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FOR

# NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

of the  
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

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OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

*Issued Eight Times a Year*  
*Monthly October to May Inclusive*

FEBRUARY, 1940

Serial No. 88

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BULLETIN No. 88

Proceedings of the  
Twenty-fourth Annual Meeting of the  
National Association of  
Secondary-School Principals  
of the National Education Association

ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI

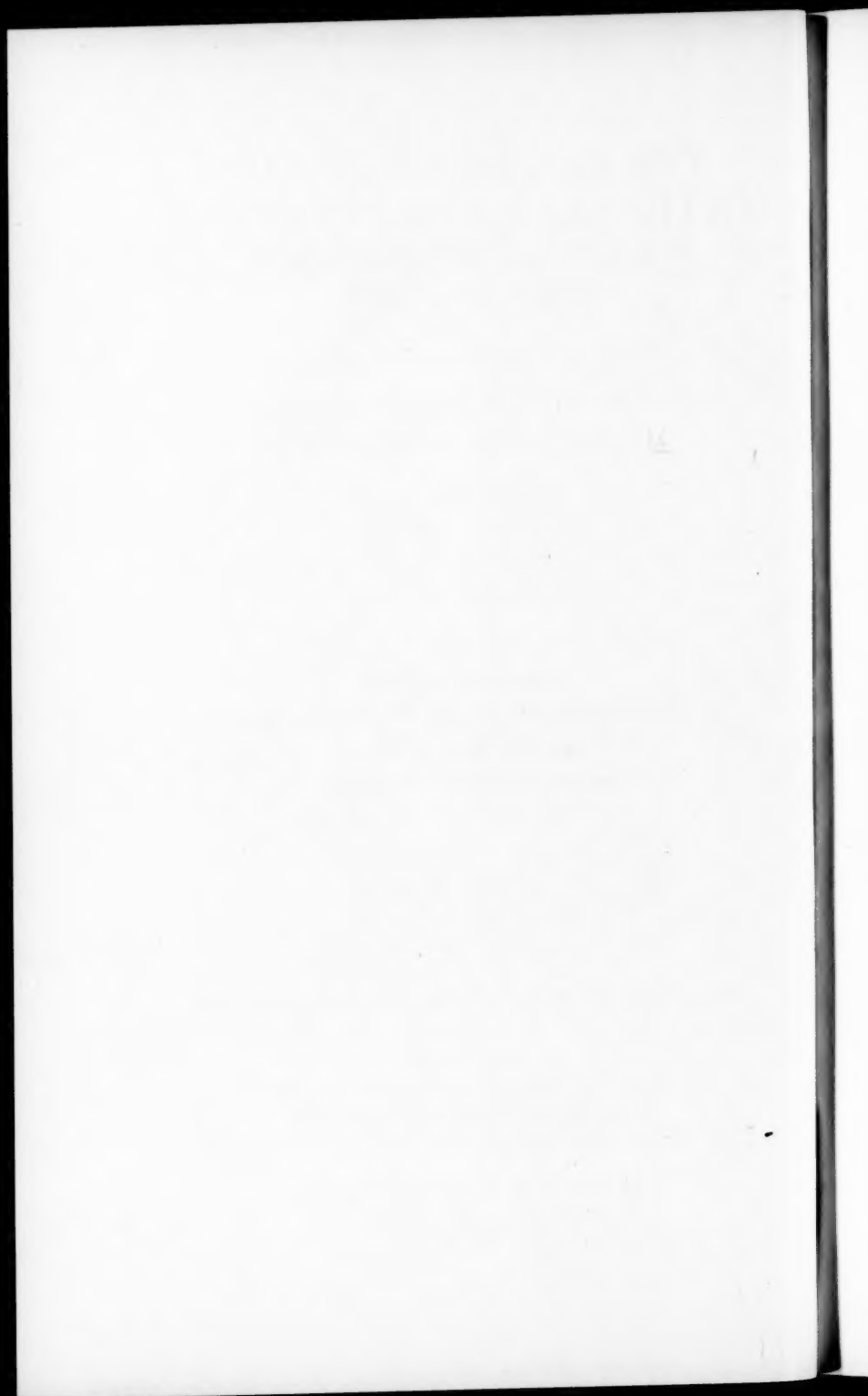
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THE CONTENTS OF THIS BULLETIN ARE LISTED IN EDUCATION INDEX

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OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

H. V. CHURCH, Executive Secretary  
5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago



**Proceedings of the**  
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*of the*  
**NATIONAL (EDUCATION) ASSOCIATION** *of secondary =*  
*at school principals.*  
**ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI**  
*on*  
**February 24 to 28, 1940**



Edited by  
**H. V. CHURCH**  
Executive Secretary of the Association

*Published by the Department, 1940*



**TWENTY-FOURTH ANNUAL CONVENTION**  
**NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF**  
**SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS**  
*of the*  
**Education Association**

The twenty-fourth annual meeting of the Department of Secondary-School Principals met in St. Louis, Missouri, Saturday, Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday, February 24, 26, 27, and 28, 1940.

**FIRST GENERAL SESSION**

The first general session of the twenty-fourth annual convention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals was a dinner meeting at which 211 members sat down at 6:30 p. m. in the Ivory Room of the New Hotel Jefferson, St. Louis, Missouri. After a short musical program by pupils from South High School, St. Louis, under the direction of Miss Leontone Meyer, to which a few of the courteous listened and for which almost all applauded, the Chairman, Principal K. J. Clark of Murphy High School, Mobile, Alabama, the President of National Association of Secondary-School Principals, introduced the guests at the speakers' table and the chairmen of the major committees of the Association, who in turn presented the members of their committees.

The Chairman then introduced Floyd W. Reeves, Director of the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education, who spoke to the subject, "Youth To-day," as follows:

**YOUTH TO-DAY**

**FLOYD W. REEVES**

Director, American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education

Twenty-five thousand secondary schools enrolling more than seven million boys and girls have an immense influence upon the future of this nation's youth. To discuss with you, as leaders in secondary education, youth problems as they have been analyzed by the American Youth Commission is an opportunity which I welcome with enthusiasm.

I shall speak first of the present situation of American young people, and second of a program of action in behalf of youth. In each instance we shall consider in turn five major problems: (1) Jobs, (2) Education and training, (3) Vocational guidance and adjustment, (4) Health, and (5) Recreation.

### *The Situation Now*

Democracy, to be true to itself, must labor to create the conditions under which individuals may reach their full human stature. Disheartened and idle young people cannot help but add to the danger of destroying the very things we most want to preserve. The problems of youth demand immediate action.

### *The Facts About Joblessness*

One third of the unemployed workers in the United States are young people fifteen to twenty-four years of age. There are about four million youth out of work. The rate of unemployment is higher for youth of fifteen to twenty-four than for any other age group, and highest of all for young people between fifteen and twenty who are out of school and seeking work. Even in fairly prosperous times, young people are having increasing difficulty in getting started at useful employment.

The facts of youth unemployment present an enormous challenge. There may be some people who look to a war boom to supply the answer. This is a delusion. In the first place, the most optimistic estimates indicate at best only two or three million new jobs for the many millions of unemployed workers. In the second place, the great demand will be for experienced workers. There will be less call for unemployed youth who have had no opportunity to achieve work experience. The remaining unemployment will be concentrated heavily in the lower age groups.

### *How Far Schooling Goes*

More than a century ago the American states undertook an experiment never attempted by any nation in history up to that time. We set for ourselves the goal of universal free education for all our children. We believed that education—the ability to read and write, to know and understand public issues—was the very foundation of democracy.

This was the American dream. We wanted to bring education to every one of our future citizens. A full century later, we are still far short of that goal.

Half of the young people who have left school have not finished the ninth grade. Many of them have had far less than nine years of schooling. In America to-day there are nearly one million children of elementary-school age who are not enrolled in any school. There are more than three million adults in this country who cannot read or write.

In our day mere literacy is not enough. Political geography and folklore history are not enough. The hope of understanding the complex social and economic problems of our people depends upon the wider and more realistic outlook of modern secondary education.

#### *The Need for Vocational Guidance and Adjustment*

In an earlier day boys and girls acquired occupational skills from their parents while very young, because the family was then to a large extent a self-sufficient economic unit, actually producing and processing on the farm and in the household many of the goods it consumed.

To-day the opportunity for children to work beside their parents has largely disappeared. The father, and often also the mother, is employed in factory, mine, or store where there is no place for the son or daughter to help his parent. Much of the necessary work formerly done in the household has now passed to industrial and commercial concerns which perform it efficiently and economically. The result is that the youth is deprived of his opportunity to work with or for his parents either at home or at their places of business.

Thus the youth of our time must achieve their transition from schooling to wage-earning, in most cases without the aid of work-experience under the tutelage of their parents. They must find their occupational places and accomplish their vocational adjustments largely as individuals standing on their own feet, and not as members of families. It is from this circumstance that the acute need of efficient social machinery to facilitate vocational adjustment arises.

#### *The Health Picture*

Youth is the time for health, but we have with us several great scourges which prey most heavily upon the young. Tuberculosis, venereal diseases, death in childbirth, and rheumatic heart disease hit their heaviest blows among youth.

Less acute disorders take an even greater toll of health and happiness. Nose and throat infections, decayed teeth, poor hearing, poor eyesight, bad posture, malnutrition—these dull the days of youth and leave a weakened body to face the strains of adult life. Only six out of a hundred youth get regular physical examinations every year. Often those most in need of medical care receive the least.

Health services are well developed in many colleges and universities, but in most places the service is fragmentary in the elementary schools. Often, however, it is better in the elementary school than in the high school. In this matter of school health services, the high school seems to be a weak spot.

*Facilities for Good Use of Leisure*

Physical recreation is universally recognized as a vitally important means of promoting good health. Healthful recreation, both physical and non-physical, is essential to assure sound mental and emotional adjustment to life, especially in the difficult period of adolescence and early adulthood.

School athletic programs are still too largely devoted to the intensive training of the few who are least in need of physical improvement. Leisure-time camping tends to be restricted to youth in superior economic circumstances. There is a general lack of facilities for building and preserving a normal healthy physique, and for acquiring the emotional and cultural benefits that come with participation in wholesome sports and allied recreational activities.

Many surveys of youth show that reading ranks high as a leisure-time interest. The use of books, besides being a major form of recreation of high cultural value in itself, is also an important tool in the initiation and fostering of many other recreational pursuits, such as arts and crafts, gardening and nature study, and hobbies of a thousand kinds.

Youth should have access to book collections broad in scope, and rich and varied in content. At present only the favored ones are within reach of public or school library collections of this character. One third of the youth of the United States are beyond reach of any well-stocked library.

With the picture before us, we now turn our attention to what should be done.

*A Program of Action for Youth*

Having examined the foregoing facts and collected a large amount of similar evidence, the American Youth Commission adopted in October, 1939, a statement embodying a plan of action regarding the employment, health, and education of youth. I shall give you the gist of that statement. I shall also discuss the implications of the Commission's studies of vocational adjustment and recreation for youth.

*Useful Work for Youth*

One suggested solution of the job problem of youth is to raise the age of compulsory school attendance. The Commission believes that all young people should be required and effectively enabled to attend full-time schools up to the age of sixteen. Above that age, it is recommended that a boy or girl who wants to go to work should be allowed to do so. Actually, many young people who would derive benefit from the training a job would give would be wasting their time to continue in school.

There are several million more young men and women who want to go to work than there are jobs available for them at present. Ideally,



our economic system should work so well that this gap would be closed by absorbing all unemployed into private employment. Certainly every effort should be made to bring this about. Meanwhile, the problem of unemployed youth is so vast and so pressing that the Commission believes an immediate solution requires the assistance of the Federal Government in addition to the efforts of state and local governmental agencies. Every young person who does not desire to continue in school after sixteen, and who cannot get a job in private enterprise, should be provided under public auspices with employment in some form of service.

Wherever possible, work should be combined with instruction. Many experiments in providing part-time schooling in connection with part-time employment in public agencies have been highly successful; more attention should be given to further developments along this line. Work activities for youth might include all kinds of conservation endeavors, the construction of useful public buildings and public works, and the production of some of the goods and services that are needed by the young people themselves and by other unemployed.

In making this recommendation, the Commission frankly recognized that such a program would add a large item to the Federal budget, as well as to the budgets of states and local governments. Further, it comes at a time when there is great need for economy and balance of income and expenditures. The cost will not, however, be as great as might be thought. The work would be not full-time, but part-time. Also, it need not be highly paid in view of the fact that training and a part-time study program would be given with the work. It is estimated that the expenditure per youth need not exceed four hundred dollars per year. Further, the contribution of these young people to the aid of their families would undoubtedly lessen the need for public assistance.

Public work for young people should be planned with special regard to its educational quality. The young worker should be trained in good work habits as well as specific skills. He should have a chance to try various kinds of work, to find his own abilities, and to receive guidance toward private employment. Most important of all, in the Commission's opinion, is the need to give the young worker a sense of usefulness and self-respect, so that he looks forward to both his own and his country's future.

#### *Better Educational Opportunity*

First of all, we can improve the quality of the instruction in American school rooms. Teachers need longer and better training. New textbooks, new methods of instruction, new equipment and aids to learning must be made available to the small and obscure school, as well as the larger schools. For great numbers of our schools, the basic aims of education itself must be broadened. Our schools need to look upon education as

preparation for life in all its aspects—for work, for use of leisure time, for home membership, for health, and above all for citizenship in a democracy.

When it comes to running our schools, the basic need is for better financed and more ably administered schools. Certainly the first step is to combine small independent school districts into larger and more effective units. More than half of the 120,000 local school districts in the nation support and administer only a single one-teacher school. The American Youth Commission strongly believes that if the total number of school districts in the United States were reduced to a few thousand at most, the quality of education for millions of children could be vastly improved.

In some states, certain school districts have much greater tax resources than others. In some districts the amount that can be raised and spent per pupil is one hundred times as much as other districts can afford. A way to correct this situation is to provide state aid for districts of small resources. In state aid as it is now administered, however, there are two great needs. First, it must be distributed more justly so that the districts most in need of it actually receive it. Second, in a great many states the total amount of state aid needs to be increased.

Some states can afford to spend more for their schools than others. The Commission believes America should be made as nearly as possible a land of equal educational opportunities. A certain amount of Federal aid will be necessary to achieve this. Such aid should be guarded against Federal interference and should be utilized for local needs. This distribution should not be looked upon as charity from wealthy cities and states to their poorer brethren. Many of the children in less prosperous areas will later live in states and cities far from their place of birth. Their education is a national concern.

If a family is unable to keep a child in school, public resources must be called upon to make this possible. Furthermore, food, clothing, and shelter—the bare essentials to keep life in existence—are not enough. School children need such things as clothes, books, and transportation—enough to give them some sense of security and enable them to hold up their heads among their fellows. Adequate student aid is vital to the effective equalization of educational opportunities.

The Commission looks upon it as a duty of the schools to prepare their students to deal with the issues of a war crisis. Students should be able to look at news realistically, to estimate the value of propaganda, and to find the kernel of impartial truth embodied in highly colored wartime news. The Commission sounds a warning that in time of danger there should be no slashing of educational budgets, because education is the first line of defense against the internal weakness that often proves more de-

structive to a country than an outside enemy. Proper aid to education is not an emergency matter, but a long-time need for America.

### *Coördinated Vocational Adjustment Services*

One of the chief weaknesses in our whole present scheme of vocational education, guidance, and placement is that we have each of these functions undertaken by a multiplicity of agencies bearing little relation to each other. These agencies compose a sort of confused crazy-quilt of many colors, which, upon close examination is discovered to have its different parts only loosely pinned together or not attached at all, with many of its blocks entirely missing.

From the standpoint of the guidance function alone, it is essential that three distinct types of coördination be accomplished and maintained: (1) Coördination of the guidance activities within a given school, (2) Coördination of the school guidance program with the guidance activities of other agencies in the community, and (3) Coördination of all guidance activities with the other services involved in occupational adjustment, namely, with vocational education and placement.

The American Youth Commission has completed, in coöperation with the United States Employment Service, a project which involved observation and demonstration of different experimental methods of coördinating the school guidance departments, public employment services, and related agencies in seven communities, four of which were urban and three rural. The report of this undertaking is now near completion, and will probably be available in book form soon.<sup>1</sup>

Each of the seven communities investigated presented a different picture, with varying types and degrees of coöperation among the schools, the employment service, and the other agencies. The main conclusion of the study is that although no cut-and-dried pattern can be molded and pressed down upon every community, it is supremely essential that there be in each community some one center to which youth can go and be assured of alert and efficient occupational adjustment service to the limit of the combined resources of that community.

This does not mean that vocational education, guidance, and placement must all be carried on in one building. It does mean that there should be a good placement office for youth, and that it should be in close coöperation with all the other community agencies of placement, guidance, and vocational education. Whether the employment office for youth is in a school building or an employment service building is immaterial. The important point is that in any event there must be coöperation between the schools and the employment service and the other agencies of occupational adjustment.

<sup>1</sup>A study of community programs of occupational adjustment, to be published as a report to the American Youth Commission by Howard M. Bell, author of "Youth Tell Their Story."

Among many essentials of such coöperation, two may be mentioned here: (1) An arrangement to facilitate the registration in the public employment office of all graduates and withdrawals from the schools, and (2) Facilitation of the transfer of individual records from the guidance counselors in the schools to the counselors at the employment office. This last is especially important, because guidance must be a continuing process. The breach in its continuity between school and placement service can be closed.

We shall not be able to boast of a nation-wide occupational adjustment service for youth until the foregoing aims have been achieved at the community level, and we may point to a national network of coördinated community programs.

At the national level, too, there are at least four major agencies of the Federal government among which the development and maintenance of close working relationships is essential. These are the United States Office of Education, the National Youth Administration, the Employment Service Division of the Social Security Board, and the newly-created Occupational Outlook Service in the Bureau of Labor Statistics. These national agencies, however, exist primarily to serve states and communities. They do not control local programs, but instead seek to facilitate their operation. They can encourage local coördination, but it cannot go far unless initiative is demonstrated right at home in every community.

#### *Youth and the National Health*

The strength of the United States is the strength of its people. Youth is particularly important because in youth we acquire the health habits and the basic constitutions that stay with us through our lifetime. Hygiene, sanitation, and medical science have made sweeping advances in recent years. They point the way to a happier, stronger, healthier nation.

Our job is to apply the knowledge we now have. This means bringing modern science, modern equipment, and modern services to the whole population. Local and state resources must be brought into play, and some aid from the Federal government will be necessary. Federal help is likely to be needed in working out some form of equalization, so that services in less wealthy areas may be brought up to a decent minimum level for the country as a whole. In any such national program, public and private agencies must coöperate. Planning of the highest order is called for. The American Youth Commission is convinced that America needs a health program organized on a scale never before attempted in this country.

An essential element in a large-scale program would be to provide some way for persons of limited and moderate means to meet the costs of medical care. In particular, such persons are now unable to meet the emergency costs of serious or prolonged illness. What they need is some way of aver-

aging costs so that the burden might perhaps be distributed evenly over a number of years and paid in regular amounts.

Another way might be to share medical costs among a fairly large group of people, so that each person pays his share of the average cost of illness for the entire group. The Commission believes there should be careful consideration of the best methods of bringing about such results as these. For the poor, the Commission is convinced, the provision of adequate medical care must be accepted as a public obligation. In the long run the cost of neglect is greater than the cost of prevention or cure. And it falls upon the community as a whole.

An immediate necessity is an adequate health program for all children and young people in schools. There should be regular physical examinations for all students, from the primary grades up through college. Comparable facilities should be provided for out-of-school young people. Illness and physical defects should be detected early so that prompt treatment may be given. Sport and athletic programs in schools should be directed not only to the athlete but to the whole student body, so that those without special athletic ability may receive the benefits of regular exercise. In the school curriculum, there is a sharp need for more adequate instruction in physiology and mental and physical hygiene, especially at the secondary-school and college levels.

Health should be a positive thing. It should go beyond the mere absence of illness. It should be a realization of the fullest possibilities of the individual. In this phase, especially, recreation plays a vital part. This is partly the recreation of wholesome physical exercise, of games, sports, and play. It also includes mental and social recreation—mental stimulation, companionship, and a chance for young people to meet and mingle with other young people in a wholesome environment. Recreation must be an essential part of any general health program. Schools, public and private agencies, and organizations of all kinds must coöperate to bring recreation to those who stand most in need of it.

#### *Recreational Opportunities for Youth*

The American Youth Commission recognizes recreation as one of the major aspects of the youth problem in this country, but has not as yet issued any formal recommendations relative to it. Therefore, in what follows I shall be speaking for myself. I have drawn upon the conclusions of many leaders in education and recreation, and upon the findings of more than one national conference in which the use of leisure time was touched upon.

Recreation in our day is a matter of public concern for many reasons, among which are the shortening of the working day and the working week, the multiplication of routine jobs offering little creative outlet or

challenge to ingenuity, and the splendid therapeutic and educational values that accrue from appropriate avocational activities.

In fact, the boundary between recreation and education is difficult to discern. This is one important reason why educators should consider seriously the obligation that rests upon them to accept some responsibility for community recreational leadership. This is an urgent matter especially for consideration in small town and rural school districts where the board of education is the only local public authority now conducting any recreational activities.

In urban and other situations where there are well-established independent departments of public recreation, it is important that constant efforts be made to maintain and increase the cooperation among all local recreational agencies, including the schools, the libraries, the parks and playgrounds.

The park and forest areas of the nation and the states should be increased in area by the retirement from cultivation of submarginal farms. Ways should be found to make these areas more easily accessible to youth. They should be administered and staffed in such ways as to enable large numbers of youth to extract their full educational and recreational values. Among other things, this means nominally priced overnight lodges and camp sites. It also means an adequate staff of scientists, artists, and recreation leaders capable of explaining attractively the geology, botany, and zoology of the region.

Both the Federal government and the states should establish bureaus of public recreation for the purpose of assisting, stimulating, and coordinating the full use of our magnificent recreational resources. From other quarters it has already been proposed that we have in the near future a great national conference on public recreation. I am confident that American youth might gain much from the results of such a deliberative assembly. I should want to see educators recognize their obligation to take a prominent part in it.

I have given you the essentials of the American Youth Commission's program of action regarding employment, education, and health for youth. I have added some observations of my own on vocational adjustment and recreation. All this I put before you with confidence that you will do your part in leading the way toward a brighter day for the youth of America.

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Such interest was developed that questions from the floor kept the speaker engaged for a succeeding twenty minutes.



## SECOND GENERAL SESSION

Monday, February 26, 1940

The Second General Session was held in Assembly Hall 3 of the Municipal Auditorium of St. Louis, Missouri.

After a few announcements by the President of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, he introduced the presiding officer of the afternoon, Principal Truman G. Reed of Lewis and Clark High School, Spokane, Washington, and member of the Executive Committee of the National Association. The Chairman then presented F. R. Wegner, Superintendent of Schools of Roslyn Heights, New York, who read his address.

### THE CHALLENGE OF RATIONAL EDUCATION FOR THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

F. R. WEGNER

Superintendent of Schools, Roslyn, N. Y.

We are an interesting group, we Americans. We are constantly seeking to invent something new to take care of our problems. We think we have it, and then we give it a characteristic title. Being distinctive, we give different interpretations to the idea, and the title comes into discredit, so we make some slight variation in our original idea and tag it with another name. It isn't long before we want to lose that name too.

The whole process reminds me of a story told concerning an incident in a small town in southern Alabama. Two children were watching with much glee the antics of three small puppies that were in a crate on a station platform. They had so much fun watching them and they wanted so much to own one of the puppies that their father, went to the old negro station agent and said, "Mose, whose puppies are they? Can you tell me where they are being sent?"

Mose looked rather worried. "I dunno, Boss," he said. "Ain't nobody know. They done ate the tag."

Because of the many implications that come out of the tags "progressive" and "modern" education, I asked permission of your Chairman to use a new word; namely, "rational" education. I am fully aware of the need of defining my particular use of this word "rational," for I realize that it too is subject to many interpretations.

Rational Education for to-day's discussion, will mean the application of common everyday horse sense to the solution of the problems that confront us in the secondary schools.

We will constantly ask ourselves: Why are we doing these things? Are they the best things that we can do for the pupils in our schools? For the same reason, I am going to try to avoid the use of what some people call "pedagogical and pedantic verbiage," and attempt to make what I have to say at least intelligible to myself.

During the last year, two rather widespread and important surveys of secondary education made their reports. I refer to the Coöperative Study of Secondary-School Standards and to the Regents Inquiry into the Character and Costs of Public Education in the State of New York. An examination of those reports show that the problems of the secondary schools in New York State are very similar to those of the rest of the country.

Within the last few days we have received, from our own National Association, Bulletin No. 85, entitled "That All May Learn." I believe this Bulletin to be one of the most significant contributions made by our Association. However, I am personally troubled by the implication that there is a special group within our schools that is EDUCATIONALLY NEGLECTED. If I were to hazard a guess, I would say that there is not a single class or group within an American high school to-day that is not, in one sense or another, educationally neglected, and let me add further that I do not believe that the secondary school will ever be set up that will entirely meet this challenge. Of course, in the light of what we thought was good for a student in high school, we have met our own objectives.

The following sentences are taken out of Chapter One in our own Bulletin,

"That All May Learn":

"As the American secondary school faces the future, the greatest problem of its organization and administration as well as of its instructional program is concerned with providing adequate and appropriate education for all the children of all the people, and its supreme test will be met in the degree to which it succeeds at providing functional positive education for all youth. It is certain that the existence of the American secondary school and quite possibly the existence of the American society will rise or fall as this test is, or is not, made."

The problem of the American secondary school is concerned with "adequate and appropriate education"—adequate for the individual's life needs and appropriate for the society in which he lives.

What is this adequacy? A person having an adequate education will be able to read with understanding and be able to convey his ideas in writing. We know that many high-school students do not have that facility when they begin the ninth grade. We also know that some of them do not have it when they leave the twelfth grade, or when they leave school. We have assumed that children could read when they came to the ninth grade,



and I believe this assumption has limited to a great degree our efforts in providing further instruction in this field. In other words, we still need to stress the teaching of more and better reading in the high school and to continue our efforts toward better writing of the English language.

An adequate education will also provide for the ability to carry on the fundamental processes of arithmetic and particularly to give some appreciation of relative values and number concepts when we purchase goods, pay taxes, or receive wages.

An adequate education will provide a student with a pattern of work habits which he may carry over into adult life. We have assumed for too long that the preparation of assigned lessons from one book resulted in these work habits. The ability to look up pertinent material from every source that is available, to select information that will result in a valid conclusion, to organize this material logically, and to present it either orally or in written form, is a more important training for life.

Again, common sense would dictate that the secondary school would do all that it practically could to equip a young person to earn wages when he leaves school. We will teach everyone to typewrite. We will give everyone several courses which entail the use of hands; a craft, machine work, or home economics. In other words, we should give an opportunity to synchronize hands and brain.

As we have defined the word adequate, we could apply it to any young person in any place in the world. We have thought of increasing the adaptability of this young person for adult work.

When we try to define "appropriate education," we run into greater difficulties. We think of that for children living in the United States of America. Such education will involve their political citizenship, their economic citizenship, and their personal and social citizenship. Of course, these will all be component parts of the same youngsters, that will develop together; we will, however, speak of them as separate entities.

The purpose for the schools in the United States is the training of a citizenry which will function in the process of government. That this training is for a democratic government makes it more unique, difficult, and important.

First, of all, our school must be essentially democratic in its practices and its purposes. Students will be given opportunities to participate, not only in the student organizations, but in the determination of school policies of subject fields to be studied, and of approaches to be made in these fields. They will learn to make evaluations of their own efforts. They will evaluate their own schools, they will help determine the daily and annual program. Often they will assist in the library, the stockroom and the cafeteria.

The 1936 yearbook of the Department of Superintendence listed the areas forming the background of government which formerly neglected, are now being included in our social studies programs. The nature of government, the relation of industry and government, taxation and public finance, and consumer education are some of the topics listed. Too frequently these fields are not adequately treated in the high schools, in that we fail to make them realistic and functional. We must make the privilege and the responsibility of voting and participating in government a tangible and living reality to students in the schools, in order to train them as democratic persons.

The job of developing an attitude toward the present economic structure is an increasingly complex one. The education for participation as a wage earner should consist in part in acquainting the student with the present economic conditions in the United States. The degree in which these conditions are understood will depend upon the intelligence of the learner. But all should realize that jobs are hard to get, and that unemployment is a symptom of widespread influences which challenge the best thinking in the world to-day. At the same time, the pupil should realize that there is a dignity and service in all work, whether it be with his hands or his brain. The relation of employer and employee, both in the legal as well as the social senses are important concepts for youth entering upon work.

We have been told that capitalism is undemocratic in nature, and yet we have seen the democratic method applied to many industries. We have been taught that the greatest social justice came through the simple life, and yet we realize to-day that some of the greatest social injustices are continuing in certain rural areas which should afford opportunities for the simple life. We have been dared to build a new social order, and yet our schools themselves have not caught up with the existing one.

We have said before that it is our obligation to prepare young people for a life of usefulness. The high school is not the place to give specific training. That it is doing so in some cases should not confuse the issue. We doubt the wisdom of a great system of vocational high schools that determine the specific training for youth at the tenth and eleventh grade level. It seems to me more important that we give more attention to doing the immediate job well. Slovenly work, getting by or "gypping," as the students call it, are indefensible practices in any phase of life and particularly so in school. Our experience has been that these practices decrease as we increase the opportunities for students to determine and to participate in the things to be studied and the work to be accomplished.

With the home the school shares the responsibility for the spiritual development of youth. I have no wish at this time to discuss the element of religious training, I am thinking rather of those things that give peace

and appreciation and comfort to the spirit. I am referring to that concept of democracy that emphasizes the primacy of human values.

Tangibly, literature, music, art, and fine craftsmanship will give great satisfaction, but more important even than these is the common, human kindness that should exist between student and student, and teacher and student. These qualities do not come from courses of study, student councils, or even from athletic games. They come from an appreciation of personality, a philosophy and a determined effort to make them exist in our dealings with all persons. T. V. Smith in "The Promise of American Politics" pointed out "that personality is the center of value and that all social organizations get their significance from their promise to enhance the individual; (1) to guarantee the sacredness of his person, (2) to safeguard his rights and finally, to extend his opportunities."

What have we done to meet the needs of individuality in our present high schools? Too infrequently, we have made the college entrance requirements of the late eighteen hundreds the major portion of our high-school curriculum. We have developed specialists in English, and in history, and in science, and in mathematics, and finally in the foreign languages, who meet in their own associations and discuss how to teach more English, more history, more mathematics and more Latin. We have divided our school day into periods and shunted our classes much like piecework through an assembly line. We have built up a far flung and marvelously intricate system of objective tests and marks and spent hours in fitting human material to "normal curves of distribution."

Then we have studied carefully the effect of the teaching of this foreign language and these mathematics, and we have found and have reported, not once but many times, that boys and girls who "take" French in high school cannot speak the language; that boys and girls who "take" Latin in high schools make little or no use of the marvelous background that Latin could give in an understanding of our own English language. In other words, we have recognized for a long time the positive inadequacies of our subject offerings and of their "functional, positive" results, and now we are beginning to do something about it.

Generally speaking our efforts are directed in three fields:

1. The intelligent guidance of each young person into constructive enterprise.
2. A significant attempt to correlate the work of the school and the community.
3. A complete reemphasis in our secondary-school curriculum so that it may be as effective as possible on meeting to-day's needs.

The word guidance has become one of those distinctive titles to which I referred in my opening remarks. It has as many meanings as a cat has

lives. And yet its simple purpose is to give friendly sympathetic counsel and advice. All this comes too infrequently from guidance departments, standardized tests, or file cards. These may have a place but we should increasingly question the filing of past histories as answers to present problems. What we need to do in our high schools is to leave a group of young people with a teacher for periods of two and three hours a day so that the necessary friendly relationship can grow out of a living together situation.

Just what subject fields could be combined in this living together process is not the most important question. Experimentation and experience indicate that the fields of English and the social studies and related art, speech, dramatics, and music lend themselves most advantageously to this longer period, but the important factor remains the personal working relationship between the teacher and the group that remains with him for the extended time. The teacher will learn the background, the interest, and the needs of each of these pupils and can bring in the more expert advice of other teachers and people from the world to meet these needs. He can direct the processes which lead to research and organization of learning material. He can enlarge the vision and the scope of each student by directing both the broad interests and the specific interests toward further meaningful horizons. Finally he can work objectively toward more reading and writing and can develop that intangible something which has been labeled how to study.

Kilpatrick recently wrote that coöperative activities for community improvement form the vision for the best education yet conceived. Our schools have studied about the community but only infrequently have they coöperated in its activities. Community surveys, the introduction of better agricultural methods or the dissemination of health information are examples of service with and in the environment. Our Seniors who look forward to teaching could well spend much of their last year assisting the teachers in the elementary grades. Any boy or girl who has the opportunity and need for part-time employment should be able to adjust this work to his school day.

Youth hostel trips are rapidly gaining ground as educative life experiences. To my mind one of the most important services that could be made by the Federal government, is the establishment of youth hostel centers all over the country. At least two weeks of every school year should then be given over to a hostel trip by each student in high school. Naturally the preparation for this trip would entail much study and planning, but even more important than the subject-learning values would be the human understandings that follow meeting other young people in different environments. Many of these same values would come from a plan of exchanging students in various high schools for several weeks or a month.

Harold Laski has referred to that trait of the American people which causes them to ape the fashions and pleasures of the millionaires. I am troubled to see this evil spreading in our present high schools. Far too often a Senior girl is excluded from the senior dance, after spending hours in decorating the hall, because "No one asked her to go" and corsages and taxis are rapidly becoming the rule rather than the exception. These may be ticklish subjects to control, but economic or social barriers have no place in our democratic public high schools.

Finally we need to analyze our present school curriculum in the light of how it may help young people more efficiently to carry on their work, leisure, home, and community activities. The subject is too great for the scope of this paper but certain glaring inefficiencies will be noted.

If in the field of high-school mathematics we ask ourselves, "Can our students use the materials we are teaching them?" we would eliminate most of the present content and substitute important type of mathematical content related to everyday problems.

The related values of the study of foreign languages referred to before could more efficiently be taught through etymology and word study. If there should be the necessity of speaking and reading a foreign language, this may be learned by methods more effective of time and energy than any now pursued in the classroom.

The history taught in our schools still deals largely with wars, with political campaigns, and nationalism. Some transition has been made to the development of man's progress in civilization, but much needs to be done in the connections.

In the fields of science we have too long confined ourselves to a narrow specialization without regard for the necessity of a broad understanding of our present scientific environment. The physiology of the human being, earth, science, and astronomy are neglected areas in our high schools in comparison to the fields of physics and chemistry. They are not less interesting or valuable than these subjects. One answer is to functionalize all science in the beginning years so as to meet the questions of everyday living and experience.

Perhaps by this time many of you would believe that I recommend the lowering of the fine academic standards of the high schools; that I would turn my face against the classic cultures of the past and make of this whole secondary school a preparation for realism.

