

OFFICIAL REPORT

The American Association of School Administrators

A DEPARTMENT OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

1946

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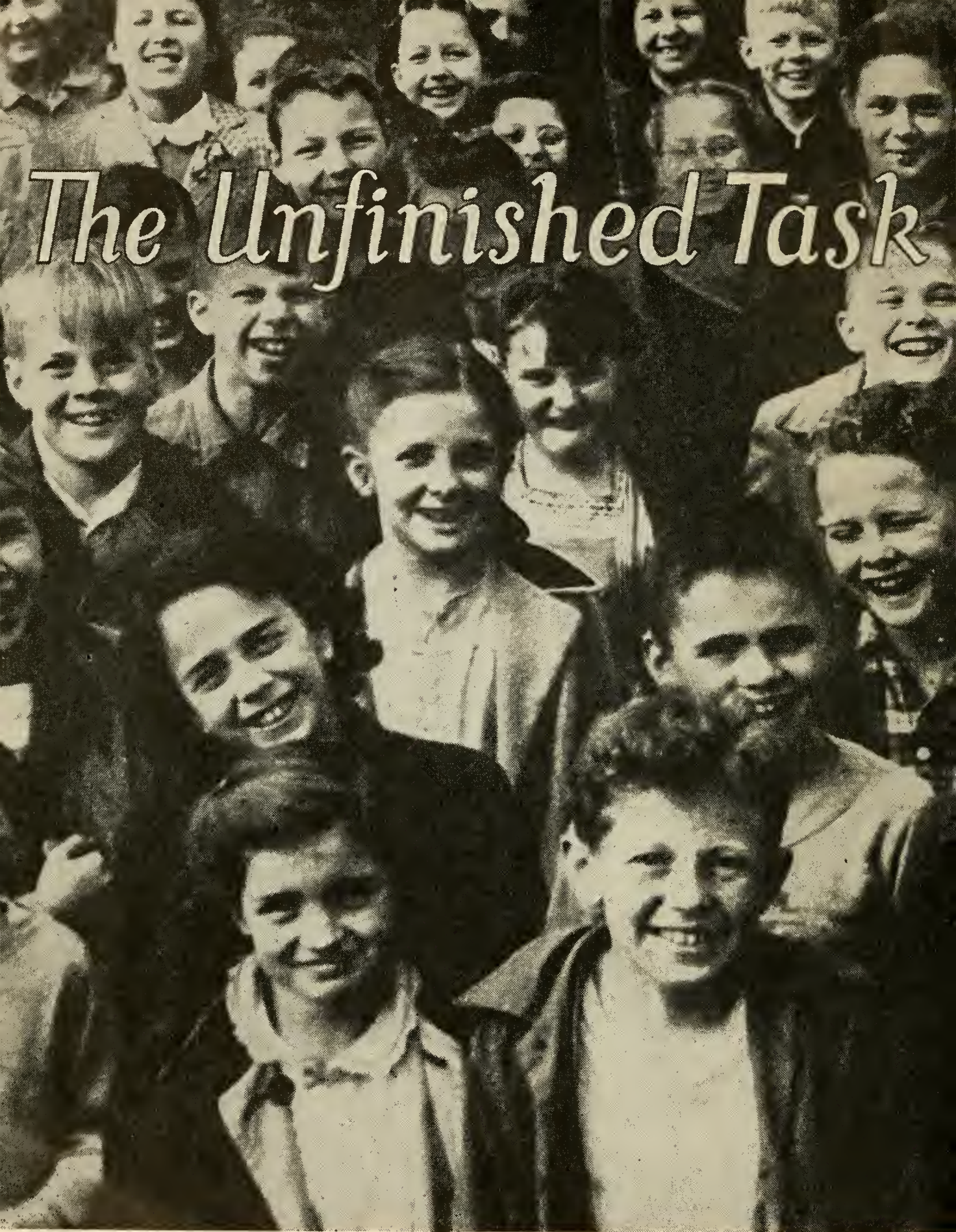
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The Unfinished Task

COURTESY PORTLAND, OREGON, PUBLIC SCHOOLS

THEME OF THE CONFERENCES

The Unfinished Task

OFFICIAL REPORT

Regional Conferences

1946

KANSAS CITY
February 20-22, 1946

ATLANTA
February 25-27, 1946

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March 4-7, 1946

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THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF
SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

A Department of the National Education Association of the United States

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CONTENTS

PART I

Addresses at the Conferences

	PAGE
The Responsibility of Professional Leadership —Lake . .	7
Education of the Conqueror —Russell . .	17
Education for World Citizenship —Carr . .	25
The Next Decade in Education —Pillsbury . .	36
The American Education Award for 1945—Helen Adams Keller, Recipient . .	46
Financing Education for a New World —Boushall . .	47
The Modern Health Program —Bracken . .	53
Education for National Well-Being —Keller . .	63
Toward Better Schools —Engelhardt . .	73
Education and Business —Johnston . .	81
The Convention Exhibit —Krill . .	87
Personnel Problems in American Education —Doudna . .	89
Britain's Greatest Asset—Her Children —Studebaker . .	95
Leadership or Administration —Hanley . .	98
Developing Lay Leadership —Mort . .	106
The Responsibility of Professional Leadership —Sexson . .	113
Presentation of Honorary Life Membership to Willis A. Sutton	120
Personnel Problems in American Education —Hill . .	121
Support for Better Schools —Norton . .	130
Personnel Administration —McFarland . .	137
Tribute to the Recipient of the American Education Award for 1946 —Krill . .	139
Acceptance of the American Education Award for 1946 —Shankland . .	140
The American Education Award for 1946—S. D. Shankland, Recipient	141
Some Questions about School Organization and the School Plant . . —Fowlkes . .	142
The Modern Health Program —Roudebush . .	146
What the Secondary Schools Shall Teach in Meeting Intercultural and Interracial Problems at Home —Tonsor . .	153
Secondary Schools—Developmental Tasks and the Curriculum . . —Jacobson . .	156
Work Experience —Wickham . .	159
What the Elementary School Should Teach to Articulate with the High School —Pullen . .	162
What the Elementary Schools Should Teach—Knowledge and Interest in the Natural and Social World —English . .	164
Self-expression and Appreciation of the Creative Arts in the Elementary Schools —Moore . .	166
What the Elementary School Should Teach—Democratic Group Living and Services —Parrott . .	168
The Proportion of Families with Children in Public Schools together with Educational Implications —Holy . .	169
The Need for School-Building Studies —Aderhold . .	174
How We Can Have Federal Support for Education and Avoid Undesirable Federal Controls —Johns . .	180

	PAGE
Desirable Federal-State Relations Involving Higher Education .—Taylor	184
Maintaining the Teaching Staff—Cures and Contentment—Ostenberg	189
The Preparation of Teachers to Meet New Problems—West	194
What a Superintendent Looks for in New Teachers—Ferguson	198
The Role of Certification in Getting Better Teachers—Cooper	200
Scientific Aids to Education	204
Criteria for Allocating and Spending the School Dollar—Morphet	211
Possible Sources of State Revenue for Public Schools—Smith	215
The Teachers of Europe Are Still at War	218
This Shrinking World	223
Problems of the Professional Personnel	225

PART II

Official Records

Annual Report of the Executive Secretary	233
Report of the Board of Tellers	256
Report of the Auditing Committee	257
Certificate of List of Securities	258
Resolutions Adopted by the New York Conference	259
Kansas City Conference Program	261
Atlanta Conference Program	262
New York Conference Program	263
Chicago Conference Program	264
Officers 1945-46 and 1946-47	265
Commissions	266
Index	269

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PART I

Addresses at the Conferences

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF PROFESSIONAL LEADERSHIP

CHARLES H. LAKE, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CLEVELAND, OHIO;
PRESIDENT, AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

Address at Atlanta and Chicago Conferences

Thoughts on education today pretty much revolve around the problems: how to make better men, how to produce better understanding among men, and how to develop better living conditions for men.

It is the purpose of education in a democracy at all times to help its people to adjust as satisfactorily as possible to conditions which are imposed upon them, to fit them to know what improvements should be made in these conditions, and to give them the working tools to effect these improvements.

Education increases the demand for the goods of the world, develops discriminating buyers and users of goods, increases productive capacities, stimulates trade, and develops the skills and training needed in business and industry. Our educational program in the past years has had much to do with making the United States the wealthiest large country in the world. While developing the demand for more things, more commodities, more services, and for a wider exercise of human rights, it also has developed the ability on a large scale to satisfy these demands. On the social side, education develops the power in the individual to adjust to new and unusual situations, to adapt his life to the pattern of the society of which he is a part, to improve cultural and moral standards, and to coordinate thought and action. On the political side, education must be considered as the definite means of self-preservation. Through it only may the state in a democratic society be perpetuated.

The justification of a democracy does not lie in achieved perfection of social conditions but in the fact that it offers its people an opportunity to work toward conditions which they think are better than those in which they find themselves.

A question that often is raised is: Why with the best educational system in the world have we failed to eliminate many of the social and economic evils which have been with us for so many years? It is quite evident that training the mind is not enough. In some way or other, such a mind must be gotten into action. A trained mind is not a cultured mind until it acts to produce some positive results. Spiritual values do not exist until they result in direction of thought and action.

While education in the United States has been good enough to justify our hopes for its achievements, it has not been good enough to justify all

the claims we have made for it. There probably will not be any sensational changes in our educational program as the result of the war but there will be many improvements as the result of our attempts to do better those things which we always have been trying to do. Postwar planning in education means keeping abreast of present developments and being thoroughly prepared to make changes as the reasons for them become apparent. The experiences of the past must still be the foundation of our program for the future.

One great purpose of education in a country such as ours is to develop our youth to understand thoroughly our present social order. We are not educating for a new social order but working to train our young people to recognize the strengths and weaknesses of our present governmental practices, to be alert in suggesting needed changes, and to be so well versed in the technics of government that such changes may be expeditiously accomplished as the need for them becomes apparent in the course of their lives.

Ultimate progress of the human race will depend upon man's continuing program to control and utilize nature through the application of science and to promote his ultimate self-interest through a thorough understanding of his relationship to others who are promoting their individual self-interests.

Individual initiative is a wonderful trait of human nature. If the exercise of it were to be taken away from the human being, our society would disintegrate rapidly, in my opinion. However, it is evident that such initiative cannot be permitted to operate without some modifying limitations. The balance between such initiative and responsibility to one's fellowmen can be established if and when we are convinced that such a balance is essential.

Nearly every sort of criticism has been made of our system of education in the United States. Our schools have been too "soft." There has been too much emphasis placed upon discipline resulting in overwork, too much emphasis on vocations, too little emphasis on vocations, too little attention to the development of individuality, too much mass education, too much control by faddists, too much attention to athletics, too little attention to athletics and physical fitness, too little character training, too little training for civic life and social efficiency, too little attention to the education of the "gifted child," too much attention to the "form" of education with not enough attention to the results, too much interference from political-minded citizens with the administration of the schools, and so on through the list.

In general, the administration of education in the United States has been good. We have been successful to a remarkable degree in developing excellent units of educational administration in our states and local communities. I know of no other organization, comparable in size, which can be adjusted to new and unusual situations so quickly as can our educational system. For example, the teachers of this country several times in recent years were called upon to perform many emergency services for our nation. The work was done thoroughly and expeditiously. In our schools we

collected thousands of tons of scrap metals; we collected clothing by the carload and waste paper by the thousands of tons. We sold war bonds and stamps at the rate of several million dollars a month. We trained several million men and women for specific work in essential war industries. These services represent but a small fraction of the list of the community and national services which were performed in the war years in our schools. Such services, of course, have their educational and economic values, but we must keep in mind they are but a small part of the educational program. Such activities could be extended to the point where education would become the "by-product" of our schools instead of the base product.

In the last century education in the United States has changed from the "Little Red School House" era to our present complex organization which extends from the nursery school through the modern university with its many and extensive offerings in educational opportunities. While these changes have been taking place, we more or less subconsciously have come to accept certain traditional beliefs and practices as sound. These practices and beliefs have served us fairly well. Our system of education has kept fair pace with the industrial needs of a country whose chief concern was to be left alone to develop its resources for the benefit of its people; whether it has kept pace with the social and spiritual needs of its people is another question.

The destiny of our civilization is inevitably linked with our comprehensive program of popular education. Our entire population is to be initiated in the ways of our democracy through the medium of compulsory education and equal educational opportunity for all. With this thesis we probably all shall agree. The real questions that arise from this statement of an ideal are: How do we develop in our schools learning situations which result in real education and the conservation of the varying abilities of our people? How do we keep our schools, our system of education, from becoming an end in itself, from becoming an instrument of quantity production with too little concern for the vastly different powers of people?

Local social problems are certain to arise in our communities. But there have been few such times when the problem was serious enough to attract the common interest of our people to the extent that a national solution was demanded. In one locality people object to the administration of education, in another to its teachings, in still another its costs. It is true that education makes people more exacting, sometimes makes them dissatisfied with things as they are, but it also is true that only through such dissatisfaction will plans for producing better conditions arise.

The questions behind progress always have been: Why do we do this thing the way we do it? and, how can it be done better? We have been continuously raising these questions with regard to our work. America has developed rapidly. Has our educational system produced in sufficient numbers the men and women of character, trained intelligence, initiative, and leadership necessary to preserve the integrity of such a country as ours? Teaching people to live richly and well is not enough. How do we proceed

to teach the responsibility which we must accept in our relations with each other? How do we use our educational system to insure an appreciation of the cultural, spiritual, and training values to be attained through its operation?

The war centered our attention on many old and new problems. But even before the war we were keenly conscious that all was not well with our national economy. There were many problems to be solved and there was much patchwork in our attempts at solutions. There was the problem of overproduction, if such a condition is possible, followed by the problem of underproduction. There was the problem of unemployment, coupled with our sophomoric attempts to provide for the underprivileged. There was the problem of strikes and lockouts resulting from lack of adjustment in our industrial relations. There were problems of international relationships. War was inevitable in the face of the world domination program of Germany and Japan; yet when war came we were quite unprepared for it. I am suggesting no criticism of any person or groups. What happened in these areas of activity was in line with our way of doing things. It may be that we were confusing our ideas of civilization with ideas of ease and luxury. It has been done before in the history of the world.

