

The Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association

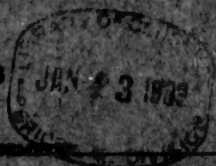
secondary-school principals

VOLUME 23

JANUARY, 1939

NUMBER 79

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The Articles in This Bulletin Are Listed in Education Index

Service Organ
for American Secondary Schools

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of the
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THE FEBRUARY CONVENTION

of the

DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Cleveland, Ohio

Headquarters: HOTEL CLEVELAND

February 25 - March 1, 1939

CONVENTION THEME: THE MODERN SECONDARY SCHOOL AT WORK

LOCAL COMMITTEE

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Superintendent of Schools
Cleveland, Ohio

General Chairman: EDGAR A. MILLER
Principal of West High School
Cleveland, Ohio

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Principal of John Marshall High School
Cleveland, Ohio

Publicity: C. R. WISE
Principal of Glenville High School
Cleveland, Ohio

THE PROGRAM

FIRST GENERAL SESSION

SATURDAY
February 25
6:00 P. M.
Ball Room
Hotel Cleveland

Dinner Session.

Presiding: Paul E. Elicker, Principal of Newton High School, Newtonville, Massachusetts, and President of the Department of Secondary-School Principals.

Music: Cleveland Schools.

Address of Welcome: Harry H. Burton, Mayor of Cleveland.

Address: "Education for Democracy," Lord Bertrand Russell.

SECOND GENERAL SESSION

MONDAY
February 27
2:15 P. M.
Ball Room
Hotel Cleveland

THEME: PUPIL ACTIVITIES OF THE MODERN SECONDARY SCHOOL.

Presiding: John E. Wellwood, Principal of Central High School, Flint, Michigan, and Member of the Executive Committee of the Department of Secondary-School Principals.

THE PHILOSOPHY AND PURPOSE OF AN ACTIVITY PROGRAM.

Address: "The Aim and Object of an Activity Program," Edgar G. Johnston, Principal of the University High School, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

Discussion: A panel of students from East Technical High School of Cleveland.

Summary: By the leader of the panel, Elbert K. Fretwell, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

THIRD GENERAL SESSION

TUESDAY
February 28
2:15 P. M.
Club Room B
Public Auditorium
Hotel Cleveland

THEME: THE DEPARTMENT AT WORK.

Presiding: K. J. Clark, Principal of Murphy High School, Mobile, Alabama, and First Vice President of the Department of Secondary-School Principals.

Address: "The Purposes and Policies of the Planning Committee," Francis L. Bacon, Chairman of the Planning Committee, and Principal of Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois.

Address: "Educational Problems Causing Administrators Most Concern During the Past Two Years," Francis T. Spaulding, Department of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

Demonstration Discussion: Subject — "The Guidance Function," a faculty group, led by C. R. Wise, Principal of Glenville High

School, Cleveland. Chairman, Walter E. Myer, Director of the Discussion Group Project, Washington, D. C.

Business Session: Report of committees. Election of officers.

FOURTH GENERAL SESSION

WEDNESDAY

March 1

2:15 P. M.

Club Room A

Public Auditorium
Hotel Cleveland

THEME: SIGNIFICANT CONTRIBUTIONS TO SECONDARY-SCHOOL IMPROVEMENTS.

Junior High-School Division

Presiding: Virgil M. Hardin, Principal of Pipkin and Reed Junior High Schools, Springfield, Missouri, and Member of the Executive Committee of the Department of Secondary-School Principals.

Address: "Marking Procedures in Springfield High Schools," J. D. Hull, Principal of Springfield Senior High School, Springfield, Missouri.

Address: "Administering an Integrated Program of Education in the Junior High School," C. Benton Manley, Principal of Horace Mann Junior High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma.

Discussion: Paul Leonard, Associate Professor of Education, Leland Stanford University, Stanford University, California.

Senior High-School Division

WEDNESDAY

March 1

2:15 P. M.

Club Room B

Public Auditorium
Hotel Cleveland

Presiding: Oscar Granger, Principal of Haverford Township High School, Upper Darby, Pennsylvania, and Second Vice President of the Department of Secondary-School Principals.

Address: "Significant Contributions from the New York State Regents' Inquiry," Luther Gulick, Columbia University, New York City, New York.

Address: "Significant Contributions from the

Modern High School at Work," William C. Reavis, Professor of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois.

Address: "Outcomes of the Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards," Walter C. Eells, Coordinator, Washington, D. C.

Discussion.

Junior-College Division

WEDNESDAY

March 1

2:15 P. M.

Ball Room Annex

Public Auditorium

Hotel Cleveland

Presiding: McClellan G. Jones, Principal of Union High School, Huntington Beach, California, and Member of the Executive Committee of the Department of Secondary-School Principals.

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE SERVING ITS SECTIONAL NEEDS.

Address: "Problems in Evolving a Junior-College Curriculum to Meet Community Needs," J. L. McCaskill, Principal of Senior High School and Junior College, Meridian, Mississippi.

Address: "How One Junior College Serves Its Community," Byron S. Hollinshead, President of Scranton-Keystone Junior College, LaPlume, Pennsylvania.

Address: "Meeting the Junior College Students' Needs," Louis E. Plummer, Superintendent of Fullerton Union High School and Junior College, Fullerton, California.

Evaluators: Chairman, Truman G. Reed, Principal of Lewis and Clark High School, Spokane, Washington, and Member of the Executive Committee of the Department of Secondary-School Principals; L. W. Brooks, Principal of Wichita High School East, Wichita, Kansas; Harrison C. Lyseth, State Supervisor of Secondary Education, Augusta, Maine; Galen Jones, Principal of Plainfield High School, Plainfield, New Jersey.

The Bulletin

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THE JUNIOR COLLEGE OF THE FUTURE¹

AARON J. BRUMBAUGH

Professor of Education, University of Chicago

The subject on which I have been asked to speak, "The Junior College of the Future," is an expression both of a faith in, and a hope for, this type of institution. It implies that there will be a junior college in the future, and that it is likely to change in some of its fundamental aspects. I accept both of these implications as sound premises for this discussion.

It must be obvious that it is impossible to portray in any precise way the nature of the junior college of the future. Any educational institution, to justify its existence, must in some important respects serve the needs of our future democracy; consequently, we must not venture to fix the pattern of education in anticipation of an unforeseen future. The difficulty experienced in changing an educational pattern, once it is established, is illustrated well by our common schools. The eight-grade elementary school became a part of our system of public education more or less by accident. There is no evidence in the psychology of learning, nor is the nature of the subject matter taught such as to justify an eight-year period of elementary education. But how extremely difficult it became to change this pattern of organization after it had become entrenched in our educational tradition.

We have, within a single generation, increased the span of human life and decreased the torture of human toil; we have all but eliminated the limitations of time and space in communication and travel; we have increased our periods of leisure and have expanded our activities for recreation; in a word, our technological developments have set the stage for a new social order. The junior college has arisen in response to the educational needs that are concomitant with the social change. The certainty of further unforeseen developments leaves us in doubt both as to the nature of the social changes that are still to come and as to the accompanying educational needs.

¹Address delivered at the fall meeting of the Illinois Association of Junior Colleges, Chicago, November 18, 1938.

Notwithstanding these elements of uncertainty concerning social change and new educational needs, it is possible to project into the future the lines along which the junior college is moving and to forecast something of its future, provided the direction in which it continues to move remains somewhat constant.

The junior college will become increasingly the agency for raising the general cultural level of society. The very name *junior college* bears an implication that it shall assume in program and function the nature of a college; that its membership shall be restricted to those of superior scholastic promise and that its program shall be directed toward specialization in academic and professional fields. This role of preparing students for later specialized study is not to be ignored but it represents only one phase of the service of the junior college. The growing complexity of our social affairs demands that all who as citizens are to participate in them must have the benefits afforded by a higher level of general education; furthermore, the lack of opportunities for employment of high-school graduates provides both an opportunity and a necessity for continuing their education. Many of these are not candidates for specialized study, but they can profit by education beyond the high-school level. In fact, the number of youth who will not advance beyond the level of the junior college is greater than the number who will enter the junior college as an avenue to more advanced education. The responsibility on the part of the junior college to provide appropriate terminal education is quite as important, therefore, as the responsibility to provide a pre-university program.

Lest it appear that I have set up these two types of education as mutually exclusive, let me explain that the educational needs of the potential citizen and those of the potential scholar are in most respects identical. A few illustrations of what I mean will serve to make this point clearer. When our population was predominantly rural, most of the issues confronting the citizen were local in nature; even those that were national in scope were relatively simple when compared with the problems of our days. The citizen of to-day must be intelligent concerning the effect of the TVA on private business enterprises; the old-age security measures; the organization of labor; the governmental control and possible ownership of railroads; the control of agricultural production; reciprocal trade agreements, and many other projects that are matters of common concern. To think clearly concerning these issues the citizen must know something of the development of scientific knowledge and of its relationship to technological development; he must have some knowledge of the principles of economics, sociology, and government; he must distinguish between pure propaganda and statements of fact. The concepts, data, and principles that the citizen should employ in thinking through current social and

political issues are essentially the same as those that are prerequisite to more advanced study in these fields.

There is likewise no essential difference between the appreciation of literature and the fine arts by the student whose education is to be terminated upon completing the junior college and by the student who intends to continue his education. Both must be conversant with the contributions made by the great masters. Through such an appreciation the cultured citizen takes an active interest in the establishment and maintenance of libraries, museums, and conservatories, in the support of symphonic orchestras, book clubs, and art societies. The potential scholar builds upon the same basis his recreational pursuits or his more technical study of aesthetics.

It would be unfortunate were I to leave this phase of my discussion without reference to the importance of certain values basic to all social organization. The philosophies and religions in all periods of man's history represent an attempt to define these values. Each individual must develop his own ethical and religious orientation, but he may be greatly aided by the thought and experience of those who have preceded him. One need only observe general practices in business and politics to be impressed with the need for ethical values that will really function in our society. The junior college can neither create nor transmit these values but it can and should guide students in their philosophical, ethical, and religious explorations.

I have endeavored by these illustrations, which are in no sense exhaustive, to establish the point that there are certain basic elements of education common to students whose formal education may end at the junior-college level and to those who may proceed to more advanced work.

The nature of a curriculum that will serve the purpose of general education of the type I have just described is at present a subject of much discussion and experimentation. It is becoming increasingly clear that a patchwork of courses in departmentalized fields of subject matter does not serve this purpose. Far more effective are general courses cutting across departmental lines or wholly ignoring such lines. The interrelationships of the fields of knowledge are quite as important as is the delimitation of these fields, but we have spent so much time in definition and delimitation that we have lost sight of these interrelationships. I envision in the junior college of the future a program of study that deals with the important facts and basic principles of human experience without concern as to whether they fit into a particular pigeonhole such as sociology, economics, physics, zoology, psychology, or philosophy.

I have already said that one of the fundamental qualifications of a citizen in a democracy is the power to think independently. The power to think is based on the ability to form generalizations, to arrive at general

conclusions. This power will never be developed to any high level by limiting the students' educational experience to facts and details in artificially segmented fields of knowledge. General courses centered around the great problems of human life and thought without reference to departmentalization of subjects undoubtedly afford the type of educational experience that is basic to independent thought.