What are fine academic standards? We have given young people objective examinations to find out; examinations which by their very character are limiting in their scope and in their effect upon the amount of subject matter to be learned. Are the valedictorians and salutatorians the personification of academic excellency? We know they are not. The

standards which we apply are finally subjective, are these young persons interested in service to others—are they honest—are they ladies and gentlemen, are they acceptable in His eyes?

I want realism; we all want reality in an understanding of what life holds for us and these young people in the destiny of these United States of America. And we want to hold the highest scholarship and the highest standards for the young people in our schools; we want each pupil to make the highest endeavor and the finest contributions of which he is capable. Further I would want our school so organized that in addition to living-learning a broad experience each pupil could concentrate in those fields into which his interests would lead him and into those fields that lead to preparation for his life work.

If our schools can meet these challenges they may truly be called laboratories of life.

#### DISCUSSION

The Chairman then introduced Alice V. Keliher, Chairman of the Human Relations Commission of Progressive Education Association, who presented a portion of the film of *Captains Courageous*. This she prefaced as follows:

A significant practical step in putting sound motion pictures at the service of schools has just been taken. The Commission on Human Relations has announced the availability for rental of the Human Relations Series of Films, familiar to many through demonstrations, experiments, and articles presented by the Commission during the two-year experimental period.

These films are made from excerpts from famous photoplays, such as *The Life of Emile Zola*, *Louis Pasteur*, *The Good Earth*, *Captains Courageous*, *Alice Adams*, *Dodsworth*, *La Maternelle*, and *Road to Life*, and they present dramatic studies of personalities in action. The discussion of the personalities thus presented, by students and a capable leader, develops in the adolescent group an understanding of problems of human relations with which most of us at one time or another have to cope.

Through the courtesy of producers and distributors the experiment is to be widened and the films rented for use in strictly educational programs. It is understood that the films will not be used in situations where admissions are charged. In order to be certain on these points, the Commission has prepared an application blank in legal form to be signed by the potential user of the films. Application forms and catalogs describing more than sixty of the films are available from the Commission on Human Relations, Room 3867, 45 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City.



The Commission has prepared booklets to go with the various films. These booklets provide study material and suggestions for discussion. One copy travels with the film, but persons desiring copies for their files may secure them for a small charge from the Commission.

For those who wish advice and guidance in the use of the films, the Commission is able to offer the services of James Mitchell, in charge of field service for the project. Mr. Mitchell, formerly of the Francis W. Parker School in Chicago, has used the films in his own work for the past two years. He has participated in the experiment and made careful study of the various possible uses of the materials. He is available on a travel expense basis to any groups who wish to have him come for conference and demonstrations. Mr. Mitchell is mapping out his travel program so that a number of groups can be included on one trip, thus reducing to a minimum the cost to each group. Those who will wish Mr. Mitchell's advice during the year should write directly to the Rockefeller Plaza Office.

Reports on the effectiveness of the films in the two-year experiment and the various ways in which they have been used, with special emphasis on discussion methods, are in preparation. As these reports become available they will be announced in *Progressive Education*.

Then some twenty Seniors from Soldan High School took the stage and discussed problems of human relations and moral values presented by the film.

MONDAY AFTERNOON

February 26th, 1940

DR. KELIHER: What do you think of the way Manuel handled it?

GIRL: It seemed to get results.

DR. KELIHER: What makes you think that?

GIRL: Well, the boy evidently was pampered and spoiled and if it had not been for Manuel, he would have gone on that way. Jack's treatment would not have done him any good.

BOY: Jack's treatment is all wrong. In the first place, Manuel was correct; he forgave the boy after the boy admitted he was wrong. Jack wouldn't forgive the boy. I think that is wrong; I think he should have forgiven him.

BOY: The way Manuel treated him, he let the boy's own worthiness bring itself out; he left it up to the boy's conscience whether he would right the wrong he committed. The boy had done something wrong, but Manuel

did not force him to admit it before the crew; he left it up to the boy, feeling that if the boy had any good in him, he would own up to the fact that he had tied up Long Jack's trawl. Especially the time they were arguing, he came to the fore, thinking, of course, that Jack would hurt Manuel.

GIRL: In the way that Manuel handled the boy, he showed him a good example; he was showing him what a fine character he was and what kind of an example to follow.

GIRL: If Jack had been allowed to go on and do what he started, he would only have put fear into the boy and the boy would have had hatred in his heart for this person, whereas, Manuel let the boy do what he wanted and be truthful and, therefore, he was better off for it.

GIRL: Although Manuel and his friends could not have mixed in society from one state, still the boy saw these people were very honest. That is the main thing and, as one person said, the boy came forth and admitted it, whereas, if Manuel had scolded him, he would not have admitted, because he would have been so scared of what Manuel would do to him.

DR. KELIHER: You agree that fear would be very bad there.

BOY: I am inclined to think that it would not have been such a bad point if Jack were to give him a sort of thrashing, because I think Manuel let him off so easily this time, it might happen that the boy would take it in his mind he would get off easily all the time, and it would not have served its purpose.

GIRL: I disagree. Jack's treatment would have embittered the boy. He realized that Jack was a very mean type of person and this would have made him so angry, I don't think it was so much fear, but he would have despised him so much it would not do any good, whereas, he realized Manuel was very honest and the boy was unused to such a thing.

BOY: Wasn't it fear that made the boy confess? It was fear that Manuel would not talk to him and he would not gain Manuel's friendship. We do everything from fear. We don't play with fire because we are afraid we will be burned; we don't go beyond the speed limit because we are afraid a policeman will arrest us. It was fear, in a different degree, that made the boy confess.

BOY: I think so much depends on the character of the boy, himself. You can find after several means of treatment which will be the best, and I think Manuel easily found out which was best for the boy.

DR. KELIHER: Let me get this straight. If this were a different boy, you think maybe Long Jack's method would have been right?



Boy: I think it depends on the boy, himself. You can tell after the first few trials. This showed it was the right treatment for the boy.

Boy: My belief is that the boy was punished, he was inwardly punished because he felt it inside, but if he had been hit, it would not have helped him at all. He would have done the same thing again and it would have embittered him against the man.

Boy: I don't think the boy, before he had gone out there, realized that he had committed a wrong. In other words, his set of values in his life he had before did not apply to the set of values he had now. When he tied up the fisherman's trawl there, he did not think he was going to harm Manuel in any way — I mean harm Long Jack any way. He thought he was doing this to insure Manuel's victory, he did not think he was doing wrong, and if he had been punished for it, it would not have helped. But as he was not, as Manuel let him go, the realization he had committed a wrong began to dawn on him and he began naturally to feel sorry for what he had done and realized he had committed a crime and had to pay the penalty, he had to confess and risk a blow at the hands of Long Jack.

Boy: About this striking business, striking a little fellow for doing something wrong, my colleague says it might not have had any effect. Those who have seen the whole picture know this little kid happened to be a rich kid and he was probably spoiled by his father, by the fact he was never hit by his father, so if he was slapped a couple of times for some of his acts, he might not have been that spoiled. I think if he had been struck at his younger age, when he did rash acts, I believe it would have been much better for him. (Laughter).

Boy: There are different characteristics in different children. Some children can be corrected in a way of talk, they can be talked to and they begin to understand by doing the right thing — in the end to do the right thing, while other children can only be taught by actual punishment. So, this boy happened to be one who had a conscience of his own that could be awakened by talk and by his own conscience, and so that way he was not one to suffer punishment.

Boy: Speaking in general, if this form of education was started earlier in this boy's youth, in other words, if he was sent out into the world to associate with other boys of his own age to a greater extent than he was, I believe he would have realized before the time that he did realize that this was a bad movement and he should not have done this.

DR. KELIHER: Let's stick to this other point you have brought up, which seems to me very important to pursue, that you would treat different children in different ways. Let's stick to this young man's point.

Boy: According to what I have seen, there could not have been much knowledge on the part of Manuel or any of the crew as to the character of this young boy and naturally whatever they attempted would have been an experiment and the results would have proven themselves. Therefore, you can't say that this might have done better than the spanking would have done, it is just a matter of opinion there, because you don't know what would have happened if the other course had been pursued.

GIRL: We were speaking before about the subject of fearing, and someone mentioned that he thought the reason the boy confessed that he had committed this was because he feared that Manuel would be angry at him. I don't think so at all. I think the reason he confessed was because he felt a love for Manuel, because of what he had done for him, and although he knew Manuel no better than he knew Long Jack, his feelings were very much more pleased by this attitude of kindness than by Long Jack's attitude. And so I think, since he is an example they picked out anywhere, that kindness is a better way of getting to a person's heart and making them realize it, instead of being rash. He had a background that showed he needed to be spanked, but if he had been spanked, he would have turned into a little cynic and it would not have done any good.

GIRL: He did not think at first he had done anything wrong and, in my opinion, the worst thing you can do to a child is to spank him without telling him what his fault is. If Manuel had done that, instead of reasoning with him, the child would have become very bitter.

GIRL: I think the child should be given the chance to confess, if he has done something wrong, instead of immediately scolding him or upbraiding him. You may consider a thing wrong that he does not know is incorrect. Of course, the idea is: Which is better, a spanking or upbraiding him by speaking to him?

There are different ways of punishing a child than just by speaking to him. You might, in speaking to him, in the very way that you talk to him, punish the child, but then again if you are kind to him and if you give him a chance to bring out the wrong that he had committed, let him say what he wants to say and be able to show you that he really has a character, that is by far the better method.

Boy: I believe that most children will not willfully commit a wrong if they know they are committing a wrong. I believe the fault is the adult's, and so I say, what will he confess if he does not know that he has committed a wrong? I stick to the point that I don't believe in punishment either.

DR. KELIHER: Let's stick to that and go back and look at Harvey a little bit. We have either read "Captains Courageous" or have seen the

picture. What set of values did the youngster have when he landed on this schooner? Let's get the history of the boy.

Boy: I think his set of values was determined on how much could be purchased for a certain amount of money. His father was very rich and he thought he could get everything he wanted through the use of money. I know he was expelled from school because he attempted bribery or something, therefore his standard was a monetary standard, not a character standard or anything of good moral standing.

DR. KELIHER: Then how do you relate that to what happens in the way Manuel deals with him?

GIRL: His parents probably gave him money, or he asked for money, but they didn't care how he spent it or what he spent it for. What I mean to say, he did not have any confidence in his parents, because they did not show any toward him. If he asked for something, they said: "Go ahead and do it. I don't care what you want to do it for." But Manuel was different, the boy had a lot of confidence in him, and it was different entirely from what he had been used to. This hurt him terribly, I mean to go against a person like that, because as has been said before, some parents will say: "Well, my child won't obey me unless I spank him or do something radical toward him." That is entirely wrong, because after all, as one of the speakers said, children are human beings and they will listen to you if you have something to say to them, and I think that is how Manuel was able to adapt himself so effectively toward this boy.

Boy: It was said before that when he was at school, he tried bribery and he was expelled, and when he tried this act on the boat, it showed he had not learned any lesson in school when he was expelled.

DR. KELIHER: So what?

Boy: And this talk did him more good than if he had been hit.

DR. KELIHER: I should not have interrupted you. I have not heard that point before, and it is so important.

GIRL: Being expelled did not mean anything to him, he knew his father could get him into another school, and he had no respect for him.

DR. KELIHER: What meaning did this situation have to this kid that being expelled from school didn't have?

Boy: Well, the first thing, he had been given a great deal of money by his father, and applying it to the situation at school, the reason he was expelled was because he wanted to get into one of the fraternities, he was not voted in, so he tried to bribe his way and, naturally, he was expelled. He had no scruples, he just wanted to get his own way in any way he could,

so naturally he did the same thing on the fishing schooner. He didn't know any better, he had been acting that way all his life.

DR. KELIHER: On this question of what this experience meant to him and what in this experience had the most meaning in his relationship to Manuel.

Boy: What experience? You mean the experience of being expelled from school?

DR. KELIHER: No, his experience with Manuel.

Boy: Everything we learn, we learn by our contact with other people. When you go to school, you meet people, learn their ideas, get contact, grow up and learn how to think. When he went to school, he never was friendly with anyone; you could see that in his relations at school. On the schooner, first he objected to having to do any work, then he objected to staying on the schooner; finally, he began to see everyone was doing his share and was honest and capable of doing his work. He began to see, when other people did that, he felt he had to do it, too. He learned by relationship, by contact with these people.

You don't do something unless you see someone else do it, there are very few new ideas in this world, therefore, his contact with these people changed his point of view. He was closer to Manuel, because Manuel saved him, but I think if any one of the crew had refused to talk to him because he was dishonest, he would have done the same thing, he would have confessed.

Boy: I think this boy's trouble was the fact that he really never had a true friend, that is, he never had someone who would stand by him, someone whose friendship he did not have to purchase, and when he was shown someone who would stand up for him, he had a different kind of feeling toward him, something he had never experienced before. When he saw this, that people could act that way, I believe his true colors showed up.

DR. KELIHER: What do you say to the other gentleman's point that he would have behaved the same way toward anyone else on the boat?

Boy: I believe if anyone had acted that kindly and taken the same attitude, he would have acted the same way. If, any time in his life, anybody had guided him out of something and shown him the right light, he would have shown that attitude.

DR. KELIHER: What was there about Manuel that affected the youngster, had meaning for the youngster?

Boy: I would say that the boy had always wanted to be a regular fellow, he wanted to get into the fraternity, he wanted the fellows to come up and pat him on the back. Manuel did just that to him; Manuel came

up to him and he was just friendly to him, he treated him like his brother. That is what I mean. I think that is the attitude that Manuel showed.

Boy: This brings up a very relevant point in to-day's problems. Every time you read a paper, you find a column—take Angelo Patri's column on "Relations between parents and children," that brings up the point that Harvey really did need a friend, and he didn't find one where he should have looked the first place, where he should have expected it primarily, that is his home. His father made no attempt to understand him, he was engrossed in money matters, and he acquired a pampered attitude or veneer which was ripped off only when he failed in school, after his school teacher, you might say, had failed to rip off this veneer and reveal his true character, because of lack of understanding of his true character. It was only when he came into contact with an understanding person like Manuel that his true character was revealed.

It seems to me people like Manuel are very singular and very scarce in the world, and this picture should carry a moral lesson to parents, if they expect their children to grow up to be upright citizens, they should understand them and associate with them more than most parents would do.

DR. KELIHER: Would you be willing to generalize on some of the qualities in adults that you feel go best to help youngsters formulate a good life? That is a big question; you may not feel you want to take it now.

Boy: The one thing that I learned from this is the attitude the adult should have. Most adults, when they are teaching, they say: "Do as I say, but don't do as I do." (Laughter) Manuel had set an example to this young, spoiled child, and he had given him the one example that he needed, the example of scruples, of honesty in his dealings, and consideration of other people. Prior to this, this boy had thought only of himself and the way in which he himself and those closest to him could benefit, mostly he himself. But Manuel thought of others. He wanted to win, of course, but he wanted to do it fairly and squarely, and by turning back and taking the boy out of the dory when he revealed the fact that he had cheated, I think that attitude should be had more by adults at the time.

Boy: I think the best quality a parent can have is sympathy and understanding. Manuel surely was sympathetic and understanding. A boy wants to be understood. He goes to his father and his father says: "Tell it to your mother." He goes to his mother and she says: "Tell it to your father." Nobody understands him, they don't want to be bothered. That was the trouble with this boy, his father was not sympathetic. Manuel was the only one who understood and sympathized with him.

DR. KELIHER: Would you be willing to say that most of the young men and young women you know want that relationship with their parents, they want to be understood and want to talk with them?

Boy: Yes.

DR. KELIHER: What about that element of fear that you talked of, does that enter this picture?

Boy: Most children might be afraid of their parents because they dictate to them and don't consider themselves equal to them. If they don't do something, they get scared of it. If most adults would think about themselves when they were youths and consider that point and consider themselves more on an equal basis, there wouldn't be much fear.

Boy: What I have to say is this, I have a different point of view. Everybody here has been saying what a humanitarian Manuel was and how much he displayed his good moral background, but I would like to say this: Place yourself in Long Jack's place, suppose somebody had done something to you, what would be your reaction? Would you want to spank the child or punish him in some way, or would you be willing to take it that way and say: "Maybe this will teach him a lesson and he will learn something from it"? Suppose he had been on Long Jack's side and he had done this to Manuel, do you think Manuel's reaction would have been the same?

Boy: I think it depends on the attitude first taken toward the child. In the beginning, he figured the boy was bringing bad luck to the boat, he didn't like him at all, he called him "Jonah," but Manuel was understanding and sympathetic to him, and Long Jack, since he had no feeling for the boy, his natural impulse, after the boy did something wrong to him, was to give him what he thought he deserved. But Manuel had a personal feeling for the boy and liked him very much, and I think Manuel's type, if the boy had done that to him, would have talked to him and made him feel ashamed of himself.

DR. KELIHER: What does that lead us into? You say "Manuel's type" and "Long Jack's type," what do you mean by "types"?

Boy: Adults are the same as children, especially in their attitude toward someone. As I say, Long Jack didn't like the child from the beginning and didn't make any attempt to understand him, while Manuel was sympathetic and I think understood people.

Boy: Getting back to the idea of punishment, in the first place we were talking about Long Jack striking the little kid, to give him a lesson and maybe he will do better next time. Long Jack didn't have that idea in mind at all. He had the idea of striking the kid to get revenge on him,



not to punish him for anything. But Manuel might have understood this and might have thought what he had in mind was better. Then, too, Manuel did not seem a very educated fellow, he might not have been able to figure these things out, and he might have done that out of consequence, he might not have thought that out.

Boy: In my opinion, all of us have been talking about one person doing this and one doing that, to punish or reprimand a child. I believe the child has to have it in him, to a certain extent. You can talk to some children as much as you want, take them aside and speak to them, you can punish them, but some children are weak minded and can't be brought over to that way of thinking.

GIRL: One of the boys mentioned before something about a wrong attitude and another said he did not think Long Jack was incorrect in the way he treated the boy. I think in his first reaction, he was correct. All of us are egotists and we don't like to be hurt in any way, when it hurts us. Long Jack was an egotist in the extreme and didn't care about anybody but himself. His first reaction was quite natural. If we will think of some of our reactions in the past, we may not admire now the way we reacted. After the boy apologized, he showed he was a scoundrel because he did not forgive him, he was not affected by the apology. It showed the boy was very much humbled, because he was not used to apologizing to anyone.

GIRL: We were speaking a few minutes ago about how children like to be treated by elders. I was thinking of the captain of the boat. While we like to have our parents understand us, we like to be on the same level and we like to figure out our problems. He asked the captain what he should do and he told him that was his problem and he and Manuel would have to fix it up between themselves, and I think that is the attitude parents should take.

DR. KELIHER: Did you identify the captain with anybody you encounter in your school experience? (Answers: "Yes") Who?

Boy: Some member of the faculty who acts as an advisor to the students, either the boys' advisor or girls' advisor. I think they have them in all high schools.

Boy: Maybe the school principal.

DR. KELIHER: What about the school principal; would you want him to behave as the captain behaved? Suppose you got into a squabble with the teacher, how would you want the principal to treat it?

Boy: The principal should take a mutual attitude. Now, I don't say that the pupil is always right, nor is the teacher always right, they both have their faults and they both have different ideas, so if their ideas happen

to mix or cross, it is the duty of the principal to not only—he does not have to punish the child all the time, but he should sometimes correct the teacher, as far as that goes. (Laughter)

I think if the child has the right attitude and he did it unthoughtfully or did it by mistake, but the teacher just “flew off the handle” by mistake, so the principal should have a mutual attitude and find the real cause. It is just as much one person’s fault as the other’s.

Boy: I say many teachers know they are supreme in the classroom and feel so, and they do not conduct high schools on a democratic basis. For instance, some teachers would consider you wrong because you have done something they don’t like, whether you are in the wrong or not. Of course, I admit—I don’t admit, I know—I know they have to have discipline, but I believe the teacher should look at a problem with an open mind. I don’t believe he should judge you because you have done something he doesn’t like, whether it is wrong or not.

DR. KELIHER: Which do you find the most powerful motivation: To do the thing that is important to a teacher who would behave pretty much the way Manuel did, or a teacher who would behave somewhat like Long Jack? For which would you work the hardest?

Boy: I would work much harder for the teacher like Manuel, I would admire him more.

DR. KELIHER: I know, Mr. Reed, we are taking a lot of time. It is always a great temptation when you get a grand group of young men and young women to go on. I have not attempted to pull this to any conclusions, I think it would be highly premature. I don’t know what these young men and young women think about these issues. I wish I could have them for a semester or two or a year or two years, we would go on and find out what motivates behavior; we could find more about the basis of affection versus fear; we could find out what these boys’ values are, what Manuel was trying to do about changing the values, whether you can change them better by beating them up or helping them along, giving them guidance.

I would like to raise one question and ask them to talk to it for a moment. I would like to ask whether they think it is too far fetched to discuss this in its relation to the effect or connection with democracy. Do you see any connection there?

Boy: I would say, limiting democracy in a school itself, I feel—and I am speaking from experience—that if the teachers and the school officials would let the students iron out their own problems, organize their own punishing authorities, and so forth, that all this petty argument and such things would disappear. I know in one school where this has been tried,



within four weeks of this trying, all the punishments and all arguments disappeared altogether, entirely.

DR. KELIHER: You felt the students developed a sense of responsibility about it. Do you see other relationships to democracy in the large?

GIRL: I think it could be applied to modern conditions, and Long Jack's "spare the rod and spoil the child" type of dictator, while Manuel being the type or representing the government that we have to-day, of allowing people to think out things that they want, not forcing them to do anything, but putting something powerful that will give us something to think about, while Long Jack was the type that put a gun between your shoulders and said, "March! Or else!"

DR. KELIHER: I think if we had time—you may think that is a dangerously broad generalization—, but if we had time, we would orient our ideas into this large social framework, we might look at "Black Legion," which shows what we have done with some of our foreigners; if our trend were toward a study of democracy, we might look at "Fury" or any number of materials of that kind. Or we might not use "movies" at all for our discussion, we might build definitely from study materials. But I can't help but think—I want Miss Amens please to stand, because she is the sponsor of these young men and young women, she is their social studies teacher. (Applause) She is apparently the Manuel type.

This is the kind of exciting experience I have all over the country, in finding young men and women with this capacity not only to think in terms of the things we have given them ordinarily with which to think, but in a realm in which we ordinarily do not give them the materials with which to think. Maybe that is why they do it so well—I don't know. (Laughter)

But anyway, these films now are available; if anyone is interested, write to the Commission on Human Relations at Rockefeller Center, we can send date logs of the material, we have built study materials to go with them. Where the films have been based on things that happen in American life, we have documented them, have the newspaper clippings. We have done everything we could to find the validity and give the student materials to go with this type of stuff. Basically, however, this kind of progressive education is built on our firm belief in, and respect for, the young men and women in our high schools, and I think if we have that, we can solve all our problems mutually. (Applause)

I have been asked by someone to ask this group how many times they remember a teacher saying they were wrong. How many of you remember a time when your teacher said that?

MEMBER: The reason I asked that question is that only once in all my experience in going to school did a teacher ever come into a room and say:

"I am sorry. That was my mistake, not the pupil's." I wonder if they can recall instances. (About four hands raised)

CHAIRMAN REED: We have had a number of ideas presented to us this afternoon; none of them, of course, are revolutionary, all of them have been tried and are being used. They have relative values. We have asked a man who has been very active indeed in our Association, to appraise the presentations of this afternoon from the standpoint of sound educational theory. I know of no man who is better prepared. It is my pleasure now to present Dr. Francis T. Spaulding, Dean of the School of Education of Harvard University. Dr. Spaulding. (Applause)

#### "AN APPRAISAL"

An appraisal of the program was presented by Francis T. Spaulding of Harvard University.

DR. FRANCIS T. SPAULDING: I thought when I first saw the outline of this afternoon's program that it had been very clearly and logically arranged. My present impression is that the program got almost completely out of hand, because this appraisal that I was to make has been made better than I can make it, by the young people who were up here.

I would like to summarize, from a somewhat different and outside point of view, certain matters which occurred to me *as I listened* to the paper which gave us the initial view of *this whole business and Miss Keliher's demonstration*. I should like to say in terms of this appraisal that the whole of the program seems to me one which may well deserve our careful analysis and careful thought. I can go on and particularize in regard to it.

I should like to talk first briefly about the more systematic presentation of a point of view which Mr. Wegner gave us at the beginning. What Mr. Wegner said divided itself, as I have tried to analyze it, into two phases. He talked, first of all, about the aims which it would seem to him that a program of rational education would seek with respect to his aims as he stated them. I think very few of us would be in disagreement at all.

He spoke of the desirability of a program of education out of which would come boys and girls who could read and write and use arithmetic, who had good work habits, who were prepared to earn wages for themselves, who are prepared for citizenship and social relationships. He went on to discuss certain of the means by which he proposed in his school to attain those aims.

It is with respect to those means, I think, that we may want to ponder more directly and more in detail than perhaps with respect to his aims, because we may be variously impressed by the value of the means that he suggested. Some of what he had to say about means would raise a question in my mind.

I do not believe, for example, that the aim that he expressed of having pupils prepared to stand on their own feet, economically, outside of school is going to be very well fulfilled if we live up to his statement that the high school is not the place to give specific preparation for a vocation. If we live up to what he seemed to imply, that the vocational education that the school should afford means typewriting, craft work, machine work, home economics, among which pupils may choose and in which they will have a variety of experience, I think we should want to ponder that point.

Miss Keliher gave us another illustration of means by which to achieve some of these understandings of personal relationships about which Mr. Wegner had spoken. I would like to raise also, with respect to Miss Keliher's demonstration, a question that bothers me a little bit in the sense that I am not sure that I see the answer as to whether what she got with these young people was in the course of this demonstration she gave us an actual maturing in experience and growth in learning, or simply an exposure of ideas that those young people already had which they took pleasure in exposing, and which certainly were, from our standpoint, highly illuminating and educating. I raise that as a question rather than making the statement, because to tell the truth, I am not sure, and I hope Miss Keliher will be willing to say what will follow beyond this demonstration she gave us, if she had a chance to make it not just a snapshot of a group taken suddenly, but rather the beginning of a continuing program.

I raise those questions as questions about which I, myself, would want to think. But I should like to point out that in spite of those questions, there are certain matters illustrated by what has been discussed and exemplified here this afternoon, which we may very well take to heart.

The first thing that impressed me, both about Mr. Wegner's discussion of what a program should be like and about the demonstration that we have had here of one of the means for achieving the goals of that program, the first thing that impressed me strongly about those two is that they have laid tremendous emphasis upon our considering what it is that we want to get out of our program, and then moving as straightforwardly in the direction of getting that thing as we can possibly devise means for doing.

May I illustrate what that means in a different sense. Too often, we tend to assume that honesty, that an understanding of human relationships, that workmanship, that habits of various sorts will follow automatically from the conscientious study of the usual school subjects. I do not think that what we know about transfer of training will allow us to conclude any such thing. I think what we know about transfer of training will force us to the conclusion that if we want to get an understanding of human relationship, we must teach straight for the understanding of

human relationships that we want to get. That if we want to get the kind of citizenship activities in other directions that Mr. Wegner spoke of, we must teach straight for that, and in the means that have been discussed and presented here this afternoon, I think we can see examples of this direct and straight-forward teaching that I have in mind.

I see in what has been discussed here — I am still talking about means — a certain further point that we ought to recognize. Some twenty years back — I am talking now about this Association —, this Association was very much concerned with the junior high school as a reorganization in American education. The junior high school proceeded under various influences to become more and more widely established throughout the country until about 1930 there was a stock-taking of what had been accomplished and why the junior high school had, and it had, produced certain gains in American education.

The junior high school produced those gains, according to the conclusions from the National Survey of Secondary Education, it produced those gains in very considerable measure because it represented a new attack upon problems of education at that particular level, not because it was a three-year school, not because it had a particular kind of organization, not because it followed this or that or the other special pattern, but because it represented a break with tradition, which allowed the people in charge of that school to begin again, in a sense, to think anew about what they would do about these especial problems.

What we have discussed and exemplified here, this afternoon, it seems to me, represents another kind of break with tradition, which may be just as valuable for that same purpose, not that in itself it represents the way out, but it does illustrate a new attack upon problems to which we have in many cases become blinded through our following a more academic, more set curriculum.

Then there is a third thing I would emphasize about these means that have been discussed, that is running through the whole discussion and whole demonstration we have had this afternoon, has been a concern for individual boys and girls, that seems to me to be of paramount significance.

I could talk about that concern for individual boys and girls in terms of what it means, in terms of our democratic nation. But I speak from another point of view: In recent years, we have had an attack on the school, an attack which has taken the form of hamstringing the schools, through cutting away their financial support, which has been represented by what seemed to be a loss of confidence in the school on the part of the public. I am convinced that that attack has taken place because the schools have not been able, for various reasons, to demonstrate to the

people who have supported them that they are concerned with individual boys and girls, not with putting through great masses of young people, but with doing what needs to be done for this boy and that and for this girl and that.

Now, in this discussion that we have had this afternoon, that concern has been paramount, and I would commend it as especially worthy of attention, because it seems to me that out of it, if at all, out of a type of concern for the individual, which shall make it clear that our schools, individually and collectively, are there to help individual young people, out of that kind of concern, if anywhere, we are going to get a renewed confidence in the school, and renewed support for the schools, that we need.

Those are the main points I would make, the positive points about these methods, that they do exemplify a direct attack to which we can very well give attention, that they represent a new approach to problems which may be brought nearer to solution because of that approach, and they do emphasize this individual concern.

What we have had said to us and demonstrated to us represents in a sense only a fragment of what has been going on in this country in the last few years under various names, but in part under the name of progressive education. Just as these things that we have been told about are worth our attention, so I think it is fair to say that there are in other phases of progressive education other things that are worth our attention.

We may not find in what some of the progressive schools have been trying to do answers to our particular problems; we may not find answers that we can agree with as effective means toward an end, but the progressive education movement has been a very great service in suggesting to us new means for approaching ends that I think we would agree with, means which in many instances are so provocative that we would do well to look at them and say: "Do we accept this as a desirable thing to do? If not, why is it not good, and what better have we to offer?"

We would do well to impose on ourselves the burden of asking ourselves, in effect, as we compare what we are doing with what some of these progressive schools have been doing, to impose on ourselves a burden of proof that would come from asking ourselves: "Suppose we did not have the traditional curriculum, suppose we were not tied down to a conventional way of doing things, just what would we do to solve this problem?" And out of that question and the suggestions we might get, I have some confidence that we might come to a rejuvenation of the secondary-school program that will be extremely helpful.

## THIRD GENERAL SESSION

Tuesday, February 27, 2:15 p. m.

The third session was held in Assembly Hall 3 of the Municipal Auditorium.

The Chairman was Oscar Granger, First Vice President of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, and Principal of Haverford Township High School, Upper Darby, Pennsylvania, who presented Francis L. Bacon who voiced the sentiment of the Association as follows:

### RESOLUTION ON M. R. McDANIEL

At the request of the Executive Committee, Mr. Francis L. Bacon presented the following resolution:

That this Association record its keen realization of the great loss sustained in the passing of Principal M. R. McDaniel.

Mr. McDaniel was a member of the original group which met in Chicago in 1916 and founded the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. From the first and extending throughout his life he was eminently active in all of the major affairs of this Association.

In 1927 Mr. McDaniel became president of the Association and was a member of the special committee which consummated the amalgamation of this Association with the then existing Department of Secondary Education of the N.E.A.

In 1933 Mr. McDaniel followed Dr. Ryneerson, thus becoming the second president of the National Council of the National Honor Society, a position which he filled in distinguished manner up to the time of his sudden death this October past.

Able, efficient, thorough, hardworking, he left no task or obligation to the vagaries of chance. Although a master of detail, his vision was never obscured by daily routine but ever penetrated to the hills beyond. His courtesy and patience knew no bounds, and his courage and faith carried no limitations.

In the twenty-two years of his service, the Oak Park and River Forest Township High School became known throughout America as a truly great school.

It seems peculiarly fitting that at a meeting of this Association, for which he served so long and for which he did so much, we should pause to do honor to his memory.



The resolution was adopted in regular form with the instruction that the Secretary send a copy to Mrs. McDaniel.

Then the Chairman presented Charles H. Judd, Educational Consultant of the National Youth Administration, Washington, D. C., who read his address.

## CHANGES IN SECONDARY EDUCATION NECESSARY FOR THE SOLUTION OF THE PROBLEMS OF YOUTH

CHARLES H. JUDD

Principals and teachers of secondary schools have become acutely aware of the fact that there are enrolled in the classes of their schools many pupils who are resistant to the instruction which they are receiving. While the schools emphasize English composition, algebra, geometry, and foreign languages as essential, the resistant pupils are either unable or unwilling to master these subjects. Certain terms are used in the literature of education to describe the situation. It is pointed out that there are in the schools many unadjusted pupils. These pupils are described as slow learners, as "non-academic," or as entirely unsuited to advanced education. The time was when pupils who did not readily fit into the program of the secondary schools could be disposed of by being advised to go to work or by being forcibly ejected. To-day it is generally known that employment opportunities are difficult to find and teachers are reluctant to refuse pupils the opportunity to remain in school. Not only so, but compulsory attendance laws have been enacted in most of the States which require young people to continue in attendance at school well beyond the age of admission to secondary schools. Evidently some provision has to be made in schools for non-academic pupils. For better or for worse the schools have to get on with them.

Some years ago a device was adopted which was thought of in many quarters as a solution of the problem of the unadjusted pupil. Vocational courses were organized in many of the secondary schools and pupils who had no liking or ability for the traditional courses were assigned to vocational classes. The experience of twenty years has made it clear that the vocational instruction program is by no means the solution of the problem of the unadjusted pupil that it was expected to be. The vocational program as it has actually been developed has proved to be quite as special in its way as the traditional academic program is special in its way. If high-grade skill in a particular trade is to be acquired, it requires superior ability on the part of the learner and protracted training. Unit-trade courses, accordingly, are no more hospitable to slow learners than are the traditional academic courses.



The fact is that the appearance in secondary schools of a large number of unadjusted pupils is a social phenomenon rather than an educational phenomenon in the narrow interpretation of the word "educational." The evolution of the American social order has made the secondary schools responsible for young people in ways that were never contemplated when these schools were first organized. In earlier times education was a minor phase of the life of an adolescent. The family to which he belonged helped him to get a start in his independent career by giving him financial backing and by using its influence in the community to find him occupational opportunities. Private industry was looking for recruits and was constantly offering openings, often attractive openings, that enticed young people away from school. There was active competition in the world for workers. During this earlier era secondary schools could very properly limit their efforts to highly specialized functions. These schools made no pretense to being anything except training agencies for small groups of highly selected pupils.

To-day many families are quite unable to give their children any effective assistance in starting their careers. Private industry is unable to employ all who want jobs. The schools are the only publicly supported institutions that are open to all young people. There has been an enormous expansion of the pupil population of the upper grades of the elementary schools and of the secondary schools. This expansion is not an expression of enthusiasm on the part of young people for education so much as it is an acceptance of the one readily accessible opportunity available in an industrial civilization which has shut most of the doors that young people would like to enter. The schools find themselves under the conditions that have arisen substituting for the family and for private industry in the care of young people.