The war also taught us many things in the field of education. It taught us that we can teach much more than we have been teaching in the time at our disposal. It taught us that we were not as physically and mentally fit as we should have been and that we can do better in our teaching to make us so in the future. It taught us that we can live healthfully on much less food than we had been consuming and wasting. It taught us that we can produce adequately for any legitimate purpose. It taught us—we hope—that genuine cultural values are as essential in education as the sharpening of the mind and the training of the hand.

While education offers the only possibility of an enlightened and civilized world, it also is as true that not just *any* education will produce the enlightenment we seek. The faith of our fathers was based upon the conviction that man with each generation was becoming more wise and more humane. The wars of our times have brought us face to face with the fact that human nature is at times still brutally savage. What we have called the peace years of our times have demonstrated, beyond a doubt, that we have not yet learned how to be as wise as we must be. Man can be schooled for any purpose or for no purpose at all. The results of education can be most ineffective and even destructive.

Education in any country will be determined by what those in authority want. If a dictator is in control, the education offered will be that which he deems essential to the interests of himself and his country. If the people of a country are in control, as they should be in a democracy, the educational program will be based on what these people think they want. Let's analyze this situation. The educational program of the people of a democracy must be built upon the fundamental needs and desires of those people. What do people want? They want a government which they

respect and trust; they want to be free in their right to work, to create, to do something worth doing; they want some reasonable measure of social and economic security; they want to be free in their right to think and direct their acts in accord with practices which they believe are fundamental to their happiness; and they want these same things for their children.

No one expects that we shall get along without education. Children are going to be trained in some way or another. We have put our faith in universal free education. We are still firm in that faith but we must of necessity be critical of our program if our faith is to be maintained. Not that we haven't been critical in the past. Our schools have been repeatedly surveyed and constantly criticized. Educators, laymen, parents, taxpayers, and taxsavers all have entered into the discussions of what to teach, how to teach, how our schools should be administered, and how and to what extent they should be financed. Such a situation has its virtues. As long as there is intelligent discussion concerning our schools, they will be reasonably safe.

We have had many childish arguments and fairly polite quarrels over such words and phrases as "progressivism," "the child-centered school," and "democracy in the classroom." I have been quite unable to detect much difference in the actual practices of the so-called progressive school and those of any other good school. Much of the so-called progressivism seemed to be limited to the language of speeches made at conventions or in articles printed in magazines. Fundamental educational values are rather constant in war or peace. War and other crises do not change the basic problems in education; they only bring them into stronger relief and intensify them. We always have known that not a large enough proportion of our population was getting a good education. We always have known that many thousands of our young people were not getting the kind of education that was best for them. Why? Probably because, to some extent, we were confusing the idea of equal opportunity in education for all with the idea of equal education for all.

Is there in America a definite program of education which has been accepted and which applies to all our communities? The answer is "No." We do have a wide range of schools—nursery schools, kindergartens, intermediate schools, academic, technical, trade, commercial schools, junior occupational schools, opportunity schools, junior colleges, colleges, universities, and private schools of many kinds. However, the offerings and educational opportunities vary widely with states and communities.

In some way or other, education must be made adequate for all the children of the nation. This is one country and not a conglomeration of separate communities, each going its own way in education independently and with little or no concern or consideration for its effect on other communities. In my humble opinion it is a national problem as well as a local one. Of course, local interest in education must be maintained but that can be done, I believe, without in any way sacrificing the welfare of the

children. The best plan of financing education, in my opinion, will include federal, state, and local support in about equal proportions, with the immediate control resting in the local subdivisions.

Indefiniteness is, and has been, the greatest defect in our educational work. This applies to administration, supervision, curriculums, and teaching. It is rather easy to do something if you know exactly what it is you want to do. It is easy to teach a unit of work if the unit is definite and you have a definite idea of its content. The physical and mental fitness may accrue to the pupil who follows them.

So I say that the first work for educators in postwar education is to develop an adequate and a definite program. What is it we want to do in education and what is the most economical way in time, effort, and money to accomplish the purpose? Hazy ideas in education usually are accompanied by pages and pages of words which lead no place but not fast. It is true that administrators have been greatly handicapped by having to give far too much of their time to many problems which, while relating to education, are not educational—problems of finance, levies, bond issues, surveys, and what not.

Education in this country has not been as serious a business as it should have been. A college was a place to which the graduate could return from time to time to renew old friendships and see the “team” perform. Alumni organizations got together from time to time to hear the coach’s plans and hopes for the year, but rarely for some other reason concerning the welfare of the institution and its plans for the future. In other words, there has been a triviality about much of college life and thought on higher education that was hardly in accord with the high purposes which we have proclaimed in our treatises on education. Almost any one could get through college if a little care was used in the selection of courses. Enrolments became standards in the minds of many for determining the importance of the school. The development was logical. Old “grads” sent their sons back to their college and in too many instances four years and a diploma were the criteria for a college education. Remember, I am not placing the blame on the college nor on the college administrators. It was in accord with the spirit of the times. In my opinion the war has changed this situation and college education will be much better following the war than it was before. I have the same belief concerning all public education.

I predict that in the near future we shall give much more attention to the organization of departments of education within the several states. State directors of education are going to have much more to do in the postwar years than they have had to do before and their offices are going to become increasingly important. The state director of education should be free from political interference and his tenure in office should be protected to the extent that he can work with the educators of his area in developing a long-time basic program for the schools of his state. This cannot be done if he is compelled to “run for reelection” or work for reappointment every two, three, or four years.

In the very near future it is more than probable that we shall extend the range of public education downward to include all children of four years of age. There are far too many educational opportunities being lost to our children of these years. At one time we argued that children were better off in their homes in these earlier years. The "home" of course must be considered a basic educational institution. However, as such an institution, it can be much improved through supplementary work done in publicly supported preprimary schools. Through such a plan the work of the home would be strengthened to produce a satisfactory environment for the development of all children.

At the age of about twelve, or at the end of the primary period, the sixth grade, these pupils should go into a four-year intermediate school where we shall institute a greater modification of our present program to fit the varying abilities of our pupils. I do not suggest that we shall immediately begin a comprehensive program of vocational education in these years. On the contrary, each boy and girl will spend much of his school time in the study of such basic subjects as mathematics, science, social science, languages, and the arts, but the offerings will be better graded to the abilities of pupils to pursue such subjects. Vocational offerings will be included in the program of studies for each pupil in inverse proportion to his ability to carry the regular academic subjects.

At the beginning of the senior high school, which should include the eleventh, twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth years, each pupil will be studying for some specific purpose—some to go on into the professional schools for teachers, lawyers, doctors, engineers, and government services; others will be preparing for specific occupations in trade and technical schools. The determination as to allocation of these pupils in their studies will be through achievement and aptitude tests. The democratic thesis to which we are committed will not survive unless the abilities of our people are used where they will most effectively promote the society which we seek to maintain. Abilities must be recognized and developed, and the economic status of a pupil must be no bar to his opportunity for training for his most effective service. If need be, we must subsidize the education of those pupils of unusual ability who otherwise would not be able to continue their education to the point of maximum returns to society.

For such a plan we must have the very best teachers, carefully selected for training and then carefully trained. Teaching will become a profession to a much greater degree than at present and gradually we shall eradicate the idea that any institution of higher learning is a teacher-training institution and, also, the idea that any one can teach even though he may have failed at law, medicine, business, or whatever else it was that he tried.

Teacher training will become more and more a professional training and only those colleges and universities which can meet high standards will be licensed to train. We have done pretty well with the licensing of doctors in this country. We have not done so well with the licensing of teachers. Teachers must be protected in their rights as teachers and encouraged to

make teaching a profession. Such rights, however, do not include the right to be habitually poor teachers. There will be no place in the schoolrooms for such teachers.

Government service will become much more of a profession in the next few years and information about government in all its aspects will be studied by our prospective voters. We have been a bit afraid to have our young people get real information on the subject in our classrooms. If the facts of political government were studied, it was "politics" and politics was taboo in the classroom. Politics in the classrooms? No, but information about politics certainly has a place in the classrooms of a democracy. While pleading the cause of liberal education, I would also plead that the intelligence of the young people in our classrooms be liberated to include any field of thought that contributes positively to the understanding of the people of our world and country. While I have the conviction that the person who cannot think without training can never be trained to think, I also have the firm conviction that those who can think must be given much practice on those problems of society which are most worth thinking about.

We, of course, will revalue our materials of education, our courses of study, our time schedules. Through such revaluation we shall determine what results are most worth achievement, how much time is necessary to achieve them, and allot our time schedules accordingly. I am not advocating hastening the process of education but simply that we make education better with each year. "You can grow a squash in three months but it takes fifty years to grow an oak." Our traditional time-cubicles in colleges and secondary schools need a careful dusting. In too many instances in the past, the "course" was lengthened or stretched to fit into the organization of semesters and quarters, with too little regard for the richness of the content.

Our consideration of human nature has brought no plan for the amelioration of man's social ills other than education and learning. Man has the possibility of almost complete control of his fate. It is not enough for a man to be able and good. The able, if our society is to succeed, must acquire and use power. We may think it "too bad" that these able people cannot be left free to practice the arts, advance science, work in the professions, and conduct business in an honest and efficient way. But such service will not be enough in this world of tomorrow. These people must accept the responsibility of larger service. Their abilities must be used for political good as well as for private enterprise.

Just now we are working to discover the best program of education for the returning veteran—the best program in terms of the individual veteran and in terms of the country of which he is a part. We in education have a very definite responsibility for developing this program but it is a responsibility which the veteran must share with us.

It seems to me that the education of the returning veteran is very definitely a part of our whole educational program and that it must not

be considered too much as a segregated program with too little association with the regular educational program of our country:

The veteran is coming back to his country and home community with a great deal more of life experience than he had when he left a few years or months ago to enter the service of his country in the armed forces. He cannot return to exactly the same community he left because it doesn't exist as he left it. It has changed in some respects. He is returning with a very sincere and ardent desire to fit into his community as a normal and active participating member of it—a community made up of people that he knows, people who have the same hopes and desires for the future that he has. He wants to pick up the threads of the life he left as simply, as easily, and as quickly as possible. He does not want to be considered "the returning veteran problem," but rather the returning veteran who is anxious to fill his place in the country for which he has fought, in the most effective and cooperative way possible. We have something to learn from him and he has something to learn from us.

I sometimes wish that we had another name, or a better name, for "liberal" education. It has been used in so many ways that I am not certain that its meaning is clear. A liberal education is that education which teaches men to understand each other, to understand the life around them, and how to live with each other. If democracy is to succeed in this country, every citizen must have such a liberalizing education. We must not permit ourselves to be lulled to sleep by the cradle songs of those who would have us believe that there is some easy and simple way to attain a democratic society. The only road to a democratic community or world is education, and it is our first duty in American education to define and introduce an education which will produce such a community here in the United States. As time goes on and generations pass, we may hope such a community may include the entire world.

The knowledges and skills that are basic in a crisis are fundamental knowledges and skills. We must understand our enemies and allies in order to conduct a successful war. There are at least as many reasons why we should understand them in peace. We must be physically, mentally, and emotionally fit in war. We also must be so in peace. We stress superior ability to learn in time of war; then, certainly, we must do so in peace for peace is much more difficult than war and proportionately more worthwhile.

Summarizing, I suggest that the trends in education will be toward:

1. An extension of the democratic principle of equality of opportunity through better elementary and secondary educational programs for all the children of the nation, without regard to economic status, race, or place of residence.

2. An extension of education downward to include all children in the fourth and fifth age years. These are very important years in the educational process and we cannot afford to neglect them.

3. The addition of two years beyond the regular high school's twelfth grade, for youth of demonstrated abilities—allocation in such schools to be determined by

examinations designed to place pupils on the basis of their abilities to profit by instruction in certain specific fields of educational endeavor.

4. A program of subsidizing education which will make it possible for each individual of unusual ability to continue his education to the point where his abilities may be of maximum value to society.

5. A curtailment of the system of free electives as practiced in many secondary schools and colleges, and a more definite program of education for each student.

6. A higher quality of education at all levels, as determined by a rigid appraisal of all present materials and methods.

7. Much more attention to the problem of teacher selection and training. More of the selection will be done before the applicant trains for teaching instead of afterward.

8. A vast extension of adult education opportunities including an extension education service which will make it unnecessary in the future to have such national youth service agencies as the NYA and CCC.

9. The reorganization of small district units of educational control to insure a sufficient number of children in each district to make it economically possible to provide a suitable program for each child.

10. More attention to the provision of work opportunities for secondary-school youth in line with their vocational interests and abilities. Work, real work, always will be a part of a well-rounded educational program.

11. Much attention to the problem of developing facilities and educational programs for the education of returning veterans and the retraining of civilians who are compelled to change their work after the war.

12. A program of financing education on a federal, state, and local basis which, while giving due attention to economy in operation and the maintenance of local interest and control, will not make it necessary for the education of the children of this country to be wholly subject to the varying financial abilities of local taxing subdivisions.

13. A program for the thorough rehabilitation of school buildings and a much wider use of them for education, recreation, and general community betterment.

Educators never have quite agreed on the questions: *Just what should be taught in American education?* and *To whom should it be taught?* They have agreed quite generally on the "objectives" of education.

All right, we are a group of people engaged in the work of educating the youth of our respective communities. How may our time be used best to facilitate the program of education for these young people? What are the problems that should have our attention? How do we organize our time and ability to make our program of secondary education as adequate for the brilliant pupil as for the slow, as just for the economically rich as for the poor, as adequate for those who will work with their hands as for those who will work with their minds? What changes do we need in order to foster a satisfying and a profound sense of "belonging"—a sense of being a significant part of *our country*?

EDUCATION OF THE CONQUEROR

WILLIAM F. RUSSELL, DEAN, TEACHERS COLLEGE,
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N. Y.