I have stressed up to this point the fundamental nature of general education. There are, however, differentiated needs of students that the junior college of the future must recognize. Some of these are vocational in nature. Students who terminate their education at this level will seek employment. In numbers this group will far exceed those who go on to specialized work. Their education will have to be a major concern of the junior college. Provision will be made to aid students in determining vocational aptitudes and interests; information will be made available concerning the opportunities in various vocations and the qualifications requisite to employment; the way will be opened for exploratory courses and for try-outs in various vocations; and in some fields specific vocational training will be offered. Placement services will be provided to aid students to enter the vocations for which they are best fitted.

There seems to be little doubt in the minds of those who have studied the question most carefully that the vocational aspects of the junior college program will be greatly expanded. The introduction of courses in secretarial work, in commerce, in laboratory technique, mark the beginning of what is likely to become a wide offering of courses in the vocational field. Moreover, we are coming to realize more and more that there is no adequate substitute for firsthand experience in real work. The coöperative programs already in effect in a few junior colleges point the way for extending the opportunities for experience in the vocational field.

Outside the field of vocations, the junior college will offer many opportunities for students to pursue special interests. Some of these opportunities will be quite informal in nature to remove them from an association with school or education, an association that unfortunately has stood in the way of the education of some youth. Art groups, music groups, groups interested in photography, dramatics, radio, gymnastics, forensics, all these and many others will be recognized as having a legitimate claim upon the facilities of the college. Perhaps through these avenues, we may be able to cultivate a genuine love for the arts as an offset to the deadening instruction that has been killing spontaneous interest in them.

In order to achieve the purposes both of general and of differentiated education the junior colleges, particularly those that are a part of a public school system, will undoubtedly develop a new pattern of organization. The two-year junior college as an isolated educational unit has many limitations. A lack of time prevents my discussing these in any detail. Suffice

it to say, at this point, that the public junior college will become a much more intimate part of secondary education probably combining the junior and senior years of the high school with the two years now given to the junior college. This new type of organization will provide for a continuity of education through a unified curriculum and unified physical facilities that will eliminate many of the disadvantages arising from the artificial break that now exists between the high school and the junior college. The private junior college is in a less advantageous position to develop such a program. It is difficult to foresee just what the effect of this reorganization may be on its future.

Before I close, may I indicate one other aspect of the junior college of the future that will assume larger significance than it does at present. I refer to what is commonly called student personnel service or guidance. If the student and his needs are to be the focus of interest in the program of this institution, administrative officers and instructors must know much more about him. They will use indices of scholastic aptitude, of vocational aptitude, and of personality adjustment in determining the loads that a student may take, in aiding him to discover educational and vocational objectives, and in overcoming limitations in his personality, study habits, and reading skills so that he may work at a maximum level of achievement. Testing bureaus and advisory services will become an integrated part of the process of education. The emphasis will be placed not upon failure as an evidence of high standards or as a means of eliminating the inferior scholar, but upon discovering individual capacities as a basis for adapting programs and instruction to individual abilities. Academic salvation will be substituted for academic damnation.

Again may I stress the fact that this brief sketch is merely a projection into the future of present trends. Unforeseen socio-economic developments may give the trends an entirely new direction. It seems safe to predict, however, that in any event the junior college is an established institution that will grow in usefulness as it meets the educational needs of those who leave it to take their part in social affairs or to enter fields of specialized study.

PRINCIPLES OF GUIDANCE

H. D. RICHARDSON

Director of Research, Deerfield-Shields Township High Schools,
Highland Park and Lake Forest, Illinois

Guidance is now a widely accepted function of secondary-school education, both in theory and practice. It promises to become an increasingly significant function with the expansion of the secondary-school offering to meet the needs and interests of American youth.

At the present time, considerable confusion exists with reference to principles, meaning, and scope of the guidance function. Any attempt to provide an organized program of guidance for secondary-school pupils requires that this apparent confusion be reduced to reasonable order. An examination of the literature on the subject leads to the conclusion that the apparent discrepancies result from differences in emphasis on certain phases of the program rather than from fundamental disagreement as to the need and purpose of guidance. This point of view has been clearly expressed by Trabue as follows:

As a matter of fact, educational guidance, social guidance, emotional guidance, vocational guidance, and all other desirable types of guidance are merely different phases of a single program whose purpose is to build the happiest and most fully integrated personality possible upon the foundation with which nature and previous experience have provided the individual. The principles of guidance are the same in all fields.¹

In spite, therefore, of the diversity found in statements of the functions and purposes of guidance by writers on the subject, it is generally held that interest in, attention to, and concern for the individual student and his problems of planning and adjustment are at once the *common cause* and *center of emphasis* of all the various kinds of guidance and personnel services. Consequently there exists, either as a result of direct expression or reasonable inference, a substantial body of common working principles which serve to delineate a concept of guidance and to suggest a reasonably valid orientation and guide to practice.

A statement of these commonly accepted working principles follows:

1. *Guidance contributes to the realization of the objectives of secondary education.*—The relation of the guidance function to the objectives of secondary education, and the contribution it makes to their realization may be seen in the following statement of aims by Kefauver and Hand.

(a) It aims to give students an understanding of the social, recreational, health, and vocational activities in which they at present participate, and in which they continue to participate after leaving school, and the need of education preparatory for such participation.

(b) It aims to help students to discover interests and to form accurate judgments relative to the extent of their abilities in different types of activities. (c) It aims to acquaint students with the schools, courses, and other educational provisions which best prepare them

¹Trabue, M. R. "Recent Developments in Testing for Guidance," *Review of Educational Research*, III (February, 1933), 45.

for such activities. (d) It aims to help students select the activities of life in which they will participate and in which there is a large promise of success and happiness for them. (e) It aims to help students in planning an educational program which will best prepare them for their chosen activities, giving appropriate recognition to the need of education for social, recreational, health, and vocational activities. (f) It aims to facilitate adjustment of students in their activities in and out of school so that they will attain maximum achievement and happiness and not be disturbed by social and personal maladjustments. (g) It should make some contribution to the general improvement of education by defining the educational needs of individuals.²

To the extent that guidance succeeds in realizing these aims, to that degree will it contribute to the realization of the general objectives of secondary education.

2. *Guidance studies the individual.*—Guidance recognizes the fact that individuals differ widely in capacities, abilities, interests, and needs, and is concerned with the implications that these differences have for maximum development and optimal adjustment. "This recognition of complex differences among students is the first psychological principle of guidance."³ From the point of view of the guidance worker or counselor, a study and analysis of the individual will involve information about such factors as intelligence, previous achievement, special abilities and disabilities, interests, health and physical condition, home and family background, socio-economic status, and educational and vocational plans. In short, a study of the whole individual in terms of a case history or a comprehensive cumulative record is basic to good guidance practices. This continuous and cumulative study of the individual with the aid of a series of comparable objective test results has been characterized as the "major strategy of guidance."⁴ The intelligent use of the results of such cumulative measures together with case record materials has led Dean McConn to declare that "educational guidance is now possible."⁵

From the point of view of the individual, this study and analysis is intended to reveal to him his interests, abilities, capacities, and needs, to the end that he may be better able to find a place in the world where he will be successful and happy, and where his work will be of profit to himself and to society. It is the results of such individual analysis, discovery, and exploration, that furnish the only secure foundation structure upon which a sound and substantial program of guidance can be safely erected.

3. *Guidance studies educational and vocational requirements and opportunities.*—Facts concerning the nature and requirements of the environmental situations with which the individual must make adjustment,

²Kefauver, Grayson N., and Hand, Harold C. "Objectives of Guidance in Secondary Schools," *Teachers College Record*, XXXIV (February, 1933), 385.

³Strang, Ruth. *The Role of the Teacher in Personnel Work* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935), p. 17.

⁴Wood, Ben D. "The Major Strategy of Guidance," *Educational Record*, XV (October, 1934), 419-44.

⁵McConn, Max. "Educational Guidance Is Now Possible," *Educational Record*, XIV (October, 1933), 3-27.

in the school, in the community, and in the world of work, are to be made available and used. This aspect of guidance is sometimes referred to as the informative phase of the guidance program. Information of varied and diverse kinds must be made available to the student if wise choices and satisfying adjustments are to be made. The diversity of the means and methods of acquainting students with educational and vocational opportunities has been presented in detailed outline by Koos and Kefauver.⁶ A word of caution may be injected to the effect that the informative or revelatory phase of guidance is not to be narrowly conceived, nor is it to be reserved entirely for counselors. A more inclusive statement of the revelatory function as well as its purpose has been expressed by Briggs in the following words:

To reveal higher activities of an increasingly specialized type in the major fields of the racial heritage of experience and culture, their significant values for living, the problems in them of contemporary life, the privileges and duties of each person as an individual and as a member of social groups; to make these fields satisfying and desired by those naturally gifted for success in them, and to give information as to requirements for success in their fields and information as to where further training may be secured.⁷

This broad interpretation of the informatory and revelatory phases of guidance is to be preferred to one in which the aim is restricted merely to furnishing vocational information.

4. *Guidance attempts to relate effectively the facts regarding the individual and the facts regarding educational and vocational requirements and opportunities.*—The crux of the guidance function is to be found in the effectiveness with which differences in capacities, interests, and needs, revealed through the study of the individual, and the opportunities, requirements, and limitations imposed by the social and physical environment, can be related with resultant satisfaction and profit to the individual and to society. No simple formula to the effect that an individual is cut out at birth to succeed in a certain vocational calling can be relied upon. Such a notion has been termed "the fallacy of the perfect niche."⁸ Neither can it be assumed that an individual can succeed equally well in all occupations. That an individual can succeed in a number of educational and vocational pursuits is very probably true. Kitson is of the opinion that, "So variable are human capacities that it is probable that fifty per cent of the population could succeed, with fifty per cent degree of success, in fifty per cent of the occupations."⁹ The problem is to discover which occupational pursuits afford maximum expression and development for each

⁶Koos, Leonard V., and Kefauver, Grayson N. *Guidance in Secondary Schools* (New York: Macmillan Company, 1932), pp. 31-187.

⁷Briggs, Thomas H. *Secondary Education* (New York: Macmillan Company, 1933), pp. 109-37.

⁸Crawford, Albert B., and Clement, Stuart H. *The Choice of an Occupation* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1932), p. 1.

⁹Kitson, Harry D. "Aptitude Testing: Its Contribution to Vocational Guidance," *Occupations*, XII (April, 1934), 63.

individual. Effective distribution and adjustment of individuals to the educational and vocational opportunities in the complex modern world is a matter of too great social concern to be left unorganized and unguided; hence, the necessity for organized agencies for guidance. Such agencies must be primarily concerned with the relation between, and the interpretation of, the two sets of facts disclosed from careful and systematic study of individuals and of the world's requirements and opportunities together with their implications for improved individual and social living. The devising of methods and techniques for the discovery and interpretation of the relationships between these facts and of means and methods for bringing these interpretations to bear upon problems pertaining to the effective distribution and adjustment of individuals is a phase of guidance no less significant than the discovery of the facts themselves.

5. *Guidance is monitory rather than mandatory in character.*—The methods of guidance avoid determinism, prescription, and compulsion. Guidance is concerned with helping the individual to become acquainted with, to interpret, and to understand the factors involved in a situation, met or anticipated, which demands choice, decision, or solution. "The only compulsion possible in advice is the coercion of judgment by pertinent facts that point the way to proper judgment."¹⁰ The primary purpose of all guidance is to help the individual become progressively self-responsible and self-directive. While dogmatism, arbitrary prescription, and authoritative compulsion are to be sedulously avoided, honest help and advice must be given, for as Williamson points out, "Telling a student that he must diagnose his own aptitudes if he is to make a satisfactory vocational choice is much like telling a drowning man that if he will but swim to shore he will be saved."¹¹ The truth of this statement applies to many of the problems and choices which the individual is called upon to make, and for which guidance is expected to provide some help.