The new responsibilities that have been forced on the schools have come with great suddenness and in overwhelming volume. There has been little time or energy for the internal readjustments that should have been made and are now seen to be necessary. Among the reasons why readjustments have not been made a number are readily cited. Teachers persist in giving courses in the subjects which they themselves studied in secondary school and college. Principals are compelled to devote their efforts to the multitudinous administrative duties that are entailed by a steadily increasing pupil population. The general public, unaware of the changes in the structure of modern society, has been slow to provide the schools with the facilities for the development of a new program of instruction. Frequently the general public has actually prevented secondary schools from departing from tradition. It has insisted that oncoming generations be taught the same subjects that were taught to older generations and that the methods and objectives of the schools be as nearly static as it is possible to keep them.

The unadjusted pupil is a warning symptom calling attention to the necessity of doing something to fit the secondary schools to the new role which has been forced on them by social evolution. The fact is that the urgency of the situation is much greater than the symptom makes evident. There are many pupils in secondary schools who conform to the demands of the traditional program and thus escape being classified as non-academic or unfit for advanced education when, in reality, they are ill served by the instruction which is given them.

It is fair to say that more than eighty per cent of the graduates of American secondary schools expect, when they leave school, to secure white-collar jobs. The curriculum which they have followed and the outlook on life which has been cultivated in them by the traditions of education point toward the professions or toward callings directly related to the professions. It is only after experience with the discouragements of unemployment that these graduates discover that the number of professional positions in the world is far too limited to furnish openings for all graduates of secondary schools. The majority of the people of the United States to-day are working in jobs that are very different from those that the graduates of secondary schools hope to enter. The future will quite certainly supply opportunities for most individuals only in semiskilled occupations. If the schools are to serve the purpose of preparing the oncoming generation in a realistic way for duties that lie before its members and for success and satisfaction in productive labor there must be a change which will take into account both the unadjusted pupils and many others for whom a new type of instruction is required.

The remainder of this paper is devoted to the suggestion of modifications of the curriculum of the secondary schools which it is believed would, if adopted, do much to provide for the adjustment of this curriculum to the real needs of pupils. It is clearly recognized in advance that the program here advocated can hardly hope to secure the approval of all intelligent students of American education. Even if the proposals made are rejected altogether they may perhaps serve the useful purpose of stimulating others to suggest ways of dealing with current problems. Out of the discussion thus aroused, solutions of an acceptable type may emerge.

The first proposal to be made is that the secondary schools continue and expand the instruction given in the elementary schools in reading. It is now commonly assumed that the elementary schools have given all the instruction necessary in reading. The fact is that a great many pupils in the secondary schools are so incompetent in reading that they are confused by the assignments that are imposed on them. Pupils fail every day and are recorded by their teachers as incompetent in history, science, literature, and other subjects when the fact is that they are incompetent in reading.

Teachers note the superficial fact that knowledge in subject-matter is lacking but fail to recognize the fundamental fact that pupils cannot read. The scientific tests of reading which have been made in recent years furnish abundant evidence of the truth of the statements that are here made.

The schools are doubly guilty in their failure to improve the reading of secondary-school pupils. They not only omit instruction in this all-important field but they employ materials and methods of instruction which actually prevent pupils from cultivating the intellectual independence that competent reading would give them. If pupils were able to read well and were given access to informing materials which appealed to their interests there would be no necessity of the kind of driving and threatening that is now typical of most recitations in secondary-school classes. The two new aspects of instructions here suggested should be carefully noted. The reading material offered to pupils should be interesting and appealing to their personal interests. The ordinary textbook is neither. It is a compact, highly condensed epitome of a subject that might be interesting to some of the pupils if its illuminating incidents had not been entirely omitted. Good instruction in reading requires recognition of the principle that one reads best in those fields in which one has personal interest. Under present conditions all members of a class are required to read the same passages and to sit through dreary class exercises in the course of which members of the group repeat, after vigorous prodding by the teacher, fragments of what everyone is supposed to have more or less completely memorized. If a course in free literary reading could be organized in every secondary school under a competent teacher a revolution would take place in the intellectual lives of young people.

The demand that this course be directed by a competent teacher is not to be overlooked. The teacher here called for is one who understands what recent investigations have revealed with regard to the reading process. Skill in reading is a high mental achievement. Reading is not puzzling over a printed sentence. Reading is not trying to imagine what questions a teacher may possibly ask about a passage. Reading is not learning a passage by heart with the expectation of forgetting it as soon as the limited emergency of the recitation or examination is past. Reading is not oral pronunciation of words. Reading is interpretation. The teacher who can lead a group of adolescents to overcome the bad habits that are often cultivated by individuals in their efforts to deal with the printed page will change the whole course of the education of these young people. Many a pupil who is classified as unfit for an advanced education will turn out to be a competent, intelligent, independent learner. Many a pupil of small ability will find in some of the simpler reading materials that he discovers and masters both satisfaction that will transform the daily tasks which he must perform as a breadwinner, and illuminating information which will

contribute in untold measure to his effectiveness as a citizen and householder.

Some years ago an experimental school in a university decided to do something for the neighboring public schools. It gathered a group of problem boys from these schools and, on the theory that they were hand-minded, offered them the opportunity to work in well-equipped shops. The boys continued in the shops to be problem boys until an astute teacher who had been put in charge of them discovered that the real trouble was that they could not read and were full of rebellion against any institution which was typically a reading institution. They were dissatisfied also with the modern world in which success is so largely conditioned by ability to get ideas through reading. Their feeling of non-belongingness led them to smash everything in the abhorred environment. A little understanding of psychology made their attitude wholly intelligible. A remedial course in reading tamed most of them in an astonishingly short time.

By way of summary of this first suggestion, it may be said that a course in interesting reading appropriate to the personal interests of the pupils is recommended to occupy as much time in the secondary-school curriculum as is necessary to make the pupils independent readers. What is needed to equip this course is a library with books on exploration, mechanics, and social problems, and a teacher who has made a study of what is known to educational psychology about the reading process.

The second suggestion is that a course in mathematics be organized which is not arithmetic, algebra, or demonstrative geometry but a well-arranged combination of these subjects. If this course may be described in terms that contrast it with present-day secondary-school mathematics, one may say that it deals with the principles of mathematics that apply to ordinary life rather than with professional mathematics. It will include enough constructive geometry to appeal to the visual interests in space forms with which all normal people are born. It will use liberally statistical charts of the kind now commonly seen in every newspaper. It will teach that whatever is done with one side of an equation must be done with the other side if the equation is to remain true. It will make clear the fact that an unknown quantity can be mathematically manipulated in many of the ways that a known quantity can be manipulated. In short, this course will be at one and the same time a simple exploration of mathematical principles, an analysis of space, a review of arithmetic, and a preparation for precise thinking.

There was a colony of Greeks who settled in southern Italy long centuries ago. They labored in vineyards and prospered. They spent the time when they were not engaged in toil in mathematical speculations. Their

leader, Pythagoras, discovered and demonstrated many interesting geometrical truths, among them, the truth about the relation of the sides of right-angle triangles to one another. He and his followers also made discoveries about number relations. They interested themselves in odd numbers and even, and in prime numbers. It is certainly not to be believed that this Greek colony required compulsion to carry on its thinking. As one looks back, one is forced to conclude that something has been lost between ancient times and the present—something that might be brought into being again if mathematics teachers were enthusiastic leaders rather than task masters.

The two suggestions that have been made about teaching reading and making mathematics interesting are not very revolutionary because it is conceivable that the new courses could be justified without breaking entirely with tradition. The third suggestion is not so easy to fit into the existing pattern although it may possibly be bootlegged in as a course in history. But quite simply, this third suggestion is that someone prepare a course on inventions. The course here suggested is recommended not merely because of the informative value of its contents but also because of its relation to pupil morale. The American people are the most inventive people in the world, but curiously enough they have never reported this fact to their young people. Young people get a picture of civilization as a kind of accidental outcome of processes that push one another along in the march of time. The idea that it is entirely possible for even an ordinary person to develop new ideas and devise new contrivances does not loom large in the schools. The fact is, of course, that a great many people who were in their day non-academic have by thinking, experimenting, and inventing put the world greatly in their debt.

An anthropologist commenting on the age when men invented the bow and arrow and the later age when they invented the alphabet said he regretted that he lived at a time when the greatest human inventions had apparently been made. "It may be," he said, "that some modern invention will affect human life as vitally as did the bow and arrow or the alphabet, but probably not."

If someone interested in really exciting pupils would prepare not a single paragraph to be buried in a book on the history of wars and rulers but a whole course on inventions, there would be supplied to pupils an intellectual uplift of the first order of importance. One can imagine the interest that would attach to a course which day by day recounted how new forward steps were taken by the human race. A course of this kind might have some difficulty getting a number in the program of an orthodox department of history or getting recognition on the certificate of admission to a liberal-arts college, but it would serve a real educational purpose.

The idea that an interesting course in history might be prepared to replace political and dynastic courses which are uninteresting to non-academic pupils and to many others also leads to a closely related line of thinking. It is generally recognized that in spite of the fact that young people are growing up in a scientific age they commonly find courses in secondary-school science lacking in inspiration. The fact is that much of the science which is rehearsed in secondary-school recitations is so encyclopedic in its form of presentation and so impersonally factual in its content that pupils have a hard time remembering what they are supposed to learn long enough to reproduce it on examination. Why do teachers of science leave out of their teaching the incidents that might be drawn from the history of scientific discoveries? The answer to this question is that it is conceived to be necessary to cover a great deal of ground and to hold rigidly to the logic of the mature sciences. All mature sciences had to go through the process of maturing. Bit by bit chemistry and biology have grown through the efforts of explorers who spent much time in fruitless wandering before they made the discoveries now recorded in textbooks. Science in the making is more likely to be understood by young minds than science in its finished form. Some teacher working under the friendly guidance of a principal who knows that he has a problem in his non-academic pupils should be induced to develop a course in biology which tells in detail how some of the discoveries in this field were made. The number of scientific conclusions reported in such a course will undoubtedly be fewer than those now rapidly canvassed in courses in biology, but each fact will be given its background of scientific method and its relation to human effort. It is suggested that this new kind of instruction in science begin in biology, because physics and chemistry are so well established that they are not likely to be represented by teachers who are tolerant of non-academic pupils and of immature science.

Four suggestions have been offered, all of which if accepted would make the first year of secondary schooling interesting if not highly academic. In case a given school system is fortunate enough to have a junior high school and in case the system is free enough from the bonds of tradition to avoid the feeling that it must do just what has always been done with secondary-school pupils, the four courses suggested might be expanded so as to make the junior high-school curriculum interesting throughout.

There can be no blinking the fact that the program here suggested is going to have a hard time establishing itself. The materials for such courses as are here described are not at hand. They will have to be made. Teachers are preoccupied, often satisfied with what they are doing, devoted to academic standards, and loath to make any changes. Publishers will not set authors at work preparing manuscripts on new and strange courses be-



cause publishers are not sure that they will be able to sell new kinds of books to teachers who do not want to change their courses.

In spite of the difficulties in the way of developing new courses there are evidences of progress. A promising new course which will in the near future undoubtedly find its way into the secondary-school curriculums of many States is a course in conservation—conservation of physical and human resources. Arkansas has a law requiring schools to teach such a course. A joint commission of the Progressive Education Association and the National Education Association is at work on instructional material on what it calls "regional planning." The term "regional planning" is borrowed from a movement that is well under way in many parts of the country and in the Federal Government. A number of the States have what are known as State planning boards. The Federal Government has a National Resources Planning Board. These boards make a study of land and its uses, of water, forests, and mineral resources. Some planning boards have gone beyond the study of physical resources and have investigated population, health resources, and the equipment provided in institutions of learning for the conduct of scientific investigations. In some sections of the country several of the State planning boards have pooled their staffs and their interests and are operating on a regional basis. The Progressive Education Association and the National Education Association are organizing for the coming summer two centers, one in the State of Washington and one in North Carolina, where a number of teachers and research workers will come together and prepare materials of instruction on conservation and planning. These materials will supplement the courses given in elementary schools in geography and will inject into secondary schools new practical courses which will prepare the next generation to avoid the destruction and waste of natural and human resources of which the American people have unfortunately in the past been guilty. There can be no doubt that such instructional materials as are being prepared will be more likely to hold the attention of non-academic pupils than do courses which deal with remote facts that do not appeal to pupils as having any bearing on their lives.

Somewhere in the secondary-school experiences of pupils there is a place for instruction on a whole series of personal problems. Young people of secondary-school age are slowly finding their way into adult life. They are becoming aware, as they could not earlier, of problems that must be solved if they are to be successful. How does one get on with other people? How does one manage one's financial affairs? What is the importance of keeping physically fit? What is a proper diet? What rest and recreation does one need? What are the simple facts which psychology can teach without becoming highly technical about ways of study and about keeping one's mental balance? What kind of self-control must one exercise if one



is to keep a job? What kind of contribution should one be prepared to make to family and community life?

Some secondary schools are providing instruction on personal problems by employing a guidance counselor. Some are referring these problems to the home-room teacher. The fact is, however, that instruction with regard to personal problems has never been really seriously considered as a part of the secondary-school curriculum in spite of the crucial importance of giving young people an insight into the intimate and all-important lessons that mature people have learned by hard experience. Education has always dealt with the world that is far removed from personal life. There has been a kind of social taboo against talking about personal interests. Courses on health have been for the most part farces. Courses on manners have been thought of as trivial or impossible.

Here again it must be pointed out that a new course such as that advocated is not an easy course to inaugurate. It will be fatal to assume that such a course can be conducted casually by an amateur teacher. In preparing new courses some kind of coöperative effort and high intelligence are needed. The complex conditions of modern life call for new forms of instruction but it must always be kept in mind that the new conditions are complex.

The General College of the University of Minnesota is offering courses on personal problems and is contributing through its teachings to the development of intelligent young Americans. When one remembers that only a small fraction of the youth population goes to college one realizes that if instruction of the type under consideration here is really to reach the great numbers which it should reach it will have to be offered in secondary schools.

A new course which is not common in secondary schools but which has had a promising tryout in a number of centers is the course in general language. The course in this field has sometimes been regarded as an exploratory course useful because it determines whether pupils have an interest in and a capacity for foreign-language studies. The course sometimes consists of a little Latin, a little German, and a little French. Another type of general-language course aims less at introducing pupils to various languages. It discusses the general history of human speech with explanations of the development of dialects, the nature of inflectional languages, the character of sentences in different kinds of languages, and other topics which belong to the general field known as comparative philology. Such a course seems far more likely to interest the ordinary pupil and far more likely to give him an insight into the nature of his mother tongue than does foreign-language instruction as now conducted. Evidence is abundant that most students suffer from acute dissipation of attention when they

try to understand by a superficial study of Latin such diverse facts as the military strategy of Caesar, the civilization of Rome and of the Gallic tribes, the various declensions and conjugations of Latin words, and the structure of a straightforward Latin sentence, or, what is still worse, the structure of indirect discourse. A general-language course concentrates attention on essential facts and eliminates much that is not relevant to an understanding of the nature of language.

The courses which have been described and advocated up to this point are quite adequate to occupy profitably the time of pupils through the junior high school and the early part of the senior high school. Not only so, but they can be expected to stimulate far more interest than do the ordinary courses now administered in the early stages of secondary education. It is a generally recognized fact that one of the chief successes of the early courses of the traditional secondary-school curriculum is the dispatch with which they eliminate an appreciable part of the pupil population. It is solemnly asserted by some of the devotees of algebra, geometry, English composition, and foreign languages that these subjects are the most efficient means of sifting out all those who according to the traditionalists ought never to have entered the secondary school. Non-academic pupils are certainly "mowed down," if one may borrow the phrase, by the requirements of the early courses of the conventional secondary school. The pupils who survive these early courses know, and their teachers know, that there will be less weeding out in the later years, somewhat more of interest in the courses, and quite certainly a reduction in the strenuousness of effort necessary to remain in school. The curriculum which is being recommended in this paper is aimed first of all at the salvaging of non-academic pupils. The hope is, however, earnestly cherished that as soon as teachers and principals begin to cultivate interest in non-academic pupils and discover the superiority of interesting subjects as means of arousing human minds to action they will extend the new curriculum to pupils who now get on well in traditional courses.

It may be pointed out that the program which is advocated in this paper does not call for the abandonment of preprofessional courses for those pupils who are going on to specialized education in higher institutions. Nor does this program conflict with unit-trade training for pupils who are preparing for highly skilled trades. The only conflicts of interests which arise between the various instructional programs are those which result from the fact that in most secondary schools unadjusted pupils, pre-professional pupils and unit-trade pupils are all in attendance and are in an important sense competitors of the school's funds. In times past the preprofessional pupils have had the most attention. Unit-trade pupils have been given some attention in the larger school systems. The plea that is here presented is for recognition of the interests of the great majority of

pupils who are never going to enter the professions or the highly skilled trades but who have a right to a general education. If a program of general education can be organized along the lines here indicated preprofessional courses and unit-trade courses can be added wherever the financial resources of school systems make such additions possible. The balance will indeed be shifted. It is to be noted, however, that the program of general education here advocated cannot only claim the right to recognition because of its own independent value, but it promises much because it will stimulate interest and cultivate habits of independent and productive study in pre-professional and unit-trade pupils as well as in pupils who are now unadjusted.

There are two more innovations which are to be urged as equally important or even more important than those which have been advocated in preceding paragraphs. The first is the introduction of a series of courses in the organization and present characteristics of social institutions. No movement has been more widely accepted in theory or less completely realized in practice than the movement for ample social instruction of secondary-school pupils. The problem that confronts education in this connection is one of meeting a universally felt need.

The organization of the proper agencies to prepare instructional materials in the social studies is the critical problem. This is, however, a problem which has to be solved in dealing with all the new courses that have been discussed in this paper. The attempt will not be made at this time to outline in detail the contents of courses in the social studies. The limited purpose of this paper is to make a case, if it can be done, by concrete examples for the development of new desirable courses. There is no necessity for any lengthy argument in favor of courses in the social studies.

The final innovation which it is the purpose of this paper to urge is one on which there is unlikely to be such agreement as there is with respect to the desirability of courses in the social studies. School officials have not ordinarily felt called on to give attention to the fact that pupils, especially non-academic pupils, are eager to acquire something that the school has never provided, namely, economic adjustment. Adolescents are in process of leaving behind dependent childhood. They are about to become adults. They want to be independent and self-supporting. They look to the future, while much of the instruction offered in the schools looks toward the past. Sooner or later educators will do well to realize that for adolescents life means transition into adulthood. They will do well to realize also that adulthood is a physical, intellectual, social, and economic state. The school has attended to certain aspects of the transition from adolescence to adulthood but not to all.

In recent times the problem of youth has been brought acutely to the

attention of thinking Americans because economic adjustment of young people has become increasingly difficult.

The schools can explain this disregard of economic adjustment and can take the position that it is the responsibility of some other agency to attend to the adjustment of young people; or they can take a hand in a new and vigorous coöperative program which aims to induct young people into a successful economic and social adulthood. Fortunately, the schools have in the Federal Government a strong ally if they decide to participate in developing a new program of economic adjustment of young people. The Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Administration are agencies of partial economic adjustment. They do more than merely provide work; they pay wages; they restore morale; they demonstrate to young people that the public is greatly concerned in giving them a footing in the modern world. They satisfy the eager desire of individuals for opportunity to become contributing members of productive society.

The question before the educational systems of the country is clear and capable of simple statement. Will the schools recognize what the Federal Government has done and will they consider seriously the relation of work to the development of young people? Some steps, it is true, have been taken in educational institutions in the direction of preparing young people for productive work. Shop courses and courses in agriculture, sewing, and cooking have been organized. The schools have opened these courses with hesitation and often with reluctance. They have never really articulated these courses with the rest of the educational program. They have never taken the next step of consciously and wholeheartedly articulating their courses with actual productive labor. The fact is that very little attention has been given in education to the function of work as a means of promoting the maturing of personalities.

Modern psychology differs from the psychology of earlier times in the emphasis which is laid on behavior as a contributing condition to intelligence. Earlier psychology explained mental life as determined by sensory impressions. Present-day psychology emphasizes the motor processes. Education has never fully worked out the implications of motor psychology. It seems not improbable that the requirements of modern life will force education to adopt a pattern in which work will take an entirely new and highly important place.

The experience which has been accumulated in recent years through the special agencies which have been trying to fit young people into jobs has made it evident that the transition from adolescence into adulthood depends on the cultivation of work habits and personal adaptations that have not been cultivated in schools. It is clear from the experience of the Civilian Conservation Corps and of the National Youth Administration

in dealing with unemployed young people that a new type of training is necessary to prepare many young people for the life into which they must go after leaving school. A schedule of schooling in which manual labor rather than academic subjects has the right of way is clearly indicated as essential for some young people at some stage in their development. It is quite possible, indeed highly probable, that manual labor will be found to be a valuable means of contributing to the preparation of all young people for their mature lives.

How is a work program to be arranged? It is not enough that the schools open shops and kitchens. If work is to play a real part in the preparation of young people for adulthood it will have to be work under conditions that make it truly productive. Society will have to come to an understanding with private industry or else it will have to give employment on public enterprises to those whom private industry cannot employ. So far as the schools are concerned, the main point is that they must cooperate by making their programs flexible enough to give work the right of way for many of their pupils. If a boy can secure an opportunity to work on a farm or in a factory or other industrial concern half a day each day or three days a week, the school program should be arranged to receive him at hours that make his work program possible. More important than merely receiving him is the duty of giving him suitable instruction when he is received. The courses now administered by secondary schools are in general only partly suited to the needs of those who labor. Some of the courses recommended earlier in this paper might serve very well. Other new courses will have to be arranged.

There is one point which must not be overlooked, tangible economic reward for labor well performed is one of the most important factors in inducing young people into adulthood. Wages as well as opportunities to work are essential. One cannot make a statement of this kind without giving full recognition to the social upheaval that it suggests. What is to be the scale of wages? How are the wages to be administered? How is an industrial system which has as its driving force the profit motive to be induced to participate in the induction of young people into adulthood? How are communities to be led to see the advantages of employing in public works young people not engaged in private industry? How are the labor unions to be brought into sympathy with a work program for young people?

There are no questions with regard to the education of adolescents that call for more serious thought than the questions which arise when one tries to determine the part that work is to play in the maturing of modern youth. Work used to be supplied on the farm for practically all young people. Work was recognized as genuinely productive, as contributing to

the economic welfare of the family and of the individual. It is not necessary to point out how present-day conditions have eliminated work from the lives of most secondary-school pupils. While the schools have enrolled the majority of the youth population of the United States, they have not supplied them with opportunities for productive work such as earlier generations had. Here is a demand for social and economic readjustment which challenges the highest wisdom.

The changes in the secondary-school curriculum which this paper had advocated cannot be developed in a day or in a year. They cannot be undertaken singlehandedly by one school. The only possible way for the secondary school to make radical changes in their programs is to cooperate under the leadership of some such powerful organization as the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. This organization has been debating for some years past what secondary schools ought to do. Is it not time to recognize that the secondary-school program comes into real existence at the point where it deals with pupils? Secondary schools are to-day buried under the accumulated deposits of ages of tradition. There is one and only one way to reform secondary schools—that is to develop a new body of instructional materials and instructional practices. The way to develop instructional materials economically is for each of the eight thousand best-equipped secondary schools in the country to prepare at least one unit of instruction that departs from tradition and includes something that can contribute directly to the induction into adulthood of all pupils—academic and non-academic. The easiest way to try the experiment of making work a part of the plan of training young people for life is for a few of the leading secondary schools to take advantage of the Federal support now given to work programs or to find some way of developing a plan of productive work and compensating wages for pupils in cooperation with the private industries located near them.

If cooperative activities of the type here advocated were inaugurated American secondary education would become in a new sense the agency for inducting into adulthood young people—non-academic and academic; vocational and preprofessional. The United States has to-day a host of young people who are not being inducted in an orderly way into adulthood. Is the responsibility for correcting this situation one that the National Association of Secondary-School Principals is willing to assume?

Will French, Chairman of the Implementation, was introduced, whose report follows:



## POPULAR EDUCATION AT THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL LEVEL

WILL FRENCH

Chairman, Implementation Committee

The Implementation Committee of this Association considers its function to be that of assisting high-school principals and faculties to decide what practices and procedures are likely to produce the greatest improvement in their schools' educational programs. We think an educational program is being improved as it becomes the kind of program expressed and implied by the reports of the Orientation Committee and by those expressing similar views. In general then, as chairman of the Implementation Committee, my chief concern is that the committee helps to facilitate the improvement of secondary education by pointing out to schools which practices and procedures are more and which are least effective.

As many of you know, the Committee upon Implementation of Secondary Education has been centering its attack upon the critical problem of improving the educational opportunity of that large group of youth who are not planning to enter college and who do not have the ability or interest to enter the highly skilled vocations for which existing programs of vocational education largely prepare.<sup>1</sup> Youth-unemployment has had the effect of increasing the number of such youth in school and of prolonging the average stay of each of them over what it was in the predepression period. The senior high school especially is therefore enrolling to-day an enlarged group for which it does not generally offer as definite a program of education as for the youth who are bound either for college or for the skilled trades and industries. The heart of the problem of better provision for these "educationally neglected" youth centers in the question of what is the best educational experience for this large group of youth for whom neither present college education nor present vocational entrance education is proving appropriate.

In addition to this problem there is a related if not identical problem of more extended general and prevocational education in the senior high school for those pupils who intend to enter vocational education courses. Delayed entrance into work by youth coupled with some tendency to decrease the long period of vocational education preceding entrance upon

<sup>1</sup> For the basis for the decision to center effort on this field see: Patrick, Robert B. "Most Pressing Problems of Principals," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, Volume 23, Number 83, May, 1939, p. 4.

Spaulding, Francis T. "Educational Problems Causing Administrators Most Concern During the Past Two Years," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, Volume 23, Number 83, May, 1939, p. 29.

For an illustration of the type of work sponsored by the Implementation Committee, see: Dodds, B. L. *That All May Learn*. *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, Volume 23, Number 85, November, 1939.



work opens up time in the senior high school for a longer period of common integrating education for these youth than has before been available. It is probable that this need for this group of youth and the need for the group referred to in the preceding paragraph can be met largely by a properly developed program of popular education at the senior high school level.

I want now therefore upon my own responsibility, but with the tentative endorsement of the Executive Committee of this Association, to lay before you for the consideration of this Association and its various committees a proposed program and plan of work for the Implementation Committee which seems to be to be required if we measure up as a committee to the task with which we are confronted. I propose the expansion of the work of the Implementation Committee to encompass a program of activity specifically focused upon

- (1) identifying and evaluating existing programs and practices which have been introduced by schools and other youth-serving agencies in an effort to meet this need for popular education, and
- (2) encouraging and assisting schools to develop and evaluate new teaching materials, and instructional and administrative procedures designed to meet this need for popular education better than existing materials and procedures do.

For purposes of this proposed program, popular education at the secondary school level is defined and described as that education which seeks to increase the competence; viz., ability and willingness, of the groups of youth mentioned above,

- (1) to carry socio-civic responsibilities  
Competence in this area implies the ability and willingness to sustain and improve the mutually helpful relations with one's fellow-students (workers,—citizens) which a democracy requires.
- (2) to carry socio-economic responsibilities  
Competence in this area implies the ability and willingness to utilize one's abilities in working with our natural resources and the material aspects of our culture to the end that the high standards of living which democracy seeks for all may be as fully and generally attained as possible.
- (3) to maintain and improve physical and mental health  
This means ability and willingness to seek good physical and mental health and to work individually and with others for the conditions, standards, and habits which promote health for all.
- (4) to engage in recreational activities  
This means ability and willingness to select and participate in wholesome forms of recreation according to one's interests and

tastes and to coöperate with others in efforts to provide the means and facilities through which all may have better recreational opportunities.

It is proposed that the following plans for embarking upon this proposed program be studied, modified, and adopted as modified by the Implementation Committee of this Association.

- (1) That this committee break itself into four sub-committees, each of which under the general direction of the Implementation Committee as a whole will take the responsibility for prosecuting one of the phases of the work implied in the above four-fold statement on popular education. Each of these sub-committees should associate with itself a number of other members of the Association and high-school teachers who are particularly interested and competent in the work assigned to it.
- (2) That each sub-committee proceed under the coördinating direction of the Implementation Committee, of its chairman, and of such research advisers as may be furnished to
  - (a) discover and evaluate *existing* programs and practices, and
  - (b) encourage and assist schools to develop *new* ones. (See [1] and [2], page — above).
- (3) That the *socio-civic sub-committee* (No. 1) first center its work around the discovery and production of effective materials to be used in educating for democratic citizenship and living.
- (4) That the *socio-economic sub-committee* (No. 2) first center its work around the progress and results of the Occupational Adjustment Study now under way under the direction of the Implementation Committee.
- (5) That the *health sub-committee* (No. 3) concern itself at first with the discovery or production of materials for health instruction which are adjusted to the needs, interests, and abilities of this group of youth.
- (6) That the *recreational activities sub-committee* (No. 4) devote itself at first to the discovery, study, and evaluation of school and community recreational programs which have been designed with particular reference to the needs and interests of this group of youth.

In carrying out the above plans as finally modified and approved, it is proposed that these sub-committees encourage broad participation in their work by schools and by individuals; that they use existing agencies and groups both within and without our Association rather than create new ones; that they and the Implementation Committee as a whole offer to coöperate with other appropriate educational organizations especially in-

terested in any of these problems of secondary education; that in the cases where other organizations have projects in these areas on foot, these sub-committees offer to assist and that in no case is there to be a needless duplication in the work of the sub-committees proposed here and that of other existing organizations.

Finally, it is proposed that the Implementation Committee continue its efforts in conjunction with other agencies interested in secondary education to secure adequate funds for the vigorous conduct of this program; that failing in such a joint-effort it should seek support for this program on its own initiative and that the Association should stand ready to contribute substantially both from its capital funds and from its current revenue toward the costs of this proposed program.

I am convinced that the time for positive and forward-looking action in secondary education is at hand. Some organization is going to formulate, popularize, and bring into reality constructive plans for reconstructing secondary education along the general lines laid out by the Orientation Committee. The need is great. Time is precious. I have presented this plan here in the hope of shortening the process of coming to some agreements which will make broad-gauge, effective action possible.

Mr. French then introduced speakers who were granted ten minutes each to report on promising efforts to educate the non-college youth.

## A REPORT ON PROMISING EFFORTS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION IN THE ST. LOUIS AREA

WILLARD E. GOSLIN

Superintendent of Schools, Webster Groves, Missouri

I have been asked to make a brief report on promising efforts to change secondary education which are to be found in the section of the Middle West lying around St. Louis. I have been torn from the beginning between the desire to be optimistic and encouraging on the basis of the few significant efforts which seem to be underway and the inclination to be pessimistic and discouraged by the widespread absence of an experimental attitude on the part of the secondary school people in this section. My loyalty to the section supported by some study of conditions in the nation at large, leads me to say, however, that this portion of the Middle West doesn't seem to be significantly different from other sections of the nation, in the matter of vitalizing the secondary school program, in terms of the needs of the boys and girls involved.

In order to reinforce my own knowledge of the efforts that are being made in this part of the country, I wrote to a dozen or fifteen school men—largely secondary-school men—in this area asking them to outline

for me any significant innovation which they knew of that had been introduced into a secondary school during the past three or four years and which was designed to make school attendance a more dynamic, living experience for the children in that school.

I got some encouraging reports which I shall cite in a few moments. On the other hand, the returns which tended to add to my discouragement far outnumbered the ones carrying constructive outlines of actual projects. For instance, a man who knows secondary education in and around St. Louis perhaps as well as any other person had this to say in reply to my questions: "Your letter strikes in me a feeling of despair and almost hopelessness with regard to the secondary schools, for I know of no 'significant innovation.' I feel I am very well acquainted too, with the schools in this area, but the innovations I know of could be classed largely as administrative tinkering which have no real effect on the quality of education. When you say, too, that the thing you are interested in is that which 'tends to make high-school membership a living, throbbing experience for a child,' I despair still more."

An outstanding high-school teacher in this area, so recognized by his own teaching associates had this to say: "I don't believe that there is a high school in this area which offers experiences that are living, throbbing experiences for children — and that a complete change in our thinking must be made before one comes into existence. I am sorry to be so discouraging but a semester of thinking, questioning, and some investigation convinces me that it is true. Principals and teachers in this area are anxious to keep their feet on the ground. They have succeeded in keeping them there — all the way up to their ankles."

On the other hand, there were favorable reports. The high schools at Marceline and Memphis, Missouri, are two small high schools in which guidance has been carried on in more than a prefatory manner. The staff of the Hannibal High School at Hannibal, Missouri, under the leadership of Principal Harvey V. Mason has attempted to influence their curriculum reconstruction program by what they have learned about the children of their community through their guidance program. This led them to develop and strengthen the program for those youngsters who are known to be pointed toward college. They then attempted to construct a program more in line with the interests and needs of a group of children who are known to be pointed for employment in the industries of the community at the earliest possible date. This left them with a group of individuals from which students may move in either direction, and here they have attempted to widen the scope of the high-school program for the children in this area.

The Senior High School at Columbia, Missouri, under the leadership of Dr. Fred Dixon, has done a significant job over a period of the last few

years in the field of training for diversified occupations. Dr. Dixon in discussing this program and some of the other activities of his school made this significant statement with reference to evaluation: "Lord, don't ask me how we evaluate these things. The administration, the teachers, the students and the community in general seem to feel that we are getting somewhere."

John Burroughs School, a private school in near-by St. Louis County, under the directorship of Dr. Leonard D. Haertter, is one of the thirty schools in the eight-year experiment being conducted under the sponsorship of the Progressive Education Association and others. They have adopted an experimental attitude toward their entire program. Their reports are extensive and interesting. I can only mention them here and add that it seems that this whole experiment is one that should command the attention of all of us interested in secondary education.

I had two most significant letters from the Springfield, Missouri Public Schools. Principal J. D. Hull, of the Senior High School at Springfield said in his letter: "I believe our most important innovation during the past three years has been in developing methods and materials to help in the first out-of-school adjustments of our high-school Seniors who are not going on to higher institutions." He then went ahead to describe a very extensive program which they have carried on with the aid of three full-time coordinators, the members of his regular staff, and other agencies in the community. A very careful industrial survey of Springfield has been made which shows the number of persons employed and the type of labor needed in each significant industry in the city. They have gone a step farther and learned about the job opportunities that are available in the community during a typical year. They have cooperated with the staff and students of the Teachers College located in their community, in making surveys of the graduates of their own school, in order to learn precisely what their problems have been in the years immediately following graduation. I could go on with a description of this project.

There are relatively few junior high schools in this section. From my observation and inquiry there seems a very great likelihood that you will find an element of experimentation wherever you find a junior high school in this part of the country. Jarrett Junior High School of Springfield, Missouri, under the leadership of Mr. C. F. McCormick, Principal, typifies the possibilities for experimentation in this area. Mr. McCormick tells his story so very well indeed that I wish to quote extensively from his letter.