Address at Kansas City and Chicago Conferences

A Missouri doughboy is our President; doughboys, veterans of the last war, run our country. But the G. I.'s are coming home. Soon they will replace the doughboys—on schoolboards, in legislatures, at posts of leadership in all walks of life. What kind of country will we turn over to them? What kind of country will they in turn make? What sort of education will they want? What should they want? Is there anything in our experience, or in world experience, that will help them in making these choices? Are there good examples to imitate? Are there bad examples to avoid? These are the problems that I propose that we think about together today.

Doughboy to G. I.—where did this word “doughboy” come from? A soldier in Wellington’s Rifle Brigade, on the retreat from Talavera in the year 1809 during the Peninsular War, made the following note in his diary:

For bread we took corn from the fields, and having no proper means of winnowing and grinding it, were obliged . . . to rub out the ears between our hands and pound them between stones to make dough . . . from which wretched practice we christened the place Dough Boy Hill.¹

An officer of the same outfit left the same record. “Here for three weeks we nearly starved, and our position received the name of Dough Boy Hill.”

This is straight from the horse’s mouth. What does that expression mean? The control of the British Army in Wellington’s day rested in a clique of old generals headed by the Duke of York. Their headquarters was in a building in Whitehall known as the Horse Guards—whence the expression that I have just used, for an authoritative, if trivial, statement. All during his younger days, in India, on the Peninsula, in Southern France, and even at Waterloo, Wellington had to battle a group of old generals. “Having been conspicuous failures on active service,” says Aldington, “they exercised their old age in diligent and pedantic insistence on obsolete methods and traditions which ought to have been abolished.” They turned victory into defeat, replaced ability by incompetence; fainthearted, they forced the courageous to turn back. Mostly it was too little and too late.

But the Duke in his later years and old age in turn became the leader of the Horse Guards. Says Aldington:

The whooping horse laugh of the brigadiers, the two-fingered salute of corps commanders, the religion of fox hunting, the tendency for officers to be gentlemen and to look on other ranks as His Majesty’s lackeys in uniform, come from the Duke. So lasting was this influence that the British Expeditionary Force of 1914 was a slightly modernized version of the six divisions of the Peninsular Army, and relied for its fire-power largely on the musketry with which the Duke had accomplished such military miracles.²

¹ Quoted from Aldington, Richard. *The Duke*, New York, 1943, p. 151.

² Aldington, Richard, *op. cit.*, p. 354.

I do not need to labor this point. The records show that Maréchal Bazaine, before Sedan in 1871, drilled the French madly along Napoleonic lines, with some slight modification based on desert warfare in North Africa, while the Germans, heeding the experience of Grant and Lee and particularly of Stonewall Jackson, were adapting their training and strategy to a new technological development—the railroad—and various devices for rapid-fire.

A defeated nation turns its back on the past. Its leaders were wrong; its methods were wrong; something new must be tried. A victorious nation tries to return to normalcy. Its leaders were all right; its tactics proved; its plans successful. Don't take out a winning pitcher. Don't change horses in the middle of a stream.

I remember once hearing of a new golf game called "Drink and Smell." The rules were to have two players, two caddies, two bags of clubs, and one large bottle of whiskey. After the first hole the winner got a drink and the loser just a smell. The same procedure on the second and thereafter. If the same lost three or four holes in succession, he would be *bound* to win the next. So in a sense has it been in the field of warfare. Success brings a trend toward tradition, failure a search for the new, with the certain result of ultimate alternation of victory and defeat.

This principle applies also to education. The main reforms of education in Prussia—from which resulted the horrible history of this criminal nation—date from Fichte's *Reden*, based upon the defeats inflicted by Napoleon. The main reforms of education in France up to the present date from 1871, the debacle at Sedan and the occupation of Paris by Bismarck.

This principle in operation was plain to be seen after the last war. You could go to Austria or Germany or Hungary or Bulgaria, and they would ply you with questions about education in the United States. How did you accomplish this? What would you advise about that? And in each country were instituted substantial educational reforms, new school organization, new curriculums, new plans for teacher preparation, new programs for public health and welfare. But if you went to Paris or London, or particularly Edinburgh, they would welcome you politely and ask you what was it that you wanted to see. They would start a conversation with, "The trouble with your education is . . .," and being from a conquering country, naturally, I wanted to tell the world how we had done it.

The countries in the world today can be divided into five groups: the *Defeated*—Germany, Bulgaria, Italy, and Japan; the *Neutrals*—such as Spain, Sweden, and Switzerland; the *Occupied*—such as Belgium, Norway, and Greece; the *Allied*, who took a minor part in the fighting—such as Portugal, Brazil, Iran, and Mexico; and the *Conquering*—France, China, Great Britain, Soviet Russia, and the United States. The Defeated are not going to look back. What they did was wrong; their leaders were wrong. Bit by bit as we proceed from Neutral, to Occupied, to Allied, their eyes will shift progressively from the future to the past.

Among the conquerors there will also likely be some divergence in the direction of their view. France, China, and Russia lost battle after battle,

had much of their mainland occupied, suffered tremendous personal losses. Britain, while not occupied, was subjected to devastating air attack—once early in the war in the Battle of Britain, and once late in the Battle of the V-1's and V-2's. All four—China, France, Soviet Russia, and Britain—were severely frightened. For long periods only a flicker of hope remained. Read the secret speech of Winston Churchill recently published in *Life* magazine.

Of all the conquerors the United States stands alone. We were not invaded—except for the Philippines, a few Pacific Islands, and the tip of Alaska. We were not bombed. The immensity of the disaster of Pearl Harbor was kept from us; the early naval losses around Guadalcanal and the Coral Sea were shrouded in censorship; only the affairs around Kasserine Pass and the Bastogne Bulge gave us qualm, and they were soon forgotten. We are proud; we are confident; we have not been scared.

We don't want to fight;
But, by Jingo, if we do,
We've got the ships, we've got the men,
And we've got the money, too.

Also, we have the atom bomb.

Where in all the world is conservatism likely to take hold? Where will it be said that the leaders were OK? That tactics were sound? That policies were right? Where will they be least likely to change the pitcher? Where will be the smallest chance of effecting a business transaction in midstream? Right here in the good old USA!

Where in all the world is conservatism in education likely to be popular? Where will it be said that old professors and superintendents are OK? That the course of study is sound? That curriculum revisions are unnecessary? That Horace Mann and McGuffey were right? Right here in the good old USA!

We talk a good deal about the reeducation of the Germans. A large commission has gone to Japan to reeducate the Japanese. I grant the importance of the two problems. I appreciate from personal experience closer than most people the importance for future world peace of better education of the loco nations. But far more important, I am sure, is the reeducation of the Americans, particularly in the face of the conservative reaction that, unwatched and unnoticed, seems certain to set in.

The trouble with the problem is that it is so close to us. We are living with it; we are living in it. Properly to assess our place is like taking one's own pulse. Somehow or other we have to get outside ourselves so as to look at ourselves. We must be able to assess trends; to have objective standards by which to measure where we go and what we do. Fortunately, I think that we can set up some objective standards by which we can measure our degeneracy or progress; and upon the basis of these standards determine whether we will go along or fight.

By a careful study of the history of education and comparative education we can find certain societies of the past, and almost up to the present, whose education was geared either to looking forward or looking backward. We

know, for instance, that the early Egyptians and Chinese set up societies that lasted for long periods of years. These societies were strong because they adopted the principle of having each successive generation exactly duplicate the preceding one, and the system of education fitted this program exactly. In more recent times we have seen other modern societies adopt similar programs. In Germany, for instance, the great mass of the people were taught to obey, to do as they were told. Certain world empires put this kind of education down upon their subject peoples, such as that of the Dutch in Java and the British in some of their colonial possessions.

Similarly there have been some societies, particularly in times of ferment, that gained great success precisely because they adopted a policy of change, of looking forward, of adapting to the new; and here again the system of education meshed exactly with the program. The most striking examples were the Ottoman Empire and that phase of German social planning that kept the mass of the people controlled and at the same time produced leaders able to look forward and cut red tape.

I do not need to spell out to this audience in detail the characteristics of these two types of society and education. It will be sufficient to list briefly the main elements in common.

The characteristics of an educational plan to fit a backward-looking society are:

1. *Special trust in the old, suspicion of the young, long and slow advancement*—The Senate, the Elders, the Medicine Men hold the power. Youth are kept apart. Young men must sit in the background and keep silent. Only when the fires of youth have been quenched and habit and custom have full sway can they be trusted to speak and share in decisions.
2. *Emphasis on a ruling class*—Power descends from father to son. Power and wealth have special privileges. In education there is usually one kind of education for the privileged and another for the masses. Wealth and political position determine educational opportunity.
3. *Certain peoples, often in large numbers, outside the pale*—Zulus or half castes—Ainus or Indians—Okies or Okinawans—untouchables, beyond the pale. They stand back; they cast their eyes down; but they work, work, work as slaves for the overlords. They receive little schooling; short years, discipline, limited opportunity.
4. *The main content of the curriculum is contained in a ritual or in a set of books*—The lore of the Egyptian priests, the Analects of Confucius, the ritual of the Pueblo Indians, the Prussian course of study—whatever it is—must be mastered perfectly by those permitted to learn.
5. *Closely related is the method of teaching memoriter work*—Pupil repeats what he has learned. "His not to reason why, his not to make reply." The procedure is simple. The teacher knows exactly what he wants; the pupil knows exactly what he is supposed to do. No variation is permitted.

These characteristics are very baldly stated. They will not appear so plainly in postwar America. They will be dressed up, ornamented, and disguised. We must learn to look squarely and deeply and rip off the tinsel.

The characteristics of education to look forward—to adjust to new con-

ditions—to flexibility, adaptability, sensitiveness to change—are almost the exact antithesis of education for conformity. The goal is definitely not to bring up one generation exactly like the previous one, but one that is different. Hence,

1. *Education is based not on a ritual or the contents of a set of books but upon the demands of future society*—The rules are not there to be followed; they must be made up new to meet new conditions. They must be contrived in the heat of battle, making use of all the new knowledge and technics available. Hence,

2. *Such a society cannot afford a ruling class, hereditary in nature, which holds the power*—New ideas must boil up from underneath. Heredity may have great weight, but the biological sport must be treasured. Every opportunity must be given to ability under whatever conditions it may appear.

3. *People must have equal opportunity, regardless of race, creed, or economic ability*—Since all ability must be developed, and decisions must be made by the people rather than according to a set of books or ritual, all the people must be educated to assume these responsibilities and the few exceptionally able to go far beyond that.

4. *Ability, not age or reputation, must be the consideration in choosing leaders*—On the whole, younger rather than aged, flexible rather than blind respect for the past.

5. *The method of teaching should be designed to stimulate flexibility, the questioning attitude, impatience with the past*—The learner should be encouraged to vary, to form opinions of his own, to mass knowledge upon problems of real life, real to him. Flexibility and adaptability should be his goal.

These characteristics of forward-moving and backward-moving education have been stated in extreme form. What I am trying to do is to set up a series of measuring sticks whereby we can tell, while we are in the process, whether we are moving forward or backward. Undoubtedly we Americans will continue to pride ourselves on our progressive ways; we shall talk a lot about invention and adaptability; but in view of our history and the history of our education, I think that almost every social pressure will drive us to the Horse Guards' attitude. Pupils and parents, teachers, professors, and schoolboard members will tend to work and think that way.

In the main, I should say that our educational system has been very conservative; but we have been a progressive people, inventive, adaptable, sensitive to change. Why? We had a new country to settle. Every successive wave of immigration and settlement had new problems to meet. Our people were always up against something new. We had to make tools, to devise machines; we couldn't order what we wanted from Manchester or Rouen. As we settled one new territory after another, our boys and girls had to adjust, had to adapt, had to invent.

But not in our education. The little grammar schools and district schools gave the Three R's and little else. The early colleges were set up to train young men for the ministry and the law. Each of these professions depends upon tradition and the adjustment of the individual to a body of tradition.

Then the colleges expanded, took in students preparing for other walks of life; the high schools were added, little images of the colleges. They were modeled on a European tradition, a settled society, one which looked backward. Americans kept the European form; but we learned to justify the system with a new pattern that sounded good to citizens of this new country. We were told that formal subjects and domination of pupil by teacher were justified because thereby the mind was trained or character formed. No matter how much the pupil learned to do just as he was told; no matter how remote from life might be the subjectmatter; nevertheless, the disciplined mind that resulted therefrom was said to be suited to a pioneer society. Even if it were proved that a good knowledge of formal grammar did not help one to write or speak English better, it was still good because of its disciplinary values; and if you want to train a leader, proper education first disciplines him to be a follower. Both these theories are preposterous. Neither finds much justification in educational research. They are the talk of the pedagogue which finds willing ears among a population, down underneath proud of its past, unworried about its future, like Wellington and Bazaine ready to face the world with the tactics of Waterloo. Most of my intelligent friends, good patriotic Americans, down underneath believe in a form of education much like that of ancient China or Egypt. Most of them are quite fearful of anything different. That is why some educators have gained great popularity by the advocacy of the one hundred best books; or the return to the standards of the *McGuffey Readers* as the cure of delinquency. This address will go unnoticed in the newspapers—which is all right with me; but if I were to advocate the return to the *McGuffey Readers*, or to Plato and Aristotle, these remarks would likely make the wires of the Associated Press. Such is the educational attitude of the Americans. That is why America stands in such grave danger of falling behind the rest of the world.

Here then are the danger signals:

If you see old men, or groups of old men get the power, whether it be a legislature, or boards of regents, or trustees; if the rank and file are left out of policy making; if younger men and women fail to get on the Educational Policies Commission, or on curriculum committees—then *watch out!*

If you see rich people having exceptional opportunities for their children; if money buys a better opportunity than ability; if poor children tend to drop out; if school customs and habits and honors go according to social standing; if there are poorer educational opportunities in the country than the city, in the poorer states than in the wealthier; if college enrolment is greater from the local area than from a distance—then *watch out!*

If children are deprived of a chance—an equal chance—on account of color and creed; if quotas are set up for Negroes and Jews; if Indians or Mexicans of good ability are treated differently from other people of similar ability; if the mountain people or the Dust Bowl inhabitants, or the cotton pickers, or field hands, or canal boat people, are treated differently—then *watch out!*

If Washington, or a supreme council on education, or the state university set a fixed curriculum; if the CIO or the AFL, or the National Association of Manufacturers tell us what to teach; if they set before us one hundred best books and say that is our educational task; if work in school is justified because it supposedly trains the mind in general; if obsolete subjectmatter is taught to train the character;

if newspaper columnists advocate hard education as a bar to delinquency; if they advocate compulsory military training on any ground other than military necessity—for instance, as good discipline, democracy and the like—then *watch out!*

If parents or critics put on campaigns to bring order into the schools; demand that children be forced to do this or that; bring back the rod; urge memoriter recitations; require examinations on masses of facts, historical or scientific; state that things were not like this when I went to school—then *watch out!*

All these are signs that America is about to rest on her oars.

