the group can be simply and speedily made out at the beginning of the semester. Pupils learn to find their places readily and enjoy having definite stations. We cannot conceive of any situation which might not lend itself to the development of a definite seating plan.

Pupils enjoy responsibilities. That home-room group would be an extremely rare one if there could not be found some student who could be depended upon to take the class roll and make out daily reports concerning the same. All the teacher needs to do in this connection is to cast his eye over the group to determine the number of vacant places and then see that the number of absentees' names correspond to this number. There is a rather definite trend to a class organization which would place in the hands of a dependable student, the business of taking care of the attendance in the home-room group, under the supervision of the teacher.

A general list of each day's absentees is made up in 304 of the schools reporting. A copy of this list is sent to each teacher in the early part of the day in 169 of these schools. Thirty-seven schools keep the general list in their home rooms. Two hundred forty-three lists show absence for a given day only, while 79 show the cumulative absence of the pupil to the given date. In 178 cases these absence lists are posted.

The number of places of posting vary with the size of the school. Smaller schools post lists only in the office, medium large ones post lists on a bulletin board on each floor, while the larger ones have lists posted in each home room. The function of these posted lists is to serve for checking class absence against all-day absence. They are also the basis of the work of the person or persons who make home contacts and general investigations of the pupil's whereabouts. They furnish the data for permanent ledger records or individual card attendance files.

Two factors seem to be at work in the determination of policy, in this division of the study. In the larger schools of 3000 or more the attendance records are often kept in the home room. It has been found a simpler proposition involving the principle of division of labor, to have this work done here. In a given home room ordinarily a relatively small number of class absence blanks would be received and a comparatively small number of class absence blanks would need to be delivered by each class room teacher each day.

From another point of view, if in the very large school, the absence of the entire school were assembled on a series of sheets, it would amount to several pages of material. Difficulty would arise in checking through a long list. The amount of labor involved in preparing and duplicating it, as well as the amount of paper used each day for such a purpose, would be large. In the event that it were necessary to check on the attendance of a given pupil following an inquiry from within or outside the building, this could be rather readily accomplished by making a contact with the home room teacher.

In schools of 500 or 1500 the practice is to assemble the lists of absentees in the office and then have the same posted. If during the day the need arises for determining the absence of a given pupil, a glance at the list by an office clerk would get the answer speedily. It is a simple and readily accomplished task for the class room teacher or some dependable student designated by him, to check class absence against general absence for the day.

In the medium large units, as for instance schools of 1500 to 3000, it is claimed that centralization of attendance in a specialized office makes for a high type of general efficiency. In the still larger schools it seems to be felt that the home division or sponsor room plan, is better because of the necessity of multiplying the number of persons working on the problems in a central place and that this then leads to a division of authority and a variation in handling similar types of cases. It would appear then that in the judgment of the principals involved, here is a situation in which size of enrollment governs the procedure.

A minority of schools use a plan to show the cumulative absence of pupils. This is done by using the letter "p" to show presence and a number to show the cumulative absence of the pupil. A glance at the attendance page shows the total picture of the pupil's attendance. Such a plan simplifies the writing of special reports on chronic absentees.

A small but growing number of schools are installing the new filing systems* such as are used in many business houses. Program cards, on the back of which semester absence may be checked, are attached in binders having slots in them. These are arranged to lie flat or to hang from posts in such a manner as to have all names exposed. Colored celluloid clips are attached to those cards to indicate chronic cases, unfinished cases and the like. This plan increases speed and efficiency and further reduces the chances of cards being lost.

The checking up of absence has to do with the procedures used on the pupil's return; with the disposition of excuses if any are required; with the selection of policy to regain admission to classes; with the determination of the legality of the excuse, with the authenticity of the signature and with the making up of time or work or both.

Absence is followed up in 427 of the schools reporting. Three hundred seventy-four schools require the pupils to bring written excuses from their parents or guardians. It is expected that these excuses be presented as tickets of admission after absence. Two hundred six schools, however, permit a day or so of grace for the presentation of the excuse. In chronic cases of pupils bringing excuses, 314 schools check the authenticity of signature. In the event that the parent is absent or ill, 314 schools accept the pupil's statement of the cause of absence. Only 38 schools permit pupils to write their own statements to account for absence. Three hundred sixty-seven schools file excuses for reference. Two hundred fourteen schools indicate that non-excused absentees are required to make up time and work which they miss. Only 128 schools

(*The Remington-Rand Co.)

increase the amount of time which they require pupils to pay back as absence develops into the chronic stage.

In order to have a uniform interpretation of excuses, those schools having special attendance headquarters with a teacher in charge, require that all excuses be presented at this office. If the excuses handed in are satisfactory, tickets of admission to class are issued with or without a penalty. Those presenting questionable excuses are given temporary admittance slips and the case is further investigated. Fifty schools require that the required work be made up but nothing is said about just making up time. If the pupils do not make up the lost work, most teachers recommend that chronic absentees be dropped from class. A dozen principals indicate that the pupil must make up the work missed but that no credit is given for it, if the absence is unexcused. Seven principals indicate that they have had splendid results in dealing with the pupil only in accounting for absence. They believe this procedure is highly valuable in building for citizenship. Ten principals indicate that they penalize pupils by giving them detention periods until they bring overdue excuses.

The requiring of written excuse for absence is almost a universal procedure. Generosity in the allowance of the small days of grace prevails. This seems to make for a good attitude on the part of the pupil. There is developing a movement to deal more and more with the pupil of high-school age as an individual rather than to contact his home, at least in the early stages. There are two prevailing schemes of this inside checking work. In the one the home-room teacher or sponsor teacher checks excuses and makes home contacts, and in the other this work is done by a special attendance teacher. The checking and filing of excuses indicates an alertness which is commendable. Wisdom is shown in the fact that most schools do exercise judgment in distinguishing between the treatments used. Character education appears to be in operation when we note that penalties are relatively infrequent except in chronic cases. There is justification in having a pupil pay back to himself the time he has taken illegally. If this time can be fruitfully used in contact with a friendly teacher

in the making up of back work the results are more valuable and the plan curative instead of punitive.

In the following up of absence outside of the school, the office attendance clerk, the home-room teacher, and the assistant principal, followed by the attendance teacher, do the major amount of the work in the proportion of the following numbers: clerk 208, assistant principal 188, home-room teacher 180, and attendance teacher 131. In the later follow-up work the cases are put in the hands of the truant officer in 267 schools and the principal appears in the situation in 156 schools.

In all 428 schools which report that they do follow up absence outside of school, an attempt is made daily to contact the home either by telephone or by a messenger to report the absence and to determine its cause. In 314 instances, the one who makes the home contact reports back to the school the same day. In cases of non-excused absence, the parent or guardian is directed to accompany the pupil on his return to school in 257 instances. In each of these instances a conference is held involving the pupil, parent, and some administrative officer of the school in order to arrive at the cause of absence and the solution of the problem. One hundred sixty-three principals report that they have found a written contract plan of value at the conclusion of this conference. Three hundred sixteen schools give the pupil one more chance by means of a conference with the head of the city attendance department, before the case is taken to the juvenile court. In case of a necessity of filing charges in this court, it is reported that in 261 instances, the attendance officer files these charges and in 47 others, the principal is required to file these charges. About 100 schools report that they have never found it necessary to take any of their pupils before the juvenile court.

It is to be noted that a high percentage of the schools feel the importance of keeping the parent in touch with the situation and of getting his assistance. The visiting teacher movement is making considerable progress. There are now about one-fourth as many visiting teachers as there are truant officers. Prompt reporting of those who make home contacts is

noteworthy. The wide-spread plan of asking the parent to come to the school in the solution of truancy problems, is significant. The frequent use of a written contract plan is indicated as being effective.

When the efforts of the school teachers and the attendance department officer have failed to solve the attendance problem with certain youngsters, these latter people look about for help outside the school to try to find some person whose influence or guidance might have a peculiar appeal to the pupil. Some pupils occasionally have the idea that his teachers may be prejudiced or that his coming may be of some material advantage to the teachers. If he gets guidance from sources having absolutely no connection with the school, this point of view often disappears.

Among those to whom calls for assistance are sometimes made are the pupil's employer, the Sunday School teacher, the older brothers or sisters, the Y. M. C. A. or Y. W. C. A. advisers, the Boy or Girl Scout leaders, a designated Big Brother or Big Sister, and then of course the court official.

Three hundred seventy-eight of the schools reporting in this study indicate that they have made use at different times of outside agencies in their attempts to solve obstinate absence cases.

In a smaller number of instances, the following individuals or organizations have helped: Guidance Bureaus, J. Y. M. A., Mother's Pension Bureau, Emergency Relief, Children's Bureau, Family Society, Children's Protective Associations, part-time employers, Crime Prevention Bureau, classmates, Associated Charities, Home Welfare Worker, Mental Hygiene Clinic, and Jewish Board of Guardians.

From the reports received, it appears that most all schools could profit by making a wider use of assisting agencies in the solution of pupil problems. These outside forces need not be contacted until the school and its various agencies have done what they can. However, the percentage of satisfactory assistance indicates that those of us who are not availing our-

selves of one or more of these aids, are overlooking an opportunity.

We are concerned in this division with the nature of the permanent attendance record, with the question of who keeps the record, and with knowing where it is kept. Some schools keep no duplicate record so that in the event that the one record of a pupil is lost or destroyed, there is little or no chance of reproducing his record for him.

Individual pupil record cards are used to record permanent attendance marks in 273 schools. One hundred nine schools use a single large ledger in the central office for recording the pupil's complete record. Fifty-seven schools use small ledgers of uniform type in the home room. At the end of the year these are filed in the office. Fifty-six schools report the use of home room attendance sheets. Ninety schools report that they accomplish the keeping of a duplicate record by having either the ledger or the card system in the office and the teacher's home room record in a class book on file in the teacher's room. It is the practice in those states having uniform ledgers to have those checked at the end of the year by the state department and then returned to the school for the permanent attendance record.

As to whether or not the record shows presence only, absence only, or both absence and presence, about the same procedure is used as in checking daily absence. Two hundred sixty schools show both, one hundred ten show absence and fourteen just presence.

In 50 schools these permanent attendance records are kept in the home rooms only. In 102 schools, they are kept in the files in the special attendance office, and in 242 schools, they are to be found in the general offices of the principal.

Prevailing practice calls for duplicate records to be kept. One of these records should be in the hands of the home-room teacher or the attendance teacher; the other, a permanent record card of such a type as to lend itself to easy filing.

The permanent record should very certainly be a complete record showing days present as well as days absent. The

form taken by the record, which seems to lend itself to meeting all the problems involved in keeping records, would seem to give a preference to the ledger variety for home-room purposes. This could be either a separate sheet containing all the names with a complete record for a given semester or individual sheets for the number of semesters the pupil is in the high school, with the sheets for all the pupils in the home room bound together in one ledger. This makes possible a smaller binding cover. It lends itself to easier storage, easier transportation, and makes possible the transfer of the sheet from one home room to another in case it becomes necessary to move the pupil.

The advantage of the bound ledger type of record over individual cards, either of the semester variety or of the long-time variety, is that it makes for permanency. The chance of a pupil's record being lost is greatly diminished. In the office, on account of the smaller amount of handling and the fact that the records are more accessible, the larger permanent record card has the advantage in that it can be filed and found much more easily than any other variety of record form.

The paper, *Means of Measuring the Teaching Load in the High School*, was presented by Harl R. Douglass, Professor of Secondary Education of the University of Minnesota.

MEASURING THE TEACHING LOAD

HARL R. DOUGLASS
Professor of Secondary Education
University of Minnesota

A lot of things have come out of the depression besides unemployment, repeal, the debunking of our political and business carpet-baggers, and a Democratic president. Among them has been the tendency to increase the load of the individual teacher so that the school may operate with fewer teachers. In a great many schools this has meant more classes and, in a great many, larger classes, and in some, both. I

want to be put on record as saying that this is a very unfortunate tendency.

This is hardly the time to ask some teachers to carry heavier work in order that other teachers may go without work. The fact that vacancies are left unfilled and hence no teacher has to be discharged is relatively immaterial. For every vacancy left unfilled some competent teacher goes jobless. School executives who have proudly shown their boards of education how the schools may be operated with fewer teachers have really done no worth while service; even if the teaching can be done as well as formerly. They have, like our business executives with small social vision, merely aggravated an already bad social maladjustment and contributed that much to the prevention of economic recovery and human happiness.

I wish the studies in class size had never been conducted. Their results have been exaggerated, misinterpreted, and misapplied. The relative effectiveness of teaching in large and in small classes has been judged largely by the results on objective tests confined mainly to factual conformation and school subject skills. Sometimes I wish that instead of developing objective tests, we had resolved not to try to test at all. I have begun to believe that the tail is going to wag the dog, if it is not already doing so. In fact, I am sure that if the state and national annual testing contests and projects continue to spread, high-school teachers will soon forget all about the purposes of education and the importance of inspiring the development of character, personality, ideals, attitudes, interests, and appreciations. It will plunge headlong and heedless into a fevered treadmill activity of cramming youngsters' minds with facts so that the pupils, the teachers, and the school will show up well on the test—things easy to teach, easy to test and quickly forgotten.

So I say, I am not at all willing to judge the relative effectiveness of large and small classes by any experiments which do not measure the relative effect of each size of class upon those intangibles which often are more significant than

things measured by objective tests in determining our usefulness and happiness as citizens, workers, leisure spenders, and home members. Administrators should be somewhat conservative and critical concerning their experiments. They are not at all conclusive.

I suppose I really should spend the rest of my time discussing "how to measure the teaching load." The problem has become a little more prominent of late. Now that there is a tendency to assign teachers additional duties, they are getting a little on the defensive and are likely to be a little more critical if, when the atmosphere is charged with such ideas as "shared work" and the "thirty-hour week", their loads are increased and inroads are being made upon the time which formerly was theirs for recreation, life in a world broader than the school, professional improvement, and rest. As a consequence the administrator must be somewhat more careful to see that loads are equalized among members of his staff.

In the past we have measured teaching very largely in terms of two types of units: the number of classes taught, and the number of pupils taught. With minor refinements and with the invention of a few high sounding terms such as "pupil-clock-hours", we have measured and compared teaching loads in these terms. The state departments of education and accrediting associations have set their standards in such terms, and surveys and investigations have employed them almost universally. And yet, upon the slightest examination, one can not avoid seeing that they are grossly crude and of limited usefulness.

Consider the number of class sections or class periods taught as measure of teaching load. The real load varies with the number and maturity of the pupils taught, the subject taught, the length of the class hour, and other factors. Consider the number of "pupil-clock-hours". The real load varies with the number of class subjects, the nature of the subject, and other factors. Of two teachers with the same load of 120 pupil-hours daily, he who has 4 classes of 30 each has a much lighter load than he who has 6 classes of 20 each.

Although it is clear that teaching load may not be expressed satisfactorily in terms of any variable, it has been only recently that any serious attempt has been made to consider systematically the chief factors in the testing load. Among the chief factors may be listed the following: (1) The number of class periods taught; (2) The number of pupils taught; (3) The length of the class period; (4) The nature of the subject taught; (5) The number of different preparations involved; (6) The time spent in coöperative or supplementary duties such as supervision of study halls or home rooms, extra-curriculum activities, and various clerical, administrative, supervisory, or inspectional duties; (7) The nature of the pupils taught: their maturity, coöperativeness, and interest in the subject—whether or not they are a normal heterogeneous group, or a selected bright or dull group, or an experimental group, for whom special adaptation of the course of study must be made; (8) The citizenship morale of the school; (9) The equipment and other elements in a good working situation; (10) The experience and preparation of the teacher; the energy and resistance to nervous strain of the teacher.

There are still other factors, but the above list is long enough to demonstrate the difficulty of combining all such factors into a common unit.

Certain of these factors are of relatively lesser importance and may be ignored in the interest of simplicity. Of the others it may be noted that they may be thrown into one or the other of two classes: namely, (1) those which are uniform from teacher to teacher, such as the length of the class period, and (2) those which are inherent in the teacher and not in the instructional situation—for example, the experience of the teacher.

In developing standard measures it has been thought desirable to make them as objective as possible. For example, weight is expressed in terms of downward pressure, not in terms of how much fatigue it produces in a human or other being, and distance is expressed in terms of a standard unit rather than as it once was in terms of the length of a person's

foot or hand or in terms of how tired one might become in walking that far.

With the adoption of these considerations, the task of developing a more useful means of measuring teaching load is simplified to the extent that there is hope of taking into consideration all of the more important factors and reducing them to a common demonstration.

Suppose we consider only the first six of the factors we listed. The formula below is an attempt to combine them into one measure of load.

$$T.L.=SC \left(\frac{CP-2D}{10} + \frac{NP-20CP}{100} + \frac{PC}{2} \right) \times \left(\frac{PL-55}{100} \right)^1$$

It really is much simpler than many imagine at first. Definition of the terms:

TL=Teaching load units.

SC=subject coefficient.

CP=number of class periods taught weekly.

D=number of class periods taught weekly which are duplicates of an original class.

PC=number of class periods spent in coordinations (study halls, hall or noon duty, home rooms, activities, clerical, administrative or supervising duties, or other time spent in connection with the school but not related to the classes taught).

NP=number of pupil-periods taught weekly.

PL=length of the period in terms of minutes.

Let us apply this formidable looking thing to an actual teaching load to see how it works.

Example:

Teacher: Clara Smith Department: English

Class-sections assigned, with enrollments in each: English I, 28; English I, 29; English II, 30; English III, 31; English IV, 20; S.C. for English—1.1 (explained later); PL—55 minutes.

¹For discussion of theory and use of this formula see *Organization and Administration of Secondary-Schools* by Harl R. Douglass, Ginn & Company Ch. V.

Coöperations: Study hall 2 periods a week; adviser of school paper 2 periods a week; editorial work for superintendent of schools and high-school principal averaging 1 period a week. Solution of formula:

$$TL=1.1 \left(25 - \frac{10}{10} + \frac{690-500}{100} + \frac{5}{2} \right) \times \left(\frac{55+55}{100} \right)$$

or $1.1 (25-1 + 1.9 + 2.5) (1.1)$
 or $1.1 \times 28.4 \times 1.1 = 34.7$ units.

It is probably appropriate to explain why the numbers in the formula are what they are, rather than some other number.

First, let me disavow that this formula for which I believe I see considerable utility has origin either in magic or scientific research, though it is based partly on the latter. The teaching load unit has been taken to mean the load incident to teaching one class of twenty pupils, requiring an average amount of preparation and paper or test reading, for a single period of 45 minutes. For classes of smaller or larger size for shorter or longer periods, or which require definitely less or more preparation and paper and test reading, the coefficients, denominators, and other numbers of the general formula have been so selected as to make what seems to be the most reasonable and appropriate allowances. In doing this the following assumptions are made:

1. That teaching a duplicate class requiring little or no special preparation beyond that necessary for the other section or sections should be thought of as being .2 less teaching load than a class requiring preparation.