6. *Guidance serves the individual.*—Guidance services and functions extend to the individual student and his problems. To this end the guidance program provides for individual counseling. "Without effective provision for systematic counseling the rest of the program becomes largely abortive as a guidance program."¹² However, in connection with many phases of guidance work the individual can be reached through group guidance methods, especially if care is taken in the preparation of materials and in the perfection of techniques.

7. *Guidance is comprehensive; it serves all individuals.*—Guidance is not a service that is provided for the selected few—the maladjusted, the problem cases, the special disability cases, the gifted, or other exceptional

¹⁰Koos, Leonard V., and Kefauver, Grayson N. *op. cit.*, p. 17.

¹¹*Occupations XIII* (October, 1935), 89, quoted in a review of *A Syllabus for the Study of Vocations* by E. G. Williamson.

¹²McConn, Max. *op. cit.*, p. 12.

individuals. As Allen points out, "We must provide guidance for every child. It should not be necessary for a child to get into difficulty before he receives individual consideration."¹² Its chief emphasis is positive and preventive rather than negative and remedial. Constructive planning, distribution, and adjustment are to be effected for all children. Salvaging the few through re-adjustment, re-habilitation, and remedial treatment, while necessary and important, is not the primary function of guidance and personnel work.

8. *Guidance is a continuous, unitary process.*—Guidance is not an act, to be done once and for all, but a process, lifelong in extent. It is a service to be made available to individuals of all ages and at all times. It is a unitary, integrated process, as well as a continuous one. The individual must be dealt with as a whole person, an integrated personality. The several areas or categories of experience—vocational, educational, moral, health, leisure, etc.—may be made distinct for purposes of description and emphasis, but the individual cannot be broken up into parts each of which is to be viewed by specialists who administer guidance of a particular kind. It is the whole individual and not the segmented individual that must be guided. The fundamental unity of life must be recognized, respected, and preserved.

9. *Guidance is a coordinated community service.*—Guidance utilizes the services of all who can help, both in the school and the community at large. The guidance service is not a one-man job; nor is it a job to be done entirely within the schools. Neither is it a job to be delegated exclusively to specialists or generalists. The real problem is not whether guidance is a function of the school or some other community agency to be realized through the services of specialists or generalists, but rather it is a problem of how the entire facilities and resources of the home, the school, and the community can be coordinated, cooperatively utilized, and brought to bear effectively upon the problems of the individual. Many of the individual's problems may be safely handled by the general counselor in the school or other agency. Others demand the greater skill and diagnostic insight of specialists. Consequently, a twofold responsibility of the general guidance worker or counselor is the recognition of his personal limitations through an awareness of the contributions of special functionaries and agencies, and the provision for the cooperative utilization and coordination of their services with those of his own, if the most effective guidance is to be rendered to each individual.

10. *Guidance submits to evaluation.*—In spite of difficulties due to the complexity of the process, the often long-delayed results of guidance in the lives of individuals, and the inadequacy of existing evaluative instru-

¹²Allen, Richard D. *Organization and Supervision of Guidance in Public Education* (New York: Inor Publishing Company, 1934), p. xiv.

ments and techniques, the critical appraisal of guidance services is exceedingly important, and it must be undertaken. The significance of the outcomes of guidance is too important a matter to be left to general impression. Objective, systematic, and controlled evaluation should supplement subjective appraisal. The problem of evaluation, though difficult, is not impossible. The attempts and the progress already made afford promising line for further investigation.

These working principles provide a substantial undergirding for a comprehensive school-community guidance service. Their acceptance in practice will materially assist in the planned and orderly development of functional programs of guidance geared to the needs of modern youth and the problems of planning and adjustment that they face in a rapidly changing socio-economic world.

INDUSTRIAL ARTS

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The secondary schools of the United States have accepted the principle that all normal children, irrespective of class or social conditions, have a right to attend an institution of learning beyond the grade-school level. Although we have accepted this purely American ideal of universal secondary education in theory, in practice we have fallen far short of its accomplishment. It is true that our doors are open to all normal boys and girls, who regularly seek entrance, but many find only disappointment and discouragement within. In too many instances, the youth finds the offerings unsuited to his abilities, needs, and interests. Although much has been done in the progressive school to modify the curriculum to meet the needs, interests, and capacities of individual students, the traditional classical college preparatory school still predominates. Compartmentalized subject-matter fields have not yielded in many schools to larger learning areas, and pupil progress is still measured by subject-matter achievement rather than by functional outcomes in character, citizenship, initiative, and adaptability.

If we accept the principle that all children have the right to four years of high-school training above the elementary school, we must abandon the idea that we can send them all through the same mill, even though we limit our offerings to the academic field. Even there, there must be a difference in the mesh of our screen that delivers the product.

The traditional school fell short of its possibilities because its appeal was mainly to the mind. It was an easy philosophy to evolve and administer. The duty of the school was to present to each generation that part of the accumulation of the learning of the past generations as was thought necessary. The student was measured by his ability to remember and produce a certain percentage of this knowledge. The standards of measurement were never in terms of use or growth. The project method, the activity school, the progressive school are all protests against this narrow conception of education. Emphasis shifted from subject matter as an end in itself to subject matter only as a means to an end. We were long aware of the psychological fact that there is no impression without expression before we understood that the form of expression has much to do with the effectiveness and permanency of the impression.

Pupils have always shown preference for subjects that require physical as well as mental adjustment. The laboratory period is the saving grace in most physics and chemistry courses. All manual training, sewing, cooking, art, physical education, band, orchestra, typing are more popular with a greater number of children than are history, Latin, mathematics,

literature, or science. The activity school has utilized this knowledge. It is not uncommon in some schools for children to attend because they like to. The interest and enthusiasm pupils have for extra-curriculum activities reveals a human tendency that the administrator cannot afford to ignore if he is to plan wisely.

What is being done in the academic fields to enliven and vitalize the work is what has been done, or always should have been done, in the industrial department. Basically, it is the effort to utilize the immediate interests of the child or to create interests as the starting point of any learning activity, whether it be language, mathematics, science, or history; and then with this interest as a guide, to select some activity or activities by means of which desirable education experiences may be gained through purposeful activity. The more coöperative the activity, the better it serves the end of education, provided, of course, in all situations that the learner be afforded an opportunity to suggest, to plan, and to evaluate both the procedure and the results.

There is, by its very nature, no department better fitted to carry out this newer concept of education than is the industrial arts department. Interest seldom has to be evoked by the instructor, nor is it necessary to resort to artificial incentives. The opportunity to think, to plan, to evaluate, to accept responsibility, to explore, depends largely on the skill of the teacher. He must be enthusiastic, have depth of vision, and an adequate educational philosophy. Unless he has a comprehensive view of education, his field is likely to become as narrowly formalized as has the academic. In fact, in many instances the work of the industrial arts department has become formalized to the extent that it is not serving the purpose for which it was intended. Unrelated mechanical drawing, a rigid set of projects to be made by all, may be as stultifying as any academic subject which the pupil is required to pursue and for which he feels no need. Although objectives have long been established for industrial arts, administrators and teachers, judging from a survey of what some are doing, have not had a clear idea or conviction of the place or purpose of this department in the educational scheme. Manual arts teachers must resist the tendency to consider themselves a special department set apart from the rest of the school and working for separate ends. They must feel that their work is an integral part of the whole program of education set up in the light of an adequate educational philosophy. They must feel that they have as great a responsibility for the general welfare and progress of the individual as teachers in other fields. They must realize that a narrow view and overemphasis on any one phase of their work will vitiate their efforts to secure the broad, general objectives of education. Emphasis on skill alone may lessen the mental activities. Standard attainments ignore the needs and interests of the individual. Sole emphasis on the voca-

tional aspect of his work can easily deprive the individual of educational benefits that are desirable and the right of all.

It is with some hesitancy that I venture an opinion on vocational education in the secondary school. There is difference of opinion among educators on this subject. The controversy is between those who favor general education with industrial arts as an integral part and those who would place industrial arts on a purely vocational basis.

No one would question the obligation of the school to assist and direct any pupil toward the vocation or profession of his choice. But, as Judd points out, the difficulties that confront the administrator, when he attempts to fit the school to every individual, are almost insurmountable. The lack of well-prepared and natively endowed teachers, the difficulty in organizing a curriculum or curriculums to give suitable preparation for the many lines of human endeavor, and the instability of life in modern society, all tend to direct the efforts of the administrator to more easily accomplished ends. The first step in importance is to decide what general education is necessary for all to enable them to live intelligently in a modern world. The next step, and perhaps the more difficult one, is to provide training of a more specialized nature. Such a concept of the secondary curriculum would remove the conflict between general and vocational education. Until these difficulties are removed, it necessarily follows that the school must emphasize the importance of cultivating adaptability to the highest possible degree. If the individual is able to adjust himself to situations in his industrial, professional, and social life, the school will have gone a long way in accounting for its stewardship.

I am not in sympathy with those who put industrial arts in the secondary school on a trade-school basis. I prefer to consider industrial arts as an educational area, as we do the language arts, natural and social sciences, and the fine arts.

If we accept the formula of adaptability, the industrial-arts teacher will not make the mistake of extreme specialization in any trade. Compartmentalization is as undesirable within the field of industrial arts as it is in any other. I am of the opinion, despite the rather convincing arguments of those who advocate vocational training in the secondary school, that emphasis purely on vocational training below the college level may deprive the individual of the opportunity to secure the educational benefits that a more general course offers.

There are those who would have us believe that the principal failure of the secondary school is that it does not fit the boy or girl to earn a living and that all maladjustment is due to the fact that more occupational courses are not offered. I think it is a false assumption that all, or even many, children come to high school only to learn how to earn a living, and that all the maladjustment, dissatisfaction, and failure is due to the fact that they

cannot find the thing for which they are looking. A revision of the curriculum or curriculums to provide differentiated levels of achievement according to ability, so organized to provide situations where the learner can utilize in some overt way the material he is studying, will do more than anything to prevent failure and the dissatisfaction that follows it. In other words, part of the solution to the problem is a better organization and a better use of the subjects that most high schools are already teaching. If the secondary school is to continue as a part of our free, universal system of education, we must abandon the convenient, but harmful, lock-step system in all departments for one that is much more difficult to conceive and administer, but which will render a greater service to society as well as the individual.

It has never been expected of the high school that it turn out finished products in any department. The athlete participates for other reasons than preparation for his life work. He knows that even should he find future uses for his skill after leaving school that his training is little short of rudimentary. The boy or girl who enters the band or orchestra may or may not have in mind music as an occupation. Neither does the school hope to turn out finished musicians. Neither is it the duty of the school to turn out finished artisans in any particular field. Rather it is the obligation of the school to provide experiences that will enable the pupil to discover his capabilities, to know what his chances are in many occupations, and to give sufficient practice to determine his aptitude and permanent interest in his selected field. This, I believe, can be accomplished without setting up separate schools, or without setting aside a department in our present system and labeling it vocational. As stated above, the uncertainty and instability of the industrial world seems to favor the advisability of securing general adaptability to several lines of endeavor rather than narrow specialization in any one particular trade or occupation.