We are going into a “new world.” No doubt about that. Hiroshima gave the *coup de grace* to the idea that the old world lived on. We are entering just as new a world as did the Pilgrims when they landed on Plymouth Rock; or as did the settlers who pushed up the river from New Orleans.

What are the new problems we must solve?

We must find the answer to “one world.” Otherwise, we all perish in the next war. We must find the answer to recurring depressions. Otherwise, we break to pieces inside our country. We must find the answer to how to regulate our life well enough so that people will have food, clothing, shelter, a measure of security—and not lose the liberties our Fathers fought so hard to preserve.

We know these things absolutely. If we go on as in the past, we will not have one world; we shall have a world of desert waste with most humans dead and the rest in caves. If we go on as in the past, we shall have depressions every few years; and probably our democracy will fall under the weights. If we go on as in the past, politics and economics geared to an agrarian age will be quite inadequate for the age of technology. We cannot win by looking to the past. Therefore, education must not look to the past.

But we want to look to the past; that is our trend—that is our desire—that’s what we’ll do if we follow the pattern of previous conquerors.

When the danger signals that I have listed flash—*watch out!* They are red lights that say, “Stop!”

Do not lie low when you see reactionary and dangerous practices taking root. Stand for the young getting their chance. Stimulate decisions with as wide popular participation as possible. Advocate in every way possible equal educational chance, regardless of birth, race, religion, or class. Let the curriculum look to the future, even if it is solidly based upon the past. Do not be fooled by the professors, college presidents, and scientists who justify what they do by the theory of formal discipline. Children are human beings, sacred personalities, and they deserve treatment as such.

You and I are in a big battle, the battle of our lives. Somehow or other, the United States, triumphant, is doomed to failure, unless the trend that has gripped all triumphant nations before us is checked and reversed. “Pride goeth before destruction, and a haughty spirit before a fall.” We do not want our country destroyed. We do not want America to fall. Therefore, all of us must give the rest of our lives, not only to prevent traditional conforming education, but to build schools, colleges, and other means of education to make America flexible, sensitive to change, and adaptive—truly a land of the free.



New York skyline as seen from Governor's Island

EDUCATION FOR WORLD CITIZENSHIP

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WASHINGTON, D. C.

Address at New York Conference

About a month ago a great soldier, General Dwight Eisenhower, received an honorary degree. In the course of his formal remarks on that occasion, the General turned to President Marsh of Boston University and said, "Why doesn't the educational world put my profession out of a job?"

I do not know what reply, if any, President Marsh made to this remarkable challenge—for General Eisenhower regarded it as a challenge, and said so. That direct question is, however, the nub of the problem of world peace or World War III.

Can American education accept General Eisenhower's challenge? As compared with the military profession, our profession is feebly organized and sometimes fiercely disunited. No American educator—not the Commissioner of Education nor the Secretary of the National Education Association nor any other individual—can speak for all American education. The Chief of Staff can speak on behalf of the United States Army, but where is the Chief of Staff of American education who might reply on our behalf? There is no such individual. The rigid chain of command, characteristic of a great army or a great business organization, is not well adapted to the spirit and functions of American education.

Furthermore, consider the stupendous dimensions of the General's challenge. National school systems have often been skilfully used to promote war. The aggressive militarism of the late and unlamented Axis is only one of the more extreme illustrations of the general thesis. Our record in the schools of the United States, although far better in this respect than that of many other nations, has some episodes and instances that are not wholly to its credit. Take the world over and history through, and I think it would appear that our profession has done as much to make war as to make peace. If we are to accept the challenge, if the profession of education is to try to put the profession of arms out of business, we must reverse our record up to now.

Fortunately, our profession does have some useful assets. We have numbers; there are more of us teachers than there are of any other profession. We have, let us modestly and gratefully admit, a personnel that is somewhat better educated than the average run of humanity. We have a definite governmental structure; we have potent professional organizations in many countries. We touch more people, and at a more impressionable age, than any other public agency. We have as yet no effective worldwide organi-

¹ At the invitation of the Department of State and by appointment of the National Education Association, Dr. Carr served as a Consultant to the United States Delegation at the San Francisco Conference; he was Deputy-Director of the International Secretariat of the London Conference.

zation of the teaching profession but definite steps to create such an organization are underway. Finally, we have in the past few months achieved a substantial, new international recognition of education through the United Nations. I shall have more to say about this last asset in a few moments.

So, although the task is not one to be accomplished by pretty platitudes and academic fancywork, we do have enough resources, and I trust enough courage and faith in our calling, to make it worthwhile to try. We can with some hope of success say collectively to General Eisenhower, "Sir, your challenge is an honor. Our profession proudly accepts it. We are going to try to put your profession out of business. We know we cannot do it overnight because our occupation deals largely in futures. We know it will not be easy but we specialize in the impossible."

To make good on such a response, American educational leadership must work simultaneously at two aspects of the problem of education for peace—the domestic and the international. Both are important. Let us consider first some of the things we need to do here at home and then look at some of the international relations of American education.

Here at home a successful program will need to exhibit several definite characteristics. It will need to be: *forward-looking, realistic, comprehensive, and responsible.*

If our program is to be *forward-looking* it will have to concern itself with education for world citizenship. The term "world citizenship" is sometimes loosely used to describe an attitude of broad humanity, just as we refer to some people as "citizens of the world." I wish, for the moment, to use the term more precisely to indicate the relation of an individual to a world government. There is no world government at present but, in my opinion, we ought to create one just as soon as we can. If we are going to try to put the military profession out of business, we had better not be content with halfway measures. Let us then deliberately educate our youth in those attitudes which will result in the creation of a world government. It is not my responsibility to suggest just what areas of life would be subject to the jurisdiction of a world government. That is a field for experts in international law and political science. I do believe, however, that world government, when and if we get it, will be the product of deliberately planned education. Please note that I am not talking about a campaign of schoolroom propaganda for some particular plan of world government. I am talking about the development of the attitudes, information, and ability which alone can make world citizenship possible. I am talking about a careful study of textbooks and curriculum to eliminate content which fosters intolerance and prejudice. I am talking about teaching the fact that all men in this modern world are literally dependent on each other and that survival for any may well depend upon the cooperation of all. I am talking about teaching the fact that all of the great religious faiths of the world rest on man's brotherhood and unity. I am talking about a wider use of newspapers, periodicals, maps, globes, radio, and the motion picture in deepening and sharpening our understanding of other parts of the world. I am talking about more effective methods of foreign

language instruction. I am talking about a substantial increase in the exchange of students and teachers. When we review, even thus hurriedly and incompletely, all of the vast possibilities that are open to us in laying the basis for world citizenship, is not our greatest danger that we shall make too timid and mean an estimate of our potential influence?

Let us face frankly the fact that there will be some opposition to an educational program of this kind. It will be opposed by those who sincerely believe it to be in conflict with a program of national citizenship. We should attempt to persuade these people that their fears are groundless. We should enlist public opinion to cooperate in demonstrating the need of world organization and world citizenship. Every sincere and well-informed patriot should recognize that the security of his own nation, the very lives of his fellow citizens, can be realized only through a world organization with real power. World citizenship need not mean the sacrifice of national citizenship or the subordination of one national group to another. Good national citizenship and good world citizenship reenforce each other. The qualities of character most desirable for good relations in our homes, neighborhoods, communities, states, and nation are precisely the qualities of character which are most needed in world citizenship. Education for world citizenship, beginning with the adjustment of children to their immediate environment, can extend their understanding to a broader horizon which comprehends the people and the places of one interdependent world.

So, while we say we would educate for world citizenship, we can not at present mean that we can directly teach loyalty to a society that does not yet exist. Rather, we should teach our children and ourselves those skills and attitudes which alone can create a society in which world citizenship may become real.

While we study and teach for this future ideal, we must also be *realistic*. We are concerned with the world as it is now and as it is likely to be in the years immediately ahead. There are some basic facts about international relations which should be as thoroughly taught in our schools as the multiplication table. The subjectmatter involved often seems complex and remote from personal experience. But it is not any more complex or remote than high-school algebra or the plot of *The Merchant of Venice*. International relations can be taught if we take on the job as though our lives depended on it—as indeed they probably do.

A general attitude of sweet goodwill, based on delightful stories of children in other lands or on travel folders or movie travelogues, will not do the job. We have to *know* a few things thoroughly to be able to survive. Some tough ingredients of international understanding should be added to the sweetness and light which we have been endeavoring to create. Sentimental attachment to peace is not enough to prevent war. American youth should understand the major sections of the world, their resources, the status of their people, their varying political systems, cultures, and economic arrangements. They should study the conditions which lead to war or peace. They should know about the organizations which are suitable for dealing with these conditions. A large proportion of the American people

in a recent public opinion poll did not even know whether or not the United States had ever joined the League of Nations. The schools had developed a valuable and powerful love of peace and harmony but they failed to consider seriously enough how these attitudes might find practical expression. We assumed that attitudes and understandings are important, which is true, but we too frequently ignored the concrete problems of international organizations, which was fatal. Our eyes were fixed upon the stars and we did not see the stumbling blocks around our feet. You will not suppose that I am belittling the idealistic approach. I am only saying that idealism is not enough.

To give a single illustration, I suggest that every American boy and girl should be taught a clear and rather complete factual knowledge of the United Nations Organization—how it works or fails to work. I saw the United Nations Organization being built in San Francisco and I realize, as we all must, that it is a structure of compromises. It is like a vessel which encounters rough seas immediately after launching, with its engines untested and its timbers groaning alarmingly indeed. But, by a vote of 89 to 2 in the United States Senate, we are aboard that vessel; it is the only craft at the moment between us and shipwreck. We must do our part to help steer it safely to harbor. Our schools should, I believe, teach the basic facts about UNO as earnestly and thoroughly as they teach our young people about the elements of local, state, and national government. Will you not see to it that at some suitable point in *your* schools a good job of teaching about UNO is provided for *every* student?

In addition to being forward-looking and realistic, our teaching of international relations should become more *comprehensive*. We lack, it seems to me, a general plan of campaign. The curriculum has shifted in terms of temporary enthusiasms. You will all remember the sudden surge of interest about five years ago in teaching about Latin America. Now the East-West Association wants you to teach more about China. The Committee on American-Soviet Friendship wants you to teach more about Russia. A committee is now studying educational cooperation with Canada and it requires no skill as a prophet to predict that it will soon ask you to teach more about our good neighbor to the north. I have just asked you to teach about the United Nations. Others will urge you to teach about UNRRA, Bretton Woods, and a dozen other new international agencies. The list is continually growing. And every one of these pleas for more attention is, in itself, worthy of sympathetic consideration. But you cannot make a satisfactory curriculum in international relations, or in any other field, merely by unguided addition. What we lack desperately and what we must find quickly is a few basic organizing principles around which all the vast body of new and important subjectmatter can be gathered. The Committee on International Relations of the National Education Association is now working on that problem. It needs the active help of curriculum-makers and school executives everywhere.

One final remark about the domestic aspect of our problem before I ask you to turn your attention outward. It is one of those things that everyone

knows and yet that everyone must be told. Our teaching of international relations must be *responsible*. We must not forget what it has cost to buy for us this new chance to educate for peace; we must not forget, to quote General Eisenhower again, "the regimented rows of white crosses." Only one year ago today newspapers carried these headlines:

AMERICANS TWO MILES FROM COLOGNE
RUSSIANS CUT OFF DANZIG; NEW NAZI PLANES STRIKE BRITAIN
MARINES' ADVANCE ON IWO IS SLOWED; GAIN 50 YARDS IN
FIERCE FIGHTING

It is difficult to look steadily at those headlines. Difficult because they seem so far away and long ago. Difficult because it hurts to think about them. Difficult because we would like to forget and because we dare not. Difficult, above all, because we know that another war would be infinitely worse.

Many years ago H. G. Wells wrote that civilization is a race between education and catastrophe. On July 16, 1945, there occurred on a desert plateau in New Mexico an explosive release of atomic energy which vaporized a two-hundred-foot steel tower and emblazoned the surrounding bleakness with a scorching light equal to that from two dozen suns. In Albuquerque, 220 miles away, a blind girl started and asked her mother what had happened.

What, indeed, had happened? That explosion was the starting gun for the last lap of the race between education and catastrophe. The race itself is nothing new. The discovery of ways to control the release of the energy in the atom does not pose a new problem but it does put a time limit on the solution of a problem that is as old as human culture itself. To inculcate in the youth of this land and of all lands a strong sense of individual moral responsibility and to do it quickly and effectively is the answer to the terrible dangers and breath-taking opportunities which atomic power presents. There is no other answer.

So much for the domestic side of the problem of education for peace. If I have been unable to do more than slide quickly over the surface of the issues in this field, I shall have to be even more hasty in the second part of my task. There are two particular aspects of the foreign policy of American education which I would like to mention. First, a brief word about our policy toward the educational systems of our defeated enemies; second, the status of international cooperation in education within the new machinery of the United Nations.

Educational policy has its part to play in trying to make sure that we shall not again suffer from the aggressions of our enemies. Our profession may be justly proud that General MacArthur has invited a commission of some of our most distinguished colleagues to visit Japan and there to work with him and with the Japanese government in the development of a wholesome program for Japanese education. Leaders of British education have recently examined the German schools in the British zone of Germany. It might be wise for the Military Government in the American zone to make similar arrangements. Certainly, as long as we would be interested in the war-making potential of either Germany or Japan, we must continue to

be interested in the kind of education that the youth of those countries receive.