2. That for every 100 pupils taught daily less or more than the norm, an allowance of one daily class including preparation, paper, and test reading, etc. should be permitted. Taking 20 as the normal class size is arbitrary and does not affect the formula materially. Twenty is the closest round number that can be applied to the average class size in all high schools. The "100" is also somewhat arbitrary. It is close to the average of what a large number of superintendents, principals, and teachers believe should be this figure, "100" being selected rather than 90, 92, or 108, as the use of other

numbers not materially different affect the result of the formula but little and on the other hand make the computation more difficult and susceptible to arithmetical mistakes.

3. Similarly, two periods spent in coöperation are arbitrarily assumed to be the equivalent to the load incident to teaching one class one period, including all related duties such as preparing for it, reading papers and notebooks; preparing and scoring tests, selecting, averaging, and preparing equipment, texts, or other instructional material. Perhaps 1.75 or 1.85 would constitute a more accurate weighting if one wanted to be meticulously exact.

4. The factor $\frac{PL + 55}{100}$ was so set up as to result in 1.0 when evaluated for a period of 45 minutes, the standard, and to count each additional minute beyond that a 1 per cent additional load. Again 90, or 110, might be more accurate, though as in the former case, no one can be sure just what exact figure should be used.

5. The subject coefficient has been reserved for especial consideration. Teachers and administrators have always felt that some subjects require more time than others, English, for example. Though complete agreement on the respective order has been lacking, considerable community of opinion exists. In addition, studies made by Woody and Bergman, Frank Koos, Brownell, Fritt and Keyes, and Reichard throw light on this matter. In these studies groups of teachers were asked to keep records of the time spent upon their various classes for a period of a week or longer and the amounts of time spent on classes in various fields compared. The studies are not in complete agreement on all details, but a composite of them may be used to develop the following coefficients:

- 1.1—English, science, history and social studies, and commercial geography (taught by use of wide reading, considerable prepared informal lecturing by instructor supplementing the text, and related to present day affairs and events).

1.0—Mathematics, foreign languages, commercial subjects (not on double period plan) and history and social studies taught by the textbook rotation method.

0.9—All shop subjects, household arts, art, and double period commercial classes.

.8—Music and physical education classes.

If a teacher teaches a class in two or more of the above groups, her load is computed separately for each subject, down to the close of the first brackets, omitting the term which is also computed separately, and then load for the different fields and the $\frac{PC}{2}$ added, and this total multiplied by $\frac{PL + 55}{100}$. In applying the formula to double period classes: (1) Count each double period as two class periods (e.g. Physics—7 periods a week); (2) For each double period add 1 to the figure representing the number of duplicate periods of preparation; (3) Count the number of pupils in each double period as twice the actual number of different students. In applying the formula to junior-college classes for comparison to high-school loads, multiply the result obtained by use of the formula by 1.2 and for the junior high school by .9.

Let me conclude with a few statements of summary. The formula is not a scientifically precise formula such as that found in the natural sciences, nor is it the loose sort of expression frequently found in theoretical economics and philosophy. It is based largely upon opinion of experienced school people and a few research studies. It does not measure all the factors of wear and strain on the teacher. It facilitates useful comparisons between the loads of teachers and of schools, which comparisons are but remotely affected by the assumptions underlying the formula. It is not the best that will eventually be devised. It is better than the means we have been using. It is the best I have been able to do in the eight years I have studied the problem. I offer it in that spirit of limited helpfulness and hope that soon someone may improve upon it.

In Parlor A, Charles Forrest Allen, First Vice President of the Department, presided over a group, to whom W. F. Warren Superintendent of the Schools of Durham, North Carolina, read his paper, *The School Situation in North Carolina and Its Effects Upon Secondary Schools*.

THE SCHOOL SITUATION IN NORTH CAROLINA AND ITS EFFECTS UPON SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Superintendent

W. F. WARREN

Durham, North Carolina

The deepening crisis in education all over the nation has caused each of the states to become seriously concerned about the future welfare of its public schools. The school situation in North Carolina is not unlike that of many other states, except possibly in the matter of the equalization of educational opportunities and more recently, in greater state control. Without recourse to details and many statistics, a brief summary of the school situation in North Carolina, and its effects on secondary schools, might be of interest to this group, because of a new experiment the state has undertaken recently. The picture of the public school system of North Carolina, to many, no doubt will seem gloomy, but after careful study of its perspective, this same picture might portray special significance regarding the future educational welfare of the state's children.

The public school system of North Carolina has existed approximately a century. In 1860 the state system ranked among the first in the nation, but due to war and consequent destruction, the school system began anew in 1875.

Recent Legislation.

From 1931 to 1933 the schools of the state carried on quite efficiently with allotments of funds to various districts for the constitutional six months term by the state, which were sup-

plemented by local funds voted by the people, until the greatest depression of the nation and the world reached a climax and the schools of the state seemed doomed. It was then that the General Assembly of 1933 enacted into law the experiment in school support, which I suppose is unlike that of any state in the nation, with the possible exception of the state of Delaware. A brief summary of this new legislation is as follows:

1. The assumption of state financial support of an *eight* months school term for every child in North Carolina.
2. The appropriation of \$16,000,000 for the operation and maintenance of schools during this eight months period.
3. The establishment of a State School Commission with absolute control of state school funds.
4. The abolition of every school district, special and chartered, except for bonded indebtedness, and the establishment of new city and county school administrative units.
5. The elimination of all ad valorem taxes then existing in school districts for school purposes, except for debt service, but permits any school unit, city or county, to have local tax by a new referendum.
6. The assumption of control of all transportation of children in every district of the state, operated under the control and direction of the State School Commission.
7. The postponement of the requirement for summer school attendance during the next two years for all teachers of the state.
8. In the employment of teachers no rule shall be made or enforced on the grounds of marriage or non-marriage.
9. Sets up basis for state teacher allotment, contracts, and provides for certain vocational subjects, such as agriculture and home economics, through local taxation by tax levying boards.

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10. No school term shall exceed 180 days, with the option of teaching six days per week and extending the school day one hour, thereby making a shorter term in days.
11. Workmen's compensation is limited to drivers, mechanics and janitors, and eliminates all teachers.
12. No state funds are available for special supervisors in rural or city schools.
13. The superintendent of the county and city units becomes ex-officio Secretary to the Board of Education or Board of Trustees and is required by law to sign all vouchers for paying out public school funds. The election of the superintendent has to be approved by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction and the State School Commission after being elected by the local city or county unit board.

These are some of the most essential things enacted into law by the General Assembly of 1933, which seriously affected the maintenance and operation of the best public schools of the state.

"The duties of the School Commission have to do only with school finances, leaving school administration to the State Department of Education, under the State Superintendent of Public Instruction. Anything pertaining to school finance is controlled by the State School Commission. This applies to state and local funds, since all budgets have to be approved by the School Commission."

The Department of Public Instruction, headed by the State Superintendent and his staff, is charged with the administration of the salary schedule for teachers and principals, and to carry out all the rules and regulations of the State Board of Education.

Effects on Secondary Schools briefly stated are as follows:

1. Reduced School Term in Better Schools.

Every school in North Carolina except possibly seven will operate an eight months school term for the years 1933 to 1935,

unless local tax supplements are voted. This does not mean, however, a reduction in school attendance of all the children of the state, but rather an increase. It means that rural children will have more schooling, while all urban centers operating the best schools of the state will decrease the term by at least one month. With pride, and yet hesitatingly I say, that Durham, North Carolina, is the only city of more than 25,000, operating a nine months school this year, due to the fact that the people of Durham were unwilling to suffer drastic retrenchment in its educational program and voted back a local tax supplement which the Legislature of 1933 declared non-existent. Six other smaller school districts of the state voted small supplements. Other larger urban centers attempted a local tax, but were unsuccessful. Durham is, perhaps, fortunate in being under the shadow of two great universities, the University of North Carolina and Duke University, and having in the corporate limits several big industries, such as the American, Imperial and Liggett & Myers Tobacco Companies, which prospered during the depression, and whose leadership stood for adequate school facilities. Durham was the first school district in the state to attempt to re-establish the faith of its constituency in its schools and won, taking the lead in maintaining an adequate school system for more than 12,000 children, making no discrimination in educational opportunities for white and negro children. How long this attitude will continue depends on which direction current school trends take in the nation.

2. Crowded Conditions.

Many school rooms built to accommodate 35 pupils have on roll from 40 to 60. This is due to industry under N. R. A. sending back thousands to the school on account of child labor laws, and also to the fact that fewer teachers were allotted to schools by the state. Taking into account the increase in school attendance, North Carolina to-day needs approximately 1,000 additional teachers in order to remedy crowded conditions. A large number of teachers are on the unemployed list. Crowded classrooms in schools will no doubt cause greater retardation

and inefficiency in class instruction. Little or no opportunity is possible for taking care of individual differences of pupils and for carrying on a real constructive program of instruction under such circumstances. Physical equipment built and arranged for class size of 35 to 40 presents a serious problem when an attempt is made to increase this enrollment to 50 or 60. Many school buildings are overcrowded, necessitating double daily sessions for thousands of children. In order to teach double size classes in the present school structure, it would be necessary to remodel practically every school building in the state, which, in my opinion, is an impossibility, certainly at present.

3. The Enforced Decrease in Teacher Allotment for Best Schools.

Fewer teachers employed to teach more pupils is just as much a fallacy as to say when businesses grow, decrease workers. To illustrate what happened in this respect in North Carolina, the city of Durham employed in 1930-31 352 teachers with a school population of between 10,000 and 11,000. In 1933 the state allotment of teachers for the same schools, with a school population of 12,165 is 294. Local supplement fund added 25, making a total of 319. The Durham City Schools without supplement would have been short 58 teachers over 1930-31 with an increase in school enrollment of about 2,000. The total number of teachers employed in the state for 1933-34 is 23,064, which is between 200 and 300 more state teachers than the number allotted by the state in 1932-33, but at the same time there are 21,549 more pupils in average daily attendance this year. The shortage of the number of teachers and principals employed in the state this year over last year is almost 500, with approximately twenty thousand more children in average daily attendance.

Whether or not this experiment of less teachers and overcrowded classes will prove economical is a matter of doubtful conjecture, because it is against all logical and successful business principles. School house rebuilding for larger room space might become a matter of extravagance with great doubt about the success of the experiment of double size classes to one

teacher. A citizenship laboratory for constructive and successful training of youth, in a democracy, might demand even smaller working groups than the former normal size classes of 30 to 40. This idea should sponsor serious thought, since there seems considerable doubt about the efficiency of the graduated product of our present day schools in making adjustments to present social and economical demands. Let us assume that recent trends seem to favor a more liberal education, but let us not forget that such a program demands adequate financial support, excellent teachers and time. "There is no royal short cut to culture and to an educated citizenship."

4. Teacher Load and Service Increased.

It has become possible in this age of mechanism for one person to manipulate several machines by the simple operation of a lever or the control of a switch, which has added great numbers to the unemployed, but this same principle does not hold true with reference to one teacher teaching and training large numbers of pupils. No ten human beings can be thrown in to one piece of mechanism and be operated and trained by the touch of an electric button. Every child is a vital living personality more intricate and more difficult to train for safeguarding the next generation than ever before in the history of the world. Teachers in North Carolina, under our present set-up, are required to teach larger classes with more periods of work. Little time is available for relaxation and social activity with pupils, which is essential, not only to the teacher's welfare, but to those being taught. Training the future citizenry of North Carolina or of the nation entails greater responsibilities and demands the best efforts of the greatest personalities in the teaching profession. There is a limit to physical, mental and moral powers and service in this human endeavor. Living humanity is unlike in every respect to the manipulation of mechanical devices.

5. Decreased Educational Facilities in Large Urban Centers.

The towns and cities of North Carolina, as mentioned in another place in this paper, have taken the lead in establishing

and maintaining an adequate educational program all over the state, laying foundation for high standard schools. Many of these ranked high in efficiency and were recognized highly by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, and the larger universities of the nation. There is no doubt in the minds of school people and others interested in schools that the Legislature of 1933 saved schooling advantages in many rural sections of the state, but the danger in decreasing high standards, reached in city schools, in order to increase standards, not reached, in rural schools seems to be, on its face value, a levelling down process in education, instead of constructive building, and would seem to many to be a step of false economy. The city of Charlotte was set back in its educational program many years, according to a statement of its superintendent of schools, and a complete re-organization was necessary to operate on a greatly curtailed educational budget. Cities have been affected all over the state in the same way.

6. The Possibility of a Decreased Attitude of the Wealthy toward Public Schools.

The schools of the country, and especially of our state, need the support of all the men of wealth and influence. Decreased school opportunities in any part of the state have a tendency to cause wealthy parents to remove their children from the public schools and enter them into private schools, because of more advantages and the possibilities of individual instruction. This, if greatly practiced, would prove a serious disaster, because the support of all, poor and wealthy, is needed to sponsor an adequate public school program. Should this tendency continue to grow, class distinction and individualism will sweep in and have drastic and ruinous effect on a good program of school training for the majority of the youth in the state. The public school is the university for the people, and every wealthy man should realize the advantages derived from these benefits offered all classes of children, in preparing the future citizens of the next generation.

7. Health Training and Physical Education Greatly Impaired.

Physical education and health work in the state's public schools have been greatly curtailed, and in some schools eliminated, due to retrenchment in finances. This perhaps is one of the most serious effects on the childhood of the state, because in this work lies the foundation of citizenship and character development. Many children who have had opportunities of training in corrective and regular physical education classes are being deprived of this essential physical service. No person to-day in the field of modern education would oppose an adequate program of physical education for children. Traditional attitudes of non-school people, of course, class this work as possibly one of the so-called *frills*. The man who says to-day, "Well, I didn't have any such stuff while in school, and my child doesn't need it," might be thought of as living in another day—the past generation. The importance of this phase of school activity in urban centers cannot be over emphasized, and every safeguard and protection must be thrown around children for their physical welfare. The physical house in which a child lives deserves the most careful consideration, because from it must develop a strong cultured citizen, which is almost impossible under carelessness in health conditions.

8. Decreased School Supplies.

Instructional materials, library allotments, and janitors' supplies were greatly reduced under the present state set-up, due to drastically curtailed school budgets. Funds for fuel, water, power, and light were cut to a minimum, which hindered greatly the operation of many school plants for the greatest efficiency and comfort. Some schools in the state may have to close on account of fuel and water shortage unless funds for heat and water supply are taken out of teacher salary allotment, which would mean further cuts in the very low teacher salary schedule. Reducing instructional supplies and library facilities will, in all probability, cause greater retardation in schools which may become quite an economic problem, because of the expense involved in reteaching these same children. Reducing janitors' supplies may cause serious health condi-

tions and sanitation problems. Adequate supplies are essential in carrying on a good program of instruction. There was never a time when a modern program of education, which calls for an enriched curriculum, is needed more than now. The new educational program will call for ample supplies, without which it will be difficult to adjust any school program to social demands.

9. Elimination of Many Practical and Cultural Courses in the Curriculum.

The moment that the retrenchment program became effective in North Carolina, people generally advocated the elimination of the so-called fads and frills in schools, and said place more emphasis on the fundamentals. This idea, of course, originated from those educated, shall I say, in another age, who have little or no conception of a program of training of modern youth for a New Deal age. Latin, trigonometry, algebra, ancient history, etc., might better be classified as fads and frills now, instead of physical education, industrial arts, home economics, fine art, music, journalism, dramatics, etc., which, as some one has said, might be termed thrills in so far as they are effective in training our boys and girls the fine art of, not so much how to make a living, but how to live. Much has been said about the importance of traditional subjects. Traditions change as times change. The fundamentals and essentials in education to-day are not those of yesterday and will not be those of to-morrow. This idea, though, is fast losing ground in our state, because of the economic crisis and unemployment, and the people are realizing more and more the value of vocational and cultural subjects in the public school curriculum. The secondary schools suffered a tremendous blow under this traditional attitude when retrenchment came. The State Superintendent of Public Instruction of North Carolina held a large educational conference recently, inviting, in addition to schoolmen, representatives from all types of organizations and industries. This conference was called for the purpose of initiating a study over a two-year period looking to the adoption of new courses which will more nearly meet the needs of a modern educational program.

10. The Best Teachers and Executives Seek Other Work in Order to Make a Living.

Perhaps another of the most serious effects on the whole educational system of North Carolina is that of the economic status of the teacher and executive. Teachers in some schools who were receiving from \$2,000 to \$3,300 teaching in high schools were reduced on the salary scale by the state to a maximum of \$720.00 per year, and a possible minimum of \$336.00. The state adopted schedule was set up in accordance with money allotted by the Legislature. A white teacher with no experience holding an A certificate receives from the state \$560.00 for eight months. This salary is increased in monthly increments of \$2.50 for each year of experience up to eight, when the maximum salary of \$720.00 is reached. B class teachers begin with \$480.00 and increase for six years to \$600.00. C class teachers begin with \$440.00 and increase to \$520.00. Negro teachers holding A class certificates begin on a state basis of calculation \$432.00 and increase to \$560.00 per school year. B class teachers begin at \$368.00 and increase to 464.00. C class teachers begin with \$336.00 and increase to \$400.00. All principals' and superintendents' salaries were reduced in similar or greater proportion. From this salary schedule one will see that an unskilled workman or just a water boy under the minimum Blanket Code rate would receive \$728.00, which is little enough. Democracy will never thrive in a nation that places no premium on ability and training. Teachers trained efficiently should not be blocked off in squares and rated mathematically and geometrically. No salary schedule for an educational group, or any other group, is just unless it regards the biological and sociological aspect of personal qualifications and in this way determines value of a person to the entire community. The lawyer, the physician, the business man draw high salaries because the community recognizes his efficiency, which is a result of training and experience. The nation's safety depends on a trained teacher personnel.

Twenty-three thousand and sixty-four teachers in North Carolina are giving their best efforts on less than living wages in order to save educational opportunities for almost 900,000

children of the state, with the hope of a new deal in the near future. How long this sacrifice will continue is a matter of serious concern, because there is a breaking point in every organization when an economic crisis is reached and prolonged. The other side of the picture is that the state of North Carolina is not indebted a dollar to any teacher, and indications are that every teacher will be paid on time and in cash by the state for the minimum eight months school term. This is something for other states to consider. The teachers in North Carolina and over the nation generally are to be congratulated on the coöperation they are giving to the New Deal movement. No doubt you as secondary-school principals and college and university men working in the departments of education, have felt this morale among teachers of your own communities. There may be something good that will come out of this crisis which will have deep spiritual significance. Many of us school people will have to take stock of our own personnel training and efficiency, because in the end this social and economic demand being made on this essential service will call for experts with higher salaries in the field of education to train the nation's children for a greater and better prepared citizenship, under a more liberalized program of education.

This is indeed a gloomy picture, and to end this discussion at this point one would draw a very unhappy conclusion regarding the future welfare of all the schools of the state of North Carolina. We must get a true perspective of this school situation in the light of industry and business which have suffered drastic retrenchments. In order to have good schools our industries must thrive and business must prosper. The two go hand in hand, and one depends on the other for the greatest success. On economic recovery depends the success of the schools. Just as truly as the New Deal program now being sponsored by the nation is to be successful, and I believe it will, just as truly will there be a New Deal in education. America, already below educational standards in many foreign countries, cannot afford to sacrifice the nation's children for the sake of industrial power and success. To do so the next generation would face ruin and disaster that would ultimately result in the nation's downfall.