What I have said heretofore has been more or less concerned with the relation of an industrial arts program to the general organization of the school. There are other values which have nothing to do with earning a living, but which are practical and utilitarian for other reasons.

The writer has always had more or less contempt for the individual who has no mechanical ability. The man who must call a plumber every time a faucet leaks, or a carpenter to adjust a window or hang a screen, certainly is undeveloped to say the least. Aside from the self-respect and the satisfaction one experiences in being able to do the minor repair work around the house, for which no elaborate equipment is required, there is a financial saving. Practically every family now has a car; therefore, a course in auto mechanics is very practical. Aside from making minor repairs and adjustments, it is quite to the advantage of the owner to know at least what the car needs, if he must take it to a garage for repairs.

Then too, each person is a consumer. In this age of high-pressure advertising and salesmanship, a knowledge of materials, design, and construction should be a part of his equipment as a protection against false or extravagant claims. A class in architectural drawing can learn how to plan a house without going very far into the matter of what constitutes a good structure, unless the teachers take him rather far afield in the study of material, construction, design, and other related information. The writer knows of many who have been cheated in the purchase of a house because they looked no farther than the surface of the walls.

In addition to the many other values not mentioned and the practical side just named, there is one that by reason of its importance must be considered; namely, the value to the individual of the skills, interests, and knowledge derived from the industrial arts course as leisure-time activities. A truly educated person must be as well equipped to play and to occupy his leisure time as he is equipped to work and earn a living. The necessity for definitely providing the individual with this equipment grows more imperative as the ratio between the unemployed and employed hours grows greater. Too often the individual has been importuned to develop an appreciation of art, music, and literature to fill in the leisure hours. These suggestions are excellent, but they do not fill the bill completely. Likewise, one cannot resort to sports alone for his recreation. Most games require numbers. That perhaps explains the reason for the popularity of *solitaire* and crossword and picture puzzles. The normal individual requires activity, and this need must be supplied as well as the other. The people who are healthiest mentally and physically are those who have hobbies. The industrial arts program is especially fitted to recognize, develop, and strengthen lasting interests that will serve to make leisure time interesting, safe, and profitable.

In closing, I urge a closer unity between all those engaged in the field of secondary education in whatever capacity. We must present a united front if we are to meet and withstand the criticisms that are hurled at our schools. It does not matter whether the criticism is just—and some of it is—or whether it is made from selfish motives, ignorance of the facts, or for personal advertising or self-aggrandizement. At present, the right of industrial or vocational education to a place in the secondary school is being challenged. Such criticisms and challenges may not change the thinking of those who have a well-grounded philosophy of education and who realize the value and necessity of many kinds of training, even though the criticism emanates from an educational Olympus. But it will fall their lot to clear the atmosphere and relieve the mental confusion of the general public, who accept such criticisms as authoritative because they have come from such high places.

THE TREATMENT OF FAILURES IN HIGH SCHOOL

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Since secondary education is the process of guidance by which society attempts to help the adolescent find himself and his place in the social order, it behooves modern educators to be fair in the matter and not neglect that adolescent who may be having a difficult time in adjusting himself to that social order.

Too often teachers have been guilty of gross neglect in making any effort to assist the maladjusted child. It is easier to teach the gifted—in fact, they teach themselves if left alone; but the real act of teaching is brought into full play when dealing with the so-called failure. This paper will be an effort to outline a treatment for the failing pupil.

Just as the development of the science of medicine has saved untold numbers of lives that otherwise would have been lost had the medical practices of yesterday remained in vogue, so must modern education extend itself to cut down on the high percentage of failures which all too often are considered unavoidable.

The four great factors in a child's school situation are the teacher, the curriculum, the teaching method, and the school organization. All of these exist in order that the child may learn. Any one of these factors may be out of adjustment, in which case, the pupil suffers the consequences. It is this fact that has led to the statement that "The failure of the pupil is the failure of the school."¹ The better philosophy underlying adjustment would be that the school should be adjusted to the child.

"It cannot be maintained, however, that the school, its teachers, teaching methods, organization, and curriculum have as yet arrived at the point of excellence where failures can be eliminated. This point will not be reached even though we have a school perfectly organized, perfectly administered, and perfectly taught."²

"For some inexplicable reason, annual reports of schools and school systems are surprisingly silent on the problems of student failures. Data which will reflect favorably on the school abounds, but data on the subject of failure is not a strong vindication of success; hence, it is reluctantly given out."³

Three years ago, I was assigned the task of checking up on failures in the Central High School in Jackson, Mississippi, and of devising methods of reducing them. In an effort to prepare myself for this kind of job,

¹Pugsley, C. A. "Reducing and Handling Student Failures," *The American School Board Journal*, March, 1933, p. 18.

²Op. cit., p. 18.

³Op. cit., p. 18.

I read, among other things, reports of several city school superintendents to their boards. Very little information did I obtain from them as to whether any efforts were being made to decrease the percentage of failures, other than by the shameless lowering of standards.

Recently, I talked to a schoolman in Mississippi who boasted of the fact that his school always had seven per cent failures. Upon inquiring how this sort of arrangement was maintained, he informed me that it was a simple matter of arithmetic. He merely took the lowest seven per cent in each teacher's scoring as failures and passed the other ninety-three per cent no matter how little or how much they had accomplished. I am sure that I need not dwell at any length on the inevitable disaster that will follow such a procedure.

In his endeavoring to establish an adequate local program to meet the needs of individual pupils, the responsible head of a school is likely to compare his present procedures with the measures employed in *outstanding* secondary schools.

Therefore, he will be interested in the fact that all measures to provide for individual differences now in use in secondary schools may be classified under seven categories, namely: (1) homogeneous grouping, (2) special classes, (3) plans characterized by the unit assignment, (4) scientific study of problem cases, (5) variation in pupil load, (6) out-of-school projects and studies, (7) advisory guidance programs. Apparently, these are the elements from which the program may be fashioned which will transform education in a community from a monotonous, lock-step, leveling process of mass instruction into diversified educational procedure adapted to the individual pupil.⁴

In the matter of providing for the individual differences of slow students, each school presents specific problems unique in many respects. No intelligent school head expects to find a ready-made program of provisions to fit his own school. Thoughtful planning and experimentation with his local situation will be necessary before he can produce an adapted, integrated program of measures for individual differences. Suggestions from other schools may be helpful but he need not expect to get a complete workable program. Schools vary in size, in type of organization, and in social and economic groups served. Such differences, too many to mention, must be given due consideration in developing a program.

The seven previously mentioned methods of treating individual differences might produce better results if it were possible to put all of them into practice at one time. But the cost of such a procedure would be prohibitive. For this reason it would seem advisable to choose the one or more that is deemed most applicable.

⁴"Provisions for Individual Differences, Marking and Promotion." *Bulletin* No. 17, 1932. National Survey of Secondary Education, p. 415.

"Homogeneous grouping is of most certain value to pupils of less than normal abilities. It is better adaptable to junior-high than to high school pupils since many of less than normal ability have been eliminated before reaching the high school."⁶

Special classes begin where homogeneous grouping leaves off. That is, special classes for the *very slow* should be created because, when all other provisions for individual differences are functioning efficiently, a certain small percentage of the pupils do not succeed with the regular schoolwork unless given additional help or motivation. Pupils are usually assigned to, or removed from, these groups as the occasion demands. Such classes, meeting within the limits of the school day, present problems of program making and increase the cost of operation, though, of course, they represent an investment rather than an expenditure. Special instruction at the end of a school day is possible, however, no matter what the size of the school nor how limited the financial resources.⁷

To pursue a scientific study of a problem case, the individual student must be a known quantity if successful provisions are to be made for his particular needs. A record of each pupil's interests, special aptitudes, aims, heredity, home environment, health, school history, and many other significant characteristics and accomplishments should be kept. This record should be passed on from year to year to each new teacher for careful study.⁸

It is only too common an occurrence to find a student who never has his lesson prepared and does not seem to care. There is something in the background more than the lack of home study. Quite frequently the student is found who manages to do good work in some subjects but fails in others. Close investigation sometimes reveals that the pupil and teacher are not suited to each other. This unfortunate situation cannot be ignored.

The question arises as to the advisability of transferring the pupil to another teacher. When should this be done? I suggest the following conditions to justify such a change: (1) in cases of extreme incompatibility; (2) when the teacher develops inferiority feelings or emotional complexes, (3) when prejudice on the part of parent, teacher, or pupil has created a difficult situation; (4) when a pupil repeats a subject which he has failed under one instructor. Problems of this kind must be solved if the school is to function properly.

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AWARDS FOR SCHOOL JOURNALISM

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I entered my room to find a knot of students discussing what I thought were the usual high-school topics—dates, athletics, and homework. But no sooner had I reached my desk than it became apparent that today's argument was slightly different. Too late to dodge out of the room again and so gain immunity from whatever was so palpably unpleasant, I met the first onrush with my most nonchalant, "Well, now what's up?"

I soon found out.

I was informed that athletic awards (the natty looking blue *P's* the school gives to the huskies who contribute to its athletic fame) were soon to be presented to our championship soccer team. "Good," said I, "and the boys deserve them, too, don't they?" A chorus of "sures" and "of courses" met me, while the editor of the paper explained that no one was complaining about the boys' getting the emblems they deserved, but that it had suddenly occurred to the staff that no recognition, from one year's end to the next, was ever accorded the newspaper and annual workers. So that was the problem—a case of wanting a school emblem without earning it in the regular way. I said as much.

"No, Mr. Wedemeyer. That isn't it," said the associate editor.

"You see," she went on, "most of the staff works entirely without recognition at all. The qualified worker, of course, is elected to Quill and Scroll, but the standards are so high that the majority never make it. And besides, Quill and Scroll isn't a school award: it's an award from out of school. So you see, we really aren't recognized by *the school* at all."

I tried to point out that in passing on the qualification of candidates for election to Quill and Scroll, the school advisory committee made the little gold pin of outside recognition a school award as well. It was no use, and the feature editor, going back to an earlier assumption I had made, remarked pointedly: "It's not that we want *athletic* emblems; it's just that we feel entitled to some appreciation for all the work we do. Nobody cheers for us when we work, nobody gives pep talks to help us along, but everybody feels as though he can criticize. What do we get out of it?"

This was the opportunity for which I had been waiting. "What do you get out of it? Why, the joy of working at a worth-while task, the thrill of pitting skill and brains against deadlines, the satisfaction of accomplishment seen in a job well done, the rewards of an activity that is in itself a reward." I would have gone on with more such ready reasons, but I could see that my listeners were not convinced. The editor turned to look at me. His voice had a note of stifled scorn.

"Do you mean that it's generally believed that football, baseball, track, and the other athletic events aren't worth anything in themselves, and therefore that an emblem is given to students for, say, 'wasting time' on them? That's the implication if you say *we* don't get rewarded because our work is a reward in itself." A delighted chuckle spread around the room at this telling story.

Before I could answer, one of the reporters had chimed in: "Yeh, why don't they slap the football boys on the back and say, 'Football makes men. Now you're it. That's your reward!' Huh! There wouldn't be many players next time."

But the associate editor pointed out that most of the boys might play anyway, that athletics were all right, that nobody grudged their awards, and that "we just want equal consideration, that's all. If athletes deserve school recognition, so do we. We work longer and harder than most athletes do. Our work isn't seasonal, the way theirs is. Why," she went on, "a good athlete can earn a letter in football, basketball, and track, all in the same year that we're slaving unnoticed on our one job, simply because it isn't sensational. We want equal recognition, that's all."