While we are considering what education might do in the future to promote peace, we should never forget what education did in Germany and Japan. What shall we say of a teacher who feeds lies to the children in his care, who knows they are lies when he teaches them, and who admits later that he knew it at the time? What greater crime is there than to destroy the morals and defile the mind of one's own children? Perhaps the crime is one to which the ordinary systems of national and international justice and law cannot be applied. I would not know about that. But we do have it on very high authority that he who offends against childhood would be better off if a millstone were hanged about his neck and he were cast into the depths of the sea.

We have learned by hard experience that we cannot put the military profession out of business merely by educating for peace within the United States. Educational isolation is not the answer. In the twenty years between the two wars, while we were teaching our children the ways of peace, other countries were doing just the opposite. Education for world citizenship cannot succeed if it is practiced only by one nation; it must be a multi-lateral undertaking.

We have two major new assets in our efforts to deal with this stubborn fact. One is the series of provisions for education in the United Nations Charter; the other is the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

The United Nations Charter adopted at San Francisco refers to education in explicit terms, nine different times. It makes the promotion of educational cooperation a responsibility of the Social and Economic Council. It authorizes the General Assembly of the United Nations to make studies and recommendations affecting education. It lays down the principle that members of the United Nations will provide education in all their dependent areas. It provides that the Trusteeship Council shall require and receive reports on the education of the people in areas administered through that Council.

I want you to realize that these provisions in the United Nations Charter represent historical development. The Covenant of the League of Nations had no provisions with reference to education. The very word "education" does not occur in that document. In 1919 a representative of the National Education Association pleaded with those who were drafting the League of Nations Covenant to include an article on education. The statesmen listened politely, as statesmen nearly always do, but no action was taken. International cooperation in education, they said in effect, was a minor detail that could be postponed until the important questions were settled. In 1922 the League of Nations again considered the possibility of machinery for educational cooperation and, with only one voice raised in opposition, the word "education" was stricken from a committee report which would have empowered the League to be active in this field. In 1944, in spite of representations made by the Chinese Government, the Dumbarton Oaks Pro-

posals were issued to the world without a word in them about education. Yet in 1945, on May 22 to be exact, the United Nations at San Francisco decided to promote educational cooperation—not merely to *provide* it but to *promote* it. For the first time in history, all the major powers of the world decided that education is a part of keeping the peace.

It is an impressive fact that the government of the United States and the government of other members of the United Nations have, by adopting the United Nations Charter, agreed jointly and separately to promote educational and cultural cooperation.

The arguments in favor of this proposal as they were advanced at the Hotel Fairmont in San Francisco in 1945 were not any better or any more ably presented than the arguments set forth at the Hotel Crillon in Paris in 1919. But something had happened between 1919 and 1945. For one thing, the teachers of the United States and of the world had learned a good deal about the power of organization. For another thing, perhaps even more important, the statesmen of the world had learned, if only from observing the devastating results of Axis school systems, a decent respect for the power of education. The statesmen of the world have now come to realize, and to record in the most solemn and binding language, their conviction that education is a weapon which can help them to keep the peace.

The United Nations Conference in San Francisco did not determine the exact ways and means by which the educational functions of the United Nations would be conducted. That was postponed for a special conference held in London in November. The London Conference was called by the governments of the United Kingdom and France. It was attended by forty-four of the fifty-one United Nations. The London Conference succeeded in its purpose—the drafting of a constitution for a specialized international agency to deal with education and closely related fields. The new agency thus established is called the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. This is perhaps the second longest official name of any organization in the world. The only one that I can think of at the moment that is any longer is the American Association of School Administrators, a Department of the National Education Association of the United States. In order that I may tell you something about the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization and not use up all of my time merely pronouncing its title, I shall refer to it hereafter as UNESCO. It is too bad that UNESCO sounds something like a new kind of tea biscuit, about halfway between a soda cracker and a cookie, but anything is better than the repetition of that long name.

The constitution of UNESCO has been published in full in the *Journal of the National Education Association* and is available in many other places to all who want to examine it. I hope all American educators have done so or will do so. I shall not take time to report its provisions in detail. There are, however, one or two points which should be emphasized.

The UNESCO preamble, quoting Prime Minister Attlee, declares that “since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defenses of peace must be constructed.”

One important issue relating to UNESCO was the question of its basic aim. Would UNESCO be just a clearinghouse where ideas, people, and materials would be exchanged among nations for the direct value of such exchange to those who take part in it, or would it be an agency dedicated to the promotion of peace, judging all its operations in terms of their contribution to that purpose? I am glad to say that, after some discussion, the second point of view was adopted unanimously. As a result, UNESCO is dedicated explicitly to just one purpose, the promotion of peace and security.

In each of the countries which participate in the work of UNESCO there will be a national commission on education, science, and culture. This commission will link the educational institutions of its country with the program of the international body. It is of the highest importance that the national commission which will soon be set up in this country be genuinely representative of the educational forces of the United States. In my opinion the major responsibility in the operation of UNESCO, both in this country and internationally, must be placed upon the educational agencies. What the world needs now, in addition to the exchange of ideas among the intellectual, artistic, and literary leaders of the different nations, is close and co-operative relationship among those who are responsible for the education of the masses of the people.

The United States is not yet a member of UNESCO. Resolutions have been introduced into both houses of Congress authorizing the United States to enter this international body. I hope that they may be acted upon promptly. Members of Congress should be helped to understand the views of their constituents in this respect.

UNESCO, with its headquarters in Paris, will meet in a different city throughout the world each year. It is an intergovernmental organization; that is, delegates will be selected by the United States government and by the governments of the other nations that belong to it. UNESCO will be able under its charter to conduct almost any enterprise which in the opinion of the organization will promote peace and security by means of educational, scientific, and cultural cooperation. The kinds of operation UNESCO may usefully undertake are now being outlined by a preparatory commission in London.

UNESCO will be related to the United Nations Organization. Beyond the formalities, the true nature of this relationship was well expressed by the French delegate at London who told us in a remarkably brilliant address that the Conference at San Francisco gave the United Nations a body, while the Conference at London gave the United Nations a soul.

One of the first tasks of this new organ of the international body politic should be the negotiation of an agreement among all the members of UNESCO that they will use their educational systems for the development of international goodwill and understanding, and that they will refrain from using their educational systems for the opposite ends. Only when such an agreement has been negotiated and adopted universally, and when there is adequate reporting at frequent intervals to make sure that such an agree-

ment is being lived up to, can education for peace proceed safely in any country. We must develop our own peace education, but we must also insist that it be accompanied by education for peace everywhere else in the world. If UNESCO can give us that assurance it will become the keystone in the structure of education for world citizenship.

Unfortunately, even if all the nations represented at the London UNESCO meeting were to sign and live up to such an agreement, there would remain a critically weak spot in the program. I refer to the fact that the Soviet Union did not attend the conference which created UNESCO last November in London. Perhaps the Soviet Union will join UNESCO. Thus far it has not indicated its policy. Whether it joins or not, I think we should face very frankly the hard fact that, while educational relationships with the Soviet Union are more needed than anywhere else, they are going to be extremely difficult to secure and maintain. We have, of course, no means—or practically no means—of speaking effectively to the Russian people. There are, of course, fundamental differences in the economic and political structure and ideals of the two countries. The Russian people and the American people alike want to avoid conflict; their chances of doing so will be seriously impaired if either party is shut up in cultural isolation. This problem is not made any easier for educators in the United States either by the Communists or by the Red-baiters who blame everything from the bad weather to the baby's measles on the evil machinations of the Russians.

I think our government and our people should say very clearly to the Soviet Government, and as clearly as we are permitted to say to the Russian people, that we are eager to enter into educational and cultural relations with them; that we are prepared to go the limit in exchange of educational materials and personnel; that we are prepared to have what we teach about Russia in our schools checked for accuracy and fairness; and that we want the Soviet Union to permit a similar kind of exchange and checking to be done from our side of the picture. I think that we should make it clear that we want to lift the "iron curtain" now separating the intellectual and educational life of the Soviet Union from that of the rest of the world.

We might offer to send a mission to Moscow as well as a mission to Tokyo—an educational mission made up of judicial and fair-minded leaders in American education, who will study the Russian schools and give us a report on what is going on in the educational system in that vast country; who will make available to the Russians any information that they may desire about our own educational system and arrange for a return visit of Russian educators.

I should like to see us go even further. Why not give an opportunity to the Russians to present their point of view to the American people? I should like to see Soviet students and teachers in this country and American students and teachers in the Soviet Union. We should, however, insist that these arrangements be on a direct exchange basis. I would not be afraid that our students would become communistic through such associations. I think we ought to hold fast to Thomas Jefferson's dictum that "Error of opinion may be tolerated where reason is left free to combat it."

Let us reduce this idea of interchange to its simplest possible terms. Why should not our government invite the government of the Soviet Union (since governments are the only important open channel of communication at present) to exchange with us even one educator during the next school year? In issuing such an invitation our government could point to the solemn agreement in the United Nations Charter regarding educational and cultural cooperation. It could propose that the Soviet Government choose one of its ablest educators to come to the United States for one year as the guest of our country and of the schools and colleges of our country. The function of such an individual while in the United States would be to discuss in a series of public lectures, to be delivered in many of our major cities under the auspices of universities or public adult education programs, the economic, political, social, educational, and home life of the people of the Soviet Union. It could be arranged that this individual speak to the youth of our country as well as to the adults. He should be asked to present his subject in the way that seems best to him, having in mind that as a rule he would be speaking not to assemblies of scholars but to ordinary American citizens. He should, of course, be free to make any statements that he wishes and he should be assured (and I am quite positive that he could be assured) that wherever he went in the United States he would receive a courteous and attentive hearing. It should not be our purpose to engage in public debate with this guest on the merits of the political and economic systems of the two countries or of the current issues of international relations. Our purpose would be to learn about life in the Soviet Union as a citizen of that country sees it.

The second half of this agreement, *without which it should not be valid*, would be that the Soviet Government invite a good representative of American life to visit the Soviet Union under conditions identical to those which cover the visit of the Russian educator to this country.

In spite of their newly found appreciation for the power of education, some statesmen might think this modest proposal rather remote from the great affairs of state with which they now occupy most of their time; but I suggest that every measure to promote mutual understanding will greatly lighten the diplomatic tasks.

I do not know what the reply of the Soviet Government would be to such proposals. We have no right to assume that it would be unfavorable until we make the proposal. I will go even further and say that even if we were sure that the reply would be unfavorable, the invitation ought to be made anyway for the record.

Clearly, the most difficult and even catastrophic developments are likely if the Western democracies and the Soviet Union go on screaming at each other across stormy seas of mounting misunderstanding.

If someone will find, say, a dozen schools in the Soviet which are doing an intelligent and friendly job of interpreting the culture of the United States to Russian youth, and publish descriptions of these schools, such an example would do more to promote intelligent teaching about Russia in American schools and colleges than any other device.

I think we ought to keep politely but audibly knocking at the door of Soviet cultural isolation, because unless that door is opened the chances of maintaining friendly relations with Russia seem to me to be remote. Until the spirit of UNESCO, until a more free transmission of ideas, information, and people from one country to another, can prevail everywhere in this little world, including the Soviet Union, one of the primary conditions of enduring peace is lacking. We cannot force any nation to cooperate with us in matters of education, but we can and should invite such cooperation on a completely reciprocal basis with all nations.

One final word of restrained enthusiasm about UNESCO. Although international education enters this first year of peace with clear recognition and a potentially powerful organization, we should not consider our task done just because we have secured references to education in the United Nations Charter and a special United Nations Organization to serve our profession and its allied interests. That is only the beginning. If education is going to put the military profession out of business as General Eisenhower wants it to do, we shall have to keep at our task with the same kind of unrelenting energy, the same kind of intelligence, the same kind of financial support, the same kind of effective organization, that has brought us thus far along the road. We must find a way to bridge the gap between these great international organizations, functioning in Paris or New York or some other part of the world, and the teachers in classrooms thousands of miles away. It is the teacher in the classroom who will make or break UNO or UNESCO. I urge you, as leaders of the teaching profession, to see that the members of your staffs are acquainted with these new tools of international relations in education, that they understand what a heavy responsibility these new developments place upon all of us. I cannot imagine what other task confronting the public schools of this country is entitled to equal priority.

We must never forget that the United Nations Organization and its specialized organizations such as UNESCO are simply instruments. When people ask me whether I think that the United Nations will work and whether I think that the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization will work, I am tempted to ask them in reply whether they think that a spade will work. A spade is a tool; it works only if somebody works it. We have all seen those spades that turned the first sod for the foundation of the new City Hall. There they are, shiny, new, each in its handsome, tightly sealed, glass-and-chromium case in the lobby, suitably marked for the admiration of succeeding generations of sightseers. Thus walled in and ceremoniously displayed, they will never cultivate a garden or cut a straight ditch to drain a swamp. So it is with the United Nations Organizations—they are tools, they are instruments. They are not works of art or historical monuments.

Perhaps I can make my point this way. Suppose some friend in this audience were to approach me at this moment with a violin in his hand and were to say to me, "You have talked long enough. It is time for a little relaxa-

tion. Won't you play us a tune on this violin?" I would have to say, after I had recovered from my surprise at such unorthodox procedure, "That is an excellent suggestion, but, you see, I never learned to play the violin. It looks like a rather complicated instrument with all these keys and frets, strings and stops, and I cannot make any melody upon it because I have not studied it or practiced on it."

And if my friend persisted, he might say, "Yes, but see what a splendid violin this is. See how cunningly it is made, how cleverly the different parts are put together. The best violin-makers worked for months at San Francisco and London to make this instrument, using nothing but the finest quality of wood, glue, and other materials. Surely you can play such an excellent instrument as this." And again, I would have to reply, "I am sorry, it doesn't make any difference how good the instrument is. Since I have not learned how to use it, I can produce on it nothing but discords."