I believe we have reached the conclusion in North Carolina when the old school must pass, because modern youth in this airplane age, full of changes, cannot be trained with ox-cart day methods to fit into a social strata of twenty-five years ago, which does not exist. The New Deal in education must sponsor a new curricula executed quickly with modern methods, in order to keep pace with this rapidly changing age of industry, finance, and government. I wonder if we as school men are ready and have the courage and determination to adapt ourselves to this new situation. This problem of a more liberal education faces us in the immediate future. This is true in North Carolina and I presume is equally true over the entire nation.

I am inclined to believe, then, that the men who composed the General Assembly of the state of North Carolina last year were conscientious and sincere and did what they thought was best under the circumstances in adopting the policy of throwing the wealth of the state back of education. In carrying out this policy the three per cent general sales tax passed by the Legislature of 1933 to safeguard the state's credit and protect the state's schools met much opposition, but no doubt this was the best possible procedure, until a better solution could be found. Just what the outcome will be, I am unable to say. We must realize the fact, though, that North Carolina is giving to every child in the state a minimum eight months school term of minimum standard, and present indications are that schools will be kept open the full period and bills paid in cash. We accept the application of this policy, though, with grave doubt, yet with optimistic hope, since the standards set for schools are on the level of the poorer counties, according to their conception of the place and purpose in education. In the words of the President of the State Parent-Teacher Congress, "North Carolina has provided the skeleton for an ideal system of education. In its aspect to-day it is a rather ghostly thing, as skeletons usually are. It is only through the efforts of the school patrons that this skeleton can be clothed with flesh and blood, and I still believe the parenthood of the state is equal to the task."

Quoting the opinion of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction in a letter recently sent to school officials of the

state, "The state-wide eight months school term supported out of the state treasury without the imposition of an ad valorem tax is a new departure in school maintenance. It is still in the experimental stage so far as its operation is concerned. The foundation, however, on which it rests seems substantial and permanent. Its establishment prevented a total collapse of the rural system this year.

"It is a masterful achievement for a state to keep open the school house door in every district throughout a financial disturbance such as we have had in this country. This accomplishment is all the more impressive when we consider the fact that the money for its support was set up in the midst of the greatest money debacle in our history, with the banks all closed and business at a complete standstill. No man could see a day ahead, yet we took a chance and won."

Suggestions for Safeguarding the State's Schools.

In conclusion I wish to submit the following suggestions of how we are trying to safeguard the schools of North Carolina.

1. By building constructively on present facilities and trying in every possible way to prevent further retrenchment in school funds.
2. By stimulating even a greater teacher morale through coöperation and group affiliations by rallying to the support of local, state, and national organizations.
3. By realizing the fact that strong educators in the state, such as college and university men and women, public school executives, excellent teachers, and educated parents, must accept this great challenge of the New Deal in education and prove themselves masters in saving the schools.
4. By reconstructing the entire elementary and secondary-school curricula, which must be modernized and expertly executed in order to train for practical living, for a refined leisure, and to know how to live happily as a cultured and an educated citizen.

5. By attempting to awaken public conscience in the state through a program of citizenship training of all the people. We have set up a well planned emergency program in North Carolina, which embraces state, county and community organizations, for distributing proper school information to every person in the state, in order to have a well informed legislative constituency who will be able to act wisely regarding childhood training in the schools of the state. This emergency program in education is headed by Dean Justin Miller of the Law School of Duke University.
6. By forgetting cliques, prejudices, and party affiliation and stand by the man of the hour, the President of this great nation, Honorable Franklin D. Roosevelt, and expect and urge Federal Aid for saving our schools in this emergency, administered in a thoroughly democratic way, without destroying local or state initiative, and yet establish certain state levels in education.
7. By realizing that the educational challenge of the state of North Carolina, perhaps insignificant in educational rating with other great states that many of you represent, is the nation's challenge; that North Carolina's children are but the nation's children; that the training of these children is saving and preserving the most sacred assets of the nation. This essential service is democracy's only safeguard; it is the only way to preserve American ideals; it is civilization's only hope.

Mr. Wilford M. Aikin, Director of John Burroughs School, St. Louis, read a *Report on the Relation of School and College*.

REPORT OF COMMISSION ON THE RELATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL AND COLLEGE

WILFORD M. AIKIN

Director, John Burroughs School, St. Louis, Mo.
Chairman, Commission on the Relation of School and College

In October 1930 a Commission on the Relation of School and College was established by the Progressive Education Association. A few months later I appeared before the Department of Secondary-School Principals and asked the appointment of two representatives to serve on the Commission.

The Commission consisted of representatives of school and college—all eager to improve school and college relations and to give the secondary school an opportunity to engage in experimental study of its own work. It was clear to every one who studied the problem that it was extremely difficult, if not impossible, for the secondary school to make any important or significant departures from its traditional curriculum, organization, and procedure unless the colleges would agree to a different relationship with the secondary school. We believed that the colleges would accept a well-considered, reasonable plan if such a plan could be devised. To date 265 colleges and universities have accepted the proposal and given us assurance of coöperation.

A small group of excellent secondary schools, both public and private, each with funds, faculty personnel and interest, parental support and administrative leadership adequate to the task, have been granted for a period of five years beginning in 1936, exemption from the traditional unit and examination requirements and set free to engage in experimental study of the work of the high school.

Selection of Students.

Admission to college for the experimental period is based upon the following criteria:

A. Recommendation from the principal of the coöperating secondary school to the effect that the graduating student:

(a) Is possessed of the requisite general intelligence to carry on college work creditably; (b) Has well defined serious interests and purposes; (c) Has demonstrated ability to work successfully in one or more fields of study in which the college offers instruction.

B. A carefully recorded history of the student's school life and of his activities and interests, including results of various types of examinations and other evidence of the quality and quantity of the candidate's work, also scores on scholastic aptitude, achievement, and other diagnostic tests given by the schools during the secondary-school course.

It is intended that the tests used will be of such character that the results submitted to the colleges will give a more adequate and complete picture of the candidate than is given by methods now in use. A special Committee on Records is now at work endeavoring to determine: (1) What information the college needs for wise selection and guidance of students; (2) How that information can best be secured; (3) In what form it should be recorded and presented to the colleges.

The responsibility of selecting the schools for this study fell upon the Directing Committee.

Dean McConn, Secretary of the Committee, reports the procedure in selecting the schools as follows:

"This task proved to be one of great difficulty and delicacy. In the first place, the Commission had guaranteed to the colleges that 'only schools of highest character and excellence and established reputation' would be admitted to the group. In the second place, it was obvious, in view of the purpose of the project as a whole, that the schools to be chosen should be prepared to undertake immediately some significant and reasonably thorough-going experimentation in a generally progressive direction; this clearly meant schools in which both the administration and the faculty had already achieved a sympathetic understanding of progressive ideals and objectives, which were in a position to carry their constituencies with them in an experimental program, and which had resources adequate for the support of such a program.

"A substantial number responded with definitely formulated proposals for experimentation. In addition the Directing Committee has received, and has heartily welcomed, a number of proposals from schools which were not included in the list it had compiled but which had heard of its project and desired to be affiliated therewith.

"Doing its work as well as it could, in the light of the two fundamental criteria and the several minor considerations cited, on the basis of all the information it could assemble, and on the basis especially of the actual concrete proposals for experimentation submitted by the various schools, the Directing Committee has now chosen a number of cooperating schools for this experiment."

The first students from these cooperating schools will be admitted to college under this plan in 1936. All but two or three of the schools began their new work last September with the class which will enter college three years later. What is the new work in these schools?

The Committee has encouraged initiative and originality on the part of each school. There has been no desire to tell the schools what they should do. We have rather sought to discover the schools which are eager and qualified to make significant departures of their own from the conventional and traditional high-school work. However, the Committee did feel at liberty to make some suggestions, indicating the fields in which experimental study is needed.

The educational emphasis in this plan is based upon a conviction that the secondary schools must become more effective in helping young people to develop the insight, the powers and the self-direction necessary for resourceful and constructive living.

To this end we should like to provide, more fully than the present organization of secondary education permits, for changes such as are indicated under the following headings: (A) Greater mastery in learning; (B) More continuity of learning; (C) Release of creative energies; (D) Clearer understanding of the problems of our civilization, and the de-

velopment of a sense of social responsibility; (E) Revision of curriculum materials and their organization; (F) Guidance of students; and (G) Teaching.

TYPES OF CURRICULUM PLANS.

The Cultural-Epoch Organization.

The outstanding feature of the new curricula is the definition of a school year's content as a cultural epoch rather than as the traditionally organized subject matter in the usual departments of knowledge. In so many of the schools that it might be considered typical, the three senior high-school years are devoted to the study of the modern period of European-American culture. The tenth grade, for instance, devotes itself to the development of American culture, including the political, economic, technological, artistic, and literary life and expression of the epoch; the eleventh grade similarly devotes itself to a study of modern European culture; and the twelfth grade to the recent and contemporary American cultural complex.

In the new plans, the study of the cultural epoch is required of all students. There seems to be no exception to this in those schools whose curricula represent the culture-epoch type of organization. On the other hand, this required work does not consume all or nearly all of the individual student's time as it did, for instance, in the Meiklejohn junior-college organization at Wisconsin, where the study of Greek culture became practically the entire content of the first year, and modern American culture of the second year. For the remainder of the student's time, in the school plans, there are occasional modern-language or other requirements; but most frequently, there is choice between various fields of work which are elective, or more properly speaking, are individually prescribed by faculty advisers on the basis of a knowledge of the student's needs and abilities.

Broad Fields of Knowledge.

A second type of curriculum plan found in the programs of the twenty-seven schools is the rearrangement of subject matter by replacing specialized departments and traditional unit courses with broad fields of knowledge, and then organizing the content within these fields into a continuous sequence from year to year. The broad divisions vary from four to six. Typically, they are as follows: the fine arts and music, literature and languages, the social studies, the sciences and mathematics.

The theory underlying this kind of organization has been well stated in Dr. Learned's analysis published five or six years ago under the title, "The Nature of the Educational Process in the United States and Europe," and restated in several of the publications related to the so-called Pennsylvania Study. The theory is that the continuation of one type of subject matter, preferably with the same teacher for a number of years produces a better intellectual product, encourages better intellectual processes and greater power than the present, uncoordinated course, unit, and credit plan.

Individual Interests and Needs.

A third group of schools takes the student's individual interest, need, or career objective (these are, of course, often identical) as a basis for organizing the senior high-school work. At one school, for instance, there is no indication of reorganizing subject matter into broad fields or of coördinating the subject matter of a year by study of a single historical epoch. But the pupil's selected "field of interest"—whether it be literature, language, science, history or art—is made the basis for organizing each successive year's work. This means individual plans of study, many curricula instead of one curriculum. The same school provides also a general program of studies, scarcely distinguishable from that generally in use, for those of its students who have not developed a predominating interest. Another school, avoiding "horizontal" or "vertical" syntheses of subject matter for all, organizes each

student's work round his or her center of interest—in a loose sense, the student's probable future vocation. At least one-fourth of the student's time is a direct outgrowth of this major interest; also—and this is most important—the other three-fourths is organized so as to be definitely related to the main interest.

The Social Studies.

The social studies have a much enlarged place in all of the school programs. With one or two exceptions, work in social studies is required of all students for all of the three years of the senior high school. In most of them, it tends to be the central subject of study—certainly as important as any other. This is new. Almost as striking is the emphasis, during the three years, upon the modern period and more particularly upon our contemporary institutions and their ideology. It should be remembered that these are not complete secondary-school curricula but curricula for *the last three* school years. Immediately preceding these years, and for most students later in college, there is abundant study of historical periods and cultures remote in time and place.

Another distinct tendency in the social-studies program is that of planning for a thorough analysis of limited historical fields rather than for a cursory survey of the sweep of the whole past. This tendency is not universal. One school program states that there will be "a rapid survey of the high points of world history"; but for the most part, we find a selection of limited periods serving as significant samples of larger areas in time and space. This is a healthful contrast to the encyclopedic orientation courses which developed in our colleges at the end of the World War.

Perhaps of most significance in the plans for social-studies work is the clear recognition that the students in our schools are living in a revolutionary situation, that the school's task is to aid directly in the honest understanding of this work to change, and so far as possible, to develop attitudes which will yield a reasonable sense of security in such a world.

Literature and Languages.

In the new curricula English literature and foreign languages and literatures are taking a less conspicuous place than they occupy in existing school programs. English reading and writing have been carried continuously through the secondary school. In the new programs this continuity is not eliminated; rather, English reading and writing are to be carried on as integral parts of the analysis of a whole culture and not as separate entities. Presumably, none will regret the passing of the old, isolated, unmotivated work in English "composition" or writing. The experiment of conducting English reading as a related or integral part of the study of a historical period or cultural epoch will be followed with interest.

In recent years, the place of foreign languages has been one of the most difficult and contentious problems in curriculum organization. In existing college preparatory programs, linguistic study has been out of all proportion to other types of intellectual activity. In the new programs, foreign languages have a secure but considerably reduced place. In all of the plans, the ancient languages are elective. Perhaps due to existing school staffs, Latin has great pre-eminence over Greek. About one-half of the programs require some work in French, German appears as an elective only, and in some programs does not appear at all. This, again, can be explained on grounds of staff and inertia rather than as a rational preference for one of these two great modern languages and literatures.

An important improvement—certainly in line with general educational thought—is that of providing, and even of urging, the study of one language throughout the secondary-school period, with the expectation of continuing it in college to the point of mastery, in place of the existing school and college requirements which so often result in one or two years' study of two languages not continued beyond the point of minimum school and college requirements.

An interesting venture in the language field is being carried on in two or three schools—that of a general course

in etymology or the elements of language. This is being given at the end of the junior high school period. It serves as a means of diagnosis of linguistic ability and as an introduction to the later work in foreign languages. In one school, the general language course is required, and the later foreign language work stems from it as elective to be chosen by those in whom real linguistic aptitudes are revealed in the general language course.

Science.

As in the case of social studies, science has distinctly greater importance in the new school plans. In most cases it becomes a continuous sequence through the senior-high school years. As "history of science," it is required as part of the integrated study of a cultural epoch when the latter is the basis of the general curriculum organization. Where the program is that of organization into broad fields, we find, almost invariably, a course in general science running through the three years. In the earlier years, the traditional divisions between chemistry, biology, and physics disappear. In several cases, they are offered as electives in the last year. Evidently, there is to be much more emphasis on science as an essential part of general cultural development and less emphasis on the specialized self-consistent subject matters. There is to be laboratory work; but there is indication of the intention to omit many topics so as to emphasize mastery and significance in the work undertaken. There is also indication of more flexibility in the choice of subject matter within large subdivisions so as to make full use of students' varying interests and abilities.

Mathematics is much reduced in position in the new curricula. After a minimum requirement, ending before or after the completion of elementary algebra, mathematical work becomes elective. It is to be taught, in its advanced phases, as a tool in connection with science. It will be prescribed for those who go on to college work such as engineering and scientific study in which it is an essential tool. At one school, there is to be the novel arrangement of a smaller

quantity of mathematics each year for six years, making it a continuous rather than an intensive study.

Arts and Music.

Arts and music appear in the new programs, for the first time, as subjects which may be carried on continuously, from the beginning of the junior high school into college. Probably there has been no more tragic disharmony in the progressive school movement than the necessity students have faced of giving up, during the last three school years, work in these fields which for many had come to mean so much in the earlier school years. Now the work may be continued without a break. The study of art is a required part of the culture-epoch study in most programs. Usually, this takes the form of reading, understanding, and appreciating, rather than of studio work. Studio work, however, can, in almost all cases, be carried on as an elective through the senior high school by those with special abilities.

Music has a similar place in the new programs. As understanding and appreciation, it appears as an essential part of the culture-epoch content. As individual tuition, it is elective or, in some cases, remains outside the school program.

New Subjects.

Among the newer subjects appearing in the school plans is homemaking, which is required work in some of the girls' secondary schools in the experiment. We also find courses, variously named, which relate closely to the function of individual counseling, especially with regard to mental and social adjustments. They represent attempts to organize for groups a great deal of practical material in the fields of psychology, vocational guidance, and philosophy, which in other places are left to individual counsel.

METHODS.

A fundamental administrative provision in all of the programs is the teacher counselor. As compared with present school curricula, there is a great deal of elective work, and this implies intelligent guidance on the part of teachers and staff. Added to this is the growing appreciation of the value of teacher guidance in problems of personal and social adjustment. In the new school programs, therefore, the individual teacher as counselor becomes an inescapable feature.

A notable fact in the programs is the rather complete elimination of the old division between curricular and extra-curricular activities. Activity is, in all of them, recognized as a legitimate and serious part of school work. Materials other than the reading of books form an essential basis for the student's work. Student publications, dramatics, work in the dance, art, or music studios, and student group organizations, are all considered inherent parts of the enterprise of learning. In one of the schools, the work of each of the school years is related definitely to a phase of the environment. For one year, it is the immediate community or neighborhood; for another the larger community of the state and nation; the definite plan is for actual observation and, in some cases, participation in the community activities. In another school, the technological scientific life of the metropolitan area in which the school is located becomes a special object of study and observation.

In practically all of the programs, there is provision of free time for the student during school hours. In such periods, students will be carrying on individual investigations or projects. This individualization of a part of the student's work and time is likely to be a typical feature of the new programs.

The benefits which grow out of this study should be made available to all schools capable of making use of them. One of our purposes, doubtless our chief aim ultimately, is the enriching and vitalizing of the school experience of *all boys and girls in all secondary schools* and better adapta-

tion of work to their capacities, needs and interests. Without any attempt at extensive publicity our work has attracted much attention and many schools are eager to know what we are doing.

It becomes increasingly clear that the trend of change in school and college relations is in the direction we have taken. It would be a mistake for us to assume that the spirit and purposes which have animated us are confined to our group or to the active members of the Progressive Education Association. They are shared by many in schools and colleges throughout the country. It has been our privilege, however, to give expression to this spirit of progress in a definite plan which provides not only for better coördination of school and college work, but for practical and significant revision of the work of the secondary school. Now that they know that there is opportunity to change, they are stimulated and challenged to constructive thinking concerning their own work.

I am eager to develop some practical procedure by which we shall, on the one hand, keep faith with the colleges by sharp limitation of the number included in our Study and, on the other hand, associate with us many excellent schools striving toward the same goals. We need them and they need us.

Looking at the whole educational scene we see frequent and wasteful duplication and overlapping of committees and various organizations. With our own work clearly defined, other committees should be discouraged from exploring the same field in the same way. It is even more important that our work should be made to dove-tail with that of the Association's other Commissions, especially those on Curriculum Research in Secondary Education, The Commission on Adult Education and the Commission on the Education of Progressive Teachers, and with committees of other organizations, such as, Professor Briggs' Committee on the Objectives of Secondary Education.

We have moved forward steadily upon a straight course. Doubtless we could have done our work better had we been

free to devote more time to it, but something definitely constructive has been achieved. The most difficult part of our work lies ahead. The responsibility for genuinely creative and constructive work rests upon us and the leaders in our twenty-eight schools.

The American dream of a land in which everyone may live his best life and become his best self has not yet been realized in experience. Social and economic injustice and mal-adjustment have made it impossible. Now, as never before, we are determined that whatever prevents the "good life" shall be eliminated or changed.