The blatant approval of this sentiment was somewhat overwhelming. My question, "Well, then, but what *do* you want in the line of recognition?" didn't exactly calm matters, but finally the sports editor, himself a several-letter man, spoke up:

"You see, coach" (a master stroke of irony) "what they're saying is true. While I've been sports editor these last three months, I've earned a major letter in soccer outside, but nothing tangible in here. I feel that my work on the paper is a reward in itself—we all do—but the present system gives all the glory to the athlete. So the staff wants emblems, too: not regular athletic emblems, but a regulation *P* with a quill worked through it, or something else to signify the service or honor of school newspaper work." He sketched the letter on the board.

My next question cut the enthusiasm like a knife. "And we're to give a flock of these emblems each year, are we? In a couple of years they'll be so thick around here that it will be a distinction not to wear one. The whole idea of school awards will be cheapened. Is that what you want?"

To my surprise a chorus of *no's* thundered at me. Out of the silence that followed, several students explained that we could make a high standard, one based on perhaps two years of participation in the activity, as well as a minimum number of published inches. They had it all worked out, it seemed, even to Quill and Scroll. "From the group of emblem winners, who would have to be juniors or seniors because of the time necessary for winning awards, the best qualified could be elected to Quill and Scroll. And that would provide a group especially equipped for staff leadership as

well—a group from which the future editors could come. What about it?"

What about it, indeed! The questions raised were not exactly new, but the clarity of the problem presented, the vehemence of the student leaders, and, above all, the touching faith with which they were willing to leave the problem to me after that last "What about it?" made me consider and reconsider every argument and point of view. It would be easy to claim that, in our city, lack of precedence outlawed the suggestion. It would be easy to pass the buck to the school authorities and to let them say the *no* that lack of precedence would very likely dictate. It would be easy to table the matter and dispose of the situation by pointing out the advantages of waiting for a more propitious time in which to seek recognition.

But I was soon convinced that the claim advanced by the staff was just. School newspaper workers are expected to provide constant, loyal service, of a not-very-glamorous nature, for every month of the school year. In return they are often required to submit to the heckling and criticism both of the faculty and the student body. They deserve recognition; everyone should be able to see that. Still, certain objections to the idea of award-recognition for student journalists must be answered, and often more detailed information on the policies and practices of other schools over a far-flung area must be observed before official approval may be won and definite action taken.

One question which burns in the minds of many to whom the appeal for awards may go is: Doesn't this scheme of awards for journalism negate the feeling that journalism, as an activity, is a reward in itself? It is not easy to convince these persons that to advocate a policy of awards for school journalism does not mean running counter to the conviction that journalism is its own reward. On the contrary, school awards of a more tangible kind will serve to emphasize to the student body and the teachers that journalism is a going activity, one worthy of the finest kind of coöperation and recognition. In these days of utilitarian philosophy and materialistic outlook, we educators can succeed far more in presenting our ideals and intangibles if we follow the examples of business and industry and dramatize merit and worth-whileness. The journalism award will do just that.

But if the person to whom this argument is addressed still sees an inconsistency in the service ideals of the staff and its desire for tangible awards for that service, point out to him that the inconsistency which he sees exists in the policy of the school as a whole, where one type of school service is seen as deserving school awards and another type is not.

Opposition to awards, however, is likely to develop to a greater degree over the matter of precedence than anything else. Generally, educators are conservative people. Lack of precedence may be a large factor in preventing the establishment of awards for journalists in any school. And

tied up with that is this question, "Do other journalism advisers in other schools, systems, and cities, feel as you do about awards?" Can you show, in other words, that the need for recognition of journalists is widespread, not just within your own school? Can you, in addition, show where award systems for journalists have been approved and are in operation?

Frankly, I did not know at first what the attitude of other advisers was on the subject of awards. I did not know to what extent the problem of awards had ever been met successfully. I did not know where systems for awards were in operation, nor how those systems operated. To find answers to these questions, a letter and questionnaire were prepared and sent to high schools in over one hundred Wisconsin cities. Careful record was kept of the sizes of the schools responding to the questionnaire so that the effect of enrollment factors could be determined; and in order that the original question of school awards be answered fully therein, a careful distinction in regard to awards had to be made. School awards were designated as those presented by the school itself, awards which represent the school alone: emblems, medals, cash prizes, academic credit, extra-curriculum points, etc. Out-of-school awards were designated as those which come from groups or individuals who are in no way connected with the school except through the award given: membership in honorary fraternities (such as Quill and Scroll), medals, cash prizes, scholarships, etc. In the out-of-school classification, it is of course possible that, through the principal or a special committee, the school acts as the awarding agent for the outside body or individual, but the award is still an out-of-school award because it does not represent the school, but rather its outside source.

When the questionnaires were returned and the information was tabulated, the following facts threw light upon the problems mentioned above and revealed, at the same time, a widespread interest in the entire problem of journalism awards.

A. Frequency of Award-giving in Journalism

Fact 1. 46 per cent of the schools polled give *no awards in journalism at all*.

Fact 2. 54 per cent give awards, divided as follows:

(a) School awards, 38 per cent.

(b) Out-of-school awards, 16 per cent.

(c) 7 per cent of (a) and (b) combine school and out-of-school awards.

In other words, approximately half of the schools questioned give no awards whatsoever; somewhat more than one-third give school awards; and less than one-fifth give out-of-school awards. It can be seen why interest in journalism awards ran high in the schools contacted. Two-thirds of the journalism staffs were receiving no recognition at all from their

schools, and only half of the schools (putting all forms of awards together) gave any recognition whatsoever to journalists.

B. Attitudes of advisers toward Journalism Awards

Fact 3. 75 per cent of all advisers (including those whose schools give awards and those whose schools do not) approve awards.

Fact 4. 14 per cent of all advisers disapprove awards. The remaining 13 per cent indicated no opinion either way.

This majority approval of awards is indicative of the belief of advisers in the fairness of a system of awards for journalists and of the unfairness of school policies which prohibit them. Still more enlightening, however, is the examination, separately, of the opinions of advisers in schools where awards are and are not given:

Fact 5. Advisers in schools where awards are given approve awards-giving 100 per cent.

Fact 6. In schools where awards are not given:

(a) 57 per cent of the advisers approve awards
and would like to give them.

(b) 30 per cent of the advisers disapprove awards. The remaining 13 per cent did not indicate favor or disfavor.

It was interesting to note that most of the disapproval of awards, whether of school or out-of-school type, was registered by advisers teaching in high schools with fewer than one thousand pupils, but only in the case of schools with fewer than three hundred pupils did the number of advisers disapproving outnumber the advisers approving. One apparent reason for the disapproval of advisers from small schools is seen in the fact that publications in those schools are not usually carried on so extensively as are those in large schools; consequently, the advisers may feel there is no need for student journalist recognition. Similarly, it is noticed that most of the schools which make awards for journalistic service are schools well over the five hundred mark in pupil enrollment, where, in all probability, journalism is rather a large and exacting activity. Advisers who registered no opinion either way were patently from schools where the need for awards was not felt because journalism is not a major activity.

The data presented herein indicates that in schools where a definite need was felt for the recognition of school journalists, advisers were in favor of awards, and, in seeking the establishment of systems to meet this need, were successful in about seventy-five per cent of the cases.

This picture, however, is more optimistic than conditions really are, for the survey revealed that every school which gave out-of-school awards desired to give school awards as well. Therefore, only sixty-four per cent of the efforts made by advisers to obtain school recognition can be called successful, and thirty-six per cent (despite the fact that the need exists, and the advisers enthusiastically approve) must be seen as unsuccessful.

The reader by now is probably to the point of saying, "Well, what about it?" In answer to that question, certain conclusions may now be made, conclusions which, in my opinion, argue eloquently the case for awards in high-school journalism. The conclusions are:

- I. The responses made by journalism advisers show that there is a real and widespread need for better recognition of student journalists, preferably through the medium of school awards, so as to put school newspaper work on an equal basis with other school activities.
- II. The great majority of journalism advisers approve, enthusiastically, the giving of school awards to journalists.
- III. In schools where award systems for this purpose exist, there is no unanimity in methods and standards used as the basis for making the awards.
- IV. Many advisers, convinced themselves of the need for awards in their schools, feel helpless and hopeless in any movement which would attempt to gain them, and they look forward to outside help in securing the approval necessary for achieving that end. (Letters to me from many advisers show the eagerness with which they anticipate the establishment of adequate awards programs. They testify, also, very often, to the feeling of hopelessness with which some regard the attempt to secure recognition for their staffs. The inertia of precedence in many schools is a great force and is hard to overcome.)

Making an investigation, tabulating results, citing evidences, and drawing conclusions carry inferences of a decidedly troublesome nature. There is always the momentary hush after the reading of the evidence and the summing of the conclusion, the hush during which the audience is waiting to see whether the investigator is going to fold his hands piously over the results of his investigation or roll up his sleeves, bare his knuckles, and say: "Away with the investigation; we have done with that. Now, my friends, let us do something on the basis of that. What shall it be?"

How to act, what to do on the basis of this investigation may trouble advisers reading this essay. Take the matter of precedence. As has been pointed out before, the need for fair recognition of school newspaper workers is admitted by many schools, but lack of favorable precedence precludes a very sympathetic attitude from the individuals or groups in control of school policies. To advisers in that situation, the knowledge that thirty-eight per cent of the schools in this survey have succeeded in initiating award programs provides some sort of precedent on their own side, a slight wedge that may be used to pry loose a sizable chunk of local inertia in regard to this problem.

Further to convince persons in charge of the need and fairness of awards, the adviser must equip himself with answers to the questions most likely to trip him on the home floor. He must study the situation closely until he has the local facts as strongly and clearly in his mind as my students did in their initial advance on me as described in the beginning of this essay.

But even though he does do all these things—points to increasing precedence in award-giving, knows all the answers to questions probing the local need, knows all the local situations clearly enough to point out glaring inconsistencies and unfairnesses—he is still doomed to disappointment unless he carries with him to these conferences a plan of awards which, by its high standards, its fairness, its obviously idealistic tendencies yet practical value, can cap the discussion for him. Every schoolman, no matter how bound to tradition, admires a well-planned, practical scheme for emphasizing service ideals.

What is such a scheme? Almost every school will have to work out its own. Most attractive, however, and most popular with students and advisers alike, are the systems which give credits or points each semester to staff members according to the service each contributes. The points accumulate until a certain number is reached, and then the student becomes eligible for an award. If other factors (attitude, character, marks, etc.) are satisfactory, the award may then be made. It is not uncommon for good students to earn two or three awards in the course of four years at high school; however, for the average student, one award is all that can be earned.

Opposition to this plan will form immediately on the basis that if this plan is granted to the school paper, other school organizations will want recognition in the same manner. To this you may agree, for that is the finest service school journalism could render to its school: the championship of a general award system under which all school workers, no matter what department of service, may gain recognition commensurate with that service.

But what kind of awards are to be given? Most popular with students and advisers and most indicative of recognition by the school is the chenille emblem. The school emblem is not enfranchised nor owned by the athletic department. It is the symbol of the entire school. Where a school-wide system of awards is set up, each major activity might give as its service award a school emblem adapted in some way to convey the idea of the branch in which service was rendered. The school newspaper award could be the school letter with a large quill worked through it; the music organizations could show the letter superimposed on a harp or horn. A sense of fairness and justice breeds from awards made in that way; for the ideal

of service to the school is fostered rather than just service to a particular branch of the school.