"I am not sure that we have anything which will be of material help to you but I am enclosing a description of an integrating curriculum which we have introduced into our seventh grade and which we propose to carry over into the eighth and ninth grades soon. I am enclosing a statement about the curriculum which shows the philosophy on which it is based,

a statement of the organization itself, and the outcome which we hope for, and finally a chart which shows the direction which a study in one class has taken.

1. The plan was introduced here because we believe that the old strict departmentalization of subjects in the junior high school was not consistent with what we have learned about the nature of behavior and learning and child development. It is a distinct attempt to break down the barriers between different subjects. Ours might be called a core curriculum based around socialized living. Of course, the areas treated in this curriculum are social science and the language arts. The subject material which is introduced is definitely more functional in nature than it formerly was because it is related to real problems within the experience of these students.

2. We thought that it would make it possible for the teachers to understand better children because they would be working with them over longer periods of time and would have at the most seventy students each day instead of the normal load of one hundred and fifty to two hundred under the old plan. Secondly, we further thought that we would allow time for the planning and carrying out of projects in which a group would be interested. We thought it would make possible a more real type of evaluation because of an extended amount of time.

3. As you will find elsewhere in the material I am sending you, our seventh graders spend one-half day with one teacher, who is responsible for their growth in ability to live together more wholesomely. The other half of their day is devoted to study of science, art and music, and mathematics. There is a close coöperation between the art department and these integrating classes and much of the art work done has a direct relationship to what was under consideration in these classes.

4. After four years of this experiment we are ready to defend it and say that it works. We believe quite definitely that it accomplished what we thought it would. I have considerable testimony from teachers as to what they believe about what is accomplished. That they know better the students as individuals and their capacities, interests, and needs is beyond a doubt. We are almost ready to say that they are learning more subject matter than they did under the former arrangement. We are conducting some tests at the present time to determine this item more definitely. We believe that it has made learning take place in more meaningful situations because of the opportunity afforded by longer periods for field trips, the use of visual aids, etc.

Evaluation, of course, in this type of program is far more difficult than it is where the primary aim is to see how many facts the students can learn. The outcomes here hoped for are changes in attitudes, growth in appreciation and personality, and the ability to think critically. We do



know that we have a well adjusted group of youngsters in this grade. The pressure of competitive marks has been removed so that there are fewer attempts at detours around the school program. We believe we have evidence also that there has been a wholesome growth on the part of these students in their socialization, that is their ability to think in terms of the common good of the group as well as a development of sympathetic and tolerant attitudes towards each other. Our chief method of evaluation as you can gather from the above has been the careful observation of intelligent teachers. They have been writing instances of growth in and toward the aims which we have set. A good deal of evidence is on file in the form of anecdotes about individual students which illustrate the direction in which they are developing. Of course, we have done testing under this program more than we have ever done under the old one. Testing of two kinds—standardized testing and informal teacher-made tests. We strive very hard to have each child set for himself goals which he holds to be desirable in his pattern of effective living and evaluation then for him partly consists in considering how much he has achieved in relationship to his goals."

The most one can do in ten minutes is to catalog the names of the few places that are trying. I have done that and in addition have tried to give some deeper insight into the efforts being made in one school system—that of Springfield, Missouri.

### PROMISING EFFORTS

E. D. GRIZZELL

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The current efforts with respect to the development of curriculums for educationally unadjusted youth in Pennsylvania are due in a large measure to the State Association of Secondary-School Principals, the Pennsylvania branch of this organization. Time will not permit even a general review of the events leading up to the present state-wide program of committee activity. However, it is necessary to indicate that approximately one hundred regional committees in a state-wide organization are carrying on voluntary activities in the nine coördinator districts into which the state has been divided. At the meeting of the state association last October it was recommended that an effort be made to coördinate these district committees around three main centers—Eastern, Central and Western with the view of securing advisory service from the higher institutions in each of these areas.

The current procedures in one of the centers, that serving the Eastern area will be described. At the request of the Philadelphia Suburban High-



School Principals Association, made more than a year ago, the University of Pennsylvania established an Educational Service Bureau to provide advisory service and to aid educational workers in any manner possible in the solution of their problems. Although the Bureau is not limited in the scope of its service to any one group, it has devoted the main part of its energies to coordinating the committee activities of the Philadelphia Suburban High-School Principals Association. Nine committees have been at work, each meeting two afternoons a month at the Service Bureau. The Bureau attempts to supply new materials, stenographic and duplicating service, as well as to arrange for expert advisory service from the University staff and from the staffs of other local institutions.

It is too early to report concrete results but the plans as projected by the planning committee of the Principals Association anticipate some tangible results by the end of the current school year. Such results as appear to have merit will be published for distribution through the state. Moreover, it is understood that members of the committees now engaged in the work will provide a considerable group for the Pennsylvania Workshop to be held for six weeks at the Pennsylvania State College and jointly sponsored by Pennsylvania State College, the University of Pittsburgh, the University of Pennsylvania and the Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction.

The general approach in the development of curriculums for educationally unadjusted youth may be indicated as follows:

1. Members of any particular committee study the characteristics and needs of the individual pupils involved.
2. In terms of the needs revealed objectives are stated.
3. With these objectives in mind experiences calculated to attain the objectives are organized in some pattern convenient for use in directing the learning activities agreed upon.
4. The curriculums are then put into operation and adapted as the experience of teachers and learner may suggest.
5. The curriculums in operation will be evaluated and those showing distinct merit will be recommended for publication and distribution to other centers of curriculum development throughout the State.

It is hoped that this voluntary service carried on throughout the state will be of assistance to the State Department of Public Instruction in one of two ways. Either the committees that show marked success may be made official committees working for the Department or the work of these committees will provide a large number of qualified curriculum organizers from which the Department may draw its curriculum Committee members if and when such committees are appointed.

## CURRICULUM ADJUSTMENTS IN PACIFIC COAST HIGH SCHOOLS TO MEET THE NEEDS OF THE NON-COLLEGE STUDENT

HAROLD C. HAND

Stanford University

During the past five or six years there has been a tremendous wave of curriculum development in the Far West, much of it centered in the needs of the non-college student — and virtually all of it concerned with what perhaps might be called the non-college-centered needs of all students. There have in fact been so many such developments in this region, and especially in California, that one is at a loss as to how to proceed when asked to speak intelligibly about them in the short space of ten minutes.

Perhaps the most helpful thing one could do would be to give some idea of the nature of the wave of curriculum development work which is undeniably sweeping over this vast region, and then attempt to give illustrations selected from various high schools in the area. This we shall attempt to do.

Since the broad outlines of the curriculum pattern which seems to be emerging in the secondary schools of the Far West has in large part been suggested, either directly or indirectly, by the new emphasis introduced into the programs of what have come to be known as the "coöperating secondary schools" in the state of California, we shall in large part center our attention upon these ten institutions. The schools in question are the Burbank Senior High School, the Carpinteria Union High School (a small high school), the David Starr Jordan High School in Long Beach, the Eagle Rock, Garfield, and Manual Arts High Schools in Los Angeles, University High School in Oakland, the Pasadena Junior College and Senior High School (one institution embracing grades 11, 12, 13, 14), Sequoia Union High School in Redwood City, and the Yuba City Union High School (a second small, rural high school).

Under the stimulation of Dr. Walter R. Hepner, then Chief of the Division of Secondary Education, California State Department of Education, an agreement was worked out among the Association of California Secondary-School Principals, the California State Department of Education, and virtually all of the colleges and universities in California whereby college entrance requirements were to be liberalized for the graduates of this carefully selected group of outstanding but still reasonably representative secondary schools. The completed plans were approved in 1935, and the term of the "experiment," obviously inspired by and modeled after the so-called "30 schools study" of the P.E.A., was set for five years. Incidentally, this experiment has turned out to be no experiment at all in the sense in which it was intended — this by virtue of the fact that although the higher institutions did liberalize their entrance requirements,

they did not to any appreciable degree modify their previously held requirements for upper division standing; in other words, the "getting out" requirements were little, if at all, changed — and the high-school principals, of course, acted accordingly in deciding what advice should be given to college-bound students. In another sense, however, the "experiment" has proved to be very stimulating and helpful — the work which has been going on in the ten coöperating schools has undeniably focused the attention of the educators and parents of the state, and of the other west coast states as well, upon the non-college-centered needs of all youth.

Let us now comment briefly on what has been taking place in this regard. Although no two principals or faculties can agree on any exact definition of the term, core courses of one type or another have been put into operation in all of the ten schools. In practically all instances, attempts are made to center these core experiences (regardless of what they may be called) around (1) the interests, needs and purposes of youth, and (2) the more important of the recurrent socio-economic-political problems of our day. Subject matter boundaries have in many instances been considerably or completely obliterated. In most schools guidance and instruction have been recognized as inseparable aspects of the teaching process and the teacher-counselor in charge of a core group, frequently for at least two years, has assumed the guidance as well as the teaching function with reference to the youth in his charge.

As one considers the problems variously dealt with in the non-college-needs-centered core offerings in these ten schools, and in a great many others in this region as well, he cannot escape the conclusion that the principals and teachers in this area are sincerely desirous of "helping students to do better the desirable things they are going to do anyhow," regardless of whether or not they may be college-bound. I shall attempt to characterize these problems under eight rather broad categories.

1. Personal problems involved in orienting one's self to the new school: Getting acquainted with the school administration, teachers and student leaders; becoming familiar with the physical plant; learning the objectives and purposes of the school; learning the customs, practices and rules of the school; getting acquainted with school organizations and publications; learning how to behave in a variety of school situations; learning how to use the library and the other school services; acquiring new reading and study habits; getting acquainted with other students and being happily inducted into the life of the school.

2. Personal problems of a variety of types centered around what might be called personality development: Making practical applications of psychology to self-improvement; overhauling one's attitudes towards one's

self and others; developing qualities that make one liked and eliminating or compensating for those that make one disliked; making one's self attractive through improving one's dress, speech, complexion, posture and health; acquiring social skills — singing, playing a musical instrument, dancing, conversational abilities, and proficiency in various sports and games — which make one a desired member of the group; developing interests of a variety of types; making and keeping friends of both sexes, and being a friend; dating and maintaining wholesome boy and girl relationships; becoming proficient in socially approved usages in a variety of life situations; managing personal finances; learning about the effects of alcohol, tobacco and narcotics on health and personality; building one's personal philosophy.

3. Personal problems centered in home living: Getting along more happily with one's parents, brothers, sisters and other relatives in a variety of situations; being a good neighbor; making home repairs; use and care of home appliances; decorating the home; preventing accidents in the home; looking forward to establishing a home; choosing a mate; preparation for marriage; learning the etiquette of the wedding; studying marriage and marriage relationships; studying sex education and eugenics; buying or renting a house; budgeting the family income and wise buying; installment buying; learning about home management and child care; learning the causes and the consequences of divorces and broken homes.

4. Personal problems involved in choosing and preparing for an appropriate occupation: Securing a better knowledge of the world of occupations through studying occupational trends, the nature of an occupation, conditions of work, regularity of employment, supply and demand, wages or salary, attitudes demanded, quantity and quality of education required, etc.; learning to appraise one's self more accurately with reference to vocational interests and aptitudes; making a reasoned choice of an occupation or of an area or type of vocational activity; selecting courses and student activities in harmony with one's vocational goal; learning how to locate vacancies and how to make an effective application; learning how to hold a job and how to win advancement.

5. Personal problems centered in developing leisure time interests and skills; Building continuing interests in reading, in sports and games, in music and art, in dramatics, in handicrafts and in a variety of hobbies. To illustrate: Oakland's University High School offers non-college-preparatory group reading classes based on biography, travel, new books and current magazines. This course may be repeated as often as the student desires. There are no specified readings, no examinations, and no required book reports. This school also gives coeducational instruction in social dancing, bridge, badminton, tennis, table tennis and other games. It also

conducts excursions to art galleries, theaters and other recreational centers in the community.

6. Social problems of a variety of types: Understanding the role of science in changing our world and the way in which we live; discovering the maladjustments in our society and studying their causes and consequences; conserving human life in the community through preventing accidents in the home, in the school, on the playground, on the highway and elsewhere; improving traffic regulations and control; utilizing and improving our community's public health, child welfare, recreational, educational and employment services; conserving and wisely utilizing our natural resources; improving the use of the cultural resources in our community; raising living standards; providing decent housing for all; providing social security; studying the causes and consequences of unemployment; learning to evaluate community and regional planning; learning about the programs and methods of pressure groups; learning how public opinion is molded; learning to recognize propaganda and to evaluate advertising; learning what our political parties are and how they operate; learning about the problems of capital and labor; studying the probable causes and the social consequences of depressions; evaluating group buying through taxation; preventing crime and delinquency; studying international relations and our problems of national defense; safeguarding civil liberties and protecting racial and minority groups; learning the principles of American democracy and what these mean when translated into daily life activities.

7. Personal problems centered in educational planning: Securing a better understanding of one's self, a knowledge of one's interests, abilities, strengths and weaknesses; learning to formulate more adequate and valid vocational and other personal purposes or goals; learning about the various courses and student activities in the school — their purposes or objectives, their nature, for whom they are designed, how they relate to one's plans or goals, etc.; choosing courses and student activities appropriate to one's purposes or goals — building an educational plan.

8. In addition to the representative types of non-college-centered problems suggested above, the high schools of the Far West seem to be giving increased attention to the so-called "fundamental skills." There is a growing emphasis upon the basic skills of written and oral English, spelling, penmanship and mathematics. For the most part, these are being taught in a functional manner. In situations in which it is needed, remedial work is being required in these skills. The high-school people of this area typically no longer mistakenly assume that progressive education and careful attention to functional skill building are antithetical.

VITALIZING THE SCHOOL PROGRAM FOR ALL YOUTH  
PROMISING EFFORTS IN *THIS* AREA

JOHN RUF1

Professor of Education, University of Missouri

What are the more promising efforts toward vitalization of the school program in this area? Obviously, this question cannot be answered fairly or accurately. In Missouri alone are more than a thousand secondary schools. Which of these most clearly deserve citation for their efforts to meet the needs of modern youth? Frankly, I do not know with certainty; indeed, no one can be sure! The number of institutions involved and the difficulties encountered in appraising an institutional program combine to make a brief report of this character unscientific and unsatisfactory. Certain limitations are inherent in the assignment. Of course, you recognize them as clearly as I. Under the circumstances the best I could do was to draw upon my own observations, consult professional acquaintances throughout the state and subjectively evaluate such data as are available or could be obtained. In this connection the staffs of the State Department and of the State Teachers Association have been most helpful. I have solicited their observation and opinions and I gratefully acknowledge their assistance.

Without attempting any defense of my evaluation let me then cite a number of schools which, in my judgment, are worthy of special mention in this connection. Certain of the departures I shall mention represent distinct innovations. Others represent improved utilization of accepted ideas or techniques. In either case, the school is here cited because the departure, of whatever type it may be, is believed to represent a definite improvement in the school's program.

A number of high schools are carrying out programs of course integration which appear to be promising. Northeast High School in Kansas City, enrolling about 1900 students is carrying on an interesting and effective experiment in integrating English with fine arts and social studies. This is being done on the twelfth grade level. The instructor has built the program of literature around social themes and related information in music, art, history, sociology, and economics. The activities in writing and speaking have been developed from the materials studied. Such evidence as I can obtain indicates that pupils and instructor are enthusiastic in their praise of the program. Judged in terms of standardized tests results the work on grammar and literature has not suffered, but in many cases appears to have improved.

The Principia, a non-public high school of St. Louis, enrolling 237 pupils is for the third year carrying on an integrated program of ninth and tenth grade English and social studies. The work is built around units



in social studies but related literature, art, and music are brought in wherever there appears to be an opportunity for natural integration. Two instructors work with each section for three hours each day. They have jointly prepared a basic outline of the courses, but much of the classroom discussion and study grow out of the interests of the pupils. Of the two instructors, one is trained in social studies and the other in English. The work in English is built primarily on the social studies activities. The working schedule is quite flexible although at the end of the year about one half of the time allotted to both has been devoted to social studies and one half of the time has been devoted to English and fine arts.

The Mexico High School is doing unusual work in the area of diversified occupational training. This course is open to all eleventh and twelfth grade pupils. It attempts to give these pupils an organized opportunity to gain experience in actual occupational situations while attending high school. An instructor of recognized competence assists pupils to secure positions with local firms where they are supervised by regular employees or the proprietor himself, and by the school coördinator who is a regular member of the staff. An effort is made to give the pupil training in subjects closely related to his out-of-school work. One unit of credit per year is granted for outside work done under proper supervision, and one unit is granted for course work done under the coördinator at the school. The pupils receive a nominal wage on the job. In this six-year high school of about 675 pupils, 50 pupils are enrolled in this course at the present time. It appears to be meeting a definite need in the community by preparing boys and girls to enter occupations directly upon finishing high school. The Hickman High School of Columbia, the Hannibal High School, and a number of other schools appear to be making a worth-while contribution in this area. In my judgment, the trade and industrial training department in the St. Charles High School is unusual. Over thirty boys are enrolled in the general trade courses offered and they appear to be receiving unusually practical training in trades such as carpentry, metal work, plumbing, etc. Many of the boys who are taking this program of work enter the car shops and building trades immediately upon leaving school.

A number of relatively new courses are putting in appearance. Southwest High School in St. Louis has reorganized its entire science program in an effort to better meet the needs and interests of their pupils. Although the traditional courses in the natural sciences are still offered for those who are especially interested in specialized science, for pupils who have primarily a consumer's interest courses in general science, general biology, and generalized physical science have been organized. The course in general biology emphasizes the flora and fauna of Missouri, and is primarily a nature study course, although much demonstration and some individual



laboratory work is done. The course in generalized physical science emphasizes practical everyday science. Its materials are based upon the scientific needs and interests of individuals in the home and as members of the typical community. In this course teacher demonstrations are emphasized although some individual laboratory work is done. The Carthage High School is vitalizing its art program by making consumer art paramount. The work in the art department is being coordinated and integrated with other high school subjects, and home and community environmental conditions are especially emphasized. Conditions in the homes of the community are utilized extensively here. The Maplewood-Richmond Heights High School is experimenting with work in the field of conservation.

A growing number of institutions are systematically increasing the degree of student participation in school control. The theory of pupil participation has long been accepted. More and more schools are intelligently putting it into practice. St. Joseph Central enrolling twelve hundred pupils has an outstanding program of student participation which centers around a student council under the supervision of a highly competent faculty adviser and a principal of recognized ability. This student council has participated effectively and constructively in more than a dozen significant school enterprises. The Lamar High School enrolling about four hundred pupils has likewise done a splendid job of departing from the regimented, semi-dictatorial type of administration and has set up form of democratic participation that exists not merely on paper but appears to be functioning throughout the entire school system. Herculaneum, a high school of about three hundred, also has an exceptionally well organized program of pupil participation in which the pupils share very actively in the management of the library, the use of various school facilities, and a wide range of other school and pupil responsibilities. In these schools and many others accepted theory is being translated into practices that are genuinely refreshing.

It has long been argued that student activities if properly directed can contribute directly to vitalizing an entire school program. In my judgment, this has been done to a remarkable degree in the Kirksville Junior High School. Through their assemblies, their music programs, their student council, their clubs, their hobby shows, and their guidance program, the so-called student activities of the school are exerting an enlivening influence upon the entire program. Hickman High School of Columbia should certainly be mentioned in this connection.

A large number of high schools have recognized the inadequacy of the old type report card which restricted itself to a report on academic achievement. Vigorous efforts are now being made to humanize and per-

sonalize reports to parents. Boonville, Clayton, Jasper, Marceline, and Columbia all deserve special mention for their efforts in this direction. Admittedly they have not completely solved the problem, but they are trying new procedures, many of which are promising.

A determined drive has been made and is being made to bring about a program of guidance that will function. Boonville appears to have a program that is unusually serviceable. Marceline, somewhat smaller in size, likewise has a functioning program. The forty-pupil high school at Sumner, Missouri, is doing a very much better job in the field of vocational guidance than is done by most institutions which work under more favorable conditions.

A number of schools have undertaken community surveys in an effort to arrive at a clearer comprehension of local needs and problems. A fine illustration of this is the Springfield Senior High School which for several years has engaged in a continuing program of curriculum revision. As one of its techniques it has recently made a significant industrial survey of the area which the school is attempting to serve. This survey, of course, includes a study of local opportunities, jobs, and a follow-up study of high-school graduates. The Smithville High School of 178 pupils has for more than fifteen years carried on a continuous study of its high school graduates, systematically taking into account the vocations into which they enter and their status in these vocations. This admirable study and the procedures it involves might well be emulated by every high school in the State.

Realizing that their schools imperatively need intelligent, sympathetic support, more and more executives and staffs are developing programs of interpretation designed to keep the public informed regarding the school, its program, and its problems. Of the many institutions which might be cited, the Chillicothe High School deserves special credit for handling this problem with unusual effectiveness. The Marceline High School also deserves a place in this category and a number of others might be mentioned if time permitted.

In my judgment, the Wydown school of the Clayton School District deserves mention for its efforts to make its school building a homelike, pleasant place. The arrangement and decoration of this building are unusually attractive. Visitors report that it comes nearer giving them a "home" feeling than any other school building they have seen. It has none of the factory appearance so common to many of our school plants. On the contrary, its general design, its furnishing, and its appointments all contribute to a rather unusual school atmosphere.

The foregoing instances are but a few of those that might well be mentioned. I sincerely regret that lack of time makes it impossible for

me to mention a considerable number of other schools which in my judgment clearly deserve honorable mention in their efforts to vitalize their programs. However, the list here presented includes a considerable number of institutions and, limited though it is, offers convincing evidence that alert administrators and teachers are making a vigorous, intelligent attack on the problem, and are achieving results.

### PROMISING EFFORTS FOR VITALIZING THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL PROGRAM IN DES MOINES

J. E. STONECIPHER

Director of Senior High Schools

Des Moines has been working earnestly at the task of bringing the practices of its ten junior and senior high schools into vital relationship with the lives of pupils. It is undeniable that significant and far-reaching changes have been taking place. But we feel that we have only begun to swing our practices into line with the needs of our constituents. A number of promising departures have been initiated. Their cumulative effect is more important than any one attempt, with the dominant emphasis upon the effort to link the content and activity more closely with everyday living, and to drop out of the curriculum such deadwood as our traditions and discernment will permit. Several possible avenues have been explored of which the following are the more promising.

1. The core curriculum is one of the most far-reaching innovations tried out in the secondary schools of Des Moines in the last decade. It is now in its seventh year of use in one high school. In this course, which is a part of the Eight Year Study sponsored by the Progressive Education Association, half the pupil's time for three years in senior high school is given to the task of building a broad, general foundation for life competence. Providing a common background for full, rich living in a democratic society is considered of paramount importance. The other half of the pupil's time is devoted to specialized elective courses chosen by the individual in the light of his own interests and vocational plans.

Core curriculum courses are no longer novel, for they have been described repeatedly in educational literature. Outwardly the Des Moines experimentation does not differ greatly from many others. The core course has accepted responsibility for most of the English and social-studies content for the pupils, has brought much more attention to appreciative art and the sciences, and has added a very different approach to life realism in the American Problems and the Practical Problems of Living courses in grade twelve.

The most significant bearing upon the subject of this panel lies in the results. It has changed the teachers who worked with it. The thinking, planning, and study demanded by this effort, the contacts with other schools, and the opportunities for the aid of curriculum assistants have led to other core courses, to new broad fields courses, to changed emphases under old titles, to new applied courses, and to voluntary study projects among teachers which may make over the school program in Des Moines. It would be an error to ascribe all this to the core curriculum course. It is probably more accurate to say that these developments grew out of the same kind of thinking that initiated and carried on the core course and that the work with the core courses gave impetus and expression to a developing philosophy.

Some of the elements of this thinking are pertinent here.

- a. One of the chief functions of the school is that of providing educational situations in which the pupils may develop character and personality traits necessary for democratic living. The teachers have tried to define these traits; to set up situations designed to give experience in this respect, and have evaluated their achievements in terms of growth in democratic participation.
- b. A greater concern on the part of the pupil for his own education has been fostered in several ways. Competitive grades have been avoided by introducing more self-evaluation, by developing reports which analyze the pupil's progress toward a number of goals, and by providing for more experience in coöperative pupil and teacher planning of classroom procedures.
- c. Greater vitality of subject matter has been sought. The most important factor in this respect has been the omission of traditional content. (It took several years for teachers to believe that they really could prune out the content which they must discard to find room for more vital material. There are now many who are ready to find a place for material which is realistic and vital, even though it means casting out some of the once cherished content.)
- d. A more continuous experience was deemed necessary. The core curriculum plans emphasized the desirability of reducing the amount of short-time, cafeteria-like accumulation of credits in high school. Administrative measures to insure opportunities for continuous contact with a teacher and a group for two to four semesters have increased in every school.
- e. The guidance function of classroom education has been emphasized. There is a marked difference in attitude if a teacher

expects to carry a pupil through three or four semesters of time. It is worth while to learn to know him as an individual if he is to work with a teacher for a year or more. There is time to initiate a program of systematic improvement and carry it out with a greater degree of satisfaction than is possible in a single semester.

2. What are some of the evidences that this kind of thinking and experimentation has brought results in terms of more vital secondary education? Again it is necessary to disclaim that the core curriculum is directly responsible for all these changes. But it is responsible for some of them and has furthered the discussion and the thinking which directly produced others.
  - a. Experimentation with a broader base of unified or integrated education involving much freedom of choice of content, pupil-teacher planning, teacher-teacher planning, and more continuous relationship as a group is under way in every school in Des Moines.
  - b. Teachers are taking an aggressively active part in studying the community as a background for their teaching, in making greater use of the educative resources of community life, and in actively planning the improvement of their own competence. There are under way definite projects which illustrate each of the assertions.
  - c. Broad fields courses in practical science on the senior level have been initiated with promise of success in all senior high schools.
  - d. Teachers of traditional courses such as English are broadening their concepts of their function to include a wider range of useful experience and have accepted the responsibility of orientation and pupil adjustment to a new school as a part of their duty.
  - e. Teachers of different subject fields such as salesmanship and home management, or art and merchandising, are planning courses coöperatively and are bringing their classes together for significant discussions and reports. The relatedness of large areas of study in terms of competence for living well is becoming more apparent to pupils and teachers.
  - f. A broadly flexible course in American Problems is required of all pupils in all schools. Many of the finest examples of teacher growth and of application of school experience to life situations have occurred as outgrowths of this course, which stems directly from the experiences of the core curriculum.
  - g. An occupational survey and a youth survey of Des Moines has

been launched and will be completed this spring. It has been planned with the coöperation of interested community groups and will be carried through under the direction of the State Department of Vocational Education. The results are expected to provide a basis of accurate information to guide teachers, administrators, and the community in the redirection and improvement of educational plans.

3. A beginning has been made in coöperative vocational education. At present, most of this is in the retail selling field and in office practice, but we are accumulating experience in a field which must surely become more important in the future.
4. The most significant departure in the direction of more vital education in Des Moines is, without doubt, the more active participation of classroom teachers in all phases of school development. Teachers are accepting much more responsibility for original and creative thinking about what is to be taught and what methods of teaching are most profitable to use. They are coöperating in committees and in voluntary groups in carrying out plans. It is in this general acceptance of the fact that the improvement of the curriculum and the educative process in general is the concern of the classroom teacher that we find the greatest hope for the future. A Planning Committee, representative of all grade levels of the schools, is becoming the most important group in the school system. This committee is directing the activities which are a part of the American Council Teacher Training Study. It is participating in the planning for a six weeks workshop or Problems Laboratory for Des Moines teachers next summer with the collaboration of Drake University, the American Council, and the Progressive Education Association. If the results of this effort at self-improvement will produce in one hundred or more teachers the greater sense of direction and competence for planning together that has been noted in those who have attended former workshops, this may well prove one of our most important steps toward better education.

The most important factors in vitalizing a school program are the teachers who direct it. The most excellently planned curriculum will fail if it has originated outside the thinking of the teaching group and is not understood or accepted by them. Core curricula, methods of reporting, innovations in personal development or consumer courses, guidance plans, and other attempts will produce little actual change if teachers do not understand the purposes and philosophy underlying them. What a teacher is fundamentally trying to accomplish with a given group makes so much difference in what goes on that all other factors take second place in in-

fluencing the educational process. The selection of one or two teachers to write a new course of study for the others is a totally inadequate gesture toward teacher coöperation. It involves not only the invitation to participate, but the development of organization and procedures by which teachers may bring their thinking and experiences together in a working relationship.

Our Des Moines teachers, given encouragement, freedom, and stimulation, have accomplished a great deal toward more vital education in the past few years. If we knew how to advise them more wisely and give them more help, they would go faster and farther. We believe they, and we, are on the way to marked improvement in education for all the youth of Des Moines. The way to such improvement begins with the purposes of teachers and ends with the participation of the pupils in planning their own educational experience in the classroom. Perhaps we should say that it ends in the effective participation of the pupil in social, civic, and economic social action, but we haven't found how to extend our evaluation and direction that far as yet.

### PROMISING EFFORTS FOR THE EDUCATIONALLY NEGLECTED

J. E. WORTHINGTON

Principal Waukesha (Wisconsin) High School

Time or space does not permit a detailed statement of the various programs that are being tried in the Wisconsin area in attacking the problem of how may the educationally neglected learn. In order that I might get the opinion of the schoolmen of the State, I wrote to twenty-five junior and senior high-school principals asking this question, "What are some promising efforts in your school along the lines of adjusting the school curriculum to the needs of the so-called non-college pupil?" The answers would indicate that most principals are aware of the problem and are doing something about it. Harry E. Merritt, State Supervisor of Secondary Schools, writes "Practically every high school in the State that has any sort of enterprising leadership is doing something along the line of adjusting the school curriculum to the needs of the so-called non-college pupil."

Yet I think no one is satisfied that the solution of the problem has been reached or that much of any outstanding contribution has as yet been made. The Wisconsin principals are aware of the problem, are studying it, and are experimenting with proposed solutions.

In the first place there is a changed philosophy. No longer is it regarded that college preparation is the major function of the high school or that all students "are adjusted to and capable of success in a verbalized and



academic curriculum." Neither is it felt that the college and university influence is so dominant that it is necessary to give to all such a curriculum that the few may enter the higher halls of learning. In other words there is a feeling of sufficient freedom to raise and to attempt to solve the problem of the "educationally neglected," to modify school practices even to the extent of meeting the needs of the individual. Principal O. H. Lowe of Sheboygan states this attempt "to bend the services of the schools to the non-academic child" thus:— "Accepting an educational philosophy which holds that a child's success in school is not absolute, but relative, and should be measured in terms not of what he has done compared with others of a similar age or grade, but rather what he is doing in relation to what he has done previously. In other words, an educational philosophy is based upon growth rather than achievement, making possible experiences of success on the part of even the slowest learner, thus contributing to happiness in school experiences."

A changed philosophy is the first step in the solution of the problem of the educationally neglected.

A second attack upon the problem is a wide comprehensive program of studies which makes possible selection of fields of study in line with the interests and capacities of the student. Most large high schools and many of the smaller ones now have such programs and to outline such in this paper is not necessary.

Many schools are working along the line of the modified or parallel courses in the old established fields as English and science. There are many such courses throughout the State. Two from Waukesha will illustrate this technique:—

#### ENGLISH XII (NON-COLLEGE)

Reported by Miss Frances Magdanz, Head of English Dept.

English for non-college pupils in the twelfth year aims to find people who have not found themselves through the usual activities in English. By capitalizing on individual interests and personal needs, this course hopes to make reading an enjoyable and meaningful experience and to increase the effectiveness of oral and written expression.

Certain of the frequently mentioned objectives of education in a democracy are evident in the outline of goals toward which we are working.

##### I. Self-realization

- A. Effective speaking, reading and writing of mother tongue
- B. Meaningful leisure time activities
- C. Responsible steering of life

##### II. Human relationships

- A. Importance of relationships with people
- B. Amenities of social behavior
- C. Appreciation of the family

## III. Civic responsibilities

- A. Awareness of disparities of human circumstances
- B. Tolerance toward honest differences of opinion
- C. Understanding of social structures and processes

## IV. Economic efficiency

- A. Understanding of requirements for various jobs
- B. Selection of and preparation for a vocation
- C. Appreciation of social value of work

Perhaps the procedure is not vastly different from that of any other English class. We use discussion and pupil suggestion as a basis for building the subject matter of the course, although we have a rather definite body of material which we have found from past experience is pertinent as well as interesting.

For instance, under self-realization we are sure to discuss motion pictures and their place in our lives. With some groups, we work out standards for judging movies. We concern ourselves with magazines and their contribution to a well-adjusted life. Books as a pastime, as a source of information, as a mental or spiritual stimulation are approached from the personal slant of "What do you like?" Sports and other leisure time activities furnish popular raw material for much oral and written discussion. When well directed, all of these experiences through which a person may exercise the power of choice form a basis for the control of the forces which pattern our lives.

For this goal, *Readers' Digest* is our common material for study. This part of our work is most effective when it is most individualized. Class discussions, teacher-pupil conferences, and written progress reports are valuable aids in checking what is happening in any group. Because a limited association with words is frequently responsible for a meager understanding and appreciation of reading material of all kinds, we use *Word Wealth* by Miller as a stimulation and source for vocabulary building.

A collection of modern short stories edited by Wunsch & Albers and called *Thicker Than Water* is the point of departure for the human relationship theme. Wide reading and very thoughtful comments grow out of the problems in human living presented in this book.

Civic responsibility and economic efficiency are subjects of discussion which grow quite naturally out of the consideration of home and family problems presented earlier. Magazine and book material on vocations, interviews with outstanding men in business, and talks on various careers help seniors to get a clearer picture of what they want to do as well as what wants to be done in this world.

## GENERAL PHYSICS

Reported by Dr. Ralph Thomas & Chas. Horwitz, Science Department.

The course is designed as a functional, non-mathematical approach

to physics for the non-college students. It is not intended as a course for those of poor achievement. It cannot truly be called a "Survey" course, because many topics are covered in much more detail than in the traditional course. It may be considered a "Detailed course in practical physics but a survey course in theoretical physics."

The course is conducted with almost no individual laboratory work, although some pupils do conduct many informal experiments. There are a large number of group and teacher demonstrations. A study guide (not a work-book) has been found to increase the efficiency of learning. Except for the large use of demonstrations, the techniques used compare with those recommended by the "Morrison" procedure. Reading of scientific literature, magazines, etc., is given much stress. This type of reading material is abundant in after-graduation days. It is probably the most immediate application of the "scientific" vocabulary learned in the course.

At no time is the exact statement of a law, principle, theory or formula stressed. The understanding of these and their application in practice is stressed. Thus an individual may not be able to state Boyle's law, but he could give you the principle of operation of the pneumatic tank; he may not be able to define specific gravity, center of gravity or state the laws of flotation, but he could explain the precautions to take in the use of a canoe or boat, and why to take the precautions.