In this social regeneration no unit of our educational structure has a greater opportunity and responsibility than the secondary school. The best and most constructive thinking on this problem must find expression in the curriculum, practice, procedure and general life of the high school. We must do our full share in discovering, fostering and developing each individual's capacities for living his best life and in bringing into existence a community life which makes such individual living possible. This Commission, its responsible committees and these coöperating schools, have the privilege and obligation of leadership in this great undertaking of the human spirit.

LUNCHEON SESSION

Promptly at 12:30 P. M. about two hundred members of the Department sat down for luncheon in the Ballroom of the Hollenden Hotel, Wednesday, February 28, 1934. The President of the Department, Robert B. Clem, presided.

The ballot below was voted upon:

BALLOT
for
Members of the National Council
of the
NATIONAL HONOR SOCIETY

(Vote for four)

-Adams, John H.,
Perry High School, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
-Allen, Charles F.,
West Side Junior High School, Little Rock, Ark.
-Averill, Forrest G.,
Fordson High School, Dearborn, Michigan
-Chamberlain, George A.,
Riverside High School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin
-Clark, K. J.,
Murphy High School, Mobile, Alabama
-Comstock, E. B.,
North Dallas High School, Dallas, Texas
-Elicker, Paul E.,
Newton High School, Newtonville, Massachusetts
-Hawley, W. E.,
Monroe High School, Rochester, New York
-Mathews, Neil D.,
Lincoln High School, Cleveland, Ohio
-McKown, Harry D.,
Sullivan, Illinois
-Rockwood, Emily,
High School, Haddon Heights, New Jersey
-Struthers, Alice Ball,
Thomas Starr King Junior High School,
Los Angeles, California

Of the above the following were elected: Charles F. Allen,
Neil D. Mathews, Harry D. McKown, and Alice Ball Struthers.

Principal W. W. Haggard of Joliet Township High School read the following revised copy of the Constitution of the Department, and moved its adoption. Carried. This revised constitution will be voted upon one year hence.

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

ARTICLE I—NAME

The name of this organization shall be the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association.

ARTICLE II—AIM

The aim of this department shall be the advancement of secondary education by providing a clearing house of discussion bearing upon the problems of administration and supervision, by encouraging research, by upholding acceptable standards, by fostering professional ideals, and by formulating a working philosophy of secondary education.

ARTICLE III—MEMBERSHIP

Section 1—The membership in the Department of Secondary-School Principals shall consist of two classes—active and associate.

Section 2—All individuals shall be eligible to active membership who are members of the National Education Association and who are engaged in administering supervision and teaching secondary education upon payment of the annual fee of \$2.00 to the executive secretary.

Section 3—Members of state organizations of secondary-school principals shall be eligible to active membership in the Department of Secondary-School Principals, by the payment of the annual fee of \$1.00 to the executive secretary.

Section 4—All other persons interested in secondary education, who are members of the National Education Association, shall be eligible to associate membership upon payment of the annual fee of \$2.00 to the executive secretary.

Section 5—Only active members shall have the privilege of voting or holding office.

Section 6—All members, both active and associate, shall receive the publications of the Department.

ARTICLE IV—OFFICERS

Section 1—The elective officers of the Department shall be a president, a first vice president, and a second vice president.

Section 2—The president and the vice presidents shall hold office for one year.

Section 3—The executive committee shall consist of the officers, the retiring president, and three other members each elected for a term of three years. At the first election, one member shall be elected for only one year, and one other for two years. The executive committee shall be representative of junior high schools, the several types of senior high schools, and junior colleges.

Section 4—The executive secretary shall be selected by the executive committee; his duties and compensation shall be determined by the executive committee.

ARTICLE V

Section 1—The president shall, sixty days 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—Eighteen members of the nominating committee shall constitute a quorum with not fewer than three from each of the following regional associations of colleges and sec-

ondary schools: New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States, 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 3—The nominating committee so constituted shall meet following its selection and after electing a chairman, shall prepare a list of candidates for the several offices, to be submitted to the Department at its final business meeting.

ARTICLE VI—FINANCE

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 to act in the capacity of trustees, to have custody of the funds of the Department, to have same properly audited, and to submit annually a report to the Department. Bills shall be paid by the executive secretary upon the authorization of the president.

ARTICLE VII—MEETINGS

Section 1—The Department of Secondary-School Principals shall hold two meetings yearly. The regular annual meeting shall 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 Department.

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 VIII—AMENDMENTS

The Constitution may be amended by a two-thirds majority vote of those present and voting at the annual mid-winter

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meetings. 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.

ARTICLE IX

Robert's Rules of Order shall govern in all meetings of the Department.

Mr. O. V. Walters, Principal of East High School of Aurora, Illinois, member of the Finance Committee, read the report. Adoption moved; carried.

REPORT OF TREASURER

Department of Secondary-School Principals
of the

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

January 1, 1933 to December 31, 1933

Receipts

Cash in Bank, Jan. 1, 1933	\$	962.90
Dues	\$	3,223.34
Sale of Bulletins.....		442.70
Sale of Blanks.....		342.11
Honor Society Receipts.....		14,750.53
Consumers' Research		605.70
Interest on Bonds.....		1,050.00
Insurance Premiums		4,614.51
Carnegie Endowment Grant	3,000.00	28,028.89 \$28,991.79

Disbursements

Secretary's Office

Postage	\$ 733.00	
Printing	390.96	
Refunds to Members.....	34.00	
Clerical Services	3,500.00	
Clerical Expense	1,385.29	
Supplies	97.20	
Equipment	245.18	
Drayage	95.05	
Audit	45.00	
Consumers' Research	463.45	
Telephone	118.76	
Vault Rental	3.30	
Insurance on Stock.....	263.50	
Traveling Expenses	103.74	
State Sales Tax.....	1.92	\$ 7,480.35

Honor Societies

Engrossing Charters, purchasing supplies, emblems, and equipment.....	4,687.64	
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Bulletin No. 16

Balance due, \$100, adjusted..	85.00	
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Bulletin No. 43

Drayage	3.00	
Printing	577.88	580.88

Bulletin No. 44

Printing	\$ 663.68	
Postage	31.60	695.28

Bulletin No. 45

Printing	1,696.60	
Drayage	3.00	1,699.60

Bulletin No. 46

Printing	420.00	
Drayage	5.00	425.00

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Bullefin No. 47

Printing	420.35	
Postage	25.03	
Drayage	6.00	451.38

Convention at Minneapolis

President's Expenses	53.25	
Secretary's Expenses	43.78	
Hotel Expenses	71.28	
Clerical	24.42	192.73

Convention at Cleveland

Secretary's Expenses		30.50
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Carnegie Commission

May meeting, Atlantic City	1,177.34	
November meeting, Atlantic City	944.96	2,122.30

Insurance

Premiums Paid		5,130.96
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Bonds

United States of America		
Fourth Liberty Loan.....	3,000.00	
Premium	103.13	
Accrued Interest	40.73	3,143.86

3½ U. S. Loan.....	1,015.83	\$27,741.31

Dec. 31, 1933, Balance in Bank, per		
cheque book	\$ 1,250.48	

Bank Reconciliation

Cheques Outstanding

277	\$	5.00	
556		.14	
557		.04	
558		.21	
559		.44	
583		1.09	
585		10.00	
599		4.00	
603		10.50	31.42

\$ 1,281.90

Bank Debits 153.92

Dec. 31, 1933, Balance in Bank, per

Bank Statement \$ 1,127.98

Jan. 1, 1934, Balance in Bank..... 1,127.98

The presiding officer, President Robert B. Clem, Principal of Shawnee High School of Louisville, Kentucky, presented the speaker of the luncheon, President William J. Hutchins, of Berea College, who read his address on *Our Educational Imperatives*.

OUR EDUCATIONAL IMPERATIVES

DR. WM. J. HUTCHINS

President of Berea College, Kentucky

There are two men here who have not heard the story which I love to tell. A friend of mine was going with a mountain man into a grocery store. There for the first time the mountain man saw a bunch of bananas. "What's them?" "Why, those are bananas. Have one, they taste good, I'll pay for it." "No," said the wise mountain man. "I've got so many tastes now, I cain't satisfy that I ain't aiming to take on any more." I presume that you have so many tastes, which even after our delightful luncheon remain unsatisfied and insa-

tiable that you are not aiming to take on any more, but I want to say a few words about a matter that means a good deal to me. I venture to change somewhat the phrasing of the title assigned to me, and to speak upon certain Educational Imperatives.

I assume that I am speaking to the Principals of Secondary Schools of American cities.

No man can read Lincoln Steffens' Autobiography without realizing that in the cities of our country we have the sore test of our democratic institution.

Because perchance the Italian trains are running on time and because perchance the Italian beggars are driven from the sunshine in front of the Cathedral of Milan, there are supposedly intelligent men who refuse to recognize any unique value in the institutions which England and America have sought to maintain.

Down in Berea a little girl was asked, "What is the most precious stone in the world?" And the wise, wee maiden answered back, "Plymouth Rock." Against the men who insist that Duroc hogs are the supreme values of America, against the men who are willing to wear any man's collar, that of Mussolini, Hitler, or Stalin, provided they can win a soggy and sordid peace, we accept the challenge of the American city. We come here because of our confidence that the only salvation of a democracy is the education of its citizens.

That is a trite remark, but the "education of citizens" has a connotation far wider and deeper than we sometimes think.

It is imperative that public education shall provide the pupils of our city schools with the keys which unlock the treasure houses of English speech and thought.

Over in India I was told of an Indian girl who came with radiant face to her English teacher and told him that at last she understood English, that she had the golden key to open the treasure houses of the Kings and Queens of any speech

and thought. Now, she could read Shakespeare, now she could read Burke, now she could read Browning.

A while ago down by Cumberland Gap, I met a woman seventy-five years of age. She could neither read nor write English. What does that mean? She could write no letter to a child of hers, nor could she read any message from her daughter far away. She could get no knowledge of the Bible apart from the reading or interpretation of her friends. She could sing no song of Zion, except as she learned the words of that song from other lips. She could hear no footfalls of the heroes as they marched down the centuries, except as other voices bade her listen.

And yet I know men and women who graduate not only from high school but from college who can neither spell, nor speak, nor write or read English. It is imperative that we shall provide the pupils of our schools with the golden keys.

Further, to consider another of our educational imperatives we are bound definitely to reject a conception of education which implies exclusive vocational training.

Even in good times and from the most mercenary and materialistic point of view, we observe that apart from the so-called academic studies, vocational training misses its mark. We have been told that 25% of the men in industry to-day are laboring in occupations which did not exist thirty-five years ago. All the chances are that thirty-five years from to-day at least 25% of our present pupils will be working in industries which to-day do not exist. A girl works month after month, perfects herself in stenography and then perchance a new style of stenotype or dictaphone may make her skill almost an anachronism. A new electrical eye may turn ten thousand linotype printers out of a job which they have tried for years to master. We must insist upon an education which finds room not alone for skills but for great appreciations and for creative activities.

Thus we are bound to insist upon an education which discovers to the student and permits him to share with

others the springs of perennial joy hidden away from the ravages of circumstance.

Ruskin tells us of a friend who had never gone to Italy; he said he wanted to make first a careful study of his own back garden, then he would go to Italy. Perhaps your pupil cannot go to Italy this summer, and, indeed, he may not have a back garden, but in the park, there is the wren, perchance the cardinal, there the silent voices of the flowers and the green grass singing, the stars still climb the skies, still Heaven is given away, and the boy taught by you may listen with those he loves to the music of nature.

Down in our mountains the other day a small boy was riding in a car with his father. The father remarked that they were passing through London, and the boy asked, "Have we passed Europe yet?" We may not permit our pupils to pass Europe without knowing it, Europe with its music, and paintings, its sculpture, its architecture. Our pupils must walk with their teachers into the studio of Handel, or of Beethoven, or of Chopin. They must pass through the narrow streets of Florence to the Pitti, or Uffizzi gallery, or to San Marco, where once Fra Angelico played and prayed with his angels. They must toil with Michelangelo far into the night, the candle spluttering as the master chisels his angel from the marble. They must walk with their teachers up the heights of the Acropolis and look beyond the ruins of the Parthenon to the wine colored sea of Homer; or in silence pass down the long aisles of the Cologne Cathedral. They must discover the hidden springs of perennial joy.

You recall the high-school boy who said that he had just visited the Louvre and got through it in half an hour but that if he had had spikes on his heels, he could have made it in a quarter of an hour. We must insist that our pupils shall linger by the springs of joy which are eternal.

Another imperative: it is ours to insist upon an education which shall discover to the student usable resources of power in the natural world about him, which are hidden away

from the man who has never worked with his hands in league with the forces of the physical world.

A while ago I was introduced to two hens. To the untutored eye, both hens looked fairly good. Then I was introduced to two big wire baskets or hampers. In one hamper were twenty-seven eggs, the total annual production of one hen. In the other hamper were 240 eggs, the total annual production of the other hen. Both hens received like food, both occupied like space. I got an illustration of the contrasting gifts which the natural world, with its hens and hogs and dirt will grant to the boy who has not been taught or who has been taught to discover and to league himself with the forces of the natural world.

Back in the eighties a teacher was working with his student in a little red brick laboratory building in northern Ohio. The teacher remarked rather casually, "Aluminum is the most abundant metal in the world, but it has never been set free. A fortune awaits the man who can set free aluminum." That word fell as seed into the mind of a boy less than twenty-two years of age, and that seed has flowed into the aluminum industry of America. I refer to the incident as illustrating the sure discovery of resources of power in the natural world, granted to a student who has responded to the type of education to which we are imperatively committed.

Again we must insist that our education shall discover to the pupil resources of power within himself.

For years I refused to drive a car. And yet I saw men and women whose I. Q. was certainly not more than 47, driving cars through crowded streets with perfect nonchalance. I determined to educate myself sufficiently to enable me to drive. I still have no idea what is under the hood of my automobile, but I do not need to know because I drive a Dodge. But as I drive from Berea to Cincinnati, approximately 130 miles, in three and a half hours, I feel a sense of power which gives me a hint of the discovery of inner resources granted to a man who becomes really an educated man.

A girl sits for the first time, a violin in her hand. With the years she becomes a master, or if you please, simply an amateur in the field of music. She is a feminine Columbus, discoverer of new rounds of inner power.

Thus as we help our boys and girls to the discovery of realms of power, at once in the outer world and within themselves, we are bound to offer to our pupils clues through the maize of possible interests to the paths of their proper life work.

A man was telling me that when he was a freshman in college he did well in mathematics. A kindly disposed professor nursed his interest in the subject. Naturally, the boy majored in mathematics. Inevitably the doors of other subjects automatically closed; he got his doctor's degree in mathematics, and now he has found his field in mathematics, but his field is his doom, because he has no vital interest in mathematics.

A narrow curriculum means a narrow vision. The educator has no business to bandage or to put blinders on the eyes of his student. The richer curriculum discovers to many a boy and girl the path to life's best self-realization and service.

Again a friend suggested to me that we ought to see not so much the accumulation of facts as the winning of a certain number of dominating regulative ideas. For a brief space of time we had in our home in Kentucky a remarkable parrot loaned to us for the pleasure of a small relative. The parrot could sing for us a line of "My Old Kentucky Home," or of "Yankee Doodle," but so far as one could judge from the unwinking eyes of the parrot, he caught no conception of the pathos of the one nor the bathos of the other. It is imperative that we seek the death of the parrot, and the birth of the thinker. The job is not easy. I was told that light travels at the rate of 186,000 miles a second, but it may be stopped by the human skull. We can never content ourselves with an education that leaves the student bereft of certain great ideas.

For example: take the idea of Justice, the justice which according to the old Justinian Institutes is "the steady and abiding will to give to each man what belongs to him," the will which is steady and abiding, whether men thank you or not; the will which is steady and abiding, whether men call your good will cowardice, or not.

Take another idea: the idea which we sometimes call that of the Beloved Community, or the Kingdom of God, dreamed of far back in the days of Socrates and Plato, the hope of every statesman of to-day; the idea, that is, of the great society of friendly workmen and warriors, an idea which makes all more meager fraternities cheap and tawdry, unless they can be brought within the scope of that golden and completely satisfying idea.

Take a third idea, that we can trust the centuries against the minutes. It has been suggested that one of the curses of our civilization is our desire for short cuts.

"Swiftly the politic goes;
Is it dark? He borrows a lantern;
Slowly the statesman, and sure,
Guiding his feet by the stars."

We are quite willing to have our pupils lose some academic credits if in the course of their learning they can learn two or three ideas like these, justice, the Beloved Community, the slowly coming better day, the very fabric of the America of the Patriot's Dream.

All this means that we must ever be thinking of the boy, of the girl, always of Johnny, and Jenny, and Mary, and Susie; of the boy who dreams of foreign ships and ports when he should be learning the difference between the subject and predicate; the little lass,

"As restless as a nest deserted bird,
Grown chill through something being away,
Though what, it knows not."

And this means another divine imperative. We must demand good teachers, now and forevermore, good teachers. As one goes around the country one sees entirely good and

entirely useless men and women sitting behind the desk, intellectually, spiritually anemic. One wonders why anybody should look for civic salvation through education. As one sees now and then a teacher using his academic freedom as freedom to utter any fool thing that may come into his head, freedom to attack any institution of church or state, which claims the devotion of men, one wonders again whether the state must not look for deliverance to some other quarter.

You remember the words of George Eliot:

"Ideas are often poor ghosts. Our sun-filled eyes cannot discern them—they pass athwart us in their vapour, and cannot make themselves felt. But sometimes they are made flesh, they breathe upon us with warm breath, they touch us with soft responsive hands, they look at us with sad, sincere eyes, and speak to us in appealing tones; they are clothed in a living human soul, with all its conflicts, its faith and its love. Then their presence is a power, then they shake us like a passion, and we are drawn after them with gentle compulsion, as flame is drawn to flame."

Is there no man, is there no woman, in whose living human soul ideas may be clothed so that our pupils may be drawn after those ideas with gentle compulsion as flame is drawn to flame?

Steadily, steadfastly, if almost despairingly, we must discover such men, such women.

Incidentally, we must if we can find teachers who have common sense.

In India a friend of mine had much trouble with a servant who was always coming to her with foolish questions. Finally my friend said, "Why don't you use your common sense?" "Oh," replied the servant, "common sense is a gift of God, and I have only a technical education."

It has been said of one of our teachers that his blue-prints are too perfect, and that he insists that all his associates shall accept his blue-prints whether they like them or not.

A friend gave me this illustration. A sea captain is going to Plymouth. He charts his course for Plymouth. The thermometer indicates the nearness of an iceberg and the captain changes his course, but he is going to Plymouth. Then a great storm comes, and he eases off his ship, but he is going to Plymouth. He has no idea that he is going to the Azores, he has no idea that he is going to Little America, he is going to Plymouth. It's ours to find teachers who can chart their course, take cognizance of icebergs and of contrary winds, but are always going to Plymouth.

I can find teachers who have all kinds of Ph. Ds, but common sense is a divine endowment.