Under such a system of awards, far wider participation in activities of all kinds will be stimulated. More school letters, of course, will be seen in the school. Some will argue that a cheapening of the letter will result; but they may be reminded that the letter is a symbol of service to the school and that if standards in each division have been kept high, nothing can be cheapened. Instead, the inconsistency and unfairness characterizing the old one-sided award system will be exposed. In addition, the school letters seen on pupils in the community will serve to spread to the young and old alike—those preparing for high school and those who have left it—the idea that *there* is a school where unselfish service to others—school, community, and nation, is cultivated and *rewarded*.

Well, what about awards for school journalism? Emphatically yes! And if, in the conferences centering about such awards, your paper can champion a school-wide, intramural, extra-curriculum or whatever-you-have award system, applicable to all organizations which promote the interest and welfare of the student body, then indeed is your paper proving itself a bearer of truth and a champion of right—an organ of true democracy.

THE NONACADEMIC HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENT¹

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There are definite reasons why the problem of the nonacademic student in secondary education should appear greatly emphasized at this time. These reasons are known to most students of secondary education and require only enumeration without much comment as follows:

REASONS FOR EMPHASIS

1. The process of making secondary education universal is, of course, still in progress. The estimate for the United States is, I believe, that about sixty-five per cent of students of high-school age do actually attend schools. Twenty-five years ago, that percentage was about fifteen or twenty per cent. With this spread of high-school education has come a greater inclusiveness of students of all types.

2. Through the medium of educational psychology, there has developed a greater desire to make provision for individual differences. If the problem of the nonacademic student existed in the earlier American high school, it gave little trouble; it was, in fact, ignored, since there was practically no effort made to recognize individual differences.

3. In the face of the fact that the problem of individual differences has become ever more impressive, we have still persisted in maintaining the traditional American single line administrative educational arrangement: that of close articulation between elementary grades, upper grades (now called junior high school), senior high school, college, university, and graduate school. Such a system has made the problem of providing for individual differences particularly difficult. Small high schools have struggled just to maintain the necessary program for restricted articulation. This does not argue against articulation; it argues, rather, against small high schools.

4. Place these factors in a society where the changes in economics and in industrial conditions—or shall I say, the changes in the nature of the work of the day?—have been so rapid, radical, and numerous as in America, and you have the fourth factor emphasizing the problem of the nonacademic student.

When these factors are taken not singly but in combinations of varying emphases under the multitude of existing community and individual conditions and circumstances, we may readily appreciate that the problem of the nonacademic student appears to be staggering. It all but makes the processes of secondary education appear to be futile.

¹Talk delivered October 7, 1938, before the Annual Conference of the Missouri Association of Secondary-School Principals, Columbia, Missouri. Reprinted from the November, 1938, issue, *School and Community*.

A DEFINITION OF THE NONACADEMIC STUDENT

When we ask for the definition of the nonacademic student, there appears usually a divergence of opinions or a vagueness which finds expression in the superficial analysis that the nonacademic student is the student who lacks academic interests and abilities. That is to say, the nonacademic student is in fact the nonacademic student. This is one hundred per cent logic and as meaningful as all perfect logic.

In the monograph, *Issues of Secondary Education*, appears a worthwhile analysis in the following definition:

"The group consists, in part, of boys and girls who have apparently reached a plateau so far as learning of greater difficulty is concerned, and who have come to a point at which continued teaching at the same level means little more than busywork. . . .

"The group consists in part also of pupils who could learn if they would, but who lack any adequate incentive to take advantage of the educational opportunities open to them. Such boys and girls tend to remain in school chiefly because of the social prestige involved, or because of the opportunity to be engaged in extra-curriculum activities, or because their parents want them kept off the streets rather than because they are concerned to secure further education."

Furthermore, this group includes "boys and girls who have reached a point at which they seem to be making no further educational progress, and who in the course of their schooling have become so used to failure that they have become almost openly scornful of the effort to learn."

The definition includes the incapable, the insufficiently and improperly motivated, as also the incompetent and adversely motivated. The definition has its value but is somewhat abstract, and—shall I say at the risk of punning?—it is entirely too academic.

Shall we then become nonacademic in our definition, and describe the nonacademic student in such a way that you may more readily know what to do with and for him?

AN ANALYSIS OF THE NONACADEMIC STUDENT

In the first place, we have in this group the physically handicapped who may or may not be nonacademic, depending upon the degree of defectiveness, as well as upon other circumstances. Those who are defective in hearing or vision are apt to be nonacademic in their interests. Some of these defects cannot be completely compensated for through mechanical devices. Not all visual defects can be completely corrected with glasses, and we are just now beginning to learn something about hearing aids. As teachers, we are still clumsy in managing the sensory defective. There is a brutal negligence by which certain teachers come quite naturally. When a child with sensory defects is subjected to the instruction of such teachers, he is apt to lose all interest in learning. He then deliberately turns away from intellectual pursuits. He becomes nonacademic.

Those with marked speech defects are almost invariably nonacademic. Schooling is so much a matter of interstimulation and response with speech as the functional medium, that those who are noticeably defective in that respect usually find themselves completely outclassed by others. The inevitable result is a distressed individual who gives all the evidences of not being academically minded.

The undervitalized individuals usually battle with fatigue and its distressing mental corollaries. Such individuals frequently have spurts of apparent brilliancy but they cannot usually keep up the consistent and sustained effort essential to real school success. These constitute a pitiful group. Every high school has some genuine cases of this kind. Modern medicine does much to keep them alive and in some cases effects cures, often, however, only after the student has formed all possible nonacademic reaction habits toward school.

The adolescent neurotics, though probably not numerous enough to warrant discussing them at length in this connection, are particularly difficult because they are so unpredictable and queer. They certainly find it difficult to develop that intellectually detached attitude so necessary to real scholarly achievement.

THE INFLUENCES OF SOCIAL CONDITIONS

So far, we have defined the nonacademic student as one of several types who are mentally afflicted or physically defective in some way. Now let us see what unfortunate social circumstances can do.

The children of poverty, the children of isolated and limited social environments, from small towns or rural districts, are apt to lack the experiences which make high-school subjects more than mere artificialities. They are apt to have an evaluation of life so different from that of individuals of greater affluence and greater social contacts that what, to the latter, seems to have great import appears to them to be that which "is not of this earth." King Arthur and the Round Table, quadratic equations, the Holy Roman Empire, the laws of falling bodies—all these seem fragments of things far removed from the chores of the day, from the real people you meet, and all those warm and realistic elements of life which are aglow with the affections and the hatreds, the fears and the jealousies, the hopes and the disappointments, the triumphs and the failures of real people all about them. The children of foreigners often suffer, in addition, from another isolation, a mental one, that of being different, that of the not-belonging variety. Although some of our best high-school students come from these social groups, many of them develop a repugnance to those abstract intellectual interests upon which their limited, though sometimes intense, experience of life has placed no value.

On the other hand, the pampered child of wealth who has always had all things for the asking, who knows that father can buy anything—even power and social position, community acclaim and respectability, grades and graduation—may easily look upon the poor, frayed-out servant of the people, the teacher, and his academic wares, as being wholly inconsequential. Thus ends his scholarly career.

There is another group, the occupationally diverted. In this group are included those who have planned to go into some work, and know just how they are going to do it, and know that what they are studying has only a remote and an indirect relation to their occupational interests. Here is a boy who knows that he is going into his father's jewelry business. He knows just how to go about it; he knows just where to get information concerning it; he has helped with the work and therefore knows his abilities in that business and respects himself for them. For the life of him, he cannot get much out of second-year Latin, and the subject of American problems does not come near the one absorbing problem of jewelry. Again, here is a girl who is going to be married. She sees more sense in clothing, millinery, social graces and activities than she can see in botany, composition, and rhetoric. In summary, these young people are so definitely oriented in a, to them, meaningful direction that scholarly pursuits appear as mere pedantry.

In a dissertation just recently completed, entitled "Development and Application of Certain Follow-up Techniques in a Small High-School Situation," Buel Cramer points out that of 456 high-school graduates used in his study, who had found occupational connections—14.25 per cent were engaged in Grade I, unskilled employment; 7.90 per cent in Grade II, semi-skilled occupations; 62.28 per cent in Grade III, skilled manual and white-collar jobs; 3.95 per cent Grade IV, subprofessional work; 11.62 per cent in Grade V, professional work. The classification is one used in the Beckman Scale for gauging occupations. In other words, 84 per cent find employment in the average and lower grades of occupations. It would appear that the usual academic interests of the high school contribute little to their work.

You see, then, that in dealing with the nonacademic student you are dealing again with many different individuals and not with one type. Here, too, the problem of individual differences is prominent. Uniformity of educational prophylaxis is impossible.

POSSIBLE PROVISIONS FOR NONACADEMIC STUDENTS

(1) The inauguration of a genuine health program which actually works in the lives of students. Our pitiful building of large gymnasiums all over the state—with or without WPA help—for the sole purpose of developing championship basketball teams and satisfying local vanity does

not constitute a health program. Nor does the ignorant dramatizing of epidemics, resulting in disease-fear psychoses, constitute a health program. But an intelligently developed health program in which all students participate for their benefit and that of the community can do much to develop at least a physical basis for school success.

(2) The displacing of the many so-called high schools which can barely function and the offering of a minimum program of narrowly articulating subject matter by a few large institutions of a true secondary-school rank, with all that that implies, does appear to be absolutely necessary.

(3) We must develop the conception of secondary education as initiating the preparation for definite activities in industry and society. Education must be truly functional. To think that the average adolescent will pursue with interest those abstracted courses which are to give him the needed qualities of good citizenship in a democracy is simply to misjudge the adolescent. Things must point very concretely to something before they can interest him. And that is probably as it should be; for certainly the finest and safest quality of a citizen in a democracy is that of having something worth while to do with which to earn a living, doing it well, and giving in the doing of it all of his contribution to humanity. Let each one learn to give well and to enjoy giving what he can best offer to mankind as his excuse for living. After all, in most, even in the dull, there is an aspiration. Education must direct the learner to aspire where he can achieve and must help him to achieve.

Plato knew of this force when he spoke of the aspiring nature of all things and beings. Even the clod aspires to give sustenance to the living flower, and "The stone aspires to be a doorsill."

WAYS OUT¹

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The last few years have seen a great many criticisms directed against the program of secondary education in this country. Its weaknesses have been heralded from one end of the country to another. To further discuss them seems futile. We need to focus our attention on *ways out*. In every state of the forty-eight, there are valuable experiments in progress to try to find some *ways out*. A few of the better-known experiments are the Thirty Schools Experiment of Progressive Education, the Southern Association Experiment, and the Experimental Secondary Schools which have been set up in Michigan, Ohio, and California. Colleges and universities have said, in the national and state experiments, that they are willing to keep hands off and let the schools concerned try to improve the experiences offered to boys and girls.

Most high schools can point to some effort in their classrooms to make the work more vital. Many times it is the work of some one teacher in a single course. The point is that constructive thinking is taking place in practically all schools. The last three years have seen more real changes in our high-school offering than any previous ten. The next ten will see many fundamental changes in most secondary schools. These will not come over night but will come gradually as one school catches the idea from another.

WHAT ARE SOME OF THESE CHANGES?

1. Colleges and universities will have removed their requirements of certain subjects for entrance. They will be willing to say that high schools can send students to them who are of college caliber. The high school can decide on what should go into the program.