But if you had in this auditorium, instead of me, a Fritz Kreisler, or any other skilled violinist and if you brought to him a battered two-dollar fiddle that you had picked up at the nearest pawnshop, he could tuck that instrument under his chin and it would pour out most excellent sweet music to charm the heart out of you. He could make good music on a poor violin, because he has learned how to play it and practiced the playing of it, long and patiently from childhood. True, he could make even better music if he had a better instrument, and we ought to give him the very best instrument that we can, but the crucial fact is that *he knows how; he has learned*.

I say to you that the great job of American education and of education all over the world is to teach these boys and girls how to play on these new instruments which we have fashioned as best we could for the great purpose of promoting peace among the nations. For unless these children learn well and practice persistently, the statesmen of all the world will labor in vain, and General Eisenhower's magnificent offhand challenge will go unanswered.

THE NEXT DECADE IN EDUCATION

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SCHENECTADY, NEW YORK

Address at Atlanta Conference

The shape of things to come is still not too clear. We know that the world is rapidly decreasing in size. By means of the radio we can hear in a few seconds the news around the world. By means of the airplane any point of the world surface can be reached in less than sixty hours. Within the next decade this time will probably be cut in half. Television is just around the corner—about where radio was fifteen years ago. Within the next decade all of our large cities will be connected by a chain of stations which will enable us to see as well as hear history in the making. The world is smaller at the present time than the thirteen colonies were when the Constitution was signed, and no place on earth is so far from

Atlanta today as Savannah was before the coming of railroads. The world is indeed shrinking before our eyes.

At long last men everywhere are beginning to understand that they must learn to live in peace if they are to live at all. The use of nuclear fission as an instrument of destruction has definitely catapulted America from an isolated, self-centered, and self-sufficient nation sitting in complacent security behind her ocean barriers into a front-line position of responsibility for determining whether our universe shall become one world or no world at all.

The problems involved fairly stagger the imagination. They include such international problems as the establishment of conditions of peace, the determination of political boundaries, the prevention of future aggression, the rehabilitation of devastated countries, the promotion of racial tolerance, the stability of international currencies, the freedom of sea and air, international government, international courts, and international education. On the national level they include such problems as reconversion, social security, full employment, the labor-management disagreements, controlled inflation, payment of our national debt, the treatment of minority groups, and a host of others. Hitherto we have been concerned with the problems of a nation of 135 million people. Now we must raise our sights to include those of a world of two to three billion.

All of these problems, whether national or international, political, social, or economic, depend for their solution on the development of sound understandings and attitudes by the American people. And this in turn is a matter of education. Never before in the history of the world have the responsibilities of education been so great. The times demand that schools develop upward, downward, outward, and internally.

ADULT EDUCATION

The upward growth for which the need is greatest is that in the field of adult education. The schools can and should do their part in producing a generation educated for responsible citizenship, but the solution of many of our problems cannot be deferred. Decisions are already in the making which may determine our destiny for generations to come. There is a desperate and immediate need for expansion in adult education in every community in this country.

1. Perhaps the most familiar type of adult education in our schools is citizenship education for the foreign-born, or Americanization. It received its great impetus from World War I when we were amazed to find that the vaunted melting pot was not functioning as effectively as we had expected. As a result, practically everywhere in the United States courses for the teaching of reading and writing English were provided for the foreign-born with the expectation that the job of assimilation would thus be accomplished.

World War II has shown that this activity, valuable as it is, is not enough. Traditions and habits of a lifetime are not so easily broken.

Divided loyalties are never strong loyalties. Mere literacy does not necessarily produce the desired emotional attitudes of responsible citizenship. It is not necessary that the foreign-born should discard all natural affection for their fatherland, but it is imperative that they should develop a deeper emotional love for and understanding of America. The situation is much like that of a young couple setting up a new home. They continue to love and respect their parents but their supreme loyalty is given to one another and to this new home.

The situation of the enemy alien during the recent war has been exceedingly difficult and thoroughly bewildering. He felt that in giving his sons to fight for America, even against the land of his birth, he had conclusively demonstrated his allegiance to this country. And yet he found himself peculiarly restricted in the use of the radio, in freedom of movement, and in many other ways. Frequently he observed an atmosphere of suspicion and surveillance, merely because of his foreign birth. In the case of the Japanese, entire communities were bodily transferred from their homes and businesses to relocation centers which, in effect, constituted a mild form of concentration camp. These restrictions in time of war were undoubtedly necessary but if strong loyalties to America are to be developed in spite of them, something more is needed than a mere knowledge of the English language. The educational process must extend into their homes, clubs, churches, and fraternal organizations. It must soften the difficulties involved in the shift of loyalties by emphasizing the cultural contributions which they make to the American way of life. And it certainly must dramatize the meaning and importance of democratic citizenship.

A new need is being brought sharply into focus at the present time by the arrival in this country of an unprecedented number of war brides, many already mothers of children. The pattern of family life is mainly determined by the mother. Here is a situation in which adequate citizenship education for the foreign-born will insure rich returns in terms of the attitudes and loyalties of a new generation of children.

2. The second most common form of adult education is evening schools. Many of our cities are offering evening courses in any subject for which ten people express a desire. This is very helpful but it does not go far enough. As valuable as drawing, Spanish, and metalwork are, we can still lose the race between education and catastrophe if we produce too many drawing, Spanish, and metalwork students who have forgotten that they are also citizens in a self-governing democracy. Institutes, conferences, and community meetings on current public questions should be added to evening school activities. Discussions, forums, panels, and symposiums should be added to the methods. Local experts, community leaders, and well-informed citizens should be added to the staffs. The controversial issues—local, state, national, and international—should be added to the curriculum.

3. The adjustment of the veteran to civil life is different but, in many cases, equal in difficulty to that of the foreign-born. The veteran, par-

ticularly if he has had considerable battle experience, has been orientated to a world quite foreign to that to which he returns. War teaches him to destroy property—civil life to preserve it. War teaches him to kill—with his bare hands, if necessary, and to do it gladly. Civil life teaches him that the individual is the heart of democracy and that human life must be preserved at all costs. War teaches him that unquestioned obedience is the highest quality of a soldier. He is told when to arise, what to wear, when and what to eat; practically all his acts throughout his waking time are prescribed. Civil life throws him on his own and compels him to make his own decisions at every turn.

This transition varies in difficulty with the individual and the completeness of his orientation to war. Some make the adjustment quickly and fairly easy; others only with considerable difficulty. Some who have not been long out of this country slip back into the high school which they left before graduation and are scarcely recognizable from the regular students. Even these, however, need an understanding treatment which will permit them special privileges in the matter of class attendance whenever their nerves become jittery.

Others need an adequate counseling service by a qualified counselor who understands their problems, preferably himself a veteran. And it is important that educational opportunities be provided for all who desire them. A surprising number, in view of the forecasts of veteran interest in further education, desire to avail themselves of the opportunity of going to college. Many, however, wish to work in order to provide more adequate subsistence for their families. These should be provided with the courses, vocational or academic, which they need when they need them. Their work should be largely on an individual basis permitting them to enter at any time and proceed at their own rate. Administration should be the servant and not the master.

Veterans are destined to be one of the most powerful groups in this country in the period ahead, and the kind of service which is provided for them at this time will, to a large degree, determine their attitude toward the future support of education.

4. Every year millions of young people terminate their connection with formal education either through graduation or because they see no further value to them in what the schools have to offer. Their primary concern is getting a job and establishing a family of their own. These are, of course, genuine contributions to responsible citizenship but meanwhile they are losing all connection with the civic life of their community, usually until about age thirty-five or until their first children enter school.

The dictators have never made the mistake of ignoring this group; in fact both Hitler and Mussolini rode into power largely on the backs of youth. In America during the depression some four million of them wandered up and down the land with all the potentialities of dynamite. Certainly democracy cannot afford to allow their assets of vigor, enthusiasm, loyalty, and the willingness to sacrifice for a cause bigger than themselves, to degenerate into a dangerous liability.

This young adult group constitutes about 80 to 85 percent of our future adult population. They are a special type of adult and need special treatment. The traditional technics of the school are no longer feasible since in many cases they have left school as a protest against these very procedures.

Adequate counseling service should be available to them. They should be followed up on the job until they become well adjusted. Their interests should be explored and capitalized on for continuing education. Those who can profit by it should be given leadership training and every effort should be made to bring them into active participation in community enterprises. Education can no longer afford to ignore its extramural responsibilities.

5. Every community has a tremendous number of organized groups whose programs have educational possibilities. No community realizes how many there are until it has made an actual survey. In my own community of Schenectady, for example, we found over thirteen hundred such groups of which about half had potential educational values. They include individual study groups, churches, lodges, labor organizations, clubs, women's groups, farm organizations, parent-teacher associations, and the like.

Their program makers in most cases recognize their need for help and welcome assistance. Schools should provide one or more people as a field service whose function it is to consult with them as to their needs and make available to them all the adult education resources of the community. The principal fields in which local organizations need help are program content and technics, the provision of speakers and discussion groups, and program materials such as books, pamphlets, slides, films, and the like. Since they are already going concerns, these groups offer the richest opportunity in any community for a large return on a relatively small investment.

Adult education can no longer be considered a luxury. It is a vital necessity today if education is to meet its responsibilities. The problems which confront us are too pressing and the time all too short for providing the sound understanding and attitudes which the times require. If we are to wage peace in the same spirit in which we wage war, all our resources of public information, our schools and colleges, libraries and museums, radio and movies, newspapers and pamphlets, forums and discussion groups—in short, all the adult education resources of our communities—must be mobilized for world citizenship.

THE NURSERY SCHOOL

Just as the schools must grow upward, so also they must develop downward. Just as education does not cease when the child leaves school, so it does not begin when he enters the school door. The school is only one of a great number of educational institutions in the life of the individual. These include the home, church, stores, streets, playground, books, movies, and radio. All his experiences which change his ways of thinking and acting are part of his education.

The process begins with his first conscious reactions to his environment and has gone a long way before he enters the traditional school building. In fact, his health habits and attitudes as well as his pattern of social behavior and speech are largely determined by his preschool years. One of our foremost authorities on the period of infancy tells us that a child who grows up under the most favorable conditions where he is allowed to investigate to his heart's content and whose questions are answered in terms which he can understand will have learned half the things he'll ever know before he reaches school age. And if, on the other hand, he grows up under the most unfavorable conditions where he is neglected and pushed aside, he will enter the school with the mark of the dullard already on his face. Only if he is unusually fortunate in coming under the influence of wise, understanding, and interested teachers will he achieve anything beyond mediocrity. "The waste from a machine can be salvaged and melted down into new metal. A wasted human life rarely gets a new start."

The Iowa studies seem to confirm this point of view. They demonstrate that even the IQ which we have hitherto regarded as fixed tends to rise or fall in the early years as the environment is favorable or otherwise. Their study of the effect of the nursery school shows that an average increase of as much as eight points can be made in an entire class in a single year. The value of the nursery school in meeting the problems of the preschool child is, therefore, obvious.

Not only is the nursery school important for its direct effect on the preschool child. It is also a most valuable laboratory for parent education. It is one of the paradoxes of American education that despite our recognition of the home as, next to the school, the community's most important educational institution, we do very little to prepare our young people to become efficient parents. Many of our states today are requiring at least a four-year professional course for teaching in the schools, but for the teaching in the home no preparation is considered necessary. We proceed apparently on the assumption that by some strange alchemy the mere process of parenthood endows the individual with all the wisdom, patience, and understanding necessary for the most complex and difficult job we know—the guidance of the physical, mental, social, and spiritual development of a young child.

Unfortunately there is no such sudden acquisition of wisdom. Education for parenthood is a pressing need. This should include courses in our high schools designed to prepare young people for marriage and parenthood. It should also include courses and discussion groups for the training of mothers on the job. But valuable as these are, they are not enough. They need to be supplemented both for youth and for parents with the use of the nursery school as a laboratory. I would suggest that one of the prices of admission for children in nursery school should be an agreement by the mother to spend at least two days a month in the school as helper to the teacher in charge.

Most of our cities have had some experience with the nursery school. During the depression funds were made available first by FERA and later by WPA primarily to provide jobs for unemployed teachers. During the war Lanham funds were provided to care for the children of working mothers. Regardless of the purpose of the funds, our schools have had an opportunity to observe the beneficial effects of this work on the health, nutritional, and mental habits of children and on the homes from which they came. We ought not to need a depression or a war to make it possible to provide adequate facilities for the education of children in these all-important first years. The recent publication of the Educational Policies Commission, *Educational Services for Young Children*, should give a strong impetus to this movement in the decade ahead.

COOPERATIVE PLANNING

Education must grow outward into the community. The time is past when the school can safely regard itself as a closed corporation, neither welcoming nor tolerating interference from without. Public relations has always been one of the greatest weaknesses of our public schools. Many a school has seen a fine, carefully-thought-out program, rich in promise for the most effective education of youth, suddenly upset by the public demand for a return to the procedures of a former generation. No school system can safely progress more rapidly than it can carry public understanding and support along with it.

Furthermore, a considerable increase in the expenditures for education in the decade ahead is inevitable. We are facing a large expansion in vocational education to provide the skilled workers for our increasing production. Vocational education is not cheap. It is far more expensive to house, to equip, and to operate than an academic school. Yet the necessity for this development is obvious. The imperative need for a considerable expansion in adult education and for the provision of education for the preschool child, which has previously been discussed, involves another large increase in the school budget.

There is evidence to show that the public will support these expenditures but only if they thoroughly understand the reasons for these new developments in the curriculum. In this connection I wish to call your attention to the most encouraging pronouncements which have recently come out of the United States Chamber of Commerce. The pamphlet, *Education, An Investment in People*, demonstrating the consistent relation between business prosperity and educational expenditures should be in the hands of every businessman in your community.

The time has come when educators should deliberately embark on the policy of making the public a partner in the educational enterprise. Laymen should share with the professional staff in planning the program if public support is to be assured.