Men and women, a man does not pursue such a path as that to which you are committed by our educational imperatives without toil and pain. I will not speak of long hours of conference. I will not allude to inevitable conflicts of opinion between good men. In this world there is no redemption save by the shedding of blood. Your city may be reasonably free from corruption but the gray wolves will howl after you in the night. You remember the minister who had to write a recommendation for a politician, such a recommendation as I suspect you will often have to write:

"John Smith has a spotless future."

Not every week will you be the honored guests at a reception of Kiwanis or Rotary. It has been truly said that if Spain had been a democracy, and the enterprise had been submitted to the taxpayers, America might never have been discovered. We, the people, are easily hypnotized by slogans if they are repeated often enough and monotonously enough. Any man who promises to reduce our taxes is likely to win our endorsement, yet any man who can see through a ladder knows perfectly well that education is about the most expensive as it is about the most important business in the world.

Each of us must be a citizen, conserving the treasures of the past and the present; each of us must be a pilgrim with eyes intent upon the City of Alabaster Walls, undimmed by human tears.

We sometimes say, "The past is secure." In a glorious sense this is true, but the present has power to blot, besmirch, and spoil the past. The past of our public school systems is secure, but the present may enshroud the past in a blinding mist.

You recall the true words of Theodore Roosevelt:

"We here in America hold in our hands the fate of the world and the hopes of the coming years, and shame and disgrace will be ours if in our eyes the light of high resolve grow dim, if we trail in the dust the golden hopes of men."

May I say to those who gather about these tables this noon that we here hold in our hands the fate of thousands of boys and girls and the hopes of their coming years, and shame and disgrace will be ours if in our eyes the light of high resolve grows dim, if we trail in the dust the golden hopes of men.

One of our mountain boys was asked by our Professor of Music, "What part do you sing?" He replied, "I reckon it ain't been named yet." It has not yet been revealed what part the boys and girls of your cities shall sing in the chorus of the years. I know this, that as their music blends with the music of our compelling ideal, it will blend and harmonize with the Anthem of America, whose music shall be the gladness of the world.

Professor Thomas H. Briggs, Chairman of the Committee to *Restudy the Objectives of Secondary Education*, read his second report.

SECOND ANNUAL REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE ORIENTATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

By THOMAS H. BRIGGS

Chairman, Teachers College, Columbia University

Subsequent to the very generous response of this Department to the report that I presented at Minneapolis, the

full Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education met at Atlantic City May 1-5 and November 5-9. Acknowledgement is hereby made to the members who took the time from their important regular duties to contribute to lengthy considerations of the problems for which you have made them responsible. It is only fair to them to state here publicly that they worked hard in three meetings a day and that the discussions were conducted in fine spirit and on such an intellectual and professional level as you would expect.

The first item of the agenda was a consideration of the issues in secondary education, conflicts between philosophy and philosophy or between philosophy and practice. A tentative set of such issues, later slightly modified in statement, had been previously submitted, so that at the first meeting everyone was prepared to participate in the discussion. That they are true issues was manifested by the difficulty of arriving at agreement as to which alternative should in every case be supported.

After general discussion at the meetings, each issue was assigned to a small subcommittee for further consideration and the formulation of a fair and approximately complete statement of the argument that could be adduced for each alternative. The issues considered are as follows:

"Shall secondary education be provided at public expense for all normal individuals or only for a limited number?

"Shall it continue at public expense for all normal individuals as long as they elect to attend or shall it be limited at the discretion of school authorities?

"Shall it be concerned only with the welfare and progress of the individual or with these only as they promise a profitable contribution to the supporting social and political organization,—i. e., school district, county, or state?

"Shall it provide a common curriculum for all or differentiated offerings?

"Shall it provide vocational training or only general education?

"Shall it primarily have in mind preparation for advanced studies or be primarily concerned with the value of its own courses regardless of a student's future academic career?"

"Shall the curriculum consist of unit courses such as we have now or shall it consist of interwoven courses?"

"Shall the measurement of achievement be at the end of small units with the result irrevocable and sacred or shall it be at the end of the school period with responsibility for retention, integration, and use, covering cumulative inter-related values or development?"

"Shall it present merely organized knowledge or also assume responsibility for attitudes and ideals?"

"Shall it seek merely adjustment of students to common social ideals or shall it seek the reform of society?"

"Granting that education is a 'gradual, continuous, unitary process,' shall secondary education be presented merely as a part of the 'gradual continuous, unitary process' or shall it be organized as a distinct but closely articulating part of the entire educational program with peculiarly emphasized functions of its own?"

After consideration of the tentative reports and before adjournment each member of the committee agreed to write up the discussion of one of the issues, attempting to state why there is a conflict, the arguments for each side, the implications, which are often deeply concealed and highly important, the recommendation of the Committee, and the program of practical procedure. These reports, aggregating some eighty typewritten pages, were submitted, duplicated, and distributed for consideration before the November meeting. At this meeting they were discussed at great length and were reassigned for revision. There has also been some consideration of the special functions of secondary education, on which there seems to be fairly general agreement.

The intention of the Committee is at its next meeting in April to complete its consideration of the issues and to decide what the acceptance of the favored alternative of each

implies for a practical program. Then it is proposed to submit to a large number of professional groups in various parts of the country the tentative conclusions, the arguments, a statement of what acceptance will practically mean, and a few questions to the answers to which it is believed the thoughtful administrators in the field can make helpful contributions. The purposes of this proposal are two. First, it is hoped that thus secondary-school administrators will become better informed about and more interested in the program of the Committee than they would probably be by the usual method of publishing the entire report after its submission to the Department. In all probability the report will be published in several monographs, each issued as one step in the program is completed. Second, it is our belief that the Committee will receive from active and interested administrators many criticisms and suggestions which will enable it to make its final report more sound and more valuable in directing future programs of secondary education.

There are scattered over the country many such groups, some of them formally organized as sections of professional associations, and some of them informally in small geographic areas. Illustrative are the Judd Club in Chicago and the Secondary Group that meets at Columbia University. Other groups might easily and profitably be organized in many centers, rural as well as urban, to include representative professional men and women who can easily get together for a number of informal discussions. It is hoped that existing groups and others that may be organized for the purpose will volunteer for such contributions as the Committee hopes for and needs. Anyone who already represents such a group or will organize one for the purpose is invited and urged to write the chairman, and material will later be sent him. Already a number of offers of this nature have been made, and cooperation has been assured by representatives of several state departments of education, from Massachusetts to California, with whom the project has been discussed.

The only embarrassment that the Committee has so far felt is over the apparent expectation in some quarters that its

deliberations will result in the immediate revolution of secondary education. As I have repeatedly emphasized, no miracles may be expected at any time in any field of education. Nor should any sudden revolution be looked for. Every advance must be gradual and effected by fundamental thinking and hard unremitting labor. A sound and assured reform we believe will best come—can come, I may say, only as a result of decisions regarding the basic problems of secondary education. And such decisions the Committee is attempting to secure from wide considerations by the most truly professional minds. Only as they reach sound conclusions can they share in making the new program or secure the necessary approval by the public for its adoption. Our Committee was formed merely to contribute to the orientation of secondary education, to help all of us in deciding what its peculiar functions are and in what directions it should move. After its reports are made there will still remain the necessity of formulating a definite and detailed program and of constructing suitable courses of study.

I have the sad duty to announce the death of one of the important members of the Committee, Milo H. Stuart, Assistant Superintendent of Schools at Indianapolis. You all knew him, respected him, and loved him. His activities in this Department from the very beginning were constant and highly constructive. He was a member of the small group that planned this Committee, and his contributions to the meetings that he attended were always characterized by sound common sense and vision. We all lament his passing. He has been succeeded on the Committee by Francis L. Bacon, principal of the Township High School at Evanston, Illinois.

You will be interested to know that the Committee in its first year of work has spent less than the amount appropriated by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, leaving entirely untouched the funds of the Department, which you generously voted a year ago. At least the balance of the original appropriation will probably be needed, however, for printing.

It is expected that the agenda proposed for the Committee will be completed in the three years for which it was appointed. By that time it is hoped that the desired orientation of secondary education will be envisaged. Then there will be needed a vast constructive program requiring much time and the continuous labors of a large number of the most competent people in our profession. If we are wise enough to propose a sound and convincing program, I have confidence that the necessary funds will be provided. Then we shall experience a renaissance of secondary education that its importance to modern democratic society demands.

Principal J. Alden Burton, Principal of East High School, Des Moines, Iowa, spoke briefly in memory of Milo H. Stuart, sometime President of the Department of Secondary-School Principals.

Principal Lucy L. W. Wilson, Principal of the South Philadelphia High School for Girls of Philadelphia, recently honored by the Bok Award of \$10,000, was introduced with the following resolution, which was carried:

"It is hereby Resolved, That the Department of Secondary-School Principals felicitate Dr. Lucy L. W. Wilson on the award of the Philadelphia prize to her as the outstanding citizen for the year. The Department is proud of her and the distinctive work that she has so long been doing for education and for humanity."

Principal R. E. Boyles of the High School of Washington, Pa., gave the following report of the Nominating Committee. On motion the report was adopted and election confirmed.

Report of Nominations Committee:

For President: Chas. F. Allen, Principal of West Side Junior High School, Little Rock, Ark.

For First Vice President: Harrison C. Lyseth, State Supervisor, Secondary Education, Augusta, Maine.

For Second Vice President: Willard N. Van Slyck, Principal
Topeka High School, Topeka, Kansas.

For Executive Committee:

Robert B. Clem, Principal Shawnee High School, Louisville, Kentucky.

Merton C. Hill, Chaffey Junior College, Ontario, California.

W. L. Newton, Principal, Rome Free Academy, Rome, New York.

The President-elect in a few words pledged his best efforts for the continuing work of the Department.

On motion the business meeting was adjourned.

Immediately on adjournment of the business meeting, Dean Charles H. Judd of the School of Education of the University of Chicago, called on Principal Paul E. Elicker of Newton High School, Newtonville, Massachusetts, to read his paper on *Meeting Pupil Welfare Needs*.

MEETING STUDENT WELFARE NEEDS

PAUL E. ELICKER

Principal, Newton High School
Newtonville, Massachusetts

When that vast army of 5,000,000 boys and girls eagerly sought the opportunities of secondary education last September in the high schools of our country, the future citizenry of this nation was in process of development, and in our schools of to-day there are expressed the knowledge, the hopes, and the social values of our nation of to-morrow. The values we are developing and building into our young people are the most significant of all social trends because these boys and girls, biologically and socially, are the gateway to the future.

In this school citizenry, too, we have the real victims of a generation and a civilization in which they can find no com-

fort and very little hope. Many of these boys and girls show the results of malnutrition, poor housing facilities, and lack of medical care. It is they who need what is rightfully theirs, at any cost, a just inheritance and a new deal, and a square deal, an adequate preparation and training for the art of living.

In our schools there are many boys and girls who have become the children of the depression. They face the hardships of to-day courageously and perhaps unknowingly, with the hope of a better to-morrow. They are in your school and in my school. They are not hard to discover and I shall call the two most recent cases that have come to my attention, Mary Green and John Black.

Through aid given by our Student Welfare Fund Mary and John were prevented from withdrawing from the Newton High School, a senior high school of the comprehensive type, with an enrolment of 2400, in a residential city suburban to Boston, in a community that would be appraised by the casual observer as prosperous. It is, and Mary and John from all external appearances are quite in keeping with this general picture of affluence? But is it so? Mary Green lost her father, a fairly successful salesman, several years ago, and she and her mother, partially invalided with a condition of *angina pectoris*, had as an inheritance, a few friends and \$4000, the amount remaining of the father's insurance after all debts had been paid. Mary was then an honor student in the ninth grade in the junior high school, in the college preparatory division. The family circle of two came to an early decision that their future welfare depended on two factors, the ability of making \$4000 a working capital for Mary and her mother until Mary could place herself in an earning capacity, and secondly, the acquisition of the necessary training by Mary during her high-school course so that she could, upon graduation, be placed by the school in an earning capacity. Mary changed her course to the office training curriculum and with prudent planning, many sacrifices, and thrifty management, all went well enough until the middle of the senior year. The mother was unable to find suitable work, needed more and more medical attention, and the last dollar of their inheritance during

a depression period was already mortgaged six months before the fruition of a family plan made four years ago. What was Mary's next step? To whom should she turn?

Now in another classroom was John Black, the oldest of a family of six. He had a fair academic record the previous year. He had to work hard and faithfully to maintain passing grades in school. His father was unemployed for some time except for a few occasional odd jobs and such work as he had recently obtained through the C. W. A. John worked afternoons and Saturdays in a chain store and had been the chief support of the family for some time.

One morning a telephone call from a friend of the family informed the school that John was coming to school without breakfast and without lunch. A conference with the boy by the class adviser confirmed the story and a visit to the home by the visiting teacher revealed the desperate condition of the family. John was discouraged at his school achievement and wanted to withdraw from school. What was John's next step? Should the school ignore the issue?

It was evident that someone should help. Who would? Who should? And who could?

Every school has its Mary Greens and its John Blacks! They may be better known as Maria DeRusso or Spanislave Wasilevski and they are present in greater numbers to-day than ever before. Federal reports indicate that there are 1,000,000 more enrolled in our high schools to-day than in 1930, and many of them are the unfortunate Mary Greens and John Blacks.

How the School Can Assist

These are just two of many similar cases. In your schools you can undoubtedly relate cases that are even more illustrative of the forgotten or unfortunate child than Mary and John. The enormity of the problem of student welfare may cause us to dismiss this ever growing condition in our schools as too difficult to meet, or as one that could and should be met by

regularly constituted agencies for municipal welfare. Little solace can be had in either of these courses. Surely some welfare wisely administered among our students is better than the lack of all welfare assistance.

Knowing that many of our students are in need of assistance, just how can the school alleviate such needs?

First: Funds must be available and these can not be obtained as a legitimate item in the school budget in our city under our present organization. They must be obtained from private sources and this is how our plan of student welfare started.

Secondly: Materials and clothing for high-school boys and girls are needed since the greatest needs are here. Although sufficient funds will make the purchase of clothing and materials possible, it is easier to obtain suitable articles of wearing apparel than money by a welfare appeal in a community.

Thirdly: The school needs a carefully selected personnel among its staff to investigate, counsel, and administer school welfare needs, and promote the interest in the support of school welfare among interested and influential organizations and citizens in the community.

How Funds Are Obtained

The Student Aid Fund, as it was originally called but now known as the Peter J. D. Kuntz Fund, in memory of a teacher, started several years ago when a girl in the junior class, who was in poor health and working in a private family for her board and room, met with a serious accident and had to give up her work. Women's clubs in the city were told of the girl's plight and contributions were given to the school for her assistance. This was the germ of an idea of service.

Other civic organizations made contributions when they learned of the needs in the school. Several sectional parent-teachers organizations contributed substantial amounts: the

local service clubs, Rotary, Kiwanis, and Zonta Clubs, gave generously; interested citizens, some for services rendered by the school such as typewriting manuscripts for professional men. But the two most dependable sources of revenue are groups within the school, the Newton Hi-Y Club of boys of the school who of their own volition and desire offered funds to the Kuntz Student Welfare Fund.

The other group was the faculty of the school. For a number of years the faculty has presented to the community an annual play, and a large share of the funds has been placed in the Student Welfare Fund. This source of revenue has served very excellent purposes. In a school with more than 100 on the faculty, in three separate buildings, this faculty project has become a community feature and fixture and is a strong integrating factor for a most worthy purpose. The plays are given in the school and are well attended by students and citizens. As many as three performances of a single production have been given. Some of the plays given were "Treasure Island", "She Stoops to Conquer", "Taming of the Shrew", and "The Three Musketeers".

During the past four years \$1528 has been donated to the Welfare Fund and \$900 of this amount has been obtained from the faculty of the school. This has been done without drives or campaign for welfare assistance. No play was ever advertised for welfare benefit. Very little has ever been published in the local press. The school has preferred to work quietly and meet the needs as it saw them.

Articles of clothing are also obtained from a volunteer group of women who are operating in all the elementary schools and junior high schools on the so-called Piper Plan, originated, promoted, and operated most successfully by a citizen of Newton, Mrs. Raymond H. Piper, who with a group of some 400 women give generously of their time, to social service work of the schools.

The Piper Plan provides articles of clothing to the needy children by a plan of neighborly coöperation, or a swapping plan rather than a charity scheme. Several elementary schools

are grouped in a district under direction of a district chairman. Each room has a room mother and all the room mothers of the same grade in all the schools in the district comprise the grade committee. Now when Johnny in the 4th grade needs a coat as determined by the teacher and the school nurse, who serves as a visiting teacher and knows the condition of the home, the 4th grade chairman is telephoned and she in turn telephones a room mother of another 4th grade, tells of the exact needs and she in turn contacts the mothers of boys in the room for an outgrown coat. Johnny gets his coat, and from a boy's mother in another school. In this way articles are called for only when needed and the cumbersome bundle days where everything from an outmoded evening gown to a buckleless belt are obtained and never used. Every school mother is a part of the plan and the spirit of coöperation and service has promoted the welfare of the children. In one school district where \$800 was usually expended for the needy, no money was spent this year and the needs were fully met.

This plan is not in operation in the senior high school, but this organization of 400 enthusiastic women of the Piper Plan is in readiness to supply such clothing as needed by the high school.

How Welfare Is Administered

The most difficult part of a program of Student Welfare, in our experience, has been the administration of welfare to students. Realizing from the beginning that such would be the case, the school made the Student Welfare Fund a part of the guidance and personnel department. No publicity has ever been given and the needs of pupils were learned from teachers, and investigated by the chairman of the guidance department and the visiting teacher. This department was established a number of years ago to render individual service to every pupil in the school and through class supervisors, advisers, home room teachers, and a visiting teacher, an extensive system of personnel for all pupils has been developed, and the administration of welfare has become a part of the department service.

Early in the administration of student welfare, a board of control was set up consisting of the class advisers of the guidance and personnel department and the principal of the school, who would determine policies and consider major cases at the request of each class adviser.

This board early determined that student aid or welfare should be such aid as can be given by the school to meet *school* welfare needs, or such assistance as would materially and spiritually help pupils to have the same school advantages that all pupils had so that their school life may be fruitful and happy. As far as possible assistance would not be given which was more directly a family or municipal obligation. This would avoid duplication of aid given by the regularly constituted municipal agencies.

Through the fund assistance has been given students by car fares, clothing, temporary board bills, clinic fees for examinations not given by the school, eyes and teeth, X-rays, mid-morning lunches to the undernourished, school lunches, eye glasses, medicine, hospital expenses, and for necessary school equipment such as suits for physical education classes.

In many cases when aid is given some school employment is found so that the student may have that feeling of satisfaction that comes when services are rendered for assistance given. Employment on athletic fields, in school lunch room, oiling and polishing hockey sticks, laundering and repairing articles of clothing, and many miscellaneous tasks are found in the school.

Other Student Aid

Two or three years ago when the necessities of life were more easily met by our citizenry, the fund was used for service to the needy and most worthy such as car fare to a college for a personal interview as a scholarship applicant when \$750 was obtained and college education made possible; fees for a professional aptitude test of a problem case; personal photograph obtained for needy girl for insertion in the school annual.