2. Part of the curriculum of the high school will deal with the personal problems of boys and girls, relations with their own and the opposite sex, their concerns over good taste, problems in achieving successful marriage, problems in breaking away from family dependence and establishing their own independence, and questions relating to normality and to understanding others.

3. High schools will deal with crucial issues in our democracy. Controversial issues will be an essential part of every social-studies classroom. History will disappear as history for most students and be presented in such a way as to make present conflicts more understandable.

¹Summary of an address delivered before a meeting of the Minnesota Association of Secondary-School Principals.

4. Extra-curriculum activities will not be extra; they will be an essential part of the educational program.

5. Art and music will not be considered "fads and frills"; they will constitute a part of the background of every boy and girl.

6. Our present subjects will gradually disappear and be replaced by a different type of material organized around important problems of living.

WHAT CAN THE INDIVIDUAL SCHOOL DO?

1. The principal must realize that teachers and pupils have a real contribution to make to the school program. The program must evolve through the democratic process and not be handed down from the principal or superintendent.

2. An experimental attitude must be developed. Teachers must be encouraged to introduce and carefully try out new materials.

3. All teachers and principals must carefully re-evaluate the function of the high school. The Educational Policies Commission has said that the school should center its efforts in objectives dealing with self-realization of the individual, human relationship, civic responsibility, and economic efficiency.

4. Each staff must know the needs of its own students and know what other schools are doing.

BOOK NOTES

BOOK NOTICES

COÖPERATIVE STUDY OF SECONDARY SCHOOL STANDARDS. 1938 Editions:
 (1) *Evaluative Criteria*. Sixty cents. (2) *Educational Temperatures*.
 Fifty cents. (3) *How to Evaluate a Secondary School*. Ninety cents.
 Washington, D. C.: Coöperative Study of Secondary Standards, 744 Jack-
 son Place.

The *Evaluative Criteria* are available in a single volume and also as fourteen separate pamphlets. The volume entitled *Evaluative Criteria* contains a section designed to secure information concerning the philosophy of education and objectives of the school, a section for reporting the nature of the school community and its school population, and eleven other sections consisting of checklists, evaluations, and other data regarding the various elements of the school and its program. Major emphasis is placed upon the educational program—curriculum and courses of study, pupil activity program, library service, guidance service, instruction and outcomes. Other sections deal with the staff, plant, and administration.

Educational Temperatures, for showing graphically the relative strengths and weaknesses of a school, is based upon the *Evaluative Criteria*. It enables a school to compare itself in a large number of respects with groups of schools evaluated by the Coöperative Study in 1936-37.

How to Evaluate a Secondary School comprises directions for the use of *Evaluative Criteria* and *Educational Temperatures* and, in addition, gives a brief presentation of the historical phases of the Coöperative Study.

The Coöperative Study, begun in 1933, has involved the endeavors of hundreds of educators in all parts of the country. Its financial support was provided partly by the coöperating regional accrediting associations and partly by a national foundation, and its purposes are expressed or implied in the following questions:

1. What are the characteristics of a good secondary school?
2. What practicable means and methods may be employed to evaluate the effectiveness of a school in terms of its objectives?
3. By what means and processes does a good school develop into a better one?
4. How can regional associations stimulate secondary schools to continuous growth?

DEWEY, JOHN. *Experience and Education*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938. Pp. xii + 116. \$1.25.

Dr. Dewey discusses herein the debatable problems that now divide American education into two camps—the advocates of the old or traditional education and the advocates of the new or progressive education. In analyzing their viewpoints and practices he remarks that “neither the old nor the new education is adequate. Each is mis-educative because neither applies the principles of a carefully developed philosophy of experience.”

Such a philosophy is defined by Dr. Dewey as being—to paraphrase Lincoln—one of education *of, by, and for* experience, each word of which offers a challenge to educators to discover and put into operation a principle of order and organization based upon what educative experience signifies.

Referring to his idea that “the educative process can be identified with growth when that is understood in terms of the active participle *growing*,” Dr. Dewey emphasizes the importance of determining the “direction in which growth takes place, the end toward which it tends.”

A positive philosophy of experience and education, as well as many illustrations of the meaning and the relation of the one to the other, is provided in the discussions of the following topics: “Traditional vs. Progressive Education,” “The Need of a Theory of Experience,” “Criteria of Experience,” “Social Control,” “The Nature of Freedom,” “The Meaning of Purpose,” “Progressive Organization of Subject-Matter,” “Experience—the Means and Goal of Education.”

EDWARDS, VIOLET. *Group Leader's Guide to Propaganda Analysis*. New York: Institute for Propaganda Analysis, Inc., 130 Morningside Drive, 1938. Pp. 271.

This revised edition of *Experimental Study Materials* is for use in junior and senior high schools, in college and university classes, and in adult class study groups. The *Guide* suggests specific materials and methods for experimental study and discussion of propaganda, what it is, why it should be studied, its role in the modern world, its role in democracy, interests to which propagandists appeal, and how they make their appeals. Further, propaganda analysis in several areas of general education is dealt with as follows: propaganda analysis in English literature, in music and speech, in art and history, in journalism and current events, in general science, in social science and logic, in mathematics, and in other subjects.

PATTY, WILLIAM L. *A Study of Mechanism in Education*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. v + 183. \$1.85.

Subtitled "An Examination of the Curriculum-Making Devices of Franklin Bobbitt, W. W. Charters, and C. C. Peters from the Point of View of Relativistic Pragmatism," the study includes discussions of scientism in education, presuppositions of scientism in education, concepts of experience and analysis, concepts of induction and masterlist, concept of integration, and scientism and education.

WINSLOW, C.-E. A. *The School Health Program*. New York: The McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xiii + 120. \$1.50.

The School Health Program, a publication of The Regents' Inquiry into the character and cost of public education in the State of New York, is devoted to discussions of sanitation in the schools, mental hygiene, health instruction in the schools, physical education and recreation, health services, summary of recommendation.

POOLEY, ROBERT C.; WALCOTT, FRED G.; GRAY, WILLIAM S. *Growth in Reading*. Book One. Illustrated. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1938. Pp. 574. \$1.40.

More than one hundred stories comprise this basic course in reading for the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades—junior high school. The stories are classified under six units, as follows: Pastimes, Nature Adventures, Seeing the World, Modern Wonders, Early Americans, Our America.

BOOKS RECEIVED

LESLIE, LOUIS A. and ZOUBEK, CHARLES E. *Speed Drills in Gregg Shorthand*. New York: The Gregg Publishing Company, 1938. Pp. iv + 444. \$1.60.

GREGG, JOHN ROBERT. *Gregg Speed Building*. New York: The Gregg Publishing Company, 1938. Pp. v + 314. \$1.20.

RICHERT, G. HENRY. *Retailing Principles and Practices*. New York: The Gregg Publishing Company. Pp. xv + 432. \$2.00.

SMITH, HAROLD H. *Typewriting Technique*. (College Course) New York: The Gregg Publishing Company, 1938. Pp. 173.

RIDGLEY, DOUGLAS C. and EKBLAW, SIDNEY E. *Problems in Economic Geography*. New York: The Gregg Publishing Company, 1938. Pp. xiii + 203. \$1.00.

FLANAGAN, GEORGE A. *Ornamental Typewriting*. New York: The Gregg Publishing Company, 1938. Pp. 113. \$1.00.

PICKETT, HALE. *An Analysis of Proofs and Solutions of Exercises Used in Plane Geometry Tests*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. 120. \$1.60.

WOODRING, MAXIE NAVE and SANFORD, VERA. *Enriched Teaching of Mathematics in the Junior and Senior High School*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. ix + 132. \$1.75.

NEWS ITEMS

IS EDUCATION MORE THAN SCHOOLING?—School people should analyze the forces and institutions of their community to see how they can be used in the educational pattern, Earle U. Rugg advises in his article "Is Education Something More Than Schooling?" in the *Social Frontier*, December, 1938.

TEACHERS' JOB GROWS.—Since the teaching profession is becoming less concerned with the narrow occupation of hearing recitations and checking on the learning of facts, and since it is becoming more concerned with guiding the growth of the child in attitudes and understanding, professional incompetence becomes more dangerous.

A CAMPAIGN TO MAKE PARENTS AWARE OF HEALTH NEEDS. A campaign to make parents aware of the health needs of their children is being undertaken in the New York City schools. About twenty-five hundred parents will be brought into the schools to help the nurses and doctors with the health registration. This is the first time that parents will help in the actual work of the schools on a city-wide scale.

TO EXTEND PRACTICE TEACHING.—The schools of New York City will extend practice teaching. Hitherto, qualified students were allowed to practice in the high schools and to a limited extent in the elementary schools, but they were not allowed in the junior high schools. Under the new law they will be permitted to practice in every branch of the school system.

BELIEVES IN DEMOCRATIC PRACTICES.—Harold C. Hunt, superintendent of schools, New Rochelle, New York, believes in democratic practices by his faculty of teachers. A council of teachers is nominated and elected by the teachers in system-wide balloting to represent the various teaching levels. The members of the council meet monthly to discuss subjects which concern the teachers; they also express their opinions on matters of policy confronting the Board of Education.

"STUDY LANGUAGES ALL YOU CAN."—Cecilia Peeves, of the British Broadcasting Company, is visiting the United States. She advises boys and girls to study modern languages, for there is a good deal of question as to what the world is coming to, but whatever it is, she believes that the young people who can speak the tongue of major nations will be the ones singled out for the complicated machinery necessary to keep things going even relatively peacefully.

EDUCATION IN COUNTRIES OTHER THAN THE UNITED STATES.—Believing that the value and progress of any system of schools is best revealed in comparison with like phases of other systems, the Office of Education has included in its Biennial Survey for 1934-36 a chapter covering trends of education in other countries for the years 1926-36. This chapter has been published in pamphlet form under the title "A Survey of a Decennium of Education in Countries other than the United States." The pamphlet is available from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Price, fifteen cents.

MARITIME OCCUPATIONS TAUGHT IN NEW YORK SCHOOLS.—A complete four-year program for young seamen has been established by the New York City school system at the Metropolitan Vocational High School, which is located only a short distance from the East River and almost within sight of the Brooklyn Navy Yard. Here every phase of nautical work is presented. Here eager and alert boys attend classes and listen to lectures (of the sea)—and expect to leave as deck hands, engineroom assistants, stewards, or even prospective first and second mates. The school serves the dual purpose of training sailors and of finding the proper niche in life for unhappy adolescent boys. According to Principal Franklin J. Keller, it is the only public high school in the country built around maritime courses.

ORGAN OF THE PHOTOPLAY.—*Photoplay Studies* prepared by Trentwell Mason White, president of the Curry School, Boston, Massachusetts, is the

organ of the photoplay appreciation movement. Each number discusses and evaluates a play. Standards of production, story material, direction, film acting, and cinematography are given consideration.

EDUCATION FOR LIVING IN A DEMOCRACY.—The magazine *Education for Living in a Democracy* shows what schools, from the primary through the secondary levels, can do to make democracy work better by guiding children in those experiences which give them appreciation of, and respect for, truth in any social situation.

TO ACQUAINT PARENTS WITH SCHOOL AFFAIRS.—In order to acquaint the parents with important facts concerning the educational progress of the school, the Garden City High School issues "News-Letter" describing some phase of the school aims and objectives. The "News-Letter" originates in the principal's office, and each issue is built around pertinent questions asked by the parents.