The course content is divided up into major units and "study topics" as follows:

- I. Physics in the Home
  - A. Water systems
  - B. Heating and Air-conditioning
  - C. Lighting
  - D. Refrigeration
  - E. Misc. household equipment (Review topic & preview)
- II. Physics in Industry
  - A. Machines, work and power
  - B. "White coal"
  - C. Steam power
  - D. The gasoline engine
  - E. The Diesel engine
- III. Physics in Communication
  - A. Bell & Telegraph
  - B. Telephone
  - C. Radio & Television
- IV. Physics in leisure time activities (choice given)
  - A. Photography (advanced & beginners)
  - B. Advanced Radio

- C. Muroscope & Telescope
- D. Color
- E. Musical instruments
- F. Engineering physics (Resolution & composition of forces)
- G. Theoretical Physics (Reading)
  - (1) Historical
  - (2) Modern

The testing program used in this course makes a distinct effort to avoid measuring accumulation of facts. Cause and effect relationships are tested for much as is possible with the "teacher-constructed" tests available.

Even in the non-academic fields there is a growing movement to modify the courses because of a feeling that in them as; e.g., in machine shop there is an opportunity and a challenge for the boy of high I.Q. H. H. Helble of Appleton outlines such a modification.

"At the present time we are revising our Home Arts courses so, as to take care more adequately of those who intend to go to college and major in some field of Home Arts. We feel their Home Arts training in the high school should be different from that of the high school Home Arts majors who do not plan to go to college."

A few schools see the solution of the question in the organization of general courses in the core-curriculum subjects. There is much truth in the thought that courses arranged around the life experiences, needs and interests, of high-school boys and girls in general would be of equal value to the boy or girl who plans to go to college, and to the one who stays at home. Perhaps what is outlined in Chapter IV of the Bulletin "That All May Learn" for the educationally neglected would if given to them make the college preparatory type the educationally neglected, if they did not also get it. The Shorewood High School is interested in this approach to the problem. Principal Grant Rahn writes, "Personally, I do not like the discrimination between the college and non-college pupil implied in the topic assigned to you. The distinction is, in my opinion, merely temporizing. It does not go to the root of helping all pupils meet more adequately the everyday demands upon them according to their abilities, needs and interests. If we can get college entrance requirements modified, I see no reason why, in the various broad fields, both he who is going on to college and he who is not, cannot be accommodated.

"Our efforts are to become a school, centered not in subject matter, but in the development of the total child—emotional, social, physical, as well as intellectual. The English, speech, social studies, science, music, physical education, home economics, and manual arts sections all contain departures from traditional offerings many of which departures are commonly accepted

and others not so commonly accepted. In the mathematics section the article on the new two-year mathematics course is an effort to help the pupil meet more adequately the quantitative problems of everyday life."

Some principals described new courses that their schools have organized. These generally are for the purpose of enriching the school experiences of the educationally neglected. Principal O. L. Robinson of Janesville outlines one such course which he calls "Everyday Living."

"For the past several years we have been offering a course we call 'Everyday Living.' I don't know why the name—it seems to fit about as well as any. Originally it was opened to eleventh graders but after three years we limited it only to Seniors. They are more mature, see graduation in the distance, and are doing more thinking possibly about the future. We have four classes at present, two at two different hours, taught by a man and a woman. This gives us an opportunity to throw two groups together whenever we wish and on occasion have the man take the boys and the lady take the girls. We include a vast number of things that we hope will be useful in the future. Starting off with a study of themselves personally, we include a study of occupations. This helps mature them. During the year we include everything involved in owning and renting a home, buying a lot, building, all kinds of insurance, buying, budgeting the income, savings, etc. As time goes on youth problems are discussed, to the point of the wise choice of a life mate, etc. We like the course very much. It is a bit hard in the beginning for the students because there is no one text for source material and they must do some thinking for themselves."

I do not think that this paper would be quite complete if I did not mention a distinctive experiment that is to be carried on in a few small rural high schools in Wisconsin.

A committee made up of representatives of the State department of Public Instruction, the state university, the state teachers colleges and the county superintendents has made a study of small high schools in Wisconsin. Prof. C. E. Ragsdale of the University was chairman. This committee found that:—

1. The typical curriculum pattern is four units of English, four or five of social science, three or four of natural science, and two of mathematics. Seventy schools offer nothing outside of the traditional academic subjects. A few units chosen from business training courses, instrumental and vocal music, industrial arts, home economics and agriculture complete the pattern.
2. In a few, but in only a few cases is the internal content of courses adapted to a rural community.

The committee recommends among other things that:—

1. Every part of the curriculum should be planned and organized to fit a community or pupil need rather than to present a section of some subject-matter field, whether traditional or new in school curricula. Need should be broadly interpreted; it includes cultural and recreational as well as vocational matters.
2. The curriculum must be planned for needed physical and social as well as intellectual growth.
3. The curriculum must be closely related to the out-of-school life of the pupils while they are of school age.
4. The curriculum must appeal to high-school boys and girls of the kinds found in small high schools.
5. The curriculum must contribute to the pupil's ability to participate intelligently in the life of a village and rural community. To perform this function the curriculum must be environmental-centered.

At the present time the committee is planning to organize and supervise a curriculum for each of a half dozen small high schools. These to serve as guides to other schools interested in curriculum revision.

This movement should do much to assist the small high school to perfect an organization that will aid the intellectually neglected and make it possible "that all may learn."

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In a five-minute review Prof. B. L. Dodds of Purdue University summed up the discussion.

*Business Meeting* was presided over by the President, K. J. Clark, who presented the Chairman of the Planning Committee, who asked "leave to print" his report.

## REPORT OF THE PLANNING COMMITTEE

FRANCIS L. BACON

Chairman

A rather full report of the activities of the Planning Committee covering the work from the origin of the Committee in February, 1936, up to the time of the national convention in 1939, appeared in the Proceedings of the Twenty-third Annual Meeting of this Association as published in the March Bulletin, Number 81, of 1939.

The development of the Discussion-Group Project, under the aegis of the Committee, has continued with marked success. Not only has it created constructive program material for many groups of high-school principals but in some cases the materials and the methods have been used to vitalize entire state programs.

It has added significantly to the services of the Association as a whole, even to the surprising extent of influencing state membership. Also, this program, designed to offer a means for high-school principals to attack their common problems on a national front has, for the first time, as a part of the work of our national association, brought principals together in specially planned regional meetings. The results would appear to be highly promising, and this Committee hopes that larger attention will be given by the Association to the possibilities for regional meetings.

A newer activity originally initiated by the Planning Committee but now of outstanding operation under its own power is the highly significant program of the Committee on Implementation. The work and accomplishment of this committee has developed with a rapidity quite beyond our anticipation. May we call your attention again to the report of last year and to the current report and, perhaps, especially to that recent publication, "That All May Learn." Other interesting evidences of the work of this committee built upon the field problems as submitted by our membership will be soon forthcoming.

The Committee believes that it should continue to point out the large increase which has taken place in the past few years in the services which the National Association has given to its members. These extended services have added greatly to the operational costs of the Association. The regular membership dues pay but a small part of the total cost of the services given. Fortunately the large expense of the Discussion-Group Project and of the Implementation Committee has been met by special grants, for which all of us are deeply grateful.

The fact remains, however, that our Association is giving its members a much larger service for the dues paid than may be customarily found among national organizations. Your Committee has recommended that a classification plan of varying amounts for dues be worked out, giving members a more equitable opportunity to pay a larger proportion of the cost of the services received.

In the currently proposed constitutional changes a slight beginning is being made in this respect. It is hoped that principals will be especially interested in the new type of institutional membership. As this gives specific opportunity for the school to carry the membership with guaranteed personal representation to the principal, with opportunity for the library to share in duplicate copies of all publications, and with significant chance to extend administrative participation to a teacher-delegate, it is urged that it be utilized as a regular item allotted to the school budget.

The Committee believes that the proposal to link the principals in the field through their state organizations with the necessary machinery of elect-



ing the national administrative officers should prove especially helpful. This plan should aid in bringing men into national service who have already demonstrated their worth in regional and state activities and who have had an experience with the design of the national organization sufficient to insure a quality of leadership which is desirable. To obtain this latter type of service is the sole purpose of the Committee in offering the proposals.

Your Committee is also interested in the broadening of the borders of national programs sufficiently to bring enrichment to all divisions or phases of secondary education, hence the proposals for larger recognition of the divisions of the junior high school and the junior college within the structure of the constitution.

Your chance to participate, your opportunity to bring a better service to the youth you represent would appear to depend very largely upon what is done nationally, and your own interest will be best served to the degree that your National Association plays an active and a significant part in both the planning and the operation of any program which is formulated. To this end your Committee will give every reasonable consideration and effort.

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Mr. Bacon presented the proposed amendments to the constitution, which were presented in the December, 1939, *Bulletin*. On motion the amendments were adopted.

Mr. Jacobson presented a resolution, which on motion was adopted.

*Resolution Presented by Paul B. Jacobson*

Statements recently made by two of the most influential leaders in American life call attention to a national problem for which it is of the first importance that a solution be found.

In his message to Congress on the "State of the Union" delivered on January 3, 1940, the President of the United States said:

"The unemployment problem to-day has become very definitely a problem of youth as well as of age. As each year has gone by hundreds of thousands of boys and girls have come of working age. They now form an army of unused youth. They must be an especial concern of democratic government.

"We must continue, above all things, to look for a solution of their special problem. For they, looking ahead (to live) are entitled to action on our part and not merely to admonitions of optimism or lectures on economic laws."

On November 2, 1939, in an address delivered in New York City, ex-President Hoover said:

"At no point is free government more on trial to-day than in the opportunity and faith in the future that it offers to youth. And it is the frustrated and disappointed youth who cannot get a chance who has the greatest right to complain of our civilization. Until that is solved we have not demonstrated that our system is the best in the world. . . . There are estimated to be 140,000 youth in this city (New York) alone, between the ages of sixteen and twenty-five, who have never had a job—and they have trod these streets unceasingly looking and searching for it."

Because of the difficulties which young people experience in finding employment there has been an unprecedented increase in the enrollments of secondary schools. School systems are making strenuous efforts to meet the demands which are imposed upon them by these unprecedented increases in enrollments. This Association calls the attention of the people of the United States to the disastrous consequences which will follow if any reductions are made in the resources available for the education of young people. Indeed, there is urgent need for the expansion of the educational program now that pupils with a great diversity of interests are continuing their schooling at the upper levels.

The sections of the country where there is the greatest need of resources in order to provide for young people are, in general, the sections where public funds are meager. It is imperative if there is to be equality of opportunity for all American youths that adequate financial support of schools be assured on a national rather than a local or even a regional basis.

It is important that close coördination be developed among the various efforts which are being made by public and private agencies for the improvement of the conditions under which young people make the transition from dependent adolescence to independent adulthood. The Executive Committee of this Association is authorized and directed to create a special committee to be known as the Committee on Coöperation Among Youth Agencies, a sub-committee of the Implementation Committee, which shall take steps to contribute in every way possible to the development of close coördination between education and the efforts of all agencies dealing with young people.

The Association is convinced that one necessary element in the solution of the youth problem is the employment of out-of-school youths who

cannot find jobs in private industry on such public projects as forestation, soil conservation, assistance in public libraries, and other public works. The Association is also convinced that training in habits of work and in proper attitudes toward employment of all kinds is an essential phase of the preparation for life of every young person. It therefore directs the Sub-Committee on Coöperation Among Youth Agencies to make the relation of work to education a major subject of consideration.

Finally, the Sub-Committee on Coöperation Among Youth Agencies is directed to adopt measures which will explain to the public the conditions which have led to the present situation with regard to young people, and also to organize and explain to the public such plans as it can discover or devise for a more satisfactory solution than is now at hand of the problems which are encountered by present-day young people.

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Mr. John H. Tyson presented the report of the nominating committee:

President: Oscar Granger, Principal Haverford Township High School, Upper Darby, Pennsylvania.

First Vice President: John E. Wellwood, Principal, Central High School, Flint, Michigan.

Second Vice President: Virgil M. Hardin, Principal, Pipkin and Reed Junior High Schools, Springfield, Missouri.

Executive Secretary: H. V. Church, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago.

#### EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

K. J. Clark, Principal, Murphy High School, Mobile, Alabama.

Truman G. Reed, Principal, Lewis and Clark High School, Spokane, Washington.

Hugh H. Stewart, Principal, Davis High School, Mt. Vernon, New York.

E. R. Jobe, State Supervisor of High Schools, Jackson, Mississippi.

## TUESDAY AFTERNOON

*February 27th, 1940*

The Round Table Conference led by Mr. Aubrey Williams, Chief, National Youth Administration, Washington, D. C., was called to order by Dr. Judd at 4:15 P. M. in Committee Room 3A, Municipal Auditorium, St. Louis.

MR. WILLIAMS: Well, I am hoping that this can be a very simple and real conference, and I want to assure all of you right off, if you have any fears that I am going to make a speech that they are groundless, because I am not going to do it unless you force me to. I suppose certain respectability is required, and if I cannot get into an argument with you, then I will have to make a speech in order to fill out the time, so we can all say we have been to another meeting. (Laughter)

What I am anxious to do, and I am sure you are, too, is to get the reactions of you people to the actual operations of the student work program at the high-school or secondary school level. I am sure that things have occurred and are now occurring that you would like to talk about, that you would like to have the opportunity to question and express an opinion about, and I hope that we can be very informal and more or less as an administrative staff meeting, talk about the job that we have on our hands to do.

I don't know any better way to begin this than to discuss first of all, take that part of it that has to do with the paper work that you are required to perform, and then lead on up to the more difficult and the harder part of the job, which has to do with the philosophy of it and reason for its existence.

I am anxious to get direct from you what we have done, anything that we have done in our requirements from you that you feel are burdensome and unnecessary and add to the difficulties of you doing this job, because I realize, I think, as much as one could in my relationship to it, that for many of you this is an added piece of work and it must be carried on along with your regular work. If there is anything in the picture that we are asking you to do, that you feel is an unnecessary item, why I would like very much to know it and like to talk about it. Maybe it is a necessity and maybe we have to do it, but maybe we don't have to do it.

So, can we go at it from that angle: First, as to what, if anything, that you are asked to do on your end of getting up the time sheets and reporting

of work and getting it in so they will get the checks, do you feel could be omitted and still the thing be taken care of, or what changes would you make in the way it is being handled, now?

QUESTION: I was going to ask you why couldn't we have on the time sheet the possibility of recording the total number of certified hours work for the month rather than to put down under each day the hour, two hours, three hours, and so on, for the month? Why can't we have properly certified time, could it be recorded eighteen hours, twenty hours, thirty hours, one entry rather than fifteen or twenty?

MR. WILLIAMS: You don't see any reason why you couldn't put on one line that the youth worked so many hours?

QUESTION: Eighteen hours instead of eighteen-times-one hour.

MR. WILLIAMS: Would you also put down the hour that he worked, the day and the place?

QUESTION: We would have a record of that in the office, but we would not have to send that in to you.

MR. WILLIAMS: Of course, this gets down to a small item, but it is part of the treasury law, and I want to say that I found, when I got down to Washington, that there are two kinds of laws: There is the law passed by Congress, that constitutes one set of laws; there are the other laws passed and set up by the United States Treasury. I don't mean "maybe" either. (Laughter) They are both bodies of law.

Now, they insist that in order to pay for something, there must be the place that the work is performed, the hour, actual hour or day that it is performed, and what was done. That is a part of the requirement in order to get the comptroller to approve it.

QUESTION: You were asking for questions and I was giving one.

MR. WILLIAMS: You would like to lump it together and say the youth worked thirty hours.

QUESTION: Well, they are very meticulous in checking that. One time I made a mistake and had the student work on Sunday, and I didn't get anything for it until I corrected it. So it is very good. (Laughter)

QUESTION: I know one case where, in a junior college, a man told me he had one boy, very ambitious, who, the first two months, put in all his hours and he did not have to do anything after that. I think they should be most meticulous in putting this down hour and day, to verify it.

MR. WILLIAMS: Does anybody want to discuss that any further? Well, what other points in this whole business of bookkeeping do you find very difficult? Well, evidently this is a very contented group.

QUESTION: Wouldn't it be much easier for us if those checks were sent back to the schools, as they were in the beginning, instead of putting on the payroll the address of the children? It complicates the thing, it holds the payroll up quite a while. In your experience, have you found it unsatisfactory to have the checks sent directly to the principal and distributed through the building, or can we get back to that system?

MR. WILLIAMS: Anybody else want to discuss that point?

QUESTION: I found in Iowa quite a little of this objection: One person contended or told me he liked the old plan better for this reason, that we can call the pupils in and get them to budget their resources, where, if it went to the parents, it was all spent before we knew what it had been used for. He said this occurred in his school, and I have heard reports from other schools in the same way, that the check comes to the pupil at the home address when the pupil is at school, the parents get it and ask the students to sign the check when they come home, and there is quite a little objection to the present plan, I find, in high schools.

QUESTION: We have had that same trouble where we have advanced books and other supplies to the youngster and the check goes to the home and the youngster's parents spend the money and, in a few cases, we furnished the material for which we supposed this money was to pay and never saw anything of it, in the way of books, school materials, things of that sort.

QUESTION: I think you can arrange through your State Director to have certain checks sent to the principal. I have six in my desk drawer at the present time.

MR. WILLIAMS: Why do you have them in your desk drawer? (Laughter)

QUESTION: That is a long story. (Laughter) I am from Jacksonville, Illinois, and in our system we require receipts, a little bit more yet, so we like to know that the youngster is spending this check so that he may remain in school and not going to the "movies" and not going to spend that money for home necessities and things of that sort, I mean necessities of the family. Maybe we are wrong, I don't know, but we have done it now for three years and we think it works mighty nicely. We require receipts from the youngsters for their checks, and we arrange credit and, by the way, we have students in our high school to whom merchants will

grant credit and they won't grant it to their parents. (Laughter) Figure that now. (Laughter) We bind those receipts and keep them for three years.

MR. WILLIAMS: Let us discuss that a little bit further.

QUESTION: We have had that same experience of checks disappearing from the mail box, checks signed by the parents without the child's knowledge of it.

QUESTION: We have had no difficulty at our school either in granting supplies or any other way. It seems to be working perfectly all right.

MR. WILLIAMS: I think I ought to say, in fairness before we go any further, that while I was, in the original instance, responsible for making the decision, that shortly after that the United States Treasury ruled again that this check belonged to the child and that the law requires that the check be delivered to the child at the home address. So, at the present moment, there isn't any choice in the matter. I ought to say that, but I am interested in your reaction, I just want to put that in.

We have had a good many objections to this, so that what you all are saying here has been reflected in other parts of the country. I don't say that it could not be changed, I don't know, I would not want to be too sure it couldn't. Sometimes you can get those things changed, or you can modify them so that the actual letter of the law gets satisfied by some other means than just going and putting it in the mail box. How do you get around the ruling to distribute these checks?

QUESTION: It took me about four months of correspondence in the first place to get them to continue sending checks to the principal, and we explained the reason for it was in cases where we had arranged credit.

MR. WILLIAMS: To whom did you write?

QUESTION: To the State Director of Illinois. (Laughter)

MR. WILLIAMS: Well, he has to be a kind of district attorney, so if he got put in the "hoosegow", he would have to prosecute himself. He was rather safe. (Laughter)

QUESTION: We stated our reasons as to why we wished to deliver those checks to the youngsters, personally. It was only in the case of those individuals who had received checks previously and had not applied those checks to their bills, as they should have.

MR. WILLIAMS: I think you have to be pretty careful about that kind



of thing from the standpoint of a long term policy. You get into the relationship of breaking into the family setup there, and begin to exercise prerogatives in relationship to the children that tend to break down parental and child relationships, you are on mighty dangerous grounds, and I am not at all sure that you don't have to try to do the thing you are talking about in another way than to, so to speak, take the child out from the family in these matters of finances and so on, because you and I know that the family struggles as a unit and they are going to sink or swim as a unit. If I were that child, I would certainly want to be the one to say whether or not I objected to my father and mother taking that check, and I do not think I would want anybody else to say whether my father or my mother had the right to take that check or not. I think I would resent that very much.

I got one reply back which rather convinced me that maybe after all this thing was right that we have done, and that was from a certain dean of a state university, in which he replied and said: "I see no good reason why you are taking these checks and sending them to the home, because no youth has ever been unable to get his check if he could show a good reason why he should have it." (Laughter)

Well now, I don't think we are in that relationship with these youngsters at all. If we are, then the work is on a mighty sorry basis. They earn this money or else our whole basis is false and dishonest, and they are just as much entitled to that money as you or I are entitled to our money, and under the same conditions, and the matter of what they do with it later on, it seems to me is an entirely different thing. You may want to advise the child and talk with the parents, but more than that, I think you are on mighty thin ice, because you are taking over the prerogatives of individuals and families, which distinctly belong to the individual and to the family.

QUESTION: You can teach him wise spending. If you don't teach him how to spend it wisely in high school, he is never going to learn.

MR. WILLIAMS: I think you can teach him wise spending, but not by coercion, which this amounts to when it is his money.

QUESTION: From another angle, I wonder what the psychological value is of having the child receiving the check at school, for whom it is presumed he has done the work, at which place he has done the work, and receiving it from the school without any restrictions, let him have it. I wonder if the school being paymaster has a value or not.

MR. WILLIAMS: I think that might, if everything else was equal, that might be the best arrangement.

QUESTION: You haven't it on budgeting, you just give it out.

MR. WILLIAMS: Well I think, all things being equal, that would have real value, and probably more value than receiving it in an envelope and so on, although the main thing is that the child gets the check in a free, easy manner, so that he knows there are no strings tied to it, and it is his because he worked for it and earned it.

I must relate to you also, because you are just as much concerned in the success of this thing, far more than we are, I should think, that we have had ninety-five per cent of our trouble come from mishandling of funds at this end of the thing on the part of the school people, and while I am glad to say that has been an infinitesimal amount compared to the hundreds and millions of operations that had to be performed, it has been the one place where more trouble has occurred than any other one point, and this new arrangement has minimized it and has curtailed it almost miraculously. Some of the cases that I have had to rule on have been heartbreaking, because to many of these men, and especially in the smaller college groups, this thing has almost been life and death in the way of income to the college. And certain very small high schools, districts, where the group was very small, they have again great difficulty with the money situation.

I am just discussing it, because there isn't anything on earth I can do about it. It is the treasury ruling and it is the ruling they make with reference to every sort of a financial transaction, no matter what it is or where it is, if they owe any man money, they mail the money to his address, no matter if he is buying pig iron or paying out funds to a child working in the school, it is all the same.

QUESTION: Because funds are foolishly squandered, there is nothing to keep the child from being dropped from the payroll.

MR. WILLIAMS: You are exactly right. I am glad you brought that out. Did you all hear that? (Cries of, "No.") He said that if the child or the parent do foolishly squander the money, there is no reason why you, as the principal, cannot drop the child from the work program. As a matter of fact, that is the way a great many of the principals have handled it; that is the way we handle it on the out-of-school work program where the funds are being misused. I am glad you brought that up, I should have thought of it.

QUESTION: Is there any tendency to standardize the rate of pay?

MISS \_\_\_\_\_: I wouldn't say any standardization of rates of pay, I think the trend is to raise it from the small ten, eleven, twelve cents an hour, which existed in many parts of the country, to a minimum of eighteen

and twenty cents in the high schools. There has been a general toning up, but it does vary from twenty cents to thirty-five cents in the high school, with no particular relationship in types of work from one community to the other.

QUESTION: Who determines the amount of pay? I thought it was uniform.

MR. WILLIAMS: That \$6.00 is uniform, per month, but the hour rate is left to you, to the individual schools to determine.

QUESTION: I know one small high school had two students at work, getting \$7.00 — \$3.50 each. They wrote in to the State Director, asking for more, they wanted to give each student \$6.00 and it was granted, \$12.00 per month. They did not give those pupils any more work, but they gave them fifty cents an hour, boosted it up to fifty cents an hour.

MR. WILLIAMS: I would say that was pretty bad practice, if you want my opinion about it, because I think you are misleading the child and he would have little hope of going into private industry and securing that same amount of pay for that amount of work. I have never felt we wanted to put any limits on you, believing that you will use good judgment in the matter, and if we put a lot of limits, I could not help but make some good serious mistakes about it.

QUESTION: Is there a possibility of having different rates per hour in the same school, depending on the kind of work and the efficiency of the student?

MR. WILLIAMS: Each of you determine the rate you pay per hour. If you want to pay a child eighteen cents for making an apparatus, you think that is sufficiently technical and requires more maturity, and you want to pay fifteen cents for something else, that is your business. As far as I know, we have nothing in the way of any hampering there. That is up to each of you as to what you pay. We feel, depending on local conditions and what you have to do out there, those must be the governing factors.

QUESTION: What is the average pay?

MR. WILLIAMS: I think the average pay is twenty-five-point-something all over the country, and for college work I think it is twenty-nine cents. My own opinion is that in certain sections of the country it is somewhat too high; other sections of the country it is somewhat too low. You will probably know which sections I am talking about. That is equalizing itself out each year, so that this year I think it is in a more satisfactory condition than it has been before.

QUESTION: You have the sixteen year age limit. I am principal of a junior high school, and in order to carry out that age limit, we have to put on the payroll pupils who give the least promise of maturing into society. The pupils we feel ought to have the work, some of them who have had to drop school, while they are not sixteen, we cannot give them that work. I wonder if we can't have some arrangement where children approaching sixteen can get the benefits of this program. I had two, within the last month, who had to drop out, they were fifteen and a half.

MR. WILLIAMS: What do you all think of that?

QUESTION: You have difficulty keeping them in school, young fellows in senior high school, thirteen and fourteen years of age, and so many of those can't do any work at all.

MR. WILLIAMS: Would you have them work for the amount they receive?

QUESTION: I think they are just as capable of doing the work as the other students, sixteen and seventeen.

MR. WILLIAMS: What does that do to your whole Child Labor picture when the government starts putting children to work, below sixteen, and we are trying to get Congress to enact a Child Labor Amendment, which says nobody shall work under seventeen or eighteen? Where does that lead?

QUESTION: Is that amendment wise? (Laughter)

MR. WILLIAMS: You do want to get into an argument.

QUESTION: I am not asking personally.

MR. WILLIAMS: My own personal feeling is that it is very wise, but that will lead into a long argument. Let me ask you this: Is it a fair proposition to ask the states and the localities to take care of that group within the school picture, and agree that if the federal government goes on and goes over sixteen, that it has done its fair share by the problem? Is that a fair answer to that question or not?

QUESTION: It may be fair, but you can't get it done. (Laughter)

MR. WILLIAMS: It may be fair, but getting it done is something else.

QUESTION: Mr. Williams, there is another point to that: A fourteen year old boy or girl is not old enough to get the work training out of it that the older one is, and he is not capable of doing the work as well. It seems to me one point in this is that the child, the boy or girl, is getting training in school and to work under supervision, and a fourteen year old boy can't do that as well as a sixteen year old boy.

MR. WILLIAMS: Do you all understand what he is saying? A fourteen year old boy isn't old enough to benefit from the standpoint of getting good work habits and performing the work. How many think that is true? (One hand raised) How many think it is not true? (Majority raised hands)

QUESTION: A fourteen year old boy who is ready for the ninth grade and is prepared to do a good type of academic work is more capable of following directions and doing a better job of work than a lot of the sixteen year olds that really haven't reached that stage. I have a junior high school also, like the gentleman back there, and we find we need it more for those under sixteen.

MR. WILLIAMS: Under sixteen?

QUESTION: Yes, sir.

MR. WILLIAMS: How many of you feel this under sixteen matter is a very serious one, and that a great need exists there and something should be done about it? (About fifteen hands raised) How many of you think it is a matter which the locality itself should really take care of? (An equal number raised hands)

QUESTION: Use the word "can."

MR. WILLIAMS: How many think the locality should and can do something about it? (About eight hands raised) That is very interesting.

QUESTION: Some localities can, but others cannot.

QUESTION: Don't you think that child below sixteen years of age, don't you think that is breaking into his regular schedule of school work too early?

MR. WILLIAMS: The question is whether or not you are breaking into the child's schedule of school work too early when he is under sixteen.

QUESTION: He is a bright fellow, so many of them are extremely bright, and we have others at eighteen, nineteen, and twenty that are starting, but they have been failing down the line. This little fellow can profit by it and do the work.

QUESTION: There are exceptions, as the case he is speaking of, but I think this young fellow does not have time for work.

MR. WILLIAMS: Let me ask you all this: How many of you know of some considerable number of young people—and I mean that in ratio to the total picture—who are denied opportunity to go to high school because of financial inability to stay in school? How many of you know definitely of young people in that category? (About ten hands raised.)

QUESTION: Mr. Williams, I heard it said in a recent meeting here that work is having a new and more important place in education. I am wondering if, in that light, that is a little different from the child labor point of view; in secondary education, work as such brought into the secondary education program, and if that isn't a little different point of view from the child labor.

MR. WILLIAMS: You can't get me in an argument against discipline and work for young people. I believe in it. I believe they ought to be given definite tasks before they are twelve years of age. If you want my private opinion, I think it is good for them. But there are some difficulties here, and I think we ought to thrash them out as much as we can. I think there are some practical considerations in this picture. Primarily, you are able to get this money—speaking now from the standpoint of the political and governmental aspects of it—, you are able to get this money largely on the basis that these young people cannot find employment.

Now, the minute you move down below the level of, say sixteen, you get into an altogether new and different category of needs, because nobody will agree and you would not even make the argument on that basis that a child under sixteen is unemployed. You wouldn't say that. You would say the child is financially unable to go to school. But, primarily, you get funds for the thing we are doing because there is a unit out here caught in a blind alley and he can't get on with his own individual life. That is why you get this money.

I recognize you have a problem here. I think you gentlemen know more about this than I do, but I remember the last figures that I had on this subject indicated there were between three and three and a half million young people between the ages of fourteen and seventeen who were not in high school, for some reason or other, and who had not completed their high school courses. Of course, that does not constitute a terrific problem if the figure is anywhere near that, and that does correspond to the total population in that age group, and once you subtract the six and a half from the 750,000 that are now in high school, that makes up your age group, that automatically takes away from that final figure of three and a half million. Is that about right, Dr. Reeves and Dr. Judd?

QUESTION: If you call the high school senior four years, that may be right, but does that mean out of school entirely?

MR. WILLIAMS: As I understand, that is the group that is not in high school but belongs to high school grades.

QUESTION: A number are in the elementary grades.

MR. WILLIAMS: That goes on down.

QUESTION: They are not entirely out of school.

MR. WILLIAMS: I think that is where there is some discrepancy, there are some not in high school that are in the elementary school, but there are plenty, whether it is two and a half million or three.

QUESTION: That includes people who are not near enough to a high school to go anyway. That includes those for whom high school opportunity is not provided by the neighboring community.

MR. WILLIAMS: For instance, in Alabama, Mr. Bryan, there are 70,000 youngsters living in rural areas that have not gone to high school at all, that are in the high school group, and there is no possibility of their going to high school unless something like this could come along and give the financial means.

QUESTION: The other thing that comes along, Mr. Williams—it has been suggested by your question—, in some of the states, the state has taken the responsibility for these youngsters who, in their local habitats, cannot get a high school opportunity and they pay the tuition of this youngster, that is, the state pays the tuition of the youngster to go to a high school that is further away from home. There is a clear case in which the state has taken the responsibility of providing a high school opportunity where the local community does not provide that high school opportunity for the youngster.

QUESTION: Following along that, where the tuition is not paid to the school but is paid to the child, he may use that for his subsistence in a neighboring town.

QUESTION: Yes, the boarding scheme has been worked out in a good many states.

MR. WILLIAMS: The thing that interests me here, and I think it is of great significance, is that you school people are saying that this thing that has been tried for those above sixteen as a means by which they could go on and stay in school, ought to be expanded to include a group below sixteen. I think that is important. Now, how many of you are prepared to say that that, in your judgment, ought to be done? (About nine hands raised.) How many think it would be an unwise thing to undertake? (Seven hands raised.)

QUESTION: The need is there, I don't know how it ought to be met, but there is a need there.

MR. WILLIAMS: There is a need there, but you are not yet ready to say how it ought to be met.

QUESTION: It ought to be in the national policy. I am not familiar enough with the program to say.

MR. WILLIAMS: In your own school, would that be acceptable to you?



QUESTION: Anything that would give the help would be acceptable.

MR. WILLIAMS: That is what I am asking: In each of your schools, would this thing coming down to fourteen be acceptable?

QUESTION: You can't find jobs enough for all of them.

MR. WILLIAMS: Let's take a vote on it. (About twelve hands raised.) They don't seem to be voting much in the middle part of the country, the two Coasts are voting pretty strongly.

QUESTION: Isn't there another point there, Mr. Williams, that has not been brought out: There are not funds enough to take care of those we have above sixteen and include these others. You would spread your butter so thin, it would not taste, it would not spread.

MR. WILLIAMS: I think we have gotten some soundings here and it is very interesting. Let's talk about the question that is implied here, that I want to talk about. How many of you feel this thing we did last year, in saying that no youth should be on the roll for less than \$3.00 a month was wise? How many think that was a wise move? (About ten hands raised) How many of you think it should have been left the way it was? (Six hands raised) I think I win on that score. Let me ask you this: How many of you would like to see the amount shoved up, so that next year we would get on a level where no youth would be on for less, say, than \$4.00? How many think that would be helpful, considering the whole tone and health of the idea? How many would like to see it raised up to \$4.00? (No response)

QUESTION: Not unless the small school collected the \$4.00 in November for October and November. Sometimes you can't get enough work to give him \$4.00 worth of work.

MR. WILLIAMS: You would like then to have it so it would be more than \$4.00 in one given month.

QUESTION: Yes, but it could be accumulated.

MR. WILLIAMS: Would you push that to say that you would want to have more than \$6.00 in one given month? How many would like to have an arrangement whereby you would say it should average not more than \$6.00 a month in nine months, but you should allow the student to earn more than \$6.00 in any one given month? How many would like that arrangement? (Eight hands raised)

QUESTION: It seems to me it would be a good idea to let the work accumulate in the months they can do the work, but keep the pay more regular. I don't think it would be wise to pay a youngster \$10.00 one month and nothing the next, but the work will work out that way, especially out-of-doors work, landscaping and so forth.

QUESTION: Isn't there a tendency to take too much time away from

the school? If you are paying twenty cents an hour, which is a rather good wage for a youngster in most communities, that is thirty hours a month, and if he is trying to pull a load in school and working, too, isn't that too much?

MR. WILLIAMS: You think there is danger of lumping up more work than the student can perform and carry on his school work. How many would like to see it remain as it is, with a top of \$6.00? (About ten hands raised) It seems there are some mighty wise people, I didn't get anybody to agree to change some of these things.

QUESTION: I think you will find the waiting list quite large for youths who are eligible. A number of youths have made application and can't get anything, because there is no further work. There are some very keen cases that come up.

MR. WILLIAMS: You want more money? (Laughter)

QUESTION: That's the idea. (Laughter)

MR. WILLIAMS: Well, Congress is in session. (Laughter)

QUESTION: It seems to me there is a big advantage in having this work done regularly throughout the school year rather than bunching it up, as has been suggested. I think those regular work habits are a fine thing for the pupil.