What Has Been Done

The amount of individual aid has varied from 25 cents to 25 dollars. In some cases pupils are receiving aid continuously; in some cases aid has been given only once. Every case is investigated by the guidance department through the school visiting teacher and home room teacher, or checked with the Newton Welfare Bureau, as was the case with Mary Green.

The Case of Mary Green

Six months from graduation Mary and her mother needed help. The school knew of Mary's situation and the school visitor urged the mother to present her case to the Newton Welfare Bureau. The board of managers of this municipal agency called in the school representative, who urged that aid be given the mother until Mary graduated. The school is assisting with car fares and school lunches, in return for some employment given Mary. Mary will probably be graduated with honor and will undoubtedly be placed by the school in an office position and become the support of her invalid mother. Through the welfare fund and the coöperation of the Municipal Welfare Bureau Mary remains in school until a useful and profitable place in society is found for her.

What greater challenge can our schools have than the preparation of our youths to live better and fuller lives in the world of to-morrow? Some assistance wisely administered, and sympathetically given here and there, often brings self respect to those less fortunate than ourselves, and changes life from a mere existence to the fullness of living. In these few years the Newton High School is convinced that a Student Welfare Fund can be created and adequately maintained, and that every investment for student needs has yielded human dividends beyond the fondest hopes of even the most optimistic.

Principal H. T. Steeper, Principal of North High School, of Des Moines, Iowa, read his paper on *Legitimate Economies in the High-School Program*.

LEGITIMATE ECONOMIES IN THE HIGH-SCHOOL PROGRAM

H. T. STEEPER

Principal of North High School
Des Moines, Iowa

It has long been the policy of the Des Moines school management to try to give the city as business like and economical an administration as possible, saving costs wherever consonant with good school practices. As a result of the recent general decline in real estate values, and the wide-spread depression, together with some sweepingly drastic state legislation as a part of a statewide tax reduction program, we have been forced to adopt every possible method of reducing school costs. As a part of this program of cost-reduction the following adjustments and plans have been put into operation in North High school.

(1) The lunch room is used as a library-study hall, except during lunch periods. This released a large study hall which was remodeled into two class rooms, one a large music room and the other a little theater. This arrangement makes possible the use of the lunch room from 7:30 in the morning until 4:00 in the afternoon.

(2) The Student Council took over the control and attendance records of the library-study hall under the supervision of the librarian. The library stacks were moved to a classroom adjoining the lunch room, and windows and a door were cut in the wall between the two rooms, thus making the checking of books by student assistants convenient, and the supervision of the librarian easy.

(3) The seating capacity in the classrooms was increased to forty and in some cases to seventy-five, thus permitting larger class sizes. The Typewriting I room was increased to sixty-six and the Typewriting II room to fifty-seven. This eliminated the need for one teacher.

(4) The school was put on a five period day, sixty-five minute periods of directed study. All shop, mechanical draw-

ing, home economics, art, typewriting, bookkeeping, and science teachers thus handle one more period a day than under the old laboratory double period scheme, or twenty-five per cent more students per teacher. This eliminated three teachers.

(5) Physical education requirements were cut from two and a half periods per student to one period per student, the minimum required by law. This released two teachers.

(6) The two vice principals each teach half time, which saves the cost of one teacher.

(7) Twelve units are required for graduation from the senior high school, and only twelve units are allowed unless the student pays tuition for additional units. This saves teaching cost for extra credits.

(8) All athletic coaching costs are borne by the school from the athletic receipts from games instead of being paid by taxation. Coaches are, of course, regular teachers who do their coaching at the close of the school day. The extra coaching time is paid for from athletic funds.

(9) Students are assigned in home room groups of forty to fifty to the teacher for curriculum guidance and record work. This saves office clerical work. A school of eighteen hundred enrollment is operated with two clerks, as compared with many schools which use three or four clerks. Girls from office practice classes are assigned each period to assist in the general office, the vice principals' offices and the nurse's office.

(10) Student participation in managing the extra-curriculum activities under the direction of the student council through eighteen standing committees, clerical help in the home rooms, and student leadership in classrooms, especially in physical education work, saves the teachers much time, work, and energy. This plan furnishes many opportunities for training students in leadership and the carrying of responsibilities.

(11) Adoption of a student activity stamp plan for financing all extra-curriculum activities has made possible the

retention of all such activities during these times, and at a very low cost to the student. The activity stamp book covers participation in and admission to the following activities: athletics, school newspaper and senior supplement, sound movies, dramatics, debating, Friday afternoon matinee dances, all-school evening parties, and music contests. The school owns musical instruments worth six thousand dollars, largely purchased from this fund, two complete sound movie machines worth twenty-six hundred dollars, athletic equipment worth three thousand dollars, acoustical treatment in the auditorium, library, and office at a cost of fifteen hundred dollars, and complete stage and lighting equipment in the auditorium and little theater.

Students pay ten cents a week, \$1.90 per term, and receive over ten dollars worth of admissions as computed at regular prices. Fifteen hundred out of eighteen hundred students and practically all of the faculty are carrying these activity books at the present time. This is the fifth year of using this plan, and the income has increased from \$3800.00 in the first year to an estimated amount of over \$5000.00 in this year. The plan also calls for furnishing activity books without costs to any students unable to purchase them. The home room teacher certifies the need.

By the use of all these plans we now handle at North High school eighteen hundred students with a personnel of fifty, including the office staff, whereas fourteen years ago a high school of the same size in that section of the city employed a personnel of eighty. The teaching load to-day is about thirty-five students per teacher; in 1920 it was about twenty-three. It would not be safe to say that the ends of the school are as well served in all particulars, but the necessity for cutting costs while the high-school enrollment of the city has continually mounted has made drastic adjustments unavoidable. Over this period of fourteen years the school has continually broadened the extra-curriculum program and increased the personal services to the individual student.

C. S. Marsh, Educational Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps, read his paper, *The Educational Program of the Civilian Conservation Corps*.

THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM OF THE CIVILIAN CONSERVATION CORPS

C. S. MARSH

Educational Director, Civilian Conservation Corps,
United States Office of Education,
Washington, D. C.

From the hundreds of letters written by young men in CCC camps I have selected a paragraph. The letter tells the usual story. The boy is a high-school graduate who had hoped to go to college. With no money and no job he roamed the country hungry, hopeless, bitter. He tells of enrolling in the CCC, of his impoverished physical condition, his renewed hope, and particularly his joy in his day's work. He says:

"A new confidence has entered my being which has renewed my old hopes so that I am confident that they shall be fulfilled. The CCC has given me the power and confidence of creating things with my own hands and each time that I finish a piece of work I not only be admired by my generation, but for generations to come. This I have done with my own hands and each time that I finish a piece of work I have a feeling that must be akin to that of some famous musician as he receives the plaudits of his admiring audience, or some sculptor exhibiting a piece of work to his patron."

A young man who is capable of such development should have a chance to continue his education while in camp. This paper tells you what is being done for him and many thousands more.

The Civilian Conservation Corps is part of the Emergency Conservation Work program. It was authorized by Congress on March 31, 1933, and approved by the President that same day. Five days later President Roosevelt appointed

Mr. Robert Fechner, Director of the Emergency Conservation Work, and by executive order designated four Departments of the Government: viz., War, Labor, Interior, and Agriculture, to work with him in setting up and operating a system of camps.

As stated by Director Fechner:

"The outstanding objectives of this new legislation were the relief of acute distress through furnishing employment to jobless men, the accomplishment of useful work in the forests and parks, the rehabilitation of young men whose morale and health had been undermined by the depression, and the reduction of State relief burdens, through the payment of cash allowances to men whose dependents were in dire need."

The Civilian Conservation Corps proper is composed of 218,000 young men 18 to 25 years of age, 26,000 War Veterans and approximately 45,000 experienced woodsmen. Under separate management, there are Indian Camps on Indian Reservations, and still others in Hawaii, Porto Rico, and Alaska.

The Labor Department through a designated agency in every state selects the men, except the Veterans, who are selected by the Veterans Administration; the War Department enrolls the men, transports them to camps, houses, feeds, clothes, cares for them, provides recreation and educational opportunity; the Forest Service in the Department of Agriculture and the Parks Service in the Department of Interior, in the main plan and supervise the day's work of the men, five days a week, eight hours a day.

The enrollee receives a cash allowance of \$30 a month, of which the Government, with few exceptions, sends \$25 to his home. Certain supervisory positions pay somewhat more. We are now in the second six months' Camp period, which will close March 31. The President has approved two more periods; necessary legislation is expected.

With dramatic power Director Fechner has told in the press and over the radio what these camps have accomplished:

That in these nearly 12 months since camps were authorized 486,000 men have been enrolled; forest fire losses have been reduced; tree and plant disease curtailed; flood control advanced; soil erosion decreased; in round numbers \$100,000,000 total pay has been issued; that the average gain in weight per man has been 7.2 pounds (some have gained as much as 12 pounds); that courage and pride have returned to men in the forests and to their dependent families at home.

When the first camps were set up in the spring of 1933, it was not long before Dr. George F. Zook, United States Commissioner of Education, Director Fechner, other Government officials, and many public spirited citizens realized that these young men, living together in camps needed something more in the way of an educational program than the War Department was at that time able to supply; that effective rehabilitation of these young men demanded not only that they be fed and clothed and given honest work to do, but that in their spare time they be given the utmost opportunity to learn about the world in which they live, and their relation to it.

Ultimately, in December, 1933, the President, Mr. Fechner, the War Department, and the Commissioner of Education approved the plan which this paper portrays.

The administrative set up for the educational program is as follows: Under the Commissioner of Education in Washington an Educational Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps has general supervision of the whole educational enterprise. The War Department operates the camps. Now the War Department divides the United States into 9 Army Corps Areas in each of which is a Commanding General. At each of these nine Area headquarters we have an Educational Supervisor or Adviser, appointed by the office of Education but responsible to the Area Commander. This Educational Adviser functions on the one hand as a member of the Commanding General's staff (his Adviser on this educational program) and on the other hand as the supervisor of the educational effort in all of the camps within the Area. There are 1,468 camps. They are located in every state of

the Union, except two. In each of these camps is a Camp Educational Adviser selected and appointed by the Office of Education, and responsible to the Camp Commander. Assisting this Camp Educational Adviser in each camp is one enrollee chosen from the ranks for his fitness to help in the camp program. He is called an Assistant Camp Leader. In addition also to these two men who give their full time to the camp educational program, there are usually in each camp three military officers and several members of the Forestry and Parks staff, all of whom are interested in the educational program and most of whom are actively helping to carry it on.

What are we trying to teach these men? Anything they want to be taught. I repeat, anything *they want*. Study is wholly voluntary on their part. In one Army Corps Area a January report showed enrollments as indicated for these subjects:

Botany	339	First Aid	1,336
Citizenship	473	Personal Hygiene	2,136
English	444	Surveying	616
Forestry	2,716	Zoölogy	168

Also algebra, astronomy, bookkeeping, entomology, geology, history, music, painting, sociology, trigonometry—all of these and many more subjects were taught.

In another Army Corps Area an analysis of the previous schooling of 47,734 enrollees showed 211 college graduates, and at the other extreme 666 with no schooling. If 100 enrollees in this Area were taken as a statistical sample they would classify thus:

- 2 have had no schooling.
- 50 have attended elementary school, 23 of whom would have graduated.
- 44 have attended high school, 15 of whom would have graduated.
- 4 have attended college.

The study effort in camp must necessarily be informal in many cases. We in the Office of Education think the more

informal the better. We are not striving for credits. Here is learning prompted by desire for knowledge. Here are scores of thousands of young men figuratively and sometimes literally, on the ends of logs; we need thousands of Mark Hopkins. Have we got them? How would you go about it to pick 1,468 Mark Hopkins, under pressure of time and with the obligation to take only men who are unemployed?

This is the plan which the Office of Education followed. In each state a committee of three public education state officials was asked to furnish a list of suitable candidates for these camp advisory positions—twice as many names as camps in each state, with the names ranked in order of the merits of the candidates. It was an enormous task but it was promptly and conscientiously done. Generously these officials gave their time, many of them two solid weeks, interviewing thousands of candidates in order to furnish the lists. From these lists the Office of Education in Washington chose the 1,468 Camp Advisers. Many hundreds of men who had been city and county superintendents or principals were listed. You will be interested in the degree of training of the men chosen from one state list: 23 were selected, and of these one has his doctor's degree, 15 have their masters' degree and each of the remaining seven has done graduate work beyond the bachelor's degree, mostly in the field of education.

You will be heartened to know that every effort has been made to keep this educational enterprise free from political influence. One letter that Commissioner Zook sent to each of these state committees contained this sentence:

"The President is quite anxious to have these appointments made solely on the merits of the educational training and experience of the candidates, and to keep the appointments free from political influence."

In no instance was a man's political party allegiance any criterion by which the Office of Education measured his fitness. In a very few instances did we know the candidate's political faith. The educational integrity of the enterprise

and the educational fitness of the candidate were our sole concern.

The purposes, methods and organized plan of the CCC educational program are outlined in a remarkable pamphlet prepared by the Office of Education, and published by the War Department. It is the guidebook for this whole enterprise, and it contains both an adequate philosophy of adult education and a full complement of suggested procedures for all concerned with the program.

The aims of this CCC Camp Educational program are stated in the Handbook as follows:

1. To develop in each man his powers of self-expression, self-entertainment, and self-culture.
2. To develop pride and satisfaction in coöperative endeavor.
3. To develop as far as practicable an understanding of the prevailing social and economic conditions, to the end that each man may coöperate intelligently in improving these conditions.
4. To preserve and strengthen good habits of health and mental development.
5. By such vocational training as is feasible, but particularly by vocational counseling and adjustment activities, to assist each man better to meet his employment problems when he leaves camp.
6. To develop an appreciation of nature and of country life.

"The program," says this Handbook, "will comprise such instruction suited to the needs of any particular camps as may be practicable, it being recognized that conditions as regards intelligence, aptitude, and receptability of enrollees, and many other factors, will vary not only in nine corps areas but in 1,468 camps, each having its own problem. The basic thought in providing a program of instruction and in imparting instruction will be that of returning to the normal work-a-day world, upon completion of the emergency-relief project, citizens better equipped mentally and morally for

their duties as such, and with a better knowledge of the Government under which they live, and of all that that Government means."

The Handbook reminds the Camp Adviser to build upon the existing educational program wherever practicable; to fit himself into the life of the camp; to make the educational program appeal to the men; to realize that his task, having no clear precedents, demands ingenuity; to remember that the study interests grow out of the needs of the men themselves; to utilize fully the intellectual resources among the enrollees.

You will probably wonder if these Camp Advisers are receiving any special training for this new and different task. They are being brought together at various centers for intensive training in conference sessions. Many of them have never taught adults.

Their imaginations must be quickened. They have to see not only their obligation but also their opportunity to lead these men a step forward intellectually from where they are now; to arouse intellectual curiosity; to make knowledge winsome. These Advisers must realize that they cannot judge, that in fact no one can judge the success or failure of this enterprise by conventional standards. This educational program will be good because of what it prevents, as well as what it accomplishes.

Once given this point of view the Camp Adviser finds out what things the enrollees want to know. He organizes discussion groups, classes, selects textbooks, uses magazines, newspapers, pamphlets, and moving pictures. He uses not only the camp staff officers and the trained men in Parks and Forestry Services, but where available the better trained enrollees as class or discussion leaders. He has much volunteer service from interested citizens in nearby communities. Nor does he forget the spiritual uplift to be found in music, in dramatics, debates, and such activities, and he organizes the boys in groups around these interests. Please keep in mind that among these enrollees are a great many college and normal school graduates, accomplished musicians, experi-

enced actors, and men who have held responsible places in community and civic organizations. The Camp Adviser also establishes relationships with those nearby educational and social agencies that will not only aid the educational program in the camps, but facilitate the return of enrollees into wholesome social and economic life upon their discharge from the camps.

Here is the biggest single volunteer adult education enterprise the world has ever seen.

What are our obstacles? Obviously these: Great variety of study interests; dearth of suitable text material for adults; lack of comfortably furnished and adequately lighted discussion and classrooms; lack of ample library books, though each camp has a library; lack of laboratory facilities; fatigue on the part of enrollees after a day of labor; sufficient teacher training of the Advisers directed toward this particular task.

What are our advantages? In the first place, enrollment is voluntary. No one has to study anything. Only those who want to learn will continue in a class. Moreover, the men themselves decide what they want to be taught. Then, too, no credits are at stake. For the most part the work is informal and the plan flexible. We shall get ingenious and virile teaching. The teacher or discussion leader who cannot hold the attention of a group of men, under conditions which the camp presents, simply is not the right man for the job. He may have been an able administrator, or he may have been an acceptable teacher of formal classes, but if he cannot do this job under conditions as they are, he must give place to some one who can. But our great advantage is that here is comradeship in quest of knowledge. Learners and teachers live together under camp conditions. A teacher or discussion leader confronted by a student's baffling question cannot well retreat behind a Jovian frown. His success will largely depend upon the extent to which in genuine comradeship he and those who help him can lead these young men along the paths of knowledge.

Can men like you, who have been classroom teachers and principals and superintendents, now undergo a metamorphosis and become under camp conditions not only teachers but counsellors, leaders of discussion groups, sympathetic companions to young men in quest of knowledge? I think they can. You know and I know that if they are real educators in the true sense of the word they will respond to this challenge with results that will be inspiring.

Announcement of this educational plan resulted in an amazing outpouring of coöperative interest. Such organizations as the American Association for Adult Education, the extension departments of state universities, the American Library Association, the National Education Association, various civic and service clubs, and the National Student Federation have offered their facilities and their services. Last but not least, to your everlasting credit be it gratefully said that many of you school men, in spite of reduced budgets and curtailed programs, have found ways and means of opening your laboratories and classrooms and shops at night to these boys in nearby camps. By the truck load they come to spend their evenings profitably in the facilities which your thoughtful generosity has provided.

I do not want to close without reminding you once more that the War Department is conducting the camps, and doing the job admirably without military discipline. There are no guard houses in these camps. The Office of Education is assisting the War Department in an advisory capacity, by selecting the teaching personnel and recommending to the Secretary of War the teaching procedures and materials. But in the end it is the War Department which is responsible for the success of this vast project.

It is a smart army that knows how to make war effectively; judged by that standard the United States Army is a smart army. But it is a smarter army that, in addition, knows how to carry on some of the great new tasks of peace that have recently come upon us, that does not merely lie in wait for war, but adapting its organization and training and

experience to this great peace time enterprise so conducts it that hundreds of thousands of our young men, bewildered and discouraged in their economic plight, do here find not only employment, but comradeship and recreation and knowledge and hope.

These young men will come back to you, we know, in better physical condition than when they left you; they will come back to you, we hope, more wholesome in spirit for their living in the parks and the forests, with a finer appreciation of all that is implied in good citizenship, with better clarified vocational purposes, with more effective understanding of the social order, with quickened interest in what you are doing, and with keener realization of the merits in the great enterprise of public education.

I close now with two paragraphs from a letter written by a young man in one of these camps.