SPECIAL OPPORTUNITY CLASSES.—In New York special opportunity classes were conducted experimentally for six hundred pupils who "hated" school. This project proved to be very successful, for now the students enjoy their studies and ask for more homework. Movable furniture and work benches replace the customary desks and seats. Excursions and park trips supplement and, in a large measure, take the place of textbooks. Through all of this the teacher stands, as much as possible, in the background.

AMERICAN GUIDE SERIES.—With the idea of giving useful employment to unemployed writers, the American Guide Series has developed into one of the most ambitious programs ever attempted in America. Completed manuscripts are turned over to qualified sponsors who look after their publication in book form. Sponsors consist of state officials, nonprofit organizations, and tax-supported groups. Receipts from the sale of the books go only to defray expenses of publication.

SCHOLARSHIP PROBLEM.—John Evans, president of a trans-Mississippi College, writes that the greatest concern of his college has been the competition which comes from sister colleges outbidding them with scholarship aid for students. James Bryant Conant, president of Harvard University, says that only needy students of high scholastic attainments should be given scholarship funds for students, and students of high scholastic attainments from wealthy or well-to-do homes should be given honors but no money.

GREAT NEED FOR THE INTERPRETIVE SCHOLAR.—There is great need to-day for the interpretive scholar with the widest possible training in several subjects, educational experts agree. "College teachers," declares Newton Edwards, professor of education at the University of Chicago, "should command a wealth of information, not merely in one subject, but in related subjects. But far more important than that, they should see meaning in the facts they teach, they should be able to discover interrelationships, to organize knowledge into meaningful configurations."

DRASTIC REFORMS IN THE NEW YORK STATE SCHOOLS URGED.—Luther H. Gulick, director of the three-year study carried on by the Regents' Inquiry, has investigated the character and cost of education in New York. Dr. Gulick, after conducting 117 special inquiries and completing 45,900 interviews with parents, employers, college presidents, teachers, pupils, and heads of organized groups, proposes the extending of the high-school courses two years to take care of the unemployed. He also recommends that tenure be applied to twenty thousand teaching positions not now covered by law and that economy measures be introduced which would cut considerably the cost of running.

WHAT TEACHERS EXPECT OF PARENTS.—Educators often feel that parents expect the impossible of the school. The facts of the situation, however, demand a different perspective. What does the school expect of the home? Educators assume that parents teach their children during the first six years of life the meaning of discipline, work habits, good manners, the meaning and handling of money, the trait of wholesome curiosity, and self-reliance. Yet in order that their children should be well-rounded personalities when they start their formal education, parents should take time to play with them.

ARE WE EDUCATING FOR DEMOCRACY?—At the Columbia University summer session, one thousand teachers from all sections of the country took part in a discussion as to whether American schools are educating for democracy or Fascism and indicated by question and answer that they were fully convinced of the presence of Fascist influences. "I'd lose my job if I taught labor problems or Communism," one woman said. A man asserted that teachers could not exert their full rights as citizens because "they were held down by fear."

COLLEGE LIBRARY CIRCULATES MUSIC RECORDS.—Skidmore College, Saratoga Springs, New York, has added a new department to its reference library. The work of this department is to circulate phonograph records, sheet music, and scores in the same manner as loan books. The records consist mainly of operas, symphonies, chamber music, and songs representative of the best of both classical and modern composers. A survey of borrowers shows that they are not confined to students majoring in music but include students from all departments in college, members of the faculty, and townspeople as well.

UTAH STUDENTS FORM BUS PATROL.—Following a recent train-bus collision which resulted in twenty-three fatalities near Salt Lake City, Weber County schools have adopted a student bus patrol plan to ensure greater watchfulness and safety to school bus riders. The plan provides for appointment of two children as monitors on each bus line. They sit near the door to aid the driver; one gets out at railroad crossings and looks both ways before signaling the driver to proceed. The plan is recommended by the National Safety Council.

BRITISH EDUCATORS VOICE DISSATISFACTION WITH EXAMINATION OF STUDENTS.—Lately, several educators in Britain have voiced their dissatisfaction with the present system of examining students. They feel that it merely encourages "cramming," which is a momentary feat of concentration and industry, but no measure of lasting intellectual growth. Philip Ballou, a member of the International Institute Examinations Inquiry, suggests that, in any test, the candidate's record of normal work should be taken into account, and that failure in a single subject should not mean failure to pass to the next grade of school.

A QUESTIONNAIRE ON AVIATION.—A questionnaire on aviation was sponsored by W. A. Patterson, president of United Airlines, and C. R. Smith, president of American Airlines, to find out what educational departments want. Some of the questions asked in this survey were: Would you welcome a central clearinghouse of aviation information, originating within the industry and sponsored by it? What type of material would best suit your needs? Would you use the vocational information service? Could you use motion pictures showing the work and history of air transportation companies and aircraft manufacturers? Do you want information as to government activities in aeronautics?

IS THERE A PLACE FOR THE COMMERCIAL STUDENT?—This is the question that educators and business leaders have yet to answer. And an immediate answer is necessary to prevent the dumping of a great number of potentially valuable citizens on the human junk pile of unemployment, writes a student editor in an editorial entitled "Survey Reveals Graduating Stenographers Find 'No Help Wanted'" published in a recent issue of the *Los Angeles Collegian*. To quote the statistics of the survey: "In twelve years, registrations in shorthand increased 108 per cent, while 1930 census reports showed a six per cent decrease in stenographers employed. In 1934, about 196,000 stenographers and typists graduated from public high schools and private business colleges. Seventy-four thousand found jobs in typing or stenographic positions. One-fourth are still unemployed."

CULVER APPROVES COURSE IN LEADERSHIP.—In evaluating the aims of Culver's special course in leadership, and in explaining how it works, Brig. Gen. L. R. Gignilliat, superintendent of Culver Military Academy, says that the cadet captains and cadet personnel officers of the nine military organizations in the corps meet each week with the commandant of cadets to discuss general organization problems and to work out means of improving conditions. Also the lieutenants, sergeants, and other cadet commissioned and noncommissioned

officers meet regularly with the tactical officers for definite instructions in leadership. Instead of devoting the whole time to theoretical discussions, actual problems are discussed as they are encountered, and definite attempts are made to apply principles of sound leadership. It is estimated that each school year nearly three quarters of the student body have some opportunity to discharge responsibilities and to gain valuable experience in leadership.

HOW TO MAKE A COMMUNITY YOUTH SURVEY.—To fill the demand among communities, large and small, for detailed information concerning the procedure for making surveys to find the facts about their own youth, the American Youth Commission has issued a forty-eight-page pamphlet entitled "How To Make a Community Youth Survey." Telling the purposes served by such surveys, and what are essential preliminary steps, the pamphlet explains the methods of collecting information and of digesting and interpreting the results. Attention is also given to publicizing the findings. The pamphlet is priced at twenty-five cents; it is obtainable from the American Youth Commission, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

CONSUMER EDUCATION.—A special course in consumer economics is now being developed at Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri, as the result of a recent study made there concerning the activities of women. On the basis of this study, the decision was reached that consumption is one of the seven basic subjects around which the whole program of education should be developed. The functions and activities of the program at Stephens fall under three main headings: (1) fact-finding, (2) fact-organizing, (3) fact-using. Writing on the subject, "Consumer Education at Stephens College," in the December issue of the *Curriculum Journal*, John M. Cassels says: "To have the greatest future usefulness and consequently the greatest practical interest for the student, the subject matter must be relevant to the life in prospect and must be presented in such a way as to make that apparent. Beginning with the simpler individual problems of budgeting and choosing, students will be led on to deal with more complicated individual problems and finally to the problems of their own relations to the general economic community in which they live."

A CRITICAL EXAMINATION OF DEMOCRACY.—Curtis W. Reese, dean of Abraham Lincoln Center, Chicago, in his article "A Critical Examination of Democracy" in the *Character and Citizenship* magazine asks the following questions: What precisely is meant by democracy? Can the democratic ideal be fulfilled by means of the alleged democratic processes? What accurate, concrete meanings have the current and widespread democratic slogans? What is the role of the people in the actual processes of government? How is the will of the public really created and controlled? Dean Reese quotes from a book written by William Ralph Inge, dean of St. Paul's, who says: "Democracy in America means anything or nothing at all, which makes it an excellent slogan." He further states that "Democracy is in a curious position of having no friends, though we all did lip service to it when we wanted to bring America into the war," and finally, "Those who shout Abraham's Lincoln's 'government of the people, by the people, and for the people' usually want to live on the people, by the people, and for themselves."

"WE WANT A NEW EDUCATION."—From an anonymous high-school pupil comes a plea for a new kind of education. This plea was published in the November *Progressive Education* magazine. It is as follows: "We want to know how to care for our bodies, how to rear the children we will soon have to bring up, how we can work constructively together, and for what end we shall live. We want the facts of life. We get so tired of being ignored and made to be quiet. We want to be recognized as individuals who can think, suffer, and feel. Cannot you adults understand that we want to build, invent, create, think for ourselves—that we have curiosity, want to investigate, and grow and learn more of life? Our time in school is squandered on the details of war, generals, dead kings and queens, dead and unused languages, mythology, portions of philosophy, economics, and a literature that is hopelessly out of date and inappropriate for the present time. Why can we not be taught a certain amount of English, some appropriate literature, science, psychology, how to develop personality, how to choose a career (whether it be marriage or business), religion, and how to make the most of our talents."

CALENDAR OF PROFESSIONAL MEETINGS

- National Vocational Guidance Association, Cleveland, Ohio, February 22-25.
- National Association of Principals of Schools for Girls, Cleveland, Ohio, February 23-25.
- National Association of School Secretaries, Cleveland, Ohio, February 25-26.
- Department of Secondary-School Principals, Cleveland, Ohio, February 25-March 1.
- Department of Rural Education, Cleveland, Ohio, February 25-March 2.
- American Association of School Administrators, Cleveland, Ohio, February 26-March 2.
- American Association of Technical High Schools and Institutes, Cleveland, Ohio, February 27-March 1.
- National Association of State High School Supervisors and Directors N. E. A., Cleveland, Ohio, February 28.
- American Association of Junior Colleges, Grand Rapids, Michigan, March 3-5.
- Public School Business Officials, Oakland, California, March 15-18.
- Junior High-School Conference of New York University, New York City, March 17-18.
- The Harvard Teachers Association, Cambridge, Massachusetts, March 18.
- Convention of the Southern District, American Association of Health, Tulsa, Oklahoma, March 27-30.
- American Association for Health, N. E. A. Department, April 3-6.
- New York State Vocational Association, New York, New York, April 11-13.
- American National Red Cross, Washington, D. C., April 24-27.
- Conference of Principals of Junior and Senior High Schools, Boston, Massachusetts, April 28-30.
- Manitoba Teachers Federation, Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada, April, 1939.
- District of Columbia Congress of Parents and Teachers, Washington, D. C., May, 1939.
- American Library Association, San Francisco, California, June 18-24.
- National Conference of Visual Education and Film Exchange, Chicago, Illinois, June 19-22.
- National Association of Student Officers, San Francisco, California, June 28-30.
- National Association of State Libraries, San Francisco, California, June, 1939.
- National Education Association, San Francisco, California, July 2-6.
- National Amateur Press Association, Oakland, California, July 4.
- World Federation of Education Associations, Rio de Janeiro, South America, August 6-11, 1939.