There are, of course, many ways in which this can be done. As an example, I would like to present a method which we in Schenectady have found very effective for this purpose. In common with a number of

systems in New York State, we have embarked on a study of the problems confronting schoolboards in the postwar period. The study has been divided into four steps. Step I tried to answer the question, "What Kind of a Community Shall We Have a Decade Hence?" It attempted to forecast the following five decisive factors: first, the probable population of the city and its environs, changes in age groups and minority groups, and other population trends which might affect the education program; second, economic conditions, including the number of employees, changes in vocational opportunity, the probable income of the average family; third, the preparations for those who are being demobilized both from the services and from industry, the educational provisions available and added facilities needed; fourth, the adequacy of the home as an educational institution, the housing development needed, the probable number of employed mothers, and the quality of provisions for healthful living in the average home, the highest 10 percent, and the lowest 10 percent; and fifth, other community factors such as social and recreational facilities, libraries and museums, movies and radio, fine arts, health and social welfare, and opportunities to prepare for civic responsibilities. The data involved in this step were largely factual. Some of the material was already available in one form or another. A committee of twenty-five composed almost entirely of laymen made this study and prepared an excellent forecast of our community a decade hence.

Step II faced the question, "What Kind of Education Do We Need for Such a Community?" What information, attitudes, and appreciations should be developed? What vocational and guidance opportunities should be offered? What provision should be made for the nursery school, the lunch program, education for the handicapped and the gifted, for adult education, parent education, for recreation and cooperation with community organizations? In other words, what should be the educational objectives of Schenectady in the next decade?

This committee needed a high degree of imagination and understanding of education. Nevertheless, of the committee of thirty, at least 80 percent were laymen. It included some of the best minds of the community—college professors, engineers and other professional men, representatives of business and labor, leaders of women's groups, and young adults. It was a most inspiring experience to watch this committee in action. They started by familiarizing themselves with some of the best modern educational literature, such as the Educational Policies Commission's *Education for All American Youth*. They put a tremendous amount of enthusiastic effort into the study and it was most interesting to watch deep-seated prejudices gradually melt under the impact of new ideas. It was a fine demonstration of intellectual integrity and one which even we in the profession might well emulate.

Their report proposes a much bolder set of objectives than the members of our staff would have dared to present to the public, but it is offered by the leaders in the community who cannot be charged with a vested interest and will, therefore, carry more weight. Their interest once aroused is

a continuing one and will probably result in a permanent advisory council to help in carrying out the objectives which they have suggested.

Step III, now in process, is facing the question: "How Do We Go from Where We Are to the Achievement of the Objectives Suggested by the Committee on Step II?" This committee will lay out a definite program by which the objectives formulated by the preceding committee may be implemented.

This is, of course, a technical matter, and the central committee is composed largely of the professional staff with only about one-third lay representation. The committee is doing the best job of getting the entire teaching staff on its toes that I have ever seen. Through its various subcommittees it will bring into its operation nearly one thousand people, including staff, laymen, and students. It expects to make a preliminary report before the close of the school year but it is already evident to the various subcommittees that they are embarked on at least a five-year plan.

Step IV is the function of the board of education. Having received the program laid out by the preceding committee, the board will decide how much of the program to accept, what priorities to give to the various phases, how they can be financed, and how public support can best be secured.

Taken as a whole, the project has proved one of the best media for enlisting the deep and abiding interest of the leaders of public opinion in a community with which I have ever had the good fortune to come into contact. The program which is emerging will be sound not only from the professional standpoint but from the point of view of public support as well. Furthermore, it produced by-products of in-service training of no mean order. I can commend it to any system interested in professional growth in combination with effective public relations.

GUIDANCE

And not only must our schools grow upward, downward, and outward—they must also develop internally. The purpose of the school is twofold: first, to inculcate in the student those qualities which make for responsible citizenship; and, second, to help him attain the optimum development of his capacities as an individual.

As to the first, the record of the school, though far from adequate, has stood up fairly well under the acid test of war. Life in democratic American classrooms has fostered qualities of initiative, endurance, straight thinking, self-reliance, cooperation, and pride in a job well done which have paid rich dividends in foxholes, submarines, and Flying Fortresses all over the world. They have enabled a generation unconditioned to the ways of war, after relatively short preparation, to meet the best trained forces of Europe.

Now they must be prepared to wage peace with equal effectiveness. They must build tolerance, understanding, and an outlook which reaches beyond state and national boundaries if we are to have an enduring peace. They must be taught the interdependence of nations; that there can be no long-range prosperity in the United States which is not based on a rising standard of living all over the world; that a desire for the universal welfare

is not merely a matter of altruism but the very essence of self-preservation. In this broadening of our vision, the schools face a very real job which will challenge the best thinking of our curriculum-makers. It is imperative that the coming generation should not only be responsible citizens of a democratic America but world citizens as well.

As to the second purpose, schools have long given lip service to the importance of educating the individual. They have glibly accepted the philosophy of education as a process of continuing educational development from the kindergarten through the senior high school. In practice, however, very little has been done about it. In most schools there is still a hierarchy of preparation from one level to another—elementary to junior high, junior high to senior high, and senior high to college. We are still far from fitting the curriculum to the child, as witness the fact that, for the United States as a whole, less than 50 percent of those going into seventh grade graduate from high school.

In the decade ahead there must be less mass education and more attention to the individual. Just as in the army, the essential qualification for a leader was that he should know his men, so teachers must realize the crucial importance of knowing the individual as an indispensable foundation for sound teaching. Administrators, as well as teachers, must understand more clearly the implication of education as a process of continuous child development. Both in their preservice and in-service training, teachers must be put in possession of that great body of literature in this field which has so enriched our understanding of children. They must be given a better comprehension of the social service point of view and become more conscious of the community resources and how they can best be used in cooperation with school needs.

In other words, there must be a tremendous expansion in the field of guidance. This must become the core of the curriculum. Every teacher must be a guidance counselor. This includes guidance of all kinds—vocational, educational, social, health, recreational, and personal. In fact, it is almost impossible to formulate a definition of guidance which is not also a definition of good teaching.

The specialist in guidance will find his particular function in helping the teachers to operate more effectively as guidance counselors in handling special problems which are beyond the time and capacity of the teacher, and in acting as a liaison between the school and the social service agencies of the community.

It is the business of the school to help the student solve the problems which confront him.

We are entering a new era in history with all the problems which this involves. All of these problems whether national or international, political, social, or economic, depend for their solution on the development of sound understandings and attitudes by the American people. And this in turn is a matter of education. Never before in the history of the world have responsibilities of education been so great. The times demand that schools develop upward, downward, outward, and internally.

TO
HELEN ADAMS KELLER
Is Awarded This Testimonial
THE AMERICAN EDUCATION AWARD
for 1945

Great-souled in her outlook upon life apparently darkened by many shadows, and invincible against forces which would seem insurmountable to one less resolute, while on the one hand she manifested ingenious personal bravery, on the other she became to all of us the exemplar of faith in one's self and in his fellow man.

Far from being stranger to those endeavors by which men strive for excellence, she rose to pre-eminence in the very skills and arts which demand the exercise of man's noblest faculties.

Having won the degree of Bachelor of Arts, she entered upon life's career in which she became distinguished as a lecturer, as author, as valued member of various national commissions and advisory boards. as writer for current magazines, and as most active participant in other worthy enterprises for the inspiration and advancement of those unendowed by Nature's gifts of sight and hearing.

To these, no less than to all humankind, Helen Adams Keller is, and will ever remain, a light in darkness and an inspiration to worthy achievement.

The above is the wording on the illuminated manuscript presented to Helen Adams Keller by the Associated Exhibitors of the National Education Association

FINANCING EDUCATION FOR A NEW WORLD

THOMAS C. BOUSHALL, PRESIDENT, THE BANK OF VIRGINIA, RICHMOND,
VA., CHAIRMAN, COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION, CHAMBER OF
COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES

Address, at New York Conference

Discussion of the subject assigned me—"Financing Education in a New World"—is not one lightly entered upon. I do hope, however, that I can bring to your attention a new approach to the underwriting of the cost of education in this so-called New World.

There are three points that I want to develop: First, the possibilities inherent in the use of the instrument of education to bring rising social well-being to our people in our land, and in turn to other nations that compose this New World. Second, who is the greatest and most direct beneficiary of the current and the proposed educational process? Third, how can the determined beneficiary most profitably and equitably meet the increased cost of education adapted to the New World?

First of all, you who are educators need no exposition from me to develop the idea that a better trained individual has greater potentials in technical skill and in the development of cultural wants than an untrained person outside the influence of educational facilities. I bring up the point because I am a businessman talking to educators. I want you to know that we in the business world are rapidly coming to see the basic significance of the relationship between educational level and economic status.

Business is abandoning its previous efforts to get the educator to plump for the system of private enterprise. Rather, the alert and advanced businessman of today is discovering the educational process as his greatest hope of expansion, his greatest bulwark against any declining support of the American way of life, his greatest weapon with which to defeat the march of socialism or communism 'round the world. Business has taken off its colored glasses through which it saw education with a tint of red around the edges or in the middle.

We are all seeing now that as the mass of our people throughout the land rise in their capacity to develop technical skills, we can introduce more machinery on the farm, in the forest, in the mine, at sea, in the factory, and on the road, where mobile equipment can be used. We see that this machinery can be more complex and automatic when operated by an intelligent, understanding individual whose education has opened his mind to greater perception and abler execution.

Again we see that such people, so educated, are making a greater contribution to the production of goods and services by using their better polished brains over their heretofore limited use of straining brawn.

Finally, the businessman is seeing that the able technical capacity to contribute to production and to earn greater income does not matter unless the individual is likewise being taught cultural concepts that develop intense appetites for better clothes and homes, better food and recreation, better sur-

roundings, and wider opportunity for travel; then the technical skills will only be used to earn just enough to keep body and soul together. But given a parallel step-up in cultural wants, the trained technical operator will exert himself to earn the money with which to satisfy the cultural desires.

It is not a long jump for the businessman's imagination to get out in front and himself plump for the proposition that better education of our whole people means an abler group of producers, earning more money with which to buy a greater variety and quantity of better goods and services.

There you have an all but perfected formula for business development which holds not only in the United States of America but in every other land on the globe.

It is just this concept that stimulated the Committee on Education of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States to make studies of its own that would bring these facts, these pertinent economic financial profit and loss figures, to the attention of the businessmen of America. There was little point in bringing coals to Newcastle in telling this story to educators; nor could educators themselves carry this story to business without being as suspect in turn as business has been when it sought to sell you educators on the private enterprise concept.

I have found that you educators, members of the American Association of School Administrators, are as alert to the virtues of our private enterprise concept here in our democracy, operating as a representative republic, as are the businessmen of the nation.

And now we are learning that the businessmen of the nation are beginning to discover that the educational processes of our country are as basic and integral in our successful economy and as necessary to its continuance, its maintenance, and its expansion, as are the very factories and their machinery, the railroads and the highways, the banks and the stores.

This mutual discovery of the high regard that each holds for the other, and the recognition that only by joint effort and integrated functioning can we hope to meet our rising problems, has more significant promise for this country than perhaps any discovery in the twentieth century.

Increased earning power and production, accompanied by increased appetites and consequent increased consumption, is the promise of our New World, based on education's realization that it must greatly augment its facilities, modernize its processes, streamline its methods. Education must realize that it must produce youth and adult graduates, tempered and conditioned to this modern world—this New World from which all of us so hopefully expect so much.

Business views the situation with comfort and with hope.

And now for the second point: If there be so much promise inherent in the use of the instrument of education to bring a rising social well-being to our total people and an expanding and profitable economy to our business world, who will be the greatest beneficiary? For that beneficiary must want to bear the cost incident to a stepped-up educational process. That beneficiary must be impatient to set the program in motion, that its benefits may all the sooner be realized.

Heretofore most of the income of the local governments with which to pay the cost of education has come from assessments on real estate. But is the real-estate owner the greatest beneficiary? Perhaps education, new discoveries, and new developments will carry the would-be home-owner deep into the country, outside the town, where real-estate values usually are highest. There is more *danger* for the real-estate owner than there is promise of good in an expanding economy in the day of car and plane, television and radio, good roads, and decentralized marketing facilities. If education speeds these processes, it may lower current real-estate values in the cities and raise them in the countryside.

And so the real-estate owner will not happily or voluntarily rush out to urge a greater assessment for educational expansion that may be detrimental to him and perhaps holds little if any hope of benefit.

The general income tax payer will not want to see the fairly static bracket of income rates broken open in the several states for the purpose of increasing state income with which to pay for greater educational effort. Once the set brackets are opened for this purpose, there will appear a score of causes wanting to add 1, 2, 3, or more percent figures on to present rates with which to achieve their several purposes.

We must come back then to the greatest beneficiary of the educational process—business itself. We can properly suggest that the increasing beneficiary pay the increased cost, just as the gasoline tax was put on to pay only for roads and for no other cause in most of the soundly financed states.

The third point then is how to apply such a tax on an equitable basis. What considerations should govern in determining an equitable distribution of this cost? How can we allocate to each business venture its proper pro rata part?

We find the precedent already set in the gasoline tax. There the automobile operator pays a 6-cent tax on every gallon of gasoline he uses.

If an employer has but one employee, he can only benefit to that degree. If an employer has 10 or 100 or 1000 employees, he presumably benefits 10 or 100 or 1000 times more.

In my state of Virginia, as an example, I am advised that \$18,000,000 is required for currently needed additional equipment and salaries to put education on a proper modern basis. We have 900,000 employed persons in Virginia. Thus 900,000 (the number of workers) divided into \$18,000,000 (the number of dollars) comes out \$20 per employee. Hence the employer of one person would pay \$20 per annum educational use tax and the employer of 100 people would pay \$2000.

No doubt the costs would vary in each state, and likewise the number of employed persons. The educational use tax on employers might then range from \$5 to \$10, \$20, \$30, or \$40, as the case in each state might require. In such a method we find an equitable distribution of the cost to be borne by the greatest beneficiaries of the results obtained from the added educational expenditures.