"When I joined the CCC, I was still all hopelessness and despair. My viewpoint had become so distorted that life and law were all wrong to me, and there seemed no such thing as justice. The long tramp from coast to coast, looking for the job I never found, hadn't improved my temper any. But there is something soul-satisfying about good hard labor, especially when you've ached for something to do for three long years. The CCC became a kind of game—one that kept challenging the best that was in me. It caused me to take stock of my shortcomings and to set up a standard of mental and physical perfection.

"The Civilian Conservation Corps has regenerated me mentally, physically and spiritually. It has given me practical knowledge about camp life, plumbing, carpentry, book-keeping; but more than that, it has taught me to appreciate the good things of life. I have learned to appreciate what Thoreau calls 'The Beneficence of Nature.' In the deepening twilight my eyes stray up until they rest upon the last tall pine on the hills, etched against the afterglow of the sun. As it fades, a flood of memories closes in upon me—memories of the boy who wearily tramped the streets and sought death in

the bitterness of despair. Happiness to him was something out of reach, somewhere beyond the stars. I know now the serenity of soul that comes from a busy, well ordered life. And happiness—well, happiness is here, not beyond but beneath the stars."

Principal O. K. Loomis of the University High School of the University of Chicago, read his paper, *Reorganizing the Social Studies in the University High School*.

REORGANIZING THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL

O. K. LOOMIS

Organization of the University Laboratory Schools.—For many years the University Laboratory Schools were organized as a seven-year elementary school and a four-year high school. A few years ago the organization was changed to a six-year elementary school and a five-year high school. In January, 1933, the Board of Trustees placed the two upper years of the high school under the control of the College Faculty. The present arrangement, therefore, provides a unified 6-3-4 organization charged with the responsibility of developing during the next few years a new program for general education.

General education.—The term general education is used to refer to education which seeks to meet universal needs and which may, therefore, be in large degree prescribed for all. Special education, on the other hand, seeks to meet such needs as preparation for higher education, preparation for the various occupations, and preparation for wise use of leisure time. At first thought vocational education seems to meet a universal need since everyone must be prepared to make his own living. Similarly, avocational education seems to meet a universal need since everyone must be prepared to use his leisure time wisely. General education must, indeed, be charged with the responsibility of providing everyone with a wide acquaintance with the occupational opportunities and the recre-

ational possibilities within his reach. But actual training in a chosen vocation or avocation becomes at once a form of special education, and it has no place in general education. Exploratory courses which are designed to help the individual make a wise choice of occupation are on the doubtful margin of general education if they are not entirely outside its province. Similarly any specific training which is required as a preparation for work in the university or in a professional school should be provided by the university or professional school rather than in the lower school which is charged with the responsibility of providing general education.

Time permits only a brief discussion of two of the universal needs which should be met by any adequate program of general education. No attempt is made to define these major needs nor to analyze them into their constituent elements.

Knowledge of history.—In the first place, every educated person needs a knowledge of the history of the human race. As Keller says in the foreword of his recent book, *Man's Rough Road*, "The past is not dead, but only foolishly forgotten or light-mindedly ignored; it is present in all that is to-day or will be to-morrow, living on in the present and future as men long dead survive in the bodies and traits of their descendants. The experience of the past is the only trustworthy guide to the present; and if it can offer us no leading into the future, then we are indeed undone. * * * In view of the race's experience, there is as little excuse for faint-heartedly falling out by the wayside as for expecting to realize utopias at the end of the day's march."¹

Understanding of contemporary life.—A second need of every educated person is an understanding of the contemporary social order. Dean Holmes of Harvard has stated this challenge to education when he says, "If education is to do anything important toward making us one people and a free people, it must teach us to deal with the vital issues of our

¹A. G. Keller. *Man's Rough Road: Backgrounds and Bearings from Mankind's Experience*. Yale University Press and Frederick A. Stokes Co., 1932. p. v.

common life; and it must teach us to deal with such issues tolerantly, coöperatively, and objectively."²

As the President's Committee on Recent Social Trends states it, "The changes in industrial, economic, and social conditions which have taken place in recent years create a demand for a kind of education radically different from that which was regarded as adequate in earlier periods when the social order was comparatively static. Members of a changing society must be prepared to readjust their ideas and their habits of life."³

Glenn Frank states the same challenge in his book *Thunder and Dawn*. "The unpardonable sin of Western leadership," he says, "the wages of which may yet be the death of Western civilization, was committed when Western education was permitted to become a series of relatively unrelated specialisms, instead of its being made to center around or, at least, come to climax in a coherently planned attack upon the problem of creating, comprehending, and controlling the civilization in which Western man must live his life and pursue his varied enterprises."⁴

If such a goal is to be attained as is implied by this challenge, teachers must, as Beard says in *A Charter for the Social Sciences*, "secure for themselves a clear and realistic picture of modern society, gain insight into the central concepts of our industrial order and its culture, acquire habits of judicially examining its issues and problems, develop the power to look with calm and untroubled eyes upon the varieties of social pressures which bear in upon them, and nourish, by wide study, their capacity for dealing justly and courageously with current modes of living."⁵

Organization of the social studies.—To the attainment of knowledge of the achievements of the race and understanding

²Henry W. Holmes. Entrance Requirements and Educational Realities. *Harvard Teachers Record*, Vol. 3, No. 2, April, 1933, page 6.

³The President's Committee. *Recent Social Trends*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933. Vol. 1, p. xlviii.

⁴Glenn Frank. *Thunder and Dawn*, Macmillan, 1932. p. 210.

⁵C. A. Beard. *A Charter for the Social Sciences*. Scribner's 1932. p. 90.

of the contemporary social order the major required sequences in the new program of studies of the University High School are devoted. In setting up the new sequences we found it necessary to face a fundamental issue—what organization of the course of study in history and social science seems likely to be most effective in working toward the accepted goals? At the present time the social studies in high schools may fairly be described as in a state of chaos. In the National Survey of Secondary Education Kimmel reports that, "The social studies have passed through a series of changes during the past two decades which have resulted in an unsettled and not infrequently chaotic condition."⁶

Current events sequences.—Two sharply contrasted principles of organization are now operating in the centers where the reorganization of the social studies is under way. In the schools which are very progressive, usually spelled with a capital "P," the sequences are never planned in advance. Such definitely planned sequences are regarded as deadening and are severely criticised as involving "subject-matter-set-out-to-be-learned". In some cases the child is the center, and his interests are supposed to provide an adequate principle of organization. In other cases the morning newspaper or the weekly news magazine provides what may perhaps be characterized not unfairly as a current events sequence.

In the extreme form of a current events sequence the attention of the class shifts as rapidly as the kaleidoscope of the daily newspaper. In a less extreme form the class starts out to study some more or less significant topic of current interest and develops its implications for several weeks or even months. By the time this phase of current history is waning in interest another problem is, of course, found ready at hand and the process is repeated.

An example of this principle of organization in actual operation is provided by an article in the current issue of a professional journal which circulates widely among the pro-

⁶William G. Kimmel, *Instruction in the Social Studies*, Office of Education Bulletin, 1932, No. 17, Monograph No. 21, Government Printing Office. p. 97.

gressive schools. A few sentences from this article will serve to make the point clear. "We begin the study of history with the problems of the present, making the newspapers, the weeklies and monthlies of to-day the immediate raw material of our laboratory.—Studying current problems by means of current sources of information tends to establish the habit of studying current problems through current materials." After three years of experimentation a technique of studying current problems has been developed. "The first few days are given over to a consideration of the problems facing society to-day. The pupils are invited to suggest such problems or to tell of important events they have read about or have heard discussed." After the blackboard is well filled with topics, statements, and problems. "The next step is to weigh the value of the various events and questions.—The class discussion—aids the individual in deciding what problem he would like to investigate further.—Committees of three or four pupils are allowed to work on a topic. In general, each pupil is to serve on some committee, though under some circumstances a pupil may be allowed to undertake an investigation alone. The committees report to the class, and these reports form the basis for further class discussions. In this procedure the function of the teacher is to guide, to encourage, to balance, to suggest relationships, but not to supply a detailed plan of work. That is to be avoided. If the teacher yields to the importunities of the pupils to organize the work for them and to supply data, he will deprive them of the real value the work might have for them". Such is the method of planning used in teaching current events.

Sequences planned in advance.—The method of constructing the new curriculum in the social studies in the University High School is based on the belief that the sequences can be more effectively organized by careful planning in advance. This does not preclude the approach to each unit through the study of contemporary conditions. In fact each unit in the history courses begins with a brief study of the conditions in the present which are, in large measure, a product of the historical processes to be studied in the unit. For example, as

Keohane and Hill point out in their article in the Fourth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, "The first few days devoted to the unit, 'The Growth of Industry', in the course in United States History for Grade VII, are given to a study of significant aspects of contemporary American industrial society, especially as related to Chicago; then, beginning with colonial conditions, American industrial development is traced in topical-chronological order."

This brief description of the steps in preparing the new curriculum in the social studies is taken from Keohane and Hill's article.

"With the coöperation of members of the Department of Education, the high-school faculty drew up and adopted general objectives for the High School as a whole. During the same time the Department of Social Science formulated its general objective of which the following is a summary statement:

The general objective of the work in the social sciences in the University High School is to contribute to the development in boys and girls of an understanding of the modern world in its social, economic, and political aspects, with due attention to the historical and geographical background.

The Department of Social Science then drew up and adopted a sequence of courses designed to contribute to the attainment of this objective. Each member of the Department next presented a list of units for whichever of the new courses lay in the field with which he was most familiar by academic training and teaching experience. After revision of the courses in committee and departmental meetings, a total synopsis and a description of each of the units in each course was drawn up. The material describing the courses offered in the last two years of the High School was then submitted to the College Curriculum Committee, and was subsequently modified in accordance with the suggestions of that committee. In revised form the courses were adopted by the

¹Robert E. Keohane and Howard C. Hill. "The Social-Studies Curriculum in the University of Chicago Laboratory Schools." *Fourth Yearbook: The Social-Studies Curriculum: National Council for the Social Studies*. McKinley Publishing Co., 1934. pp. 176-193.

Faculty of the High School, the Faculty of the College, and the University Senate. The members of the Department of Social Science in the High School then prepared teaching materials—guide sheets, tests, illustrative selections—for each of the courses and in October, 1933, the new program was put into effect.”⁸

Fusion in the social studies.—In addition to the issue between courses planned in advance and courses planned on the spot, a second major issue relative to organization has been faced. Shall traditional subject boundaries be ignored in the construction of the social-studies curriculum? The fusionists seem to Wilson to base their case on three principles:

- “1. Only such material as has direct value in developing in pupils intelligent understandings and tolerant, co-operative appreciations fitting them to engage in the activities of the life of the time shall be taught.
2. Selected subject matter in the social sciences must be organized in units of experience, psychologically appealing and learnable, and corresponding as closely as possible to life situations.
3. Traditional subject boundaries shall be ignored in the construction of the social-science curriculum; subject fields not only fail to achieve the purposes of education but interfere with the selection and organization of a curriculum which will achieve these purposes. The current problem rather than the subject fact is the heart of a functional unit.”⁹

As Keohane and Hill point out in the Fourth Yearbook, the new program in the University High School does not attempt to merge “the social studies into a fusion course centered upon contemporary social problems and obliterating standard subject boundaries; on the contrary, subject fields are carefully defined and retained. Four of the courses in the social studies are organized to emphasize the continuity and development of important social institutions. To be sure, each unit of an historical nature is motivated by making evident to the pupil the connection of the unit with present-day life and

⁸Ibid. p. 182 cf.

⁹Howard E. Wilson. *The Fusion of Social Studies in Junior High Schools*. Harvard University Press, 1933. p. 61.

thought, but materials are selected not only to bear upon contemporary problems but also to enable the pupil to understand the processes of past social development. These materials are then organized so as to make possible the most effective teachings of historical understandings, skills, and attitudes. On the other hand, the three courses in which attention is centered upon contemporary society—Community-Life English, Economic Society, and American Political Institutions—use historical materials wherever helpful to promote the understanding of social, economic, and political conditions, principles, and problems.

The curriculum in the University High School is organized upon the principle that the development of general ideas or understandings in the minds of the pupils is a primary object of instruction in content courses. Such understandings and the processes of thinking which lead to them are best attained, it is believed, through the organization of materials in the standard subject fields which have developed these ideas and methods of thinking. Facts in themselves may belong to a given field, but they may contribute, according to their use, to the development of fundamental understandings in other fields. Accordingly facts commonly considered as geographical in character constitute an essential part of units in history courses when used to achieve an understanding of historical movements and the evolution of social institutions. In a similar manner facts usually regarded as historical in character assume a proper and an important place in the courses in Economic Society and American Political Institutions when they contribute to the understanding of economic and political ideas and processes of thinking."¹⁰

Description of courses.—Time does not permit of a detailed description of the courses in the social studies which we include in our required sequences. The article by Keohane and Hill in the Fourth Yearbook to which reference has been made contains a chart which shows the social studies curriculum of the University of Chicago Laboratory Schools. The sequences in history and geography in grades four, five, and six are

¹⁰Keohane and Hill. *Op. cit.* p. 191 f.

briefly described, and the units included in the courses in social studies required in University High School are given in topical outline form. A more complete description of the history and social science courses in the high school in mimeographed form is available on request.

History is organized in an eight year required sequence. In grades four and five the course presents a series of pictures of how people have lived in successive periods, beginning with pre-historic peoples and ending with colonial life in America. In grade six the organization of the course in history is longitudinal, rather than a succession of cross sections as in the preceding grades. One unit, for example, tells the story of the development of means of transportation on land, on the water, and in the air from primitive times, and points out the consequent changes in ways of living. Other units deal with the evolution of tools and machines, means of communication, means of trade, housing, schooling, civic rights, and government. The program for the high school includes a study of United States history in grade seven, a two-year study of modern history in grades eight and nine, and a two-year study of the development of civilization prior to the nineteenth century in grades ten and eleven.

Three courses are included in the new program in which attention is centered upon contemporary society,—community life to-day in grade eight, economic society in grade ten, and American political institutions in grade eleven.

Every course in this program has a long history of gradual development in the University High School. As Keohane and Hill point out, "The new program in the social studies builds solidly upon the experience of previous years, carefully reconsidered and modified to meet changing conditions. For years a course in United States History has been required of seventh-grade pupils. Modern history was formerly required in the tenth grade; it now has been changed to fit the interests and abilities of eighth-and ninth-grade pupils. Community-Life English has been taught for many years. Early Civilization and Western Civilization, placed in the tenth and eleventh years respectively, are a greatly expanded and enriched outgrowth of a

course entitled Survey of Civilization formerly offered in the ninth grade. Economic Society, now given in the tenth grade, was formerly an elective course in the tenth and eleventh years; American Political Institutions, changed in several ways, retains its place in the last year of the high school."¹¹

In its present form the social-studies curriculum is experimental and subject to change. Modification in detail are constantly made as experience indicates the needs for changes in content and procedure.

Edgar G. Johnston, Principal of the University High School at Ann Arbor, Michigan, read his paper, *Aptitude Testing*.

APTITUDE TESTING AS UNDERTAKEN BY THE ROUND TABLE OF SOUTHEASTERN MICHIGAN

EDGAR G. JOHNSTON

Principal, University High School
Ann Arbor, Michigan

It seems especially appropriate that a report on one of the activities of the Southeastern Michigan Round Table, an organization composed of high-school principals and college professors of secondary education in the five counties surrounding Detroit, should be made at a meeting of which Professor Judd is chairman since it was he who started the Round Table on its present career.

A committee of our organization undertook to set up a program of scholastic aptitude testing for the area represented by the Round Table. The American Council Psychological Examination (series of 1932) was chosen for the experiment and forty-two high schools agreed to cooperate. The cooperation of the University of Michigan and of the Michigan State Normal College was secured both in financing the program and in analyzing results. Each cooperating high school agreed: first, to administer the chosen test during the week

¹¹Ibid. p. 192.

March 6-10 to all members of the June graduating class, to score the test according to instructions provided, and to forward the results to the Office of Educational Investigations of the University of Michigan; second, to have each pupil taking the test fill out an information blank covering certain data about his educational experience, interests, and plans, and to forward these blanks along with the test; third, to furnish a record of the scholastic success of each pupil taking the test. The tests were administered to a total of 7968 pupils in forty-two schools. Unfortunately, the pupil information blanks and the reports of scholastic rank were not complete for all of these pupils so that some of the findings to be reported here do not apply to all those taking the test. The findings, together with suggestions for their use, were reported back to the participating schools. The more important summaries from this report are reproduced on the sheets distributed to you.

A first table in the final report of the committee presents comparative scores on the American Council Examination for the 23,000 college freshmen who took the same test in colleges throughout the country, for college freshmen at the University of Michigan the preceding year, for the various grades in private secondary schools administering tests under the auspices of the Educational Records Bureau, and for 16,000 Wisconsin seniors. The complete report gave the distribution for these groups in terms of decile scores. The median score for the Round Table was 127.98 as compared with 138.00 for Wisconsin seniors and 166.00 for college freshmen. Although these comparative figures are perhaps not especially significant for individual high-school principals, they do present some idea—especially those of Wisconsin high schools, a comparable group—as to how high-school students of this area compare in academic promise with other groups for whom data are available.

Most significant to the individual high-school principal, however, is the next table in which the distribution of scores in ten point intervals is given for all schools combined and individually for each cooperating school. (In reporting this information, schools were identified by code numbers and the identification of his own school communicated to each principal.)

TABLE I
Distributions of Scores in the American Council Psychological Examination

	A. C. on Ed. 1932 Ed.	U. of M. 1932 Ed.	College Freshmen	9th	Grade 10th	Educational Records Bureau Private Secondary Schools 1931 Edition*	11th	12th	High Sch. Seniors	Wisconsin 1929 Ed.*	S. E. Mich. 1932 Ed.
No. of Cases	23,387	1030	1306	1376	1514	1537	16,329	7968			
Q ³	207.00	231.50	174.00	204.00	221.50	244.00	175.50	166.17			
Median	166.00	188.00	135.00	164.00	184.00	206.00	138.00	127.98			
Q ¹	125.00	145.50	97.00	120.50	144.00	161.00	104.50	95.16			

*The scores of the 1931 and 1929 Editions have been equated to those of the 1932 Edition.

TABLE II.

Distribution of Scores in the American Council Psychological Examination (1932 Ed.) For Seniors in High Schools of the Southeastern Michigan Round Table.