MR. WILLIAMS: Well now, let's go on to another phase of it. A lot of people come and say: "This work does not stand up," that the work we are doing isn't good. You all are put in the position where you can't very easily refuse this money, and the community would look askance at you and you would be criticized if, over on the other side of the country, they are taking it and youngsters are getting help but you are refusing it and you are a heartless kind of a "critter" and you are not doing your share and part by these deserving young children who are poor, and finally you succumb. But, as a matter of fact, the thing does not stand up and you know in your heart that it does not stand up, but you can't say much and you do the best you can with it, but honestly you don't think much of it, and as compared to the work done, this work isn't good.

I think we ought to be frank with each other. I can say to you frankly and honestly that I don't want to be a part of something that is teaching young people dishonest work habits and teaching them to take money from their government under false pretenses and under conditions that you cannot respect or any other honest man could not respect. If those conditions are true, we ought to face them and tell Congress that this thing is not what it should be, we cannot make it work, it is not the kind of thing that should be given to young people, and try to find some other way to do this. We are not irrevocably committed to this. We have tried something now, and if

it has not worked, we ought to frankly face it and we ought not to go along with it.

QUESTION: I think there is no doubt about the fact that some of the criticisms of that fact are justified in individual circumstances, but I think it is due to two things that are not generally recognized. The first is, this is the selected process operating in the designation that the youngsters are going to do this. They are not the cream of the crop, you can't expect them to do the cream of the job; you can't expect them to do as good a job as you would expect of the average youngster, granting there are individual exceptions. The other thing is that this is something new that struck everybody as a big job all at once, an emergency measure, and we school teachers aren't awfully fast with catching up with new ideas and making them work efficiently.

MR. WILLIAMS: You would not want anybody else to say that. (Laughter)

QUESTION: Of course not, but it takes a little while to work these things out, and it is going to take a while for the school people to work out how to use this thing as a good educational device.

I have been tremendously interested in what one of your units in Ohio has done to work with the supervisors of the NYA projects to get the youths to work on these projects. I think, in my instance, I have done what others have done, I have been so busy I have not bothered with the youngsters, I have not taken the time to give them any supervisory help at all. But if we had in my particular community a NYA supervisor who came around and said, once in a while: "What are you doing to make this a good educational process for the youngsters?" maybe I would do more about it.

QUESTION: Personally, I have been working with it ever since it started and I am very much in favor of the program, in fact, I have only had, in the five years I have worked with it, about four or five students who took the attitude of trying to beat the thing.

The thing we usually try to do—I don't say that I supervise the whole thing—I try to discuss the need and all with this youngster, and also what they are capable of doing and assigning that student to a job that he is capable of doing, and pay him a wage that is comparable with the wages of the community, and then demand that he does the job.

This year, we have had to dismiss one student from a program, because the check-up on him, assignment of the job of work of which he was plenty capable of doing, showed he refused to do it. We kept calling his attention to it, and we finally said we could not use him if he did not want to do the work. I think the first thing is that it is a way of building character.

We had a girl who took the attitude that she was working too long hours. She said: "What difference does it make as long as the government is

paying for it?" But we said: "We are responsible to the supervisor." I told her she could do the work and do a good job, or else we would put somebody else in her place. Personally, it worked in our system.

QUESTION: Another thing there, if you are going to hold these students who are in training for work up to 100% and throw the whole thing over if they don't come up to that, what about our academic work where we let them pass at 70% or "C minus"? (Laughter and applause)

MR. WILLIAMS: Maybe they are holding us to a higher standard than that. Let's go ahead.

QUESTION: I think if the program has not worked, in most cases it might be an indictment against the administration's supervision, I mean the local administration. If the supervision is carefully planned, in my experience it has worked out very well. For example, we have assigned NYA work to boys, and in the cafeteria work we use the cafeteria supervisor, in office work we use the commercial teacher, in maintenance work the janitor is responsible and reports and supervises those youngsters, and we have found they have received an excellent training. A great many of those are of the more mediocre types and still they have received training that has developed them to the point where they have been absorbed in industry in these fields. I think the program has been a tremendous boon. I know it has to our community.

QUESTION: I would like to say that wherever work is well planned and is socially significant and useful, if the one supervising it has the right attitude toward it to get good results, sometimes the work does not amount to more than raking leaves by the WPA, and I think that is the reason some of us don't get behind it.

MR. WILLIAMS: Let me ask you this: How many of you have these youngsters immediately under you, so you know what sort of work is performed? (About twelve hands raised) All right, you self same people, how many of you feel that you can honestly say that this work they do, to your own knowledge, stands out in your field so that you can respect it? (The same number of hands raised) How many of you feel you can't sponsor and respect it as work? (No response)

QUESTION: Yes, if you will let me say it is probably my fault.

MR. WILLIAMS: We are not saying whose fault it is. Well, that is very interesting. Now, let's go a little farther. What could we do, first of all, we put on a man in every state, last year, with some considerable fear and trembling, to go out and see if he could help make this thing better, helping you both on the book work and the work program. How many of you have had a visit from some such person during the year? (Five hands raised—Illinois, Ohio, Georgia, Wisconsin, Washington)

QUESTION: I think Mr. Robertson, in Michigan, came to see our man.

QUESTION: Maybe they have had conferences, Mr. Williams.

MR. WILLIAMS: They are supposed to go to the individual school.

QUESTION: The Ohio man has been to see me.

MR. WILLIAMS: How many of you feel that sort of thing has helped you, been a help to you in doing this job? (Same hands raised) How many of you would welcome more of that assistance? (Three hands raised)

Let's talk about that a little bit. It is only around five o'clock now and you haven't done very much today, you have only been in meetings since about eight o'clock this morning. This is a particular point and we are not going to go on very much longer, it is ten after five, suppose we say we will adjourn at five-thirty. Is that all right? I am anxious to get some positive things out of this. What suggestions have you that you think would be helpful at this point in making this thing a better and a more worthwhile undertaking?

QUESTION: If your supervisors, or whatever you call them, when going around the country making the suggestions, find out the schools in which, without any help from him, the school people have done a good job to make this function, and then let those school people tell us how they did it, because we will take it from our own school people quicker than we will take it from you.

MR. WILLIAMS: Say that over again. (Laughter) I am not challenging your statement.

QUESTION: Find out the schools where a good job has been done and then get those school people to tell the rest of us school people how they did it.

DR. JUDD: The April bulletin of the Department of Secondary School Principals is being issued by a small committee of your own group, and it is going to contain a whole series of illustrations of projects they picked out of a big handful they collected from all over the country. I think they are going to satisfy pretty definitely the point you are bringing up.

QUESTION: I think that is fine, Dr. Judd, but it will take a lot of bulletins of that kind before all of us are going to read one of them.

QUESTION: I think if you put it in the official organ of each State Educational Association.

QUESTION: This gentleman said they would take it from the student.

MR. WILLIAMS: No, he means the school fellow would accept it from some other school fellow.

QUESTION: You know the channels there are, radio, pamphlets, every-

thing under the sun you can use to get information around, we make progress imitating each other.

MR. WILLIAMS: Good things don't travel far very easily.

QUESTION: You have to provide the transportation.

QUESTION: In the State of Illinois, we have our annual conference, they have conference meetings in which they try to teach us a good job of teaching history. Why can't we have a NYA section just as a history section? I have tried for three years to get that thing started in Illinois and I haven't succeeded yet.

QUESTION: These discussion groups of secondary education are working rather successfully in many of the states; this could be made a topic for discussion in those discussion groups.

MR. WILLIAMS: The women are not doing much talking.

QUESTION: In Wisconsin, we have such a bulletin. Every six weeks, the NYA gets up a beautiful bulletin telling what is done over the state and it is highly beneficial to the people doing NYA.

QUESTION: What would be the advantage, if any, of tying up these out-of-school projects in teaching additional work?

MR. WILLIAMS: I think there would be every advantage of tying up the out-of-school work with the in-school work.

QUESTION: It seems to me that expands the opportunities of that school and tying a definite, continuous program to that school.

QUESTION: Mr. Williams, I know this probably will not be well received in some places, but it seems to me that in a large metropolitan area, where you had say \$50,000. more to spend on scholarships, that if some supervision could be provided from the NYA appropriations to help manage a thing like that. You have very fine supervision for NYA projects, and if such an individual could be assigned to the superintendent of staff, to help administer it and relieve them of that, I believe this work program in the schools could be made more effective.

MR. WILLIAMS: Well, you are right on to a hot spot there.

QUESTION: We want Washington to have something done about it.

MR. WILLIAMS: You see from the start, some of us have said that this program is going to be good or it is going to be no good, according to what the school people made out of it, and that unless the school people took it and really ran it, that it was impossible to undertake. I still think that is absolutely true. For instance, you have 29,000 high schools, 28,000 high schools participating in the fund. Now, if you were to attempt to employ supervision in the 28,000 high schools, you would be sunk. Further-



more, if you tried to do it, you could not hire anything comparable to the ability that exists in those schools right now, unless you had an extra hundred million dollars to pay for it. So, frankly, this thing will be done by you people or it is gone. There isn't any use fooling ourselves. You cannot provide supervision for this job out of the money that you can get from Congress. Furthermore, no such supervision exists; even if you had the money, you could not go out and hire it. It just does not exist. You are the only people who can furnish it.

I mean, as desirable as it might be to have in a few places somebody to help out, the principle of this thing seems to me to be fundamental, that is that this must be turned over to you and you must manage it, you must run it, and it must be run by the people you hire and the people you pay. As far as I am concerned, that is basic.

QUESTION: That is the way it should be, exactly. That is one trouble with some of the other projects right now, there are too many supervisors, and you can't do anything because of the supervisors. I think it is much better to have it in the hands of the school people. (Applause)

QUESTION: May I ask a question? You don't need to answer it if you don't want. Just why was that \$3.00 minimum put on? I have girls in my school who belong to large families, they do need some help, yet they find it difficult at twenty cents an hour, which we pay the girls. They would rather work ten hours a month and get \$2.00. Of course, they can do that, but it seems to me in Iowa, where the economic situation is a little more even, that it would have been better if we could have scattered that money out to more people and pay \$2.00 a month, or something like that. Our County Association of School Superintendents took that up and they were unanimous, they thought it would serve the purpose better without the \$3.00 a month minimum. I am honest in asking the question.

QUESTION: That is our problem now. We have our \$3.00 minimum, our quota is \$222.00 with about seventy-five active workers. You have so many inactives, we keep changing the jobs.

QUESTION: I sometimes think we expect too much of these children is the whole trouble. You expect a degree of efficiency which adults have obtained through a long period of study and effort, and these students do not do the clerical work as well as older people, but we should not expect them to.

One of our primary teachers was trying to teach a little fellow a capital "O," the little fellow went to his sister, who had just returned from an eastern college, she said: "You do it this way." He said: "Yes, I know, but that is just damned hard for me to do." (Laughter)

MR. WILLIAMS: We are getting a little off the track here. (Laughter) On that \$3.00 business, our feeling about that was that unless you took as



your basis that a child could not stay in school with any degree of decency in the matter of food and clothing unless he had this help, that anything below \$3.00—and my personal opinion is that is too low—don't make sense. That unless that constitutes the help necessary to keep him in school, you can't make anything out of it.

We have thousands of children all over America getting \$1.00 a month. Frankly, I think that is a bad and unhealthy thing. I think \$3.00 is bad. I think we would be in a much healthier condition from the standpoint of developing the child to the seriousness of this operation and the validity of it if we had it higher than that.

You see what I am trying to say: If we get below a certain level, the thing becomes a kind of grab bag from which everybody gets a little and your real validity, the reason why the nation would do it, gets mighty thin. I think that is basic for everything we do. We just have to watch that.

In the college program, we got down to \$5.00 and we found certain colleges giving 100 students \$5.00 each. You know that they are just handing out all they have on a \$5.00 level. That isn't being honest. I don't think that is honest. I don't think you can find 100 young people whose economic situation is so identical as to make that thing an honest distribution of that money. Therefore, I think you get up to a point where you say \$10.00 constitutes the lowest level on which you ought to go in distributing federal money, and anything less than that, you are on shaky grounds even talking about saying that constitutes the difference between their going to school in a decent and proper way. Whether that is sound reasoning, you can judge, you can say, "I don't agree with you," but that is the basis of the reasoning.

QUESTION: A time or two, it has been mentioned here on evaluating the work program. I sat on the Executive Committee of the North Central, last Saturday, when that Committee voted \$2500.00 to be used by the American Youth Commission in case they needed additional funds to make a study of practices and procedures and even out-of-school work programs, and make those materials available to secondary school men of the country. I just thought that was a matter of interest.

MR. WILLIAMS: We would welcome anything like that. Let me ask you all this (interrupted)

QUESTION: Here is a probability: Three of the Regional Associations combined with this enterprise in the American Youth Commission and we are authorized to spend the money to do exactly the thing you mentioned, to find where the work is being done right, what can be done to improve it, and then make it available to all those who are cooperating.

MR. WILLIAMS: I would like to ask one further question about this work program: That is, how many of you have succeeded in making the

work that the student does a part of the student's school work, so that the two are linked together? How many of you feel that, at least in some instances in your schools, you have been able to do that? (About ten hands raised)

QUESTION: About thirty per cent. (Voices from floor, "Partly")

MR. WILLIAMS: That is very interesting. Do you feel as you go along in the thing that it has increasing possibilities of that character for you? (Voices from floor, "Yes.") Do you feel this thing is leading somewhere educationally? Is that right? What are the obstacles, what are the problems of getting that expanded and getting it done almost 100%? What are your difficulties?

QUESTION: The biggest problem is that junior high group or seventh graders who are about sixteen, who are assigned a job and can't do the work. They are the only real problem.

MR. WILLIAMS: I notice in your reports that fifteen per cent of the total secondary school work did janitorial or maintenance work, 15.1% Colleges make a very much better record there, they had 4.8% or 9%. Of course, in some instances you have rural high schools, that is on a different basis I think, and while it isn't the most desirable kind of work, it frequently does lead to some very positive and good types of occupational activities there and we must not be blind to that. I think it is all right.

I did not get your point. You say many of these students cannot do anything above the maintenance level?

QUESTION: It is difficult, it requires supervision.

MR. WILLIAMS: What other things would you suggest? What could the government do, what could we do to help you do that? That is the thing we are all terribly interested in. What is it you need? Do you need more staff, is that what you need? Do you need certain kinds of equipment, or is it experience of some other fellows where it has been done through other groups?

QUESTION: I think in most cases we need more staff. I think most high school principals should agree there. I think if we had a supervisor of that work, we could get along better.

MR. WILLIAMS: You think that is a very important consideration just here, or is that an important consideration over the whole thing?

QUESTION: I think over the whole thing on all our problems.

QUESTION: I just wonder if we can say that some of these assigned maintenance, if that isn't helping them in our work. I know if there is no project of study, a lot of these we assign to maintenance never go to college and they usually go into some type of manual labor.

MR. WILLIAMS: How could that be related to any school work they were taking?

QUESTION: If you enlarge the objectives of the school, then it belongs in the educational program.

QUESTION: If you can cultivate proper work habits and wanting to do the job and being punctual and on time, I think that is good training.

MR. WILLIAMS: In one sense, you call cultivating good work habits part of the educational program?

QUESTION: We are always going to need that. We have to train the boy to work in school, vocational training.

MR. WILLIAMS: Yes. I think we might do well to be a little more strict in our interpretation is the thing I am trying to say here. That is, you have a youngster taking civics, what I am trying to say is, have you worked out work projects that are tied into the civic information and knowledge and intelligence of the community so that that child does work that aids him in understanding the subject matter in that particular field? That is what I am trying to say. Granted you have a course in engineering and you give work in maintenance, that is part of the program, but a good many of you haven't got that.

QUESTION: Is there a danger of differentiating and discouraging voluntary work that a student not on the payroll would do?

MR. WILLIAMS: I think you have a very interesting point there: Does the question: How much has this NYA discouraged and replaced that which used to be the honorary and voluntary work on the part of the students? Let's ask that question here: How many of you have felt it has seriously impaired that and done away with that? How many of you think that activity is still going on and is in the prominent place that it used to have? (About five hands raised)

QUESTION: Do you think the type of work the student does matters? After all, the program is to inculcate in the student the idea of doing the work well, whether it is maintenance work or typing.

MR. WILLIAMS: I think you have a very interesting point there: Does the type of work the student does really make any difference to the value of the student? Who wants to speak to that?

QUESTION: Wouldn't it make the student realize this is necessary work and important work, not just helping him along and giving him money? That would make a difference.

MR. WILLIAMS: He predicates his statement on the fact that in both instances the work is well done, it is well ordered, they do both jobs well, which has the most value: That which is tied into the studies of the child

and is just as well ordered, and the value of work habits is just as good, which has the greater value to the child? That is the question he is raising.

QUESTION: It would not matter, if it is proper training for citizenship. That is the part of the school job to teach him.

QUESTION: If it is work that ties in with his regular assigned work, in some course, it seems to me you have a difficult problem of determining the work which he shall do, his regular work in preparation and work for which he shall be paid. You have a line of demarcation, he has to get his lessons, his assigned work.

QUESTION: If he is paid for getting his lessons, then give him a higher mark.

QUESTION: Isn't it true that most of the other boys and girls in the school are earning it by personal service in that type of jobs? Aren't these boys and girls doing the same thing as the boys and girls are doing in private accounts, aren't they selling papers, fixing fires, and that sort of thing? I don't think we are doing anything to lower the standard.

MR. WILLIAMS: We are not saying that. I am just wondering if we have not broadened it, viewing what has happened in the last thirty or forty years, where work has gone out of the lives of the young people of this country, gone out of the lives of my boys. My boys come home, they go to the local high school, three of them do, they start right off working on automobiles, motorcycles. I have a whole lot of chickens around there, there isn't much work to that. They have to earn what they get. Now, they do it with apparently great joy, at least they are all smutted up all the time, they never can get themselves clean. I say: "Do you get any of that stuff at school?" "No." "What do you do?" "Oh, we study." I have a feeling that the schools are somehow or other not giving these youngsters something that they need desperately, and that is good hard work.

Now, I don't think this thing can be limited just to these youngsters who are going to be paid for it. I was up at Cornell and I asked one of the men there—curiously enough, his name was "Savage", he came from Vermont—, I said: "What do you think of this thing?" He said: "I think it is going to live. I don't think much of you." (Laughter) But this is why he said it works: "You let the school handle it and they need work, and it is good for them." He said: "You know what the trouble is, it should be extended to everybody in the school. I will tell you frankly that students come to me and beg to be given assignments or tasks like these NYA boys are performing, because they say 'These boys are learning more than I am, and can't I go with them out to the barn and do what they are doing?'"

Now, that is the thing I am talking about. In other words, we have seen work go out of the lives of youth in America, and figures will show that

since 1890 there has actually been a decrease in the number, not the percentage but the number of people employed in America, under twenty years of age. That in the face of your population increasing by leaps and bounds, so that we are fast reaching a point in American life where we have an actual non-existent work content in the lives of people under twenty years of age. I think, personally, it constitutes one of the most serious problems that we face as a civilization.

You school people have got to find a way to put work into the lives of people under twenty years of age, and it can't be a hit and miss work thing. It can't be the kind of thing you are talking about. You said: "I don't know what they do. I can't bother with them. I have my own work to do." It can't be that. It has got to be work and real work and work that they know they have to give an account of or suffer some consequence, either social or material loss.

What I think is important about this thing we are saying right now is that you all have a chance here, with this arrangement which you have under us, to experiment on a very wide and sweeping front of how to get work into the lives of young people, at least beginning at sixteen, although you are right to begin at fourteen, and in some instances before that, and that you are failing to do.

I feel, to be intelligent, this work must be related to that which they are leading on toward. It is all right, so far as going out to take care of chickens if you never expect to go into the chicken business, but it would be better for the boy if, when he started Spanish, he had a project of actual disciplined work in connection with the Spanish teaching program.

That is "old stuff" to all of us, but I think it is terribly important. I think now you have a great chance to do the thing that basically needs to be done. This one more comment and then I will quit talking: When you get to the big factor that stands out in our experience in the last four years, that over fifty per cent of the young people coming to us have to say they have never been required or had a chance to perform a single day's disciplined work, now get the handicap that a child is under when he has to go out and try to get a job with that as his background.

QUESTION: NYA has not scratched the surface.

MR. WILLIAMS: We haven't got the money. We do all we can, but we can't reach all of them.

QUESTION: In these latter remarks, you have not been talking specifically about the NYA so much as the general educational program. It seems to me you have talked about the general educational problem and the youth problem, and the curriculum committees over the country, you can get help from them and they can get help from you and it can be worked out.

MR. WILLIAMS: I would like to say this, that this past year one of the happy developments from the standpoint of learning has been the great degree to which there has come about an integration of this element in which whole groups have joined forces with other groups. We do, I think, have a happy relationship with the Office of Education, and we are working with Dr. Judd hand-and-glove. We have a very cordial relationship with the Youth Commission, Dr. Reeves and his whole connection; he is studying our work, he has his people in there and they are going to make soundings of what they feel, and the people in education are thinking of every youth in America, whereas, in a sense, we are only thinking of those we have money to help. Then the whole vocational group, we have developed some very fine relationships there. So, I see us all working at this thing just now with a better understanding among each other than we have ever had before, a very happy circumstance, that can be increased and augmented in the months to come, because we have got something.

This is no passing thing. This isn't a depression, this isn't brought on by unemployment. This thing is a condition of society that is just as new as the industrial revolution was and just as fundamental, this fact that you have this vast population of young people with nowhere to go. You are not going to get rid of them if you were to push up your income to \$5,000. a year for every man and woman in America; you would still have young people under twenty years of age, by the thousands, that could not get a job. You know how they can make things in America with such speed that you can't use them.

Some people call that a pessimistic view, but I am willing to be called that as long as I am willing to face the music. You have a situation that has never been present before in the history of mankind, and it is so important that this thing we are talking about is linked up to that whole new social pattern that has come about in our very lifetime.

In thinking of this work, thinking of what you are doing, I think you are tinkering with the future in an almost whole way, because this is the school's business. What I am talking about is not the NYA, it is not a separate government business; it is the school's business. You people have got to meet this problem in America of providing positive arrangements for young people under sixteen, seventeen, eighteen, nineteen years of age. It is going to be your job. It isn't your job because you failed to do it.

QUESTION: We can't do it. The San Francisco papers last summer answered your statement, it is just what they are saying now, pouring over the cover why it isn't true. It is a defeatist attitude, they are all being taken care of—they are not!

MR. WILLIAMS: Well you are making progress. In the first place, you



are leaders, you people who are here, you meet here and go over and over and over, don't you?

QUESTION: I am not sure that I agree with your economics report, but before you adjourn the meeting, I would like to say that a lot of us feel our personal appreciation to you for coming here. Now, a lot of us republicans have said some nasty things about you. (Laughter) That was partly because we are republicans, but partly because we misunderstood what you were doing and because we misunderstood what you are up against. I have changed my opinions, this afternoon. I think if we spend more time doing this sort of thing, we will spend less time calling names and not doing something about it. (Laughter)

MR. WILLIAMS: I guess you are all pretty tired and I don't think I want to delay this. I have a lot of other things I would like to ask you and talk about.

QUESTION: Evidently, there is going to be a report made of this.

MR. WILLIAMS: Yes.

QUESTION: May we have the report?

MR. WILLIAMS: Mr. Church, I understand, has provided for that.

MR. WILLIAMS: I would be very glad to, if we are unable to get him to do it. I think what you have said here might be given a very much broader distribution than brought out here.

I want to make one announcement before I close, that is, there is a more mature consideration of how to spend the funds we get next year. We have decided to make a distribution of a straight reduction of whatever amount we get within three categories, so if a reduction comes to fifteen per cent in every group, college, high school, and out-of-school work, each will take an equal reduction of fifteen per cent. You are to disregard this other thing that came out, and the proposal we will make to the Congressional Committee is that there be an equitable distribution of the cut among the three categories, rather than that which was previously arranged.

QUESTION: Mr. Williams, I wonder what effort is being made to make a permanent appropriation to the schools by the government of the United States. Is there a possibility of its being done? I think if it is only a temporary measure, it will be treated that way, and that probably has contributed to the limit of its progress already.

MR. WILLIAMS: That is a matter for Congress, entirely within the province of Congress, and there is always a natural feeling on the part of those people sponsoring the movement to entrench it as much as they can in order to keep it from being uprooted. I do not have anything that I would care to say at this moment. We are going through the process of



trying to get next year's appropriation, and until that matter is settled, I think it is the wise part of our judgment not to discuss the other proposition.

QUESTION: We have been reminded many times in this meeting and other meetings that the school's responsibility does not cease when the student drops out of school, so I was wondering, in communities in which the schools are trying to do something so far as placement and so on, is any arrangement being made by which this out-of-school program could link up with the school in helping on that thing?

MR. WILLIAMS: I think very decidedly it can, and it is being done in a lot of places. You school people and our people ought to be working hand-in-glove. We should be helping you get more equipment, get better facilities, taking cues from you as to what we can do to fit into the needs of the community, we in turn helping you in every way we can. That is my attitude about it. You in turn should be giving us direction and assistance and opening up your schools to these youngsters who are not in the schools and have left for one reason or another, and giving to us the means of improving your plant.

QUESTION: If there are a few here interested in the NYA, will you spare a few minutes here to discuss that?

MR. WILLIAMS: I will be happy to.

QUESTION: I know there are people here who are interested not only in the NYA projects, but also communities. I am wondering if there are any school people here that think it would be advisable to suggest to you some place this summer as a teaching place where you set up a laboratory in connection with a similar school for four or five days, to train principals and superintendents or teachers in the problem of their working this NYA program, if it has an educational possibility, and the type of work that many are trying to get on that can't get on because of the experience the people are getting. One of the handicaps is lack of knowledge on the part of us school people to know how to handle it. There is no use for us to dodge it. It is a new program, but I profit by learning what the other school man is doing, and I pass on to him something I learn. It might be money well spent to collect at some school, set up a laboratory or workshop, in the interest of directing NYA, and put into those places what you found most successful for school men over the country, so our people who are in summer school can get the benefit of it. We ought to welcome it rather than try to get rid of it. We want to hold on to it.

MR. WILLIAMS: Let me say this finally in closing, that in each of our places we have state directors, we have our regular people, and what is needed, as I feel, we need more positive proof on the part of you all to say to us what we can do for those pupils. These people labor under my general

policy that I don't want them to go in and take this job from you. I am not going to ever let it happen as long as I have anything to say about it. If you don't want the job, then it is going by the boards. That is the attitude I take. Therefore, they are reluctant to moving in, in their relations with you. I would rather let it work out over a period of years than to be pushing a thing and do some violence to this basic relationship that we have established in America.

I mean this: We would be in a sorry fix if the school people of America cannot be trusted with work of this kind. Our civilization is certainly in a bad way. That is what I would like to tell Congress. (Laughter)

I wish you would feel free to write to me anything about it that you think I ought to know, or Dr. Judd, and I know Dr. Reeves feels the same way. He has been a real uncle to this and Dr. Judd over here, I guess I should say he is a grand uncle. I have been very happy to see you all, and thank you very much. (Applause)

Adjournment at 5:50 P. M.

ADJOURNMENT SINE DIE

## FOURTH GENERAL SESSION

Wednesday, February 28, 1940

The fourth general session of the convention was divided into three groups.

### THE JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL PROGRAM

The junior high-school group met in Committee Room 3-B of the Municipal Auditorium.

Principal Edwin D. Martin of Hamilton Junior High School, Houston, Texas, presided. The Chairman introduced J. Paul Leonard, Professor of Secondary Education, Leland Stanford University, California, who read his paper.

### FRONTIERS IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL EDUCATION

J. PAUL LEONARD

Stanford University

The Roman people applied the term *nullius filius* to a boy without inheritable rights. The term really meant "the son of nobody." While from one point of view the application of this term to the junior high school can be challenged, from another position the term may have some interesting implications.

The junior high school was born of confused parents. Purposes, review, transition, content, and materials confused the mother—the elementary parent; while numbers, courses, requirements, college, vocations, life, and failures confused the father—the secondary parent. From these two came an offspring, a son of confusion. The paternal tradition of society held true, for the boy took his father's name—high school, a *junior* high school. His nurses were chosen pretty largely from his father's line, and the paternal customs became the boy's catechism. His father and mother struggled over supremacy, each judging the development of the child in terms of his own standards. Living in such an unintegrated home atmosphere, the youth has justified his name—the son of confusion. You probably know this child more intimately than I do, although I have tried to teach him and for several years have worked with him and his parents, seeking to establish a better relationship among them. Let us together then, for a short period, become psychoanalysts and propose an environment and a series of principles which will make this child a better adjusted individual. For this purpose let us drop the analogy.

In the first place, we need to establish a clearer and more wholesome relationship between the senior high school and the elementary school. The

leaders in the senior high school are so busy attending to business—the business of selecting courses agreeable to the university and to its prize pupils—the teachers, of punching holes in the ribbon of a master clock so the routine will not be disturbed, of grading by respectable standards—so busy that they do not have time to sit down to discuss the work in other units of the school system. Senior high-school teachers expect junior youth to enter high school, so why shouldn't they prepare to do so as quickly as possible? But the elementary teacher has lived all day with the child, trying to understand his every whim, helping him adjust to the group about him, teaching him something of the community in which he lives, and guiding him into new experiences so that he feels secure in each new environment. The senior high teacher feels there are so many things the youth must know about the world, and as he is soon approaching puberty, he will be a changed boy, an entirely different boy, suddenly conscious of his place in life. But the elementary teacher sees him basically as the same boy, but with different emerging interests and with needed modifications in his developing social consciousness. She feels the process of growing up is continuous with some continuation of familiar techniques and experiences, but with the gradual emergence of different materials and processes. The senior high teacher feels that the youth needs to become stable to take on the serious business of study for life. He has played long enough. The elementary school has nursed him; the senior high school will get him ready for a vocation and for cultural respect.

What kind of a reformed relationship do we desire? Without comment, for we may be able to comment during the discussion, let me set forth some suggested adjustments.

1. Teachers in both elementary and senior high schools need to merge their understanding of development of children, either by more careful study of the individual children or by acquaintance with psychological studies of the development of children and youth. Teachers need to understand that development is a continuous process, not one of arbitrary stages each with such a distinct pattern that we spend much of our time discussing how to articulate them.
2. Teachers from all levels need to sit down together and talk on an equal basis of understanding and mutual respect. Each needs to clear his mind of the notion that the other has a special job to do and when one has completed it, the other will begin.
3. All teachers need to realize more completely that whatever youth eventually become, the result will be the product of the guidance of all who have dealt with them, and that the coöperative thinking of all groups is needed throughout the entire period of schooling.
4. All teachers need to realize that whatever development takes place

is the result of living with people and with problems, and is not an automatic result of arranging a schedule of a program of study which contains assigned jobs to be performed.

In the second place, the junior high school needs a changed program for the development of junior youth. The present program is the result of dissatisfactions: dissatisfaction with the traditional work of the later years of the elementary school, characterized largely by review of what the child had learned for six years so that he might make a favorable impression upon the high-school teachers; dissatisfaction, too, with the first year of the high-school program, a program so heavily laden with new experiences and divisional organization that many youth failed to respond successfully to it and either resented it or drew away from it. Any program which tries to squeeze itself in between two other rather definitely organized programs and represent on the one hand a transition and on the other anticipatory preparation is bound to be confusing and inappropriate. It is likely to be lean and barren, constantly under fire, and on the defensive. Those who administer it are likely to spend much time in discussing articulation, which in itself is ample evidence of broken continuity.

The program for junior youth should be one of positive action, clearly defined with relation to needs, to organic changes, and to interests and potentialities that are emerging. It should be neither review nor preparation for something to follow. Its main emphasis should be on the continuity and present living, and the designing of the program should be the responsibility of those who have worked with children, with adolescents, and with adults. It should be coöperatively determined with relation to the continuous development of children and with no respect to the vested interests of any institution wishing to engage the youth in the future or with the dominance of any that has dealt with the child in the past.

What kind of changed program will we recommend? Again may I suggest some adjustments without extended comments.

1. Those who direct junior youth, either by direct teaching of information or by more indirect guidance, must realize that the world in which they grew up has undergone major modifications which makes obsolete the school program that was offered to them. Employment is delayed; inventions have complicated living; economic idleness is a real possibility, and the need for social understanding and experience in resolving personal and social difficulties is greater to-day than ever before. Our educational position has been modified. Growth is known to be more unitary—information, activity and emotions all taking their part in learning, and the control of one's own behavior is considered to result from engaging in immediate problems.

Out of this realization will come the determination to analyze critically the existing program and to proceed to put our house in order. Such a study may reveal such things as the following:

- a. The departmentalization of the program for this junior period is out of harmony with what we know about development. Junior youth do not possess the adjustment possibilities for quickly changing from the guidance of one person to the assignments of five, or from shifting from a unified emphasis to a specialized interest.
  - b. The present program, sprouting from the ideas of early specialization, broadening and finding courses, and surveys of major fields of learning tends to lead to disintegration and confusion.
  - c. The present aim of looking toward vocational choices is too far removed from the reality of the immediate or near future of the junior youth. His vocational life, if any specific skill training is needed for it, will not likely begin for four or six years. But regardless of whether specific skill training is needed for the job of his choice, or whether he does begin work immediately, the continued development of his powers of personal and social adjustment are his most effective vocational training during this period.
  - d. The guidance program designed for junior youth is too mechanical, consisting of home rooms (too frequently administrative devices for taking the roll), segregation based upon a narrow basis for prediction (the intelligence test), directions for studying the subject at hand, units of orientation to a bewildering world, special counselors, canned directions for behavior and selection of courses, and an arbitrary and weakly defensible system of requirements and electives.
  - e. The program for the development of citizenship is too bookish, too much confidence is placed upon texts or courses in American history, world cultures, occupations, civics, or government.
  - f. The program reflects too much the idea of preparation for the senior high school. It has been the chief period for teaching the grammar of the mother tongue, for meeting a few state legislative requirements, for getting outlines of major sweeps in the world's history, and for absorbing a lean amount of scattered ideas and information about the fields of science and mathematics. The stock is a hybrid of pure strains, watered by a surveying gardener.
2. The positive program of action designed to replace the present one may include two major areas:
    - a. The first one we may call the area of socialization. This would involve two aspects—the satisfactory solution of personal problems and the understanding of the social environment to the potential

possibilities of junior maturity. This implies that throughout the three years of his development, this junior youth will make an extended study of problems growing out of the following: (1) The character of the physical and emotional changes in his own organism; (2) The social traditions surrounding his attempt to become a conscious member of a larger social group and his relationships with the opposite sex; (3) The cultural resources of the community in which he lives; (4) The organic and inorganic world with which he is surrounded; (5) The principles and practices of organizing and governing in the school and the larger community; (6) Contact with agencies and people who are serving him; and (7) Experiences in becoming a participating part of the community.

Continued practice should be given in helping junior youth to plan and choose their own activities, to use the democratic method of scientific investigation of all problems, to improve their use of language and numerical relationships required in the solution of their problems, to have practice in selecting those who shall represent them in small legislative and judicial groups.

This program would require the majority of the time of the junior youth during the first year of his period of emerging adolescence, and it should be carried forward under the guidance of one or not to exceed two teachers. During the next two years of development, this socializing program would occupy about half of the youth's time, and should still be carried by one teacher or possibly a team of two.

The organizing center of such a program of socialization should be the problems which emerge from the youth's experience in new situations. For this work, there need be no administrative divisions into fifty-minute periods, or instructional divisions into subjects.

- b. The second major area of the program we may call one of interest developing. This is a division planned to give the youth an opportunity to discover and partially develop interests or areas of study which he might like to pursue now or later. It would be a time in which youth would feel free to follow or establish some interests without having each program carefully planned by the teacher.

We have been guilty of crowding excessively the life of the child during these years of emerging adolescence. What the school doesn't fill the home does—music and dancing lessons, scouting, church activities, movie going, homework, youth parties, or work for profit. The result of all this is that the day is entirely *planned* for the youth, leaving him frustrated in doing the things he plans himself and nervous in trying to satisfy all the demands placed upon him. I should like to emphasize the need for slowing down



the tempo and for curtailing the number of activities *planned* by adults for junior youth.

Whatever need exists for participating in music, art, dancing, homework, games and other activities can be developed during free time for interest developing. For some, part of this free time can well be used for additional pursuit of basic skills not sufficiently practiced during the other part of the day. For all, part of this free time period should be used to walk and work in the community, actually participating in the work side of life in terms of productive activity.

I do not mean to imply that there should be two parts of the school day—the morning for work and the afternoon for play. Neither do I suggest that there should be any sharp divisions between these areas. Nor do I recommend that the pupil chooses the activities in one area and the teacher chooses those in the other. In the administration of this program alternate blocks of time could be given to the needs of these two major areas of emphasis, depending upon the needs of the individuals, upon the nature of their development, and upon the physical and human facilities of the school. In both areas—socializing and interest developing—the pupil will play a large part in helping to select experiences and activities.

I have indicated that we need a better understanding of the continuity of development, that we need coöperation on the part of all teachers in planning the entire program of education, and that we need a changed program for junior youth. I should like to add one further suggestion. We need definite changes in the policy of administration and scheduling.

The present junior high-school schedule is almost an exact duplicate of the one prevailing in the conventional senior high school. Both may be compared to the factory line in the production of automobiles. Like the automobile, the child passes down the line for three years. As he passes each teacher tacks on a piece, hoping that by the time the youth emerges he will be a well coördinated, running mechanism. But there are several fallacies in the process.

In the first place we do not plan the entire process as carefully as does the designer of the car. We can never do so, for, and this is the second fallacy, the human organism is a different kind of thing from the physical unity of the car. Each added part of the car fits a pattern and builds a mechanical whole; if any part is omitted the car fails to that extent to function. With the human organism each added experience changes the entirety or the wholeness of the operation of the organism, and if any experience is omitted compensations for loss are developed. A third fallacy lies in the fact that we are not standardizing patterns of individuals; we are producing tailor-made products and we are not starting

with the same plan or the same material. There are other fallacies but these will suffice to make the point that neither administration nor instruction can be routinized. Arbitrary division of either learning periods or time periods serve to disintegrate rather than to unify the individual and his experiences.

Several schools are successfully experimenting with changed administrative organizations. If you are interested in clock-like precision or uniformity, you will not care to investigate them; but if you are desirous of making administration serve the process of instruction, you will want to examine them carefully. The plan of a school within a school, now being tried by such places as Tulsa, Oklahoma, and San Jose, California, are proving that ample time can be given for implementing the kind of changed program I have just suggested and still not bring the school into chaos. Educationally we are not very clever at thinking of new devices or patterns for administering our schools.

As one observes the organization and programs of the secondary schools of America, both junior and senior high schools, he is struck by the fact that in general the best work going on to-day is with the so-called "slow learning" pupils. I think there is a good reason for that, but it is not very complimentary to school men. The reason is that these pupils blocked our school program. They couldn't learn the traditional content we presented to the average and bright pupil and we didn't dare fail them in large quantities. On the other hand we tended to adopt a no failure policy. The policy is fine and we have saved these slow learning pupils many years of frustration and grief. But we have failed to apply the same principle to the other pupils in our school. We have tried to failure policy. The policy is fine and we have saved these slow-learning—we have kept our traditional program for the rest of the youth. If the principle is sound for one group it is sound for all groups. We need, therefore, to face squarely the challenge of the principle—organize our program upon the personal and social needs of all junior youth. Have we the courage and resourcefulness needed to do this? I should like to address this challenge to you junior high-school principals and I hope some day soon the answer may be in the affirmative.

### DISCUSSION

The discussion was opened by Eli Foster, Principal of Central High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma.

Dr. Leonard has left little doubt in our minds that he believes rather sweeping changes need to be made in the junior high schools. I wish to confine my brief remarks to just one phase of the many problems that

present themselves when any attempt is made to make important changes in the program.

Let us assume that a certain junior high school has been given the go sign. It has been freed to experiment freely with its program. What is the first problem that arises? Readiness of the faculty to assume new attitudes, new points of view, new methods.

The *achievement of readiness* takes time and opportunity for teachers to study the *problems together*. This time *must* be provided and the study done *during the school day*. *After school meetings* will make slight contribution to *preparing teachers for a changed program*. Even if the *professional schools* did train teachers for a *given school program* the percentage of new teachers in any school, *so trained*, would be *too small* to have much effect. Therefore, the training must be done on the job and while working at the job.

*Some schools are attempting* to solve this problem by setting up a *conference hour* or planning period during the school day. This sort of thing would be easy if we could add as many teachers as needed. *But the problem must be solved without adding teachers, in most instances.*

Some schools have handled this by having pupils report to school at 9:00 o'clock instead of 8:30. They used the hour from 8:00 to 9:00 for a conference or planning period. Others have *reduced the amount of time* devoted to the various traditional subjects. Others made large groups to be handled by some teachers at various hours. Some have used a combination of all three plans. There are no doubt other plans in use not suggested here.

*The planning period* is essential for two reasons: First, *the teachers must find their way in the new program*, and Second, it is necessary to keep the program going once it is under way. One absolute essential in such a program is that teachers must learn to work *together coöperatively*.

One of the encouraging things about such planning is the *enthusiasm with which teachers approve* it once it has been tried.

The changes suggested by Dr. Leonard will not be *accomplished by edict*. They may be accomplished by faculties working *coöperatively* together on the job at the job. This is our one gleam of light through the dark corridor of junior high school confusion.

Principal C. E. Cormack of Jarret Junior High School, Springfield, Missouri, opened the informal discussion.

#### THE SENIOR HIGH-SCHOOL PROGRAM

The Senior High-School program was held in Assembly Hall 3, Municipal Auditorium.

Principal Hugh H. Stewart of Davis High School, Mt. Vernon, New

York, opened the meeting with a short introductory statement; he then introduced Galen Jones, Principal of High School, Plainfield, New Jersey, who read his paper.

## MAKING GUIDANCE EFFECTIVE THROUGH TEACHER PARTICIPATION

GALEN JONES

Principal, the High School, Plainfield, New Jersey

The word "guidance" is relatively new in education and is employed with such a variety of meanings that definition is necessary to its proper use. It is inappropriate, however, to our purposes to present at length various definitions concerning guidance. The point of view accepted in this discussion is that proposed by our "Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education." Function VII of the Committee's Report states the purpose of guidance as follows: "To guide pupils, on the basis of exploratory and revealing courses and of other information gathered from personnel studies, as wisely as possible into wholesome and worth-while social relationships, maximum personality adjustment, and advanced study or vocations in which they are most likely to be successful and happy."<sup>1</sup> A similar definition by Dr. Arthur E. Traxler has recently been issued by the Educational Records Bureau: "Under ideal conditions, guidance enables each individual to understand his abilities and interests, to develop them as well as possible and to relate them to life goals, and finally to reach a state of complete and mature self-guidance as a desirable member of the social order."<sup>2</sup> These two statements provide the frame of reference for the exposition of practices which follows.

Speaking before the New Orleans meeting of our Association in 1937, Dr. Charles H. Judd presented a convincing case for in-service education of secondary-school teachers. According to Dr. Judd the idea that a college can make a teacher is fundamentally wrong. He asserts that teachers are not prepared in colleges; they are merely started on their careers. A major opportunity and responsibility of principals, accordingly, is in-service education of teachers. Above and beyond personal supervision, Dr. Judd insists that the "scholarly atmosphere" of the school be achieved by a vigorous intellectual attack made by the staff as a whole on the problems of the secondary school, particularly in the reorganization of the materials of instruction and in the distributive and the adjustment techniques involved in an effective guidance program. It is this interpretation of in-

<sup>1</sup>Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association, *Functions of Secondary Education*, Volume XXI, No. 64, January, 1937, p. 190.

<sup>2</sup>*Guidance in Public Secondary Schools—A Report of The Public School Demonstration Project in Educational Guidance*. Edited by Arthur E. Traxler, Educational Records Bulletin No. 28, October, 1939, p. xi.

service education which has motivated the attempts described in this paper.

It is likely that no two schools will follow identical plans in achieving the objectives of guidance. This discussion describes the procedures employed in the Plainfield High School during the last five years, with particular reference to teacher participation. An exposition is made of the precise activities of a single school not because these are conceived to be excellent, but because specific analyses of a particular school are likely to prove more effective than generalizations concerning desirable and possible means of teacher participation in all schools.

### *Background Information*

A sense of the increasing need for definite provisions for guidance came in Plainfield with the very rapid additions to the school enrollment following 1930. Certain important and wise readjustments in the curricular offerings were made at that time in order that the needs of the so-called non-academic groups might be met. Nevertheless, it was apparent that the lack of specific, delegated responsibility was resulting in an unsatisfactory distribution of pupils among the curricula and of courses of study provided for them. For that reason, the Board of Education, in November, 1934, approved a plan which looked toward a more adequately organized program of personalized guidance. These services were: first, the assignment of five teachers to half-time service as guidance counselors and a sixth teacher (giving two thirds of her time) to the direction of the program of measurement and to the servicing of cumulative records; second, a commitment to a minimum, fall, testing program, using one scholastic aptitude test and one test of reading comprehension, as well as to a spring testing program covering the five academic areas for which comparable yearly tests prepared by the Coöperative Test Service were available; and third, the installation of the cumulative record folder of the American Council on Education as made for the Kardex visible files by Remington Rand, Inc.

These services have been expanded gradually during the last five years. At present the school has the following specialized services. First, there are the five counselors, each teaching but two classes and devoting the remainder of the day to counseling, with the sixth person devoting her full time to measurement and personnel records. Second, the measurement program includes, in addition to the measures initially adopted, certain aptitude tests such as the Iowa Algebra Aptitude Test and the Iowa Geometry Aptitude Test in its spring program. Some use is also being made of personality measures and adjustment inventories, but we are still quite uncertain as to their values. Third, the installation of the cumulative record has been completed so that there is a record for every pupil in the membership of the school. Fourth, a visiting teacher, since

September, 1938, has contributed markedly to a better understanding of many pupils. In the fifth place, the counseling services were augmented in July, 1939, by the assignment to full-time service of a counselor in charge of placement work and follow up studies. Finally, the school is now using for the third year one of the test scoring machines recently produced by the International Business Machines Corporation. The scoring machine has tripled, at least, the effectiveness of the director of measurement and records, has relieved teachers of the scoring of standard and objective tests, and has increased remarkably the use of locally constructed tests for a variety of purposes.

#### *In-Service Education*

##### *Weekly Meetings of Counselors*

When the Board of Education approved the appointment of five counselors it was with the understanding that they were to be chosen from the staff. After making a careful study of the training and personal qualities of the entire teaching personnel, the principal held several conferences with the department heads, known as the Principal's Council, to secure their aid and participation in the selection of the counselors. By this means the recognized leaders and, in this instance, scholars of the school, became oriented to the complete plans of the guidance program, participated effectively in the formulation of the plans, as well as agreeing with almost unanimous enthusiasm upon the persons whose personal qualifications, interests, and skills bespoke their appointment as counselors.

The counselors selected in 1934 had at the time, with two exceptions, no specialized training in guidance procedures and techniques. For reasons extraneous to this discussion, it was not feasible to appoint a Director of Guidance. The principal assumed, as a consequence, full responsibility for the in-service education of the counselors. Schedules were arranged so that all the counselors were free to meet with the principal during the first period on Wednesdays of each week. The personnel of these Wednesday morning meetings includes the five counselors, the director of measurement and records, the visiting teacher, the placement officer, and the principal. This practice has continued regularly since February, 1935, and these conferences are now regarded as indispensable by both the counselors and the administration.

The subject matter employed in these weekly conferences has naturally been dictated by our felt needs in the specific situation and for the particular pupils for whom we were responsible. Beginning with such topics as the characteristics of our pupil population (mental, social, economic), the purposes of guidance in aiding pupils to achieve significant living, and needed curricular adjustments if all pupils are to learn, we



have continued in these professionalized conferences our efforts to qualify ourselves for the tasks at hand. Some of the other topics which have been discussed are the use of measurement in classification, the use of standard measures in individual counseling, means of servicing the cumulative record, the use and interpretation of the cumulative record, the technique of the interview, human relationships requisite to individual counseling, means of appraising student characteristics and needs, the meaning of personality development in guidance, orientation of students in our high school, guidance needed for occupational adjustment, and occupational placement and follow up. These citations are, of course, merely representative of the subjects to which our weekly conferences have been directed, since the limitations of time and space prevent the inclusion of detailed descriptions.

Since 1934 we have maintained a guidance library which has made possible immediate and ready reference to the best materials which research and guidance specialists have contributed to the general problem. The titles in this library are similar to the selected bibliographies published from time to time in *Occupations—The Vocational Guidance Magazine*.<sup>8</sup>

#### *Staff Meetings*

No one who has attempted the inauguration and operation of an effective guidance program will disparage the necessity for specialized guidance services. Experience teaches us, however, that no program of guidance functions properly which is delegated solely to specialists, and that specialists are valuable to the extent that their services and contributions are understood and used by the entire teaching staff. For that reason a carefully planned and continuous program for the education of every member of the teaching staff in the philosophy and methodology of individualized education is necessary. One important and indispensable means to this end is the professionalized, regularly scheduled staff meetings which are devoted to a study of the school's problems and which give evidence of what Dr. Judd so aptly terms "scholarly atmosphere."

For the last five and one-half years the staff of the Plainfield High School has met monthly for a seventy-five-minute session to study its problems. Many of the subjects under consideration have had to do with making guidance function effectively in our school. Among the subjects dealing with guidance the following are representative: The Public School Demonstration Project in Educational Guidance (in which our school was a participant); the function of the teacher in guidance; specialized guidance services—the need for them, and how we want them to function; the guidance implications of the reports of the Committee on the Orienta-

<sup>8</sup>Peel, M. Dorothy and Alexander, Carter "Bibliography." *Occupations* 14:968-75, June 1936.

Hopbock, Robert and Paxon, Ann. "Occupational Books—a Five-Foot Shelf." *Occupation* 15:250-3, December 1936.



tion of Secondary Education entitled "Issues of Secondary Education" and "Functions of Secondary Education"; the home-room teacher and guidance; the cumulative record and the study of the individual pupil; the values and limitations of standardized tests—both of aptitude and achievement; the meaning of a test score; and opportunities in the regular courses of study for occupational guidance.

For the most part these programs have been presented by members of the staff. A committee of five, whose membership varies somewhat from year to year, is responsible with the principal for planning the programs. At these meetings, three teachers are responsible for an adequate presentation of the problem under consideration; it is customary, however, to reserve at least thirty minutes of the allotted time for full staff discussion. Sometimes a problem has been brought before the teaching group by means of a panel discussion in which from five to seven teachers participate. Occasionally an outside expert has been invited to lecture and to be questioned by the group. The principal generalization which the overwhelming majority of the staff would join in making is that these general staff conferences have become a most significant source of scholarly endeavor, one which seems indispensable to our continued alertness and professional growth.

#### *Other Means of Teacher Participation*

Previous mention has been made of the fact that the high school was privileged to participate as one of seven schools in the Public School Demonstration Project in Educational Guidance.<sup>4</sup> Three projects sponsored by the Educational Records Bureau as phases of the study justified themselves primarily as means of teacher education in guidance procedures.

#### *Use Made of Cumulative Records*

The first of these projects was a study carried on for ten weeks in an attempt to determine the extent to which teachers, counselors, and administrators used the rather comprehensive cumulative record which was patterned after the American Council on Education Cumulative Record Folder. This study was made during October, November, and early December, 1938. By this time the installation of the records was complete for the entire pupil personnel and it was time, therefore, to determine "To what extent does the faculty now depend upon the records?" as well as to attempt an appraisal of the effectiveness of the previous program of teacher education in the use of such records.

The findings of this study are extensively reported in Educational Record Bulletin No. 28<sup>5</sup>; consequently, a detailed analysis is not made in

<sup>4</sup>See *Guidance in Public Secondary Schools*—A Report of the Public School Demonstration Project in Educational Guidance, edited by Arthur E. Traxler. Educational Records Bulletin No. 28, October 1939, Educational Records Bureau, 437 West 59th St., New York, N. Y.

<sup>5</sup>*Op. cit.* pp. 79-85.

this report. Briefly, one may say that forty-five per cent of the staff recorded the use which they made of the records during the designated period; that teachers of academic and commercial subjects made more frequent use of the records than did teachers of other subjects; that, with the exception of teachers' marks, the newer information, such as results of aptitude and achievement tests, interests, vocational choice and educational plans, was sought with greatest frequency. Subsequent, though more casual observation, seems to support our conviction that this study of the use made of records was an important means of teacher education in guidance techniques.

### *Case Studies*

The second project which called for extensive participation of teachers was that of the making and reporting of case studies. During the school year 1937-1938 each teacher, after several staff conferences, was given the opportunity of preparing a case study. As Dr. Traxler points out: "The preparation of case studies is one of the most important ways of training the staff for personnel work, for case studies bring guidance down from the clouds and make it concrete.

A school which maintains a cumulative record system has at least the basic outline for a continuous case history for each of its pupils. The first task of one making a case study is to organize the case history data, to supplement these data with information obtained from interviews and other sources, to analyze and interpret all the facts, and to bring the information to bear upon the pupil's problems in such a way that a diagnosis may be made and a program of treatment planned."<sup>8</sup>

Approximately three fourths of our eighty-nine teachers made case studies during the year. In February, 1938, at a time when most of the teachers were getting nicely started on their individual case studies, the general staff meeting was given to the demonstration of a case history conference. It required about forty-five minutes for the teacher in charge to confer with the eight members of the staff who knew best the pupil under consideration. Then Dr. Anna Rose Hawkes, director of the Public School Demonstration Project in Educational Guidance and Dr. Arthur E. Traxler of the Educational Records Bureau appraised the techniques employed in the case history conferences and made a number of suggestions which proved of great value when case history conferences were subsequently held by different staff members as a procedure in the development of their own case studies. The value of this procedure for in-service education is well summarized by Dr. Ruth Strang when she says: "Judged only by its value to the individual pupil studied, the case history conference is an extravagant procedure. Judged from the standpoint of its value in the in-service education of teachers, its cost is amply justified. In such

<sup>8</sup>Educational Records Bulletin, No. 28, *Op. cit.* p. xxi.

conferences teachers become acquainted with methods which specialists and teachers skilled in guidance use to approach problems of child development, the kind of information they think significant in particular cases, the meaning and interpretation they give to these facts, the summary and implications they draw, and the recommendations they make. Such an experience is an extremely important way to increase teachers' interest in and understanding of pupils.<sup>77</sup>

#### *Anecdotal Reports*

The third project, an experiment with the anecdotal method, was presented to the faculty at the monthly meeting in January, 1939, by Dr. Anna Rose Hawkes. Copies of Traxler's bulletin on "The Nature and Use of Anecdotal Records"<sup>78</sup> were distributed to all teachers, and the few additional references with which the faculty were somewhat familiar, were made available for reference.<sup>79</sup> Without making a specific requirement, which may have been a tactical error, members of the staff were urged to contribute anecdotes about pupils during the ensuing two months. The results of this study are reported elsewhere<sup>80</sup> and only a few generalizations are required in this connection. In the absence of reliable personality tests the faculty soon recognized the importance of the anecdotal record as a means of obtaining objective information about pupils. It became clear also that the anecdotal record plan required the interest and effort of all of the faculty if it were to be successful. The chief value of this phase of our study was the training value. It taught us that the recording of a behavior incident in a concise, objective statement without interpretation is an art and a skill which will require much practice. We are confident, however, that the effort was fruitful as an aid to teacher insight into personnel methods.

#### *The Home-Room Program*

Wide practice attests the necessity of the home-room plan of organization in large schools for administrative purposes. An extensive literature has described the possibilities of the home room as a crucial unit in pupil orientation and guidance. Practice in many schools, nevertheless, has caused despair of the home room as a functioning unit in the guidance program, even to the point that many schools have relieved the home room of virtually all guidance functions and admittedly maintain it as a sheer administrative device. Our school was almost of this state of mind, but decided

<sup>77</sup>Strang, Ruth. "The Teacher's Contribution to the Guidance of Children." *Teachers College Record*. Vol. 40, No. 1, October, 1938, pp. 22-23.

<sup>78</sup>Traxler, Arthur E. *The Nature and Use of Anecdotal Records*, Educational Records Supplementary Bulletin D. New York: Educational Records Bureau, January 1939.

<sup>79</sup>Wood, Ben D. "The Major Strategy of Guidance," *The Educational Record* XVI, October, 1934, 419-44.

Randall, J. A. "The Anecdotal Behavior Journal," *Progressive Education*, XIII, Jan. 1936, 21-26.

<sup>80</sup>See Educational Records Bulletin No. 28, *op. cit.*, pp. 189-202.

that the possible service of the home room in guidance was too important to discard without another attempt based upon broad teacher participation. In the spring of 1939, therefore, two staff meetings were devoted to the place of the home room in a guidance program. This resulted in the appointment of a committee of sixteen teachers, headed by an interested and skilled counselor, and charged with the responsibility of developing suggestive materials for each grade level for use at the weekly period set aside for home-room guidance. This committee has revitalized interest among the majority of home-room advisers—at least temporarily. A library of materials dealing with the home room has been assembled, a four-year program has been outlined, and special bulletins have been prepared. The sense of responsibility for knowing the home-room membership as individuals seems to be on its way. It is too soon to make a definite generalization, but the indications are that competent teachers, charged with a responsibility which they accept because of the worthy purposes involved, will meet the needs of any situation.

#### *Summary and Conclusion*

As Dr. Ben D. Wood<sup>11</sup> points out, an effective guidance program is dependent upon at least four factors. First of all, there is a close relationship between the interest and perseverance of the higher administrative officers in the school and the development of an adequate guidance program. Secondly, continuing progress in the direction of individualized education depends upon the maintenance in conveniently usable form of cumulative records of comparable test measures and of data on the personal development, self-discipline, and social adjustment of individual pupils. A third conviction, if appropriate educational programs are to be realized, is that the traditional academic curriculum is too narrow to care for the educational needs of all the pupils now in the secondary school. Finally, it seems clear that the success of schools with guidance is closely proportional to the effectiveness of the teacher re-education program.

The in-service education relative to guidance procedures in one school embodied in this presentation includes: first, a description of the weekly conferences of guidance counselors; second, the use of the general staff meeting as an indispensable means of orientating the entire group of classroom teachers to their opportunities and responsibilities in an effective guidance program; third, a report of the extent to which a faculty depends upon cumulative records in dealing with the individual pupil; fourth, an exposition of teacher participation in the writing of case studies and in case history conferences as a means of teacher education; fifth, an experiment with the use of the anecdotal record; and sixth, an attempt to revital-

<sup>11</sup>Educational Record Bulletin No. 28, *op. cit.*, pp. viii and ix.

ize a home-room orientation program through broad teacher participation and responsibility.

It has been said that "the zest of life is at the growing edge." A real school is staffed by teachers whose own curiosity is not sated, who realize the necessity for continuous study of the pupil, the materials, and the process. In such a school there will always be that zeal for finding better ways of directing the growth of youth in the light of individual needs, which for want of a better term we call in-service education.

The second speaker was C. L. Cushman, Coördinator of the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., who read his paper.

### THE PRINCIPAL'S RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE CONTINUING GROWTH OF A SCHOOL'S PROFESSIONAL PERSONNEL

C. L. CUSHMAN

The major part of this paper deals with the need for continuing growth on the part of teachers and principals and ways of promoting such growth. Lest the subject of the paper seem to be ignored, I shall begin by saying that the principal of a school has particular responsibility for (1) understanding the need for a continuing education of the school's professional personnel, (2) understanding the lines along which such education should proceed, the objectives if you please, if it is to contribute to the program of the school, (3) understanding the ways in which such education can be promoted, and (4) sharing these understandings with his faculty and, in coöperation with the members of that group, seeing that a comprehensive plan for continuing growth is maintained.

The balance of this paper will be devoted to an elaboration of the first three of those four points—that is (1) to a consideration of the need for in-service education (a more simple statement of the end we are after), (2) to a consideration of the objectives of in-service education, and (3) to an examination of ways of promoting or carrying on such education.

#### THE NEED FOR IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

There are at least three major reasons for our being greatly concerned about in-service education. These are stated here in what is deemed to be an ascending order of importance.

1. On the average we stay with this job of teaching about twice as long as did the teachers of fifteen or twenty years ago. Furthermore, school populations are becoming stable or are declining. The net result is that the

number of new teachers who come into our schools each year has declined and is continuing to decline. Now new teachers have always served the extremely useful purpose of bringing into our schools an unusual number of new ideas. Sometimes of course these have been naive and impractical. Very often, however, they have been intelligent and greatly needed. Often their newness enabled them to point out to us faults in our programs that we had accepted or overlooked because of our routinish ways. If this source of new ideas is to be in part cut off, as it already has been, it behooves all of the rest of us to plan our lives in such ways that we will, to a much greater degree than in the past, continue to pump new ideas into the programs of our schools.

2. There is coming into the practice of our schools a new concept of the relation of learning and living—a concept that makes the two inseparable. In school practice at its best pupils learn as they live and live as they learn. If this principle of the inseparability of living and learning is sound for pupils it must be equally sound for teachers—indeed it would seem reasonable to believe that no school could use this principle effectively in its general program for pupils unless it was also operative for teachers—unless teaching and learning were also conducted as inseparable activities.

3. Our schools have a job of almost overwhelming proportions to perform. Since the earliest days of our American government the American people have had dinned in their ears the assertion that the realization of American Dream is to a very large degree dependent upon an effective program of public education. Quantitatively that program of public education has been pretty well realized. Qualitatively the program leaves a very great deal to be desired. Great numbers of American people are saying that the time has come for us as a nation to move along a little more rapidly toward the realization of the American Dream. In a very real sense this is a time of testing for the American schools. They must improve the quality of their programs. Pupils, parents, and citizens everywhere must see in the schools the means for promoting their most fundamental purposes—means for the realization of that dream, if you please. Otherwise schools must expect to lose the confidence of their patrons.

Any one of these three reasons for in-service has sufficient implications to make possible indefinite expansion. Many others could also be given. The nature of the subject seems, however, to call for moving on to other matters.

#### THE OBJECTIVES OF IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

The objectives of the in-service program of education for the teachers of any school should stem from the objectives of that school. That is, from the objectives for the learning of the student. If a school has as one of its major objectives the imparting to pupils of knowledge of the past, it would be proper for that school to ask, "What does a teacher need to know and



be able to do if he is to contribute effectively to the achievement of that objective?" The answer to that question would then become the objective of the in-service program of professional education within that school.

There has recently come to my attention what I consider to be an unusually effective analysis of the things that teachers need to know and to be able to do in schools designed to meet the needs of youth in a democracy. I refer to the statement on Organizing the Program of Professional Education by President John J. DeBoer of Chicago Teachers College and included as one of the chapters in the volume entitled *Teachers for Democracy*. This volume constitutes the fourth yearbook of the John Dewey Society.

These objectives are restated here, not as the objectives which should be adopted by all schools, but as an example of a well thought out statement of objectives for teacher education in such schools as Dr. DeBoer believes in.

According to Dr. DeBoer, the objectives of teacher education for schools that seek to serve the ends of a democratic society should be to promote growth in (1) the understanding of children, (2) the understanding of the community and its effects upon the child, (3) the ability to set up objectives for teaching by studying pupils' present needs from the standpoint of the requirements of life in a democratic society, (4) the ability to organize instruction with a view to the achievement of well-defined objectives, and to share with pupils the responsibility of planning the work of the school, (5) the ability to evaluate pupil growth in terms of these objectives, (6) the ability to participate intelligently in curriculum planning, (7) the ability to participate intelligently in school management, and (8) the understanding of the broader problems of the profession of education and of the relation of school and society.

I cite these as a well thought out statement of objectives for teacher education—but in no sense as a final or perfect statement.

#### WAYS OF PROMOTING IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

For a very long time schools have had ways of promoting in-service education. Teachers' meetings, institutes, study bulletins, extension courses, summer school attendance, travel, community activity, participation in curriculum planning—all of these and many other school activities have had some bearing upon the continued growth of the teachers of our schools. As a rule, however, these have not been thought through carefully with reference to their contributions to any particular pattern of objectives such as I have just cited. Often the contribution to teacher growth has been quite incidental to the achievement of some rather immediate end of a school's program. In many cases these activities have been conducted in such ways as to thwart the sort of growth for which we should have been most concerned. For example, such programs have all too often been



arbitrarily imposed in the interest of some rather immediate concern, with the result that teachers have failed to develop in their ability to share in planning the total program of the school—a form of growth most essential to the schools of a democracy.

Certainly the most important responsibility of any principal for the in-service education program of a school is right at this point—that is, at the point of organizing his faculty for a critical examination of those activities which promote or which should promote in-service education of a type consistent with the objectives of the school concerned.

It would be quite proper to direct such an examination to the sort of activities I enumerated a little bit ago—teachers' meetings, summer school attendance, and the like. That is, a school faculty might very properly, and very properly, be assigned the task of examining such activities to determine whether they are being conducted in such ways as to promote the professional growth of its members.

Another approach would be to examine the things which promote or discourage growth among persons in particular groups of the school's personnel—the beginning group of teachers, the mature group of teachers, the principal, the teachers of the social studies, teachers with responsibilities for guidance, and the like. This approach too has its merits.

Still a third approach—one that I myself find particularly helpful—is to ask, are the different types of associational relationships within this school such as to promote the sort of in-service education that is required by the nature of the program of the school concerned.

There are at least six types of associational relationships which might very properly be included in such an examination. These are as follows:

1. The associational relationships of teachers and pupils.
2. The associational relationships of teachers and teachers.
3. The associational relationships of (classroom) teachers and administrators,—principals, and supervisors.
4. The associational relationships of teachers and experts (psychiatrists, physicians, social workers, leading citizens, college authorities, artists, engineers, and the like.)
5. The associational relationships of teachers and parents.
6. The associational relationships of teachers with the larger community and with social life in general.

It seems to me that to a very considerable degree it is through these relationships that the professional personnel of a school is caused to grow and develop. These relationships can be organized and carried on in such ways as to promote growth toward the achievement of such objectives as were cited above. Or they can, and I fear often are, organized in such ways as to stand in the way of this end.

To illustrate consider the matter of the relationships between teachers and pupils. These relationships undoubtedly constitute our most important single means for helping teachers to grow in their understanding of our youth. All too often, however, they actually contribute little or nothing to such growth. Why is this at times true? It is true because the organization of the school program is such as stand in the way of teachers becoming truly acquainted with their students. It may be that the period of time that a given teacher spends with a particular group of pupils is too brief to permit an intimate acquaintance. It may be that the requirements of the course of study that the teacher is following are so rigid as to divert almost completely the attention of the teacher from the real concerns of his students. It may be that his own practices as a teacher have become so rigid and ever changing as to make him and his pupils forever strangers. It may be that his own personal life is so foreign to the life of the community in which his pupils live that he and they have little in common.

How can all of this be changed? By placing teachers and pupils in a relationship that will cause teachers to become concerned about the boys and girls of their classes. By seeing that teachers know the conditions under which their pupils live, the things they do, the things they want to do, the troubles they have, their insecurities. And then by seeing that the nature of the school program is such as to make it easy and natural—indeed imperative—that teachers should build their work so as to meet the needs of those pupils.

It is important to note in all of this that there is no conflict between organizing the school program so as to promote at one and the same time pupil and teacher growth.

Time does not permit examination of each of the other types of relationships enumerated. I should therefore like to turn to the third type mentioned—relationships between classroom teachers and administrative officers. No other type of relationship has more to do with the determination of the extent to which there will be continued growth on the part of both teachers and administrators. Administration is more than a way of getting things done. Good administration is a way of getting things done so that both the teacher and administrator will themselves profit therefrom.

A principal does well to ask of himself such questions as these:

1. Are the divisions with regard to the operation of this school being made in such a way as to cause those persons concerned to grow in their insights with regard to the purposes and plans of the school?
2. Are the decisions being made in such a way as to place a premium on creative thinking on the part of teachers?
3. Are the decisions being made in such a way as to give me, as principal, the assistance of my associates? That is, to cause me to grow?

And since none of us can ever truly know himself, a principal does exceedingly well to ask the teachers of the school to consider these questions with him.

Time will perhaps permit brief reference to two of the other types of relationships to which I have referred. Let us consider what I have referred to as relations with experts and then finally relations with parents.

By experts I refer to authorities in a great many different fields of knowledge who have a contribution to make to the teacher's understanding of how to meet the needs of particular pupils or of particular types of school situations. The major source of such contacts is of course the institutions of higher education. If such contacts are to contribute most effectively to teacher growth they must be planned and carried on in such ways as to bear directly upon the problems of particular teachers working in particular schools. At present the relations between teachers on the one hand and college professors on the other are all too often of such a nature that what the latter says in formal courses touches only occasionally on the problems of the former.

Now for a final word with regard to the relations of teachers and parents. Such relations should make a distinct contribution to the growth of teachers—particularly to their understanding of the needs of particular pupils. All too often, however, the nature of these relations is such as to cut teachers off from this contribution—that is, all too often such relations are conducted on a one way basis—they are for the purpose of informing the parent of what the teacher and school are trying to do for the child. Too often they make no provision for the teacher to gain new insights into the needs of the pupil through information volunteered by the parent.

Let me attempt to draw together what I have been trying to say. It is a well accepted principle of school administration that the principal should exercise leadership in the formulation of the school's program of learning or growth for the students. All too often such programs have been organized without parallel consideration of the sort of program that the school must provide for the growth of teachers and the principal himself, if that program is to be a success. The sort of school programs we are seeking to develop today—certainly the sort of school programs we should be developing—will not permit this sort of neglect. Instead, it becomes imperative that the principal should exercise leadership in seeing that the curriculum of the school is implemented by a coordinated program to promote professional growth. That the two programs should be coordinated—that is, that the objectives of the teacher education program should be derived from the pupil curriculum is absolutely essential. The two must be developed together. The development of the second should not be permitted to cause any halt in the development of the first. Finally, both of these tasks are so

demanding as to require the fullest coöperation of the principal and his full staff of teachers.

Then followed discussion led by Noble Hendrix, Principal of Woodlawn High School, Birmingham, Alabama.

### THE JUNIOR-COLLEGE PROGRAM

This session was held in Committee Room 3-A, Municipal Auditorium.