Code Numbers for Individual Schools		Totals for Schools	Q ³	Median	Q ¹
Total	All Schools	7968	166.17	127.98	95.16
	1	18	235.00	190.00	151.67
	2	68	204.38	184.00	156.00
	3	72	210.00	176.67	146.00
	4	98	190.83	158.57	121.87
	5	271	187.66	149.50	111.03
	6	145	193.93	148.12	115.25
	7	410	199.77	147.75	114.32
	8	51	177.08	145.00	118.21
	9	17	166.87	145.00	96.25
	10	472	180.38	144.59	111.71
	11	48	165.00	130.00	93.33
	12	40	157.50	128.00	100.00
	13	169	157.83	127.75	98.91
	14	40	150.00	126.67	96.00
	15	107	163.21	125.00	91.87
	16	31	155.62	125.00	95.83
	17	60	156.00	125.00	91.43
	18	367	166.03	124.72	89.39
	19	333	157.98	124.43	94.40
	20	167	160.42	123.75	84.79
	21	19	144.17	123.75	88.75
	22	308	160.00	122.86	93.93
	23	234	162.50	122.50	94.32
	24	36	155.00	120.00	97.50
	25	35	144.50	118.33	72.50
	26	45	136.87	118.12	98.50
	27	233	148.64	117.95	86.25
	28	126	147.22	116.15	91.78
	29	69	145.50	115.83	90.42
	30	29	138.75	113.57	86.25

Code Numbers for Individual Schools	Totals for Schools	Q ³	Median	Q ¹
31	88	140.00	113.00	86.67
32	64	150.00	111.67	93.75
33	199	138.04	109.35	85.12
34	319	140.66	108.96	83.89
35	105	154.75	108.75	82.04
36	278	135.83	106.33	78.79
37	11	182.50	105.00	67.50
38	294	139.50	102.59	83.03
39	33	139.37	101.67	80.83
40	32	128.33	100.00	80.00
41	57	124.69	99.17	70.62
42	172	138.18	93.85	66.67

Several points about these results are interesting. While schools vary considerably in size (graduating classes range from 11 to 472), the size of the school bears no relation to showing on the test. This, of course, should be expected. The variations from school to school, however, are greater than might have been anticipated. Median scores range from 93.85 to 190.00, an average more than double that of the lowest ranking school. The first quartile for the three schools which head the list exceeds the score achieved by 75% of the pupils in 15 schools from the 42; in other words, for these first three schools only 25% made scores as low as those obtained by three-fourths of the graduating classes in one-third of the schools represented. Such facts as these are certainly of value to conscientious administrators and college admission officers in determining what percentage of the various student bodies are likely to profit from a college education as now conceived. On the basis of a disparity such as this among schools of the same geographic area it seems evident that admission policies which are based largely upon the proportionate standing within a graduating class are open to very considerable error. A rule admitting the upper 50% of any graduating class would exclude 28 pupils with scores above the average for the area in school No. 2, while admitting 18 pupils with scores below the

average from school No. 41—a school of almost the same enrollment.

In the information blank pupils were asked to indicate whether they planned to continue education beyond high school. The replies to this question were tabulated in relation to scores made on the test. The results seem quite significant.

TABLE IV.

Distribution of Scores in the American Council Psychological Examination (1932 Edition) by Intention to Continue Education.

	Continuing	Not Continuing	Uncertain	No Answer
Total	4812	2771	294	91
Q ^s	176.8613	144.6387	158.3333	161.2500
Median	139.1566	112.6305	124.7619	125.5000
Q ¹	103.5385	85.6076	90.7500	89.5833

Of the 7,968 taking the test, 4,812 (or 60.4%) plan to go on to higher institutions; 2,771 are not planning to continue education, 294 are uncertain, and 91 did not reply to the question. On the whole there seems to be here some recognition of personal limitations, as the median score for the group continuing is 139.1566, for those not continuing 112.6305. But median scores do not tell the whole story. The distribution for the group planning to go to college covers as wide a range as that for pupils concluding their education with the high-school course. The fact that 802 (16 $\frac{2}{3}$ %) of the group planning to continue education achieved scores placing them in the lowest 25% of the whole group would seem to be an indication of misdirected ambition which probably spells trouble for them, the colleges they attend, and the high schools from which they come. More significant, however, from a social standpoint is the number of pupils of superior ability who have given up hope of future education. Of the group not continuing education or uncertain of continuance 561 (14.6%) are pupils in the upper fourth of the entire group in ability; 1161 (36.8%) are above the average of the

group. Furthermore, one of the two scores between 330 and 339 recorded for pupils in this testing program was made by a pupil who did not plan to continue his education. No civilization can afford to neglect its best minds. The social waste represented here cannot be lightly disregarded.

Pupils were asked to suggest their reasons for not continuing education beyond high school. In order of frequency the reasons advanced are: 1. Financial inability 2. Preference for earning money 3. Lack of vocational decision 4. A poor scholastic record in high school 5. A lack of interest 6. Unwillingness of parents. It may occasion no surprise to find that in more than half the cases the obstacle to higher education is a financial one, but the fact deserves careful consideration when weighing the arguments of those who would reduce the proportion of state support for colleges and universities and restrict these opportunities more largely to those who can afford to pay for them. No community can afford not to give an opportunity for advanced training to those best equipped to profit from it.

A comparison which is of significance in the guidance of pupils to the various higher institutions within the state is that which shows the distribution of scores on the test in relation to the higher institutions indicated as the pupils' first choice.

TABLE VI.

Distribution of Scores in the American Council Psychological Examination (1932 Ed.) by Higher Institutions of First Choice

Institution	Total	Q ³	Median	Q ¹
In State				
A	944	205.56	165.78	127.46
B	569	185.86	147.50	111.09
C	214	178.21	143.33	105.63
D	200	165.00	136.79	110.63
E	171	179.06	137.92	109.11
F	78	182.50	128.75	98.13
G	245	165.97	136.14	108.47
H	118	189.17	145.56	109.17
I	104	173.75	140.00	97.50
J	250	143.00	109.67	87.59
K	632	146.60	116.86	88.86
L	165	156.25	123.57	84.72
Out of State	611	184.54	148.41	105.81

Median scores range from 109.67 to 165.78. In terms of the competition which he will meet a student may well be guided out of one type of institution and into another. The largest number of those replying indicated a choice of the state university and the median intelligence score for this group was highest. It is further significant (as I found from records in the registrar's office) that the median score of those who actually were admitted to the University was another 13 points higher and furthermore that there were distinct differences in median test scores among those entering the various schools within the University. These data should certainly be taken into account in any guidance procedure affecting pupils, both on the part of the high-school administration and of college personnel officers.

The next analyses presented in the committee's report show the distribution of scores in relation first, to the high-school subject liked least and second, in relation to those liked best.

TABLE VII

Distribution of Scores in the American Council Psychological Examination (1932 Ed.) by High-School Subject Liked Best

	English Courses	Mathematics Courses	Science Courses	Social Science Courses	Language Courses	Commercial Courses	Music and Art Courses	Industrial Courses
Total	1503	899	1091	1240	416	1565	419	416
Q ³	173.52	186.34	184.46	161.75	194.58	137.00	156.42	149.31
Median	133.93	148.19	143.85	126.44	155.31	108.52	127.68	118.00
Q ¹	98.73	113.24	107.34	95.98	117.65	83.22	93.07	85.67

In terms of the ability of those preferring them, types of courses rank in order: language, mathematics, science. The commercial courses showed the largest number of preferences, but the lowest group in ability. Least teachers of language, science, and mathematics become unduly puffed up and consider their fields to be par excellence the food of best minds, it is well to turn to the table of courses liked least where we find the ranking in order of the ability of those disliking them to be language courses, science courses, and mathematics courses.

TABLE VIII

Distribution of Scores in the American Council Psychological Examination (1932 Ed.) by High-School Subjects Liked Best

	English Courses	Mathematics Courses	Science Courses	Social Science Courses	Language Courses	Commercial Courses	Music and Art Courses	Industrial Courses
Total	1210	1642	690	2217	1030	476	39	44
Q ³	162.25	163.35	169.00	158.84	182.67	153.93	182.50	152.00
Median	125.25	128.69	130.19	120.55	148.29	115.96	117.00	108.00
Q ¹	91.58	99.05	96.82	90.13	112.85	86.92	83.75	86.25

Incidentally, mathematics is second on the list in terms of the number who show a distaste for it. Perhaps the only conclusion to be drawn from these two tables is that students of greater ability have more decided likes and dislikes.

TABLE IX

Distribution of Scores in the American Council Psychological Examination (1932 Ed.) by High-School Curriculum

	College Prep. Classical	College Prep. Scientific	General College Prep.	General Non-College Prep.	Commercial	Industrial	Agricultural	Other	No Answer
Total	2523	797	272	1579	2177	283	27	125	185
Q ³	191.31	191.99	179.50	142.10	141.83	147.36	142.50	153.06	147.83
Median	153.19	149.91	142.92	111.48	111.78	115.25	121.25	115.00	114.69
Q ¹	117.45	114.66	101.11	84.18	86.70	83.56	83.50	83.25	84.17

Table IX shows comparative test scores in relation to the high-school curriculum. A noticeable difference is to be observed between the average scores of those taking classical, scientific, and general college preparatory courses, and those in commercial, industrial, or general courses. The difference between medians for the general college preparatory and the general non-college preparatory curricula is more than thirty points. It would seem that either as a result of personal choice or of guidance in the high-school pupils of better ability have in general been entering the curricula which make greater demands on scholastic ability. Here, however, as in previous tables, the spread of distribution may be as significant as the central tendency. The fact that 378 pupils with scores below 100 were enrolled in the classical curriculum is distinctly food for thought.

TABLE X

Distribution of Scores in the American Council Psychological Examination (1932 Ed.) by Average High-School Grade

		Average High School Grade								
		0-.49	.5-.99	1-1.49	1.5-1.99	2-2.49	2.5-2.99	3-3.49	3.5-3.99	4
Total		7	24	330	681	967	487	389	144	12
Q ³		122.50	110.00	124.57	138.90	154.96	182.34	203.50	250.00	285.00
Median		85.00	75.00	94.12	110.24	121.33	152.40	171.17	214.44	270.00
Q ¹		53.75	61.67	68.75	83.19	91.64	121.57	135.92	175.00	190.00

The final analysis presents the distribution of scores in terms of the average of marks in high school. A scatter-diagram depicting this relationship shows some agreement between relative scores on the test and achievement as recorded in high-school grades. The correlation between the two is $+ .53$. It is equally noticeable, however, that there are significant divergencies. Four hundred eight pupils with averages of C or better are in the lowest 25% of the group in ability as measured by this test, and 30 pupils with averages better than B are in this lowest fourth of the group. Scholastic rank in high school and scholastic ability as measured by a test such as the American Council Psychological Examination would seem to represent somewhat distinct factors.

Forty-two schools from a membership of 60 participated in this testing program. While data are not available as to the extent of its use by individual schools—a crucial consideration—it proved of sufficient interest to the membership that the organization voted to continue the project for the current year and to expand the program to include an aptitude test at the sophomore level as well as the American Council Test to be administered to all seniors. Furthermore, following a report on the Round Table program at its December meeting the Michigan High-School Principals Association voted to participate in the current year's testing.

It may be worth while to point out certain recognized shortcomings of the program as administered last year and certain uses which the results might reasonably be expected to serve both to participating high schools and to personnel divisions of higher institutions in the area. Among deficiencies in the program may be mentioned: (1) Lack of complete participation by member schools. The results would have been more convincing and the influence of the experiment more effective had it been possible to obtain participation by all schools within the area.

(2) The incompleteness of returns. It is unfortunate that returns on the pupil information blank were in some

cases not complete and that scholastic averages in high school were available for only 38% of those taking the test.

(3) The date of administering the test. The date of testing was undoubtedly too late to make possible the fullest use of results in the guidance of graduating seniors.

(4) Insufficient follow-up. It is difficult to know to what extent the results of the testing program were used in individual schools, but it seems probable that their use in guidance programs was not as extensive as is desirable.

The advantages which may reasonably accrue from such a coöperative program affect the colleges, the high schools, and the community at large.

1. Of distinct advantage to higher institutions is the provision of a more realistic measure of fitness for the type of experience the college has to offer. Unquestionably, some of the traditional college offerings need revision and it is encouraging to note that colleges are increasingly aware of this fact and that many are modifying their curricula. Whatever changes shall be made in their program, however, it seems clear that colleges will be more, rather than less, interested in careful measurement of the abilities of those who propose to embark upon higher education. The advantages of such a measure are obviously increased as data are available over a wide area. I am not suggesting that the results of the scholastic aptitude testing program alone should be used in determining college entrance. However, in conjunction with other data available from high-school records and interviews with prospective candidates, comparable test scores make possible increased precision in estimating the fitness of applicants.

2. For the high school the objective nature of this measuring instrument and the comparisons available for an entire area make possible more intelligent educational guidance—a responsibility which the modern high school cannot escape. One of the chief advantages of the coöperative program from the principal's standpoint lies in its support for other judgments. Because of the social prestige of a college education parents frequently bring pressure upon the school for a rec-

ommendation which is out of keeping with a student's best interests and the most effective use of the resources of the college. A tactful use of the comparative data provided by a testing program involving all the graduating seniors of a state or of a geographical unit may frequently be helpful in making sound guidance possible. As the Wisconsin committee says in the report* previously referred to, "Parents have a blind faith in education. They seem to labor under two unfortunate fallacies. The first fallacy is a belief that anyone can learn anything. The second is that they seem to feel that a college diploma is some sort of casualty insurance against failure. The committee realizes that high-school administrators and college admission officers want to be perfectly frank with parents; but the committee also realizes that a program of frankness requires a basis of objective data." The fact that the same test is given to students of a large number of schools at the same time and (if such is the case) that a comparable test is given at the same time each year makes possible a comparison by the principal of succeeding classes within a school or of the scholastic promise of the student body of his own school with that of others within the area. This type of comparison is helpful to a high-school staff wishing to conceive its educational responsibility in realistic terms.

Most important of all, however, it makes possible determination of good college risks without hampering the high school in the performance of its primary function of providing education appropriate to all adolescents. To an extent not usually recognized, college entrance subject requirements determine the curriculum not only for the group who actually enter higher institutions but for the larger number whose educational experience will not extend beyond the high school. The paucity of offerings possible in the smaller schools results in their providing little more than a one-track curriculum and that curriculum set up in terms of the entrance requirements of the state university. Even in the larger schools where broad and flexible curricula are available, pupils will frequently persist in attempting courses entirely unsuited to

*Op. cit., p. 9.

their needs because these subjects are the open sesame to college doors. With the substitution of qualitative standards of admission it becomes possible to guide such pupils into appropriate activities with the assurance that admission to college is based upon evidence of fitness for college work and not upon conformity to an academic ritual.

It seems important in discussing a regional or state-wide testing program to distinguish between scholastic aptitude and achievement tests. The two types have frequently been confused. In so far as it is valid, an aptitude test measures what the pupil *can do* and not what he has done. Its showings are something for which the school is not responsible. The teachers need not feel disgraced if their pupils rank low on such a test and they have no incentive to narrow specialization in order to make high scores. The achievement test, on the other hand, serves an entirely different function. Its purpose is to measure the accomplishment of pupils and the efficiency of instruction. The increasing use of these tests on a state-wide comparative basis has been viewed with misgiving by some thoughtful students of secondary education who, while favoring the wise use of such tests by individual schools, see distinct hazards in their use on a competitive basis.

3. For the community there is distinct advantage in the increased economy both of educational resources and of human values which a soundly conceived testing program makes possible. There is distinct social waste involved in the futile pursuit of an education beyond their comprehension on the part of large numbers of young people who enter colleges with little conception of what higher education demands or of their own limitations. Democracy does not consist in encouraging every youth to essay the academic heights. What it does demand is the direction of the individual's energies into appropriate channels and an opportunity for him to develop his abilities to their fullest degree. Most important is the focussing of attention on pupils of unusual promise and encouraging them to continue education. A commendable practice is that followed in Wisconsin where letters of encouragement from President Glenn Frank were written to all pu-

pils with scores in the upper quartile on the American Council test, who did not plan to attend college.

The aptitude testing program of the Round Table is not presented as being original or unique. Its interest to this audience may be largely as an illustration of service a regional association of high-school principals may find it possible to perform. Such a group may frequently provide a laboratory for the state association for experiment in matters of school organization or policy. Its community of interest, the acquaintance of its members with each other, and the possibility of frequent meetings enable it to carry on an active and continuous program. The Judd Club of Chicago has long demonstrated the usefulness of such a regional group. At the present time there are frequent demands on the energies of school men and many organizations compete for their attention. It seems possible for any professional group to justify its existence only as it provides an opportunity for its members to pool their efforts and resources to make education more effective in the area it serves.

PART II

NATIONAL HONOR SOCIETY

Meeting of the National Council

The National Council met in Parlor E of the Hollenden Hotel in Cleveland on Sunday, February 25, 1934, at 1 P. M. Present: Members Allen, Brooks, Kepner, MacQuarrie, McDaniel, and Church. Absent: Cook,* Plummer, Sieber, and Wagner.

On motion of Member Allen and a second by Member Brooks it was resolved that Section 3 of Article VI of the constitution of the National Honor Society be amended to read:

SECTION 2. Membership in any chapter shall be based on scholarship, service, leadership, and character. *Or*

SECTION 2. Membership in any chapter shall be based on scholarship, service, leadership, and character but the *initial*

*Deceased.

election of members to a newly installed chapter of the National Honor Society shall be from among the pupils who rank in the upper ten per cent in scholarship. The level of scholastic achievement at or above which the upper ten per cent of the pupils are found shall become for the pupils of that school the required scholastic achievement for admission to candidacy for membership in the society. The scholastic achievement standard of that school thereafter remains constant and all students who can rise in scholarship to or above the initial upper ten per cent scholastic level of that school are to be admitted to candidacy for election to membership as to scholarship. On vote the motion prevailed.

It was moved by Member Kepner with a second by Member Brooks that the Secretary be empowered to devise and put on sale diploma seals for the National Junior Honor Society. The motion was carried.

On motion of Member MacQuarrie and the second of Member Brooks the following resolution of condolence was ordered transmitted to the wife of deceased Member Cook: The National Council of the National Honor Society in deep regret must record the absence to-day of a member who has long been an unselfish worker for not only the National Honor Society but also the Department of Secondary-School Principals. These two groups recognize their great loss and lament the passing of a staunch supporter of the many projects of these organizations. In committee work and council conference, R. R. Cook gave sincere and intelligent aid. His high Christian character, his sincerity and devotion will be missed in commission and convention. Our labors are on a higher level because he lived and moved among us. A schoolman of the finest type has steadied our gaze on high ideals and sound principles. The members of the National Council of the National Honor Society speed their sincere sympathy to his sorrowing family.

The terms of the following members of the National Council expire: Allen, Baker, and Plummer. The nominations follow: John H. Adams, Perry High School, Pittsburgh;

Charles Forrest Allen, Supervisor of Secondary Education, Little Rock; Forrest G. Averill, Fordson High School, Dearborn, Mich.; George A. Chamberlain, Riverside High School, Milwaukee; K. J. Clark, Murphy High School, Mobile, Ala.; E. B. Comstock, North Dallas High School, Dallas; Paul E. Elicker, Newton High School, Newtonville, Mass.; W. E. Hawley, Monroe High School, Rochester, N. Y.; Neil D. Mathews, Lincoln High School, Cleveland; Harry C. McKown, Sullivan, Ill.; Emily P. Rockwood, Haddon Heights, New Jersey; Alice Ball Struthers, Thomas Starr King Junior High School, Los Angeles, Calif.

On motion of Member Brooks the Council adjourned to meet Wednesday, February 28.

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.

SEC. 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.

SEC. 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.*

*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.

SEC. 4—All others engaged in Secondary Education, who are members of the National Education Association, shall be eligible to Associate Membership upon payment to the Secretary, of the annual fee of \$1.00.

SEC. 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.

SEC. 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.

SEC. 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.

SEC. 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.

SEC. 4—The executive secretary shall be appointed by the executive committee.

SEC. 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.

SEC. 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.