The program was in charge of Principal John E. Wellwood of Central High School, Flint, Michigan. He introduced B. Lamar Johnson, Dean of Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri, who read his paper.

### THE IMPLICATIONS OF DEMOCRACY FOR THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

B. LAMAR JOHNSON

*Stephens College*

In introducing and discussing the subject assigned to us, we might take a cue suggested by Jim, a college student who last fall took part in a panel discussion of "Democracy in Our Schools." The discussion, which was broadcast over a national hookup, was carried on by a panel of high school and college students.

The day following the broadcast a friend who asked Jim about the panel was rewarded with this sharp reply, "It was lousy."

"What was the matter?" inquired his friend.

"Well, I'll tell you," commented Jim. "Those high-school youngsters had it all over us college students. The subject was 'Democracy in Our Schools,' and they really had something to talk about. In my college we students don't know about the college, its administration, and its operation, let alone have anything to say about how things might be done. In our classes we do what we're told—and for the most part that is attend lectures, take notes, do a minimum of studying, and take a few examinations."

Jim's case is not exceptional. Our universities, our colleges, and our junior colleges are all too often subjecting students to educational experiences in the planning of which they have little or no voice and in the carrying out of which they are passive partners.

Undoubtedly a consideration this afternoon of student participation in classroom activities and in student government would be appropriate to the subject, "The Implications of Democracy for the Junior College." If we wish to build on democratic principles we must not merely teach about

democracy; we must give students opportunity to practice democracy in the school.

Despite the importance of this approach to our subject, the program committee of the Association has suggested a second though related approach, namely, an approach which raises these questions:

Does the junior college have a responsibility to the large body of high-school graduates who are not planning to continue to a baccalaureate degree?

If so, what is this responsibility? Is the junior college meeting this problem?

How best can the junior college meet its responsibility?

All members of the panel will, I am confident, agree that society has a responsibility for the student who is interested in further education but not in a bachelor's degree. Likewise, I believe that we all should agree that up to the present society has not actually met the problem.

At the present time there are approximately four million youth between the ages of sixteen and twenty-four who are both out of school and out of work. Sixty-seven per cent of the youth of high-school age are in school; only twelve per cent of college-age attend school. Actually what society says to millions of American youth is simply this: "No, we're sorry, but we don't have work for you. You aren't trained for this work—and then, too, we need to give jobs to men with family responsibilities." Society then further adds: "No, we're sorry, but we don't have more schooling for you unless you are interested in these courses which prepare you for advanced work toward a degree."

It is essentially these attitudes of a bungling society which are leading to our youth problem "The Dilemma of Youth, the Tragedy of Youth."

Now, just how does the junior college fit into this situation? We must agree that the junior college has potential significance in meeting the youth problem. Actually, though, up to the present the junior college has contributed surprisingly little to the solution of the problem of our nation's youth.

To-morrow the American Association of Junior Colleges opens its annual convention in my home city. At the meetings, and in the hotel lobbies, we shall hear leaders in the junior-college movement, prominent educators and important laymen, express amazement at the phenomenal growth and development of the junior college. We shall talk with pride of our 575 junior colleges enrolling almost two hundred thousand students.

At first thought, increasing junior-college enrollments may appear to be startling. However, further consideration leads to amazement—not that junior colleges enroll as many as two hundred thousand students but that junior colleges do not enroll many times that number. With a history that

extends over four decades, with four millions of youth out of school and out of work, why do we to-day have less than two hundred thousand students attending junior colleges? The answer to this question is not difficult to find. It lies largely in the type of curriculum found in the junior colleges of the nation.

Several months ago I visited a junior college in a small mid-western city. I found that the local high school each year has approximately three hundred graduates, and yet I found a junior college with a total enrollment of less than one hundred. I was interested in asking what the more than five hundred other high-school graduates of the preceding two years were doing. Few of them had gone to college; few had employment; most of them, the junior-college dean informed me, were just at home or around town—facing the dilemma of youth, demonstrating the tragedy of youth to-day.

I inquired into the curriculum of the junior college and found that courses offered by the junior college were limited to college preparatory courses recognized by the state university: English composition, mathematics, science, history, a foreign language, and so forth. I asked whether any course in marriage and the family were offered. The answer was, "No, the university wouldn't accredit it."

I asked whether work were provided in the field of consumers problems. Again I received the same negative reply and explanation. I asked about health courses and vocational courses. Again, the same reply and the same explanation.

It is easy to understand why less than one sixth of the high-school graduates of this community enroll in the junior college. The curriculum simply does not meet their needs.

The situation I have described is all too typical. In a study of 153 junior colleges in all sections of the country, Taylor found that approximately four fifths of the students are enrolled in college preparatory curricula.<sup>1</sup> But the situation is even worse than these figures would suggest—not only does the college preparatory aim dominate the junior-college curriculum, not only does this dominant aim exclude from junior colleges millions of youth who need not college preparation but life preparation, but college preparation even fails to serve the needs of the few who enter junior college. In his study of several thousand California students who planned to continue their education after graduating from junior college, Eells found that only twenty-eight per cent actually enter the college of their choice.<sup>2</sup> In his Mississippi study Walker learned that, of 1305 students entering junior colleges, only 266 (20 per cent) actually go on to a senior college or university.<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Taylor, Arthur S. "Curricular Research is Urgently Needed." *Junior College Journal* 3:339-344. 1933.

<sup>2</sup>Eells, W. C. "Intentions of Junior-College Students." *Junior College Journal* 7:3-10. 1936

<sup>3</sup>Walker, Kirby P. "The Need for Terminal Courses." *Junior College Journal* 8:179-180. 1938



"The typical junior college appears to provide a course of study that is dominantly college preparatory, and the typical student pursues such a course. Curiously enough, however, when this student leaves the junior college, he does not continue in an institution of higher learning. His schooling is complete. In other words, the junior college presents the paradoxical situation of devoting its major energies to attaining an objective needed by no more than one fourth or one fifth of its students. This condition has undoubtedly excluded from the junior college hundreds of thousands of youth who are not interested in preparing for college entrance, but who would be interested in a curriculum planned to aid them in meeting pressing problems of life." <sup>4</sup>

The question now comes to us: What causes this inadequate recognition of the needs of youth in the junior college curriculum? To this query I should make the following answers.

One reason for the continuing dominance of the college-preparatory course in the junior college is domination of the junior college by the university. "It is a common practice for universities to refuse transfer credit for courses that do not parallel those they offer FRESHMEN AND SOPHOMORES. This situation places the junior-college administrator in a dilemma: a good majority of his students refuse to take courses that the state university will not accredit, and the university (since it offers no similar courses) refuses to allow credit for new-type courses organized specifically in terms of student life needs. The oblivious resolution of this dilemma is to offer traditional courses that students will take and that the university will accept for the few who continue their education."<sup>5</sup>

A second reason sometimes given for the failure of junior colleges to offer courses adapted to the needs of youth is the inadequate financial support of the junior college. Those who urge this viewpoint call attention to the additional costs of certain significant terminal courses, particularly in the vocational fields. <sup>6</sup>

Third, it is easier for the junior-college dean and his staff to provide a course of study which apes that of the first two years of the usual arts college than to build new courses planned solely in terms of student needs. Traditional courses can be modelled after those which most teachers have taken in college. New courses, on the other hand, require a study of student needs, the development of new materials and methods which meet those needs. Despite the fact that we talk a great deal about university domination and lack of funds, I am convinced that this third factor of doing the traditional because it is the easy thing to do is of basic importance.

<sup>4</sup>Johnson, B. Lamar. "The Junior College." In *National Society for the Study of Education. Thirty-Eighth Yearbook. Part II. General Education in the American College*, p. 115.

<sup>5</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 116.

<sup>6</sup>Colvert, C. C. "The Junior College and Student Needs." *Junior College Journal* 10:123-124. November 1939. See p. 123.



There is a fourth reason—and in my opinion a very undemocratic one—for the failure of junior colleges to emphasize the meeting of life needs. It is this: to plan courses in such terms is simply not respectable. The junior college which stresses, not preparation for advanced academic or professional work but training and experience in healthful living, intelligent citizenship, and vocational preparation is looked down upon, not merely by scholars but by large numbers of our population.

"Good enough," says the academician. "Let the junior college offer that sort of work for students who aren't 'good enough' to go to college."

Says the youth, with a sense of disappointment, "Yes, if I can't be a doctor or a teacher, a lawyer or an engineer, I suppose it will be all right to take a general education course and to prepare for some trade."

All too often the educator and the youth interested in life preparation are compelled to stand up to a barrage of contemptuous criticism.

It is all every well to berate society and to belittle the contribution of the junior college to the pressing problems of American youth. But what do we as educators have to offer of a constructive nature? What do we propose to do about the situation? In brief, what are the implications—right now—of democracy for the junior college?

The program which I should like to suggest is not new—it has been often proposed; it has, however, seldom been tried.

My first suggestion is this: determine the needs of youth. During the past two decades, and particularly during the last five years, we have had a variety of studies of youth and adults, their problems, their needs: the University of Minnesota study, Bell's study in Maryland, Charters' study at Stephens College, the New York Regents Inquiry. These investigations and others which we might mention are suggesting the direction of the road we need to follow in aiding youth meet their problems. We might comment on a number of the problems and areas in which these studies indicate work needs to be done: the vocational area, the health area, the social or citizenship area, and so forth. We might comment on the striking point that the importance of terminal courses, life preparation courses, rather than the college preparation courses, are repeatedly demonstrated.

In determining the needs of youth in a given community, available studies must be considered. Further investigation of the peculiar problems and opportunities of youth to be served are, however, essential if the program of a junior college is to function effectively in a particular community.

The second step, after determining the needs of youth, is to provide an educational program designed to meet the needs of the youth of the community—not merely the needs of the few who go to college. Certainly in such a program we shall be more concerned with the problem of vocational

plans and disillusionment than with the conjugation of Latin verbs, more interested in problems of managing money and better buymanship than in the history of the tariff; more interested in improving the reading and radio listening habits of students than of giving them a meeting of the literature of antiquity.

Though I may have given a pessimistic picture this afternoon, I wish to mention two developments which make me hopeful for the future.

The first of these is the increasing number of junior colleges which are now actually developing educational programs planned solely in terms of student needs. I am referring, for example to such junior colleges as those represented on our panel to-day. Menlo Junior College, represented by Dr. Eurich; Eastern New Mexico Junior College, represented by President MacKay; Pasadena Junior College, represented by Dean Harbeson; and the General College of the University of Minnesota, represented by Dean MacLean. The leadership of such institutions cannot help affecting the situation throughout the country.

A second development which has just been announced is the undertaking by the American Association of Junior Colleges of a study of terminal education in the junior college. In setting forth the need for the study, the following statement was made: "The American Association of Junior Colleges has appointed a Policy Committee to consider problems in the junior-college field demanding nationwide study. This Committee, after careful consideration, feels that the most important and immediate of these problems is the task of adequately determining and providing for the needs of youths of junior-college age who will not continue their formal education beyond the junior-college level."

This study is directed by a group of outstanding educators under the leadership of Dr. W. C. Eells, and the investigation is financed by a grant from the General Education Board. Since the investigation is being made by and for the American Association of Junior Colleges, we can expect that its findings will actually influence practice. We can hope that its findings will point the way toward improved recognition of youth needs.

The junior college has an opportunity to change the lives of millions of perplexed youth—youth who are out of work and out of school, youth who are to-day crowding our pool halls, street corners, and road houses rather than our class rooms, libraries, and shops.

This paper was followed by informal discussion.

## A STUDY OF THE OCCUPATIONAL ADJUSTMENT OF SCHOOL-LEAVING YOUTH

EDWARD LANDY, *Director*

*The following paper was presented before the National Vocational Guidance Association on Friday, February 23, 1940, at St. Louis, by Edward Landy, Director of the Occupational Adjustment Study, a special study undertaken by the Implementation Committee (Will French, Chairman) of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.*

You may recall the story of the school superintendent who was reporting to his board on the pupil failures in the school system. At the end of his report, one rather forceful board member, a manufacturer of gloves, vehemently protested at the fact that failures existed and boasted that in his factory during the past year all gloves produced were perfect—not one failure. The school superintendent thought for a moment and then gave a classic reply. "Well, sir," said he, "you can choose your *kids* and we can't."

It is precisely because of this inability to choose exactly the kind of "kids" they might want to have that high schools are facing many problems to-day in American education. It is largely because of this reason that regional conferences are held, schools of education exist, and various committees are appointed to do their work. It is largely for such a reason, the individual differences that exist among our youth, that an Orientation Committee, an Implementation Committee, and Occupational Adjustment Study came into existence.

You are all familiar with the work of the Committee on Orientation of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and especially its reports on the *Issues* and the *Functions of Secondary Education*. You will remember that one of the main ideas expressed by the Orientation Committee in its *Functions of Secondary Education* was that students should not leave school until the school has done what it can to see that they are ready to take their place in life outside the school.

It was because the Executive Committee of the National Association recognized the difficulties involved in attempting to carry out such a program that the Committee on Implementation\* was appointed in 1937.

\*Consisting of:

K. J. Clark, Murphy High School, Mobile, Alabama (ex officio)  
Eli Foster, Principal of Central High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma  
Oscar Granger, Principal of the Haverford Township High School, Upper Darby, Pa.  
John W. Harbeson, Principal of the Junior College, Pasadena, California  
F. C. Jenkins, Wesley Hall, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn.  
George C. Jensen, Principal of Senior High School, Sacramento, California  
DeWitt S. Morgan, Superintendent of Schools, Indianapolis, Indiana  
William F. Rasche, Milwaukee Vocational School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin  
F. T. Spaulding, Professor of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.  
H. H. Stewart, Principal of the Davis High School, Mount Vernon, New York  
Howard Dare White, Assistant Commissioner of Education, Trenton, New Jersey  
Will French, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, Chairman

Its chief function, as I understand it, is to provide, or to suggest, ways and means whereby the high school may more adequately do its job as outlined by the report on *Functions of Secondary Education*.

One of the early decisions of the Implementation Committee was to base its activities on declared needs of secondary schools. Accordingly, its first project was a study of the most pressing needs or problems confronting high-school principals to-day. This study is reported in the May, 1939 issue of the *Secondary-School Principals' Bulletin*. At the risk of being repetitious, I should like to repeat here some of the main features of that study. Mr. Robert B. Patrick, under the direction of Dr. Spaulding, submitted a questionnaire to secondary-school principals the country over which asked two questions:

1. What one or two problems in the conduct of your educational program have caused you most concern within the last year or two years? (If possible, please state each problem in the form of a definite question.)
2. Was the above statement formulated as a result of faculty discussion?

The questionnaire was deliberately not made up as a check list in order to get the relatively free response of the group.

Analysis of the problems as stated by the high-school principals showed very clearly that the task of meeting the needs of non-academic (or the educationally neglected, if you prefer) pupils is one which high-school principals everywhere recognized as their outstanding problem. There were other implications, but I wish to emphasize this one in particular.

The Implementation Committee, following the lead of principals as revealed in this study and of the Orientation Committee, has set for itself as one of its major tasks that of trying to discover ways and means of helping high schools to meet the needs of this so-called non-academic group. These youth have been characterized by other and probably better terms as "school-leavers," and "the educationally neglected." They are those youth who leave the secondary school either before or as a result of graduation and who do not continue on with any further full-time formal schooling.

One of the major jobs which suggested itself to the Committee as a result of its survey of the high-school principals' most pressing problems was the need for a study of the adjustment of school-leaving youth to post-school life with the main purpose in mind of being able to suggest things to do for these youth while they were still in school. The Implementation Committee chose to begin this study in the area of occupational adjustment because of its basic importance for these youth and because it is relatively a more tangible area than some of the others.

The results of Patrick's Study and of my own limited experience since I have been on the Occupational Adjustment Study would lead me to the conclusion that high-school principals and school people in general are tremendously interested in this problem and eager to do what they can. But deciding what to do is a difficult problem and in some respects too big for the individual high-school principal, operating under a limited budget, to solve.

The Implementation Committee not only recognized the need for suggesting practices to the high-school principals but also the complexity of the problem and decided that before making any recommendations it would investigate carefully the area of occupational adjustment. It secured, therefore, a subvention from the General Education Board to pursue this study for one year from July 1, 1939 to July 1, 1940. Because of the complexity of the problem of occupational adjustment it was recognized at the outset that this year's work might not be fruitful of results and that the desired objectives might not be achieved. Briefly, the objectives are:

1. The development of a relatively simple but valid survey-plan which will be of aid to schools in deciding to what extent their pupils who have not gone on further with formal schooling make in the way of satisfactory occupational adjustments.
2. The discovery of techniques and practices which can be introduced to make more effective the occupational adjustment of pupils whose formal education will cease at graduation if not before.

I should like to emphasize again that we do not expect as a result of this year's work to arrive at perfect or near-perfect answers to our objectives. We will be content, indeed, if we can but demonstrate, through actual achievement, that it is possible to evolve tools, techniques, and procedures which can be used to establish leads as to the effectiveness of given school practices upon the post-school occupational adjustment of youth.

I might also emphasize that we have undertaken this job with no preconceived notions as to what constitutes good practice nor with any attempt to justify any advocated practice, but rather in as full and objective a fashion as we can develop to gather any evidence which might substantiate any practice. It is entirely possible that our results may show there is no practice, that we have studied at any rate, that can be substantiated as worth-while. I do not think that this will be an outcome, but it is possible.

Very briefly, this is what we are doing. We are getting as much information as we possibly can concerning the youth's work history from the time he left school up until the interview, including both factual information such as employment status, wages, and kinds of jobs held, and information concerning opinions and attitudes held by the youth which are related to his occupational adjustment. We collect information concern-

ing the youth's opinions, attitudes, and plans with respect to his future occupational adjustment as well. We are getting, in addition, as much information as we can concerning his home and school background. We are especially concerned in examining his school background to find out what significant things he has been exposed to in the school that might possibly have some bearing upon his adjustment. We are getting, also, as complete and comprehensive information (both facts and opinions) as we can from the employer concerning the youth that may be of any significance. We are doing this through the use of a series of interview schedules, one each for the employer, for the youth, and the school.

On the basis of such information gathered, and when completed, it will amount to about 175 separate items of information concerning the youth's work, school, and home background, we intend to make inferences with respect to the adjustment of the youth as measured by ways in which the youth has behaved in attempting to adjust himself occupationally, by the quality of his thinking about his occupational problems which he has to face, and by the actual occupational status of the youth. We intend, also, to make inferences concerning the value of certain school practices as we have been able to observe them, in affecting the post-school occupational adjustment of the youths studied, as we have examined it. This will contribute an answer to one of our two objectives, namely, the recommending of a list of practices or techniques for schools to adopt to improve the post-school occupational adjustment of their youth.

An explanation of how we intend to establish leads as to the effectiveness of the given school practices and in so doing how we are accounting for factors of influence other than school practices would be in order here. It would take several hours for me to develop that point carefully and thoroughly so that it is impossible for me to go into details here and now, but allow me to present at least one possible method. We could isolate a given group of youth who are of approximately the same age, have completed the same grade, are of approximately the same intelligence, come from homes of about the same socio-economic status, and have been out of school for the same length of time. Other factors to equate this given group of youth could be selected as well, but these will do to illustrate the procedure. These youth then will be alike in many important respects. They could then be divided into two groups on the basis of exposure or non-exposure to a given practice. The two groups could then be compared for adjustment and a lead established as to the value of the given practice in affecting occupational adjustment. This is one procedure. We have other methods, such as a comparison of youth by schools, for attempting to get at the relationship between school practices and occupational adjustment.

Another question arises here as to just what are our measures of occupational adjustment. As I have said we are evaluating the adjustment



of the youth in terms of *how he has behaved in attempting to adjust himself, by the quality of his thinking about his occupational problems which he has to face, and by the actual occupational status of the youth.* Such things as how well he gets along with his fellow workers, how intelligently he plans for the future, how intelligently he evaluates his present status, what he does to get himself a job, how much employment he has had, and how soon he secured work after leaving school, are samples of what I mean. There may be some dispute as to the relative weighting of these items but we are not concerned with such for our purposes. We do not intend to report the youth's adjustment in terms of a total score, nor do we believe that such can be done. What we are concerned with is the evaluation of the adjustment of youth in certain areas of adjustment and in certain specifics of adjustment. Given school practices may be more effective for certain areas of adjustment and less effective in others. We are securing judgments of adjustment in three general areas of *planning, appraisal of present job situation, and adjustment to present job*, and in forty-two specific ways of behaving or thinking about his occupational adjustment. In addition, we have twenty-six items of information having to do with the youth's present occupational status. This gives you some idea of how comprehensively we have attempted to evaluate occupational adjustment.

The achievement of the other objective, that of developing a relatively simple but valid survey plan, will have to be accomplished by condensing and reducing our interview blanks to the most significant and reliably secured items of adjustment as we have discovered them and probably to divide these items into those which can be secured through a questionnaire and those which must be secured by the interview technique. These blanks will have to be accompanied by a complete and detailed manual of instructions as to their uses and values. This manual will also contain instructions on how high-school principals may tabulate such information gathered, quickly, easily, and with a minimum of clerical effort, to form their own inferences as to the occupational adjustment of their own school-leavers and will suggest ways of analyzing the results so that they may draw conclusions with respect to modifying their school programs.

The value of our recommendations, as to practices, will be somewhat restricted because of limitations of time and money available this year, which has necessarily limited the scope of the investigation. We are studying only twelve hundred youth and six schools this year, three in Connecticut and three in New Jersey, so that obviously our findings will be limited as to generalizations to be made. There are other limitations to our sample. We are including only those youth who have been out of schools from one year and six months to five years and six months; we have eliminated married women; and, of course, we are concerned only with those youth



who have not gone on with any further formal schooling. If, however, we can demonstrate that generalizations can be made through actual experimental work this year which enables us to arrive at definite inferences, the Study may be greatly expanded to include schools sufficient in number and sufficiently diversified in guidance practices, size, offerings, types of communities located in, and geographic distribution. Then, generalizations can be made which will not be as restricted as by our present limitations of sampling.

Time will not permit my telling you of how we have evolved our techniques and tools, nor of our experimental work to determine how reliable our instruments are. It will suffice simply to say here that we are reasonably sure that our reporting of facts gathered or judgments made about groups of youth will be significantly reliable. My basis for saying this will be found in our completed report when published.

As we have just finished gathering our data and have not, as yet, had an opportunity to analyze our results carefully and systematically, I am not in a position to-day to report any of our findings in any definite way, especially those with respect to the values of the school practices being considered. However, I can make a few tentative observations of outstanding impressions based upon some preliminary tabulations.

As I have already mentioned, there is a marked eagerness and desire on the part of high-school principals to find out what they can do for these school-leaving youth. However, the information which some of the schools possess about their youth is sharply limited to school marks in most cases. One school has a comprehensive objective testing program but the information so collected is confined chiefly to academic subjects. I recognize the difficulty of getting much else through an objective testing program. Another school has made an interesting attempt to individualize its treatment of its youth through having all home room and subject teachers submit narrative reports about each of their youth, in addition to regular marks. Usually, the results of one psychological test of mental ability are recorded.

Very little is known, or remembered, at any rate, concerning home background, personality, behavior, and occupational interests or plans of most of the youth while they were in school. Very little is known concerning what has happened to the youth since leaving school. These statements hold true for the majority but not all of the schools studied. You may be interested to know how we asked for this information. We have one form which is used with the school. Part of the information is secured from the permanent record cards by a clerk. To get the remaining information we asked the principal to recommend the one teacher in the school who knew most about the pupils we were investigating and whom we

could interview. Thus, our conclusions were not based merely upon possible lag between knowing and recording but after an investigation of all possible sources, both that recorded on cards and known personally. We were not content in many cases merely to ask the designated teacher, but went to subject-matter teachers, especially in the vocational-skill providing fields, but still with very little results. I say these things not in criticism of the schools, for as a high-school principal on leave of absence to do this job, I am fully aware of the difficulties involved in getting and keeping information of this kind. (I should have been embarrassed if the questionnaire which I am using were used on me.) But at any rate, this suggests one thought, and that is in spite of all our talk about individual differences and recognition of them in a general and vague way, we have done little actually to do anything about them in a specific way with respect to a specific youth in our schools. (I can generalize, here, you see on the basis of six schools because what we have found only confirms what was found in the New York Inquiry in that direction.) And until we begin to know our youth in an individual, concrete, and detailed way, we can begin to do little about the problems which face us.

All of the high-school principals were concerned, however, with this problem of getting and recording information, and having it available in such a way that the original purpose for having it was not defeated in a tangle of red tape. One high-school principal said to me, "We recognize that our information on personality of these youngsters is inadequate, but frankly, I don't know of any good method of getting and recording such information as yet, and I would rather do nothing than do something foolish." I respect such a man and his opinion. (I might put in here parenthetically that it is my considered judgment that most of the schools with which we are working are probably better than average and a few distinctly above average in getting and having available information concerning its youth. So that what I have said should be construed in no way as an indictment of these schools.)

There are other definite indications of an awareness of the problem on the part of the high-school principals involved. Several of the principals make it their business to become personally acquainted with as many of the employers in the town as they can, both as an aid in placing youth in jobs and as a means of knowing how employers react to youth. The high-school principals, for the most part, have considered in a general way and in some instances on the basis of information gained from school-leavers—not through any systematic follow-up of individual youth nor of any questionnaire addressed to employers—the kind of work for which their schools ought to prepare the youth and have attempted to modify their programs in the light of such consideration.

But what of the youth themselves? How well do they plan? How well do they appraise their job situations? Are they employed or not? What kinds of jobs are they in? Do they find employment soon after leaving school or not? We found\* that approximately seventy-five per cent of the youth studied were employed at the time of the interview in full-time regular jobs, that approximately seven per cent were employed at either part-time or irregular jobs, that approximately ten per cent were completely unemployed, and the remainder were distributed among such activities as WPA, CCC, NYA, or were not in the employment market. We found that approximately thirty-two per cent were in clerical and sales occupations, twenty-eight per cent in semi-skilled work, ten per cent in skilled and the remainder in managerial, skilled, agricultural, and unskilled occupations. It is interesting to note that our figures for employment are considerably higher than other studies similar to ours. Differences in time and place probably account for most of this difference.

We found that approximately fifty per cent secured their jobs through one form of influence or another—parents, relatives, friends—approximately thirty per cent through random personal applications, and the remainder through school authorities, public employment agencies, and answering advertisements. We found that when questioned about their likes and dislikes, a large number were concerned only with specific duties of their jobs and working conditions.

Relatively few were concerned with future opportunities nor with salary problems. About sixty-five per cent thought they were paid about right, while only thirty-seven per cent thought they were underpaid, although their annual earnings were about \$600. Having a job and earning something was what counted most of all.

About eighty per cent secured work within three months of leaving school. When they left jobs, it was chiefly because of two reasons, either to take a more desirable one in terms of prestige or working conditions, or because the job just came to an end. Few left for reasons of pay or because they didn't like the work. Most of them have held three or fewer jobs since leaving school, although we studied youth from one year and six months to five years and six months out of school. Most of them took their first full-time job after leaving school because it was the only one available as far as they could tell, and they needed or wanted to work. Very few got into their first jobs on the basis of its opportunities, or because of employment or wages.

About twenty-five per cent of those interviewed said they expected to enter professional or managerial occupations as their regular occupation. About thirty-two per cent want to enter clerical and sales occupations and

\*These figures, it must be emphasized, are but approximations and may be changed slightly one way or the other when our final machine tabulations are made.

about twenty per cent, the skill occupations. The remainder were divided among the personal service, agricultural, and semiskilled groups. Most of the twenty-five per cent wanting to enter professional jobs were doing some unrealistic thinking. More youth decided upon their occupations since leaving school and prior to their present job than for any other time. This would suggest the need for a kind of continuous follow up counseling service for youth who have left school to help them in doing some realistic thinking about occupational choices. We find that many get their advice about occupational problems from friends and relatives, their information about training opportunities from advertisements of one kind or another. I would make haste to add here that not all of the youth were unrealistic. About one third of the youth we studied, it seemed to us, had done realistic thinking about their occupational planning. About one third had made impractical or impossible plans, or had made no plans and had no concern for the future. About one third had made some plans and had done some thinking about the future, but they were rather vague and in many instances were purely of the kind that would take anything that came along that seemed all right. The same ratios hold true approximately for the intelligent appraisal of their present job situations which these youth are in. About one third had done some very intelligent thinking and had appraised their present job situations very well, about one third were either confused about the problem or had not concerned themselves with it, while one third were somewhere in between these extremes.

Most of them felt that they were better off occupationally for having had some high-school education, although they couldn't tell why beyond some general feeling that high school was useful in occupational adjustment. Even those who had been most consistently unemployed or most obviously maladjusted thought so too. Very few had gone back to the school for help for some interesting reasons. A continuous post-school adjustment service for these youth, to be provided by the school to bridge the gap between school-leaving and successful occupational adjustment which is being advocated (and which I believe we eventually will have to supply), is going to be a difficult thing to establish.

I have not been able to provide you with any established conclusions as to the values of certain practices in influencing after-school adjustment and I have given you but a hasty and incomplete survey of our factual findings. As I have stated, telling you of our conclusions is not possible, because we have not gone beyond the data-gathering stage yet, and such conclusions will come only when we have analyzed our variables and made comparisons. Even here, however, certain things are becoming perceptible and one that seems to be most perceptible of all is, perhaps, a self-evident conclusion, but one, nevertheless, which needs to be verified experimentally. It is this. When the school makes an honest-to-goodness

effort to do something about this business, whether it is through a formal guidance program or through an informal program which has been developed for and adapted to a particular school, then the youth benefits thereby, as opposed to the youth for whom nothing specific is done in the school on the ground that if the student does well whatever the school offers that is sufficient. That is, actually finding out what has happened to school-leaving youth, trying to place them on jobs, teaching them how to get along with employers and fellow workers (some of our youth studied lost their jobs because they quarreled with their fellow workers), teaching them how to look for jobs, and providing them with skills, to the extent possible, which make for initial competence for a specific job, seem to be things which are useful.

It is my sincere hope, which is slowly becoming a belief, that the Occupational Adjustment Study will be able to recommend things to do about this problem of effecting better occupational adjustment. It will then become the job of the school to do something, which is very much the crux of the problem.

### "STUDENT LIFE" IS CALLING

What can "STUDENT LIFE" do for your students?

As the official magazine of Student Councils and of National Honor Societies, *STUDENT LIFE* is, for secondary schools, not only the medium of exchange of outstanding extra-curriculum activities, but also an outlet for the creative work of students in writing, art, and photography. In short, its purpose is to encourage better practices in student activities and to aid all service clubs in secondary schools.

And what can your students do for *STUDENT LIFE*?

They can write articles covering the extra-curriculum activities in your school; write book reviews, original short stories, poems, editorials, and plays; supply photographs, action pictures; provide pen and ink drawings to illustrate special features; poll the student body on questions pertinent to the interests of students.

Articles describing activities may run three or four hundred words in length; they should be supplemented by action pictures showing students engaged in the activities described. Original humorous feature stories may also run three or four hundred words in length; they may be supplemented by pen and ink drawings.

All other original compositions — essays, editorials, stories, poems, and plays — should be moderate in length. Compositions — essays, editorials, stories, poems, and plays — concerning the origin of customs related to

Christmas, New Year's Day, Thanksgiving, St. Valentine's Day, St. Patrick's Day, Easter, etc. will be considered. Other materials may be drawn from the lives of great American statesmen — Benjamin Franklin, George Washington, Abraham Lincoln; from the lives of famous artists, authors, musicians. Articles based on tolerance, propaganda, international good will, better speech are suggested. Subjects which lend themselves to humorous treatment may also be chosen.

It is suggested that student contributors be selected by the principal or a member of the faculty; or that some means be devised whereby the students themselves may choose the authors, artists, and photographers whom they wish to represent their school and its accomplishments.

All materials should be typewritten, double spaced, and written on one side of the page; original copies, not carbons, should be submitted. A short biographical sketch and a picture of the author should accompany each contribution. All photographs must be glossy prints. They may be made by amateur or professional photographers. Complete information for credit and identification should be written on the back of each photograph. All manuscripts and photographs should be securely wrapped and placed in flat envelopes or containers for mailing.

All manuscripts, photographs, and drawings prepared for a particular issue should be received by the editorial office of *STUDENT LIFE*, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago, more than a month prior to the publication date of the issue for which such material is intended.

Subscription rates to *STUDENT LIFE* are: single \$1.00 a year; club, three or more copies mailed under single wrapper, 50 cents a year; single, to members of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and to faculty sponsors of Student Councils and chapters of the National Honor Society, 50 cents a year.

Sample copies will be sent upon request. Please address your suggestions or requests for further information to *STUDENT LIFE*, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.



# National Honor Society

## MEETING OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF THE NATIONAL HONOR SOCIETY

St. Louis, Missouri, February 24, 1940

The National Council met in the New Hotel Jefferson. Present: Members Allen, Comstock, Elicker, Spencer, and Church; absent: Members Brooks, Dickey, Parker, and Peters.

The terms of Members Allen, Parker, and Spencer terminate at this session. The following names were voted on the ballot:

### BALLOT

(Vote for Four)

- ☐ Allen,\* Charles Forrest, Educational Writer, Little Rock, Arkansas.
- ☐ Spencer,\* W. L., Supervisor of Secondary Education, Alabama.
- ☐ Nelson, S. E., Principal, Central High School, Chattanooga.
- ☐ Amland, H. T., Principal, High School, South St. Paul.
- ☐ Hamilton, Jessie M., Principal, Morey Junior High School, Denver.
- ☐ Horner, Thomas R., Principal, High School, Charleston, West Virginia.
- ☐ Rehmus, Paul A., Principal, High School, Grosse Pointe, Michigan.
- ☐ Lowenstein, Fannie, Principal, Southern Junior High School, Louisville.

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\*Present Members of Council.

(The following were elected: Allen, Hamilton, Rehmus, Spencer.)

Meeting of February 27, 1940

The National Council met in the New Hotel Jefferson. Present: Members Allen, Comstock, Dickey, Elicker, Rehmus, Spencer, and Church. Absent: Members Brooks, Hamilton, and Peters.

On motion of Member Elicker second Member Spencer, Charles F Allen was elected president.

The matter of blanket insurance for loanees was advocated.  
Adjournment.



## ***Important Notice***

In order to inform members of the books tentatively selected for the Book-of-the-Quarter Club, a list will be published in each issue of *The Bulletin*. The books now being considered by the Reviewing Board are listed below:

BUTLER: *The Improvement of Teaching in Secondary Schools*. The University of Chicago Press.

HEATON: *The Failing Student*. The University of Chicago Press.

NEWLON: *Education for Democracy in Our Time*. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

*Democracy's Challenge to Education*. Farrar and Rinehart, Inc.

JOHN DEWEY SOCIETY: *Teachers for Democracy*. D. Appleton-Century Company.

FOSTER: *High-School Supervision*. Thomas Nelson and Sons.

NOBLE: *Practical Measurements for School Administrators*. International Textbook Company.

*Making Good in College*. Thomas Nelson and Sons.

CLAPP: *Community Schools in Action*. The Viking Press.