I have discussed this thought with a great many businessmen, large and small employers alike. None have refused to accept the following principles:

(a) That business is the greatest beneficiary of education; (b) that the suggested method of meeting the cost is equitable; (c) that business would do well itself to inaugurate the program in order to lead the way toward practical realism in governmental affairs. By that I mean that socially desirable programs, leading to the rising well-being of the people, should have a sound economic base. Such a base should be one that can be supported year in and year out. It should be creative in concept and one that adds profit to the whole people—socializes the profit, if you please. The opposite concept of meeting a social need on a deficit basis presumes that we will forever socialize the loss. This deficit method is one that can only lead to the state's final insolvency and society's eventual bankruptcy. Surely the creative profit-developing program, to be shared by all, is preferable. The question then comes, will business and legislators, social planners and educators—in fact, the whole general public—accept the premise that would lead to its adoption?

There are three premises that must be first presented and adopted: (a) That the potential development of the technical skill and cultural appetites of the total people will result in an expanding economy with a rising social well-being for all; (b) that business itself is and will continue to be the greatest beneficiary of a stepped-up educational program attuned to our current postwar world; (c) that a per capita educational use tax, adjusted in amount to the needs of each state, paid by the employer for each employee, is the equitable way to meet that cost.

Cities are the centers of industries where populations tend to concentrate. Rural youth migrates to the city to find work that brings in cash income for more congenial and less onerous duties. But this migrating youth has been educated in the local rural school at the expense of the locality. He migrates out. He does not stay to repay to his community the cost of his or her education. The locality constantly being deserted by its educated youth cannot afford but just so high a degree of education. Yet that education is the style to which the city industry must become accustomed if it draws away an appreciable number of men and women from surrounding rural areas—a process that has gone on for a thousand years the world over.

The suggestion that the employer pay into the state treasury a per capita educational use tax for every employee means that the rural localities, which have heretofore at their own expense sent their educated youths to the cities and towns, would then be able to recapture as their part of the fund perhaps more from this fund than the current burden of educational cost.

It further means that the locality will have a better brand of education for its youth remaining at home. This also means a better educated youth that comes on to the city centers looking for a job in town. This means in turn that the industrialist or banker, the storekeeper or public service company, is getting far better trained people coming to them from the country than the country schools have heretofore been able to provide.

Put briefly, the suggested program is designed to distribute and equalize educational opportunities far more evenly throughout each individual state than has heretofore been possible anywhere in our several states.

I was talking to a member of an outstanding legislative body on this subject recently. He remarked, smiling, "Well, you'll have no trouble with my state assembly. We have a majority of our members from the rural sections. When it becomes apparent that the city and town employers will be called upon to put up most of the money to educate our local rural youth and provide each locality with more money for education than we have ever had before, we country folk will readily go along."

The city people say that they see great benefit in having everybody throughout the state equally well educated. In these days of good roads and quick transportation between city and farm, there is every advantage in the equalization of educational opportunities. The bigger the employer, the greater his benefit despite his greater cost. The heavily taxed real-estate owner and those fearful of a heavier income tax will perhaps welcome a new device by which money is freshly supplied for the greatest single expenditure of local government—education.

The day can come—it may indeed come fairly soon—if these principles are generally accepted as the best method by which to provide the necessary money to support a stronger, better adapted educational process geared to our current economy and society, when all levies on real estate or other forms of property can be abandoned. In fact, all levies on real property have been abandoned in the process of raising money to build and maintain state and local roads.

Once we have set our foot in this path, the issue merely comes down to the rate of payment per employee based on the rising productive and consumptive power that this expenditure generates on the part of the total people.

There are no known limits on the *consumptive capacity* of the people. We know now that the limit on the *consumptive power* of the people is tied into their earning ability and cultural appetites.

If through the educational process the instrument of education can be the lever by which we can raise the *consumptive power* of the people, reaching out toward but never possibly attaining the limits of the total *consumptive capacity* of the people, we may have uncovered indeed a new use of an old but modernized instrument in a new and demanding world.

I have one more point to present, and I am done. But before doing so let me make a pertinent fact crystal clear. The Committee on Education of the U. S. Chamber of Commerce is responsible only for the development of the program to show business that there is a positive parallel between educational level and economic status. The Committee has proved the premise so clearly that it warrants the keenest and closest study of every local Chamber of Commerce and trade organization in the land.

The idea that we should finance the stepped-up needs of modernized education to bring it into realistic touch with our current world, through the application of an educational use tax levied on the employer for each of his employees, is not a concept developed by the U. S. Chamber's committee. I assume full responsibility for this suggestion.

It is my purpose to present the idea to the Committee on Education, and

I hope in turn to the board of directors and the general membership of the Chamber of Commerce in the United States.

I am making this statement merely to keep the record clear and thus in no way to commit the U. S. Chamber or its Committee on Education.

The final point is this: Businessmen are waking up to the fact that they cannot operate their businesses with illiterate or quasi illiterate people. They are realizing rapidly that the deficiency in the educational preparation of their employees is the degree by which their respective business ventures are handicapped.

Too, businessmen are waking up to the fact that a people technically trained but not culturally developed will work only so hard for only so many days and then lay off. Business is beginning to realize that if the zest of cultural appetites is developed wherein men want better things for themselves and for their families, then not only will men and women work full time, with a will, in order to earn, to buy, to acquire, and enjoy these better things, but in so doing they widen the world's markets. Widened markets reduce prices. Reduced prices in turn again widen markets. Cultural appetites are prerequisite then to the full operation of these processes. Education is the *sine qua non* of rising cultural concepts among the people.

Eric Johnston is now the ambassador of the moving-picture industry to present it to the world as a tremendously potent and significant agency of what? Of education, of the cultural development of the people both in the United States and abroad. One of Eric Johnston's first undertakings, as he gives up the direction of the policies of the U. S. Chamber and takes over the policy responsibility for the moving-picture industry, is to put that industry fully behind the instrument of education. He has secured a large appropriation whereby, with the aid of distinguished professors from two great universities, research will be carried on seeking to discover the best method for the motion-picture industry to prepare professional film for use in the schoolrooms of the nation.

Here is business putting up \$150,000 for research, seeking to discover how it may move into a contributing position to step up the educational process whereby the technical capacities and the cultural appetites of the people of the nation may be raised.

Many businesses have for long years had their own educational training schools maintained 100 percent at their own cost. Why? Because their respective businesses have been more profitably operated by a more technically skilled staff of workers. Perhaps this program will carry on for many years in special cases. But general businesses must rely upon the public-school systems of our several states to give general technical training to the youth and to adults that come to the factory, the store, the office, the shop, the transport, and the communication and other public services.

Generally too business must rely upon the public-school system to develop cultural concepts among the rising youth in day school and the adults of the night schools. There must be bred a yearning for better things that are today within the reach of all who will accept training and apply the consequent developed skill.

Business, seeing that education must pay better salaries and have more and better housing, greater and finer equipment, if the skills and culture essential to an expanding economy are to be developed, will readily pay that cost. It mainly needs to discover and implement an equitable method of meeting that cost related to the pro rata benefit that each employer will derive from such a total expenditure.

The gasoline tax that supports our amazing network of roads, imposed upon the beneficiaries who most profitably use those good roads, has proved one of modern civilization's greatest boons. I commend to your study and to the study of your localities and your several states consideration of a similarly imposed tax for the building of good educational systems, to be paid for pro rata by the primary beneficiaries. I believe that such a program can likewise prove to be one of our modern civilization's most constructive movements.

THE MODERN HEALTH PROGRAM

JOHN L. BRACKEN, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CLAYTON, MISSOURI

Address at New York Conference

Health programs in America have reached many definite objectives. Some accomplishments are outstanding.

The national death rate has been cut from 17.2 in 1900 to approximately 10.6 today. From 1900 to 1940 life expectancy at birth was increased from fifty to sixty-five years. Infant mortality was reduced from 85 in each 1000 live births in 1920 to 40 in 1944. We have made remarkable progress in combating specific diseases. The death rate from typhoid and paratyphoid fevers and infant deaths from enteritis and diarrhea have dropped 92 percent. In diphtheria the development of antitoxins and effective educational campaigns concerning their use have resulted in a 97 percent decrease in deaths. Smallpox is so completely under control that only those children whose parents and communities are willing for them to contract the disease are in danger of its ravages.

Our programs for health improvements, often opportunistic and without effective coordination, have produced results which speak for themselves. Yet it is true that our record is not outstanding among nations. Opportunities for health are not evenly distributed among the states or among localities within the states. Many enemies of health remain to be conquered.

Before the war seven foreign nations had lower death rates than the United States. Eleven countries had lower death rates for children, and twenty had lower death rates for persons from thirty-five to sixty-four years of age. Infant mortality rates among the states range from 29 in each 1000 live births to 97. If our national death rate were reduced to the lowest state rate, three and one-half million lives could be saved in each decade. Death rates from cardio-vascular causes, from cancer, and from nervous disorders are increasing. Although the great White Plague has been checked, many

communities showed alarming increases in tuberculosis during the war years, and tuberculosis still is the leading cause of death in the fifteen- to twenty-five-year age group. Poliomyelitis is a dread and increasing scourge on unsuspecting communities, and the common cold remains unconquered and unsung. It is estimated that seven million persons are on the sick list on an average day. The annual loss of production because of absence due to illness is in excess of \$10,000,000,000, and the loss which is caused by persons who are not ill enough to stay at home but not well enough to do a full day's work can only be conjectured.

Our advancement in health has come largely from improved medical technics and more efficient sanitary practices. In some areas health progress must await the extensions of knowledge which now are sought in countless clinics, hospitals, and laboratories. In many other areas wider application of known methods and technics would improve health and extend life. In the public schools the primary responsibility is to bring available means of protecting and improving health to bear on the lives of children. This involves providing health services, developing health education, and promoting the integration of community resources.

The attitude of individuals toward preservation and development of health definitely is improved. Self-medication still is practiced, however, and proprietary medicines still are profitable to their dispensers. The medicine men of the radio have an amazing following, and salespeople in drug stores and drug departments are relied upon by many persons to prescribe among the nostrums which they sell. Foot pads still flourish. Currently, spinach is in the dietary dog-house, but other spotlighted foods inevitably will assume its former position of primacy in nutritional regard. Vitamin bars profitably feature drug stores, and now hormones begin to attract attention and dollars from a credulous public. Hospital insurance fortunately has swept the country and has given a feeling of security to which additional health protection might appropriately contribute. Popular thinking is evident in the term "health insurance," which does not insure health at all but merely replaces part of a worker's wages during illness. Ill health is dreaded more strongly than glowing, radiant health is desired.

Communities represent the summation of individual ideas as to the value of health. Cities, counties, and states typically are more willing to spend money to help people regain health than to help them protect it. It is easier in most communities to secure the passage of bonds for the erection of a hospital than for building a health center. Laws providing for hospitals are older and more highly regarded than those enabling health-protective services to be established. A recently adopted state constitution provides for the following special levies in the largest city within its borders: hospitals, 10 cents; library, 4 cents; playgrounds, 2 cents; museum, 2 cents; zoo, 2 cents; and public health, 2 cents. Appropriations for health often are first to be eliminated in the event of budget stringency.

In 1941-42 the schools in 43 states reported an average expenditure for health services of 78 cents a year for each child from five to seventeen years of age. The range of expenditures was from 1.8 cents to \$3.07. Nineteen

states reported expenditures less than 50 cents a child. These figures give an inadequate picture of school health expenditures, for five state health departments assume full responsibility for school health services. In 41 states, however, responsibility is shared by health and education departments, and appropriations obviously are inadequate.

The most frequently quoted reasons for improving school and community health services are drawn from statistics dealing with the draft. Approximately 40 percent of the men from eighteen to thirty-seven years of age were found to be physically unfit for military service. It may be noted that 40 percent of registrants 28 years of age were rejected. The percent is increased to 50 for the thirty-four-year group and to 60 for those thirty-eight years of age. It also is significant that rejections of registrants from rural areas were markedly higher than those of registrants from urban districts.

It is estimated that about one million of the five million men who were rejected could have been made fit for service if proper medical procedures had been applied earlier. In many instances the defects which resulted in disqualification were noted and filed away in records of school health examinations which were not followed through. In others, the defects had not been observed professionally. In one large sampling 18 percent of the young men questioned said that in their memories they never had seen a physician for examination or treatment. At the same time, 25 percent stated that they never had received treatment by a dentist, and 75 percent of them at that time were in need of dental correction. An army physician inquired recently whether health instruction had been eliminated entirely from the schools. His observation of soldiers' ignorance of the human body, its organs and their functions, led him to the conclusion that they were innocent of such instruction. It may be remarked that in 1943-44 only 20 percent of the boys and girls in the last two years of American high schools were receiving any kind of organized health instruction.

In time of war health is recognized as a national asset; its preservation and development become a problem which commands universal attention. Fabulous sums are expended to improve health and promote physical fitness. After the first world war our resolution to improve peacetime health weakened. Our wartime fervor for making a better, healthier world degenerated into a desire to enjoy an easier, more comfortable world. In this postwar period we have a golden opportunity to capitalize the health lessons we have learned so recently and so expensively.

Health is an intensely personal concern; it also is a matter of prime community interest. Cities, counties, and states inevitably prosper or suffer on account of the health of individuals and groups. The desired end is effective health on the part of each individual. To this end government and private agencies contribute. The modern health program is a straightforward attempt to provide appropriate health agencies at national, state, and local levels, and to integrate and coordinate the activities of these agencies. The efficiency of a single agency depends not only upon the value of its own

contribution but also upon the support which this contribution offers to the entire health program.

It is notable that, while many effective health agencies exist at all levels, national organizations enjoy the greatest measure of mutual understanding and cooperation. A case in point is the working understanding which has been developed between the National Education Association and the American Medical Association. In 1911 these organizations formed the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education. The Committee has dealt constructively with problems of policy and organization. Just now the Committee and the parent organizations are deluged by requests for information for local application. Details of clinic rooms to be included in new school buildings, efficient arrangement of physical education facilities, and exact assignments for school physicians and nurses are among items of interest. The queries are practical and pointed. Helpful answers are forthcoming, for medical and educational forces are joined on the national level.

Cooperation on this level is further exemplified by the commission which prepared *Health in Schools*, the twentieth yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators. The commission was composed of eleven members, of whom four were doctors of medicine. Another member was a doctor of public health. A professor of psychology and a state director of health, physical education, and recreation, together with four school administrators, completed the membership of the commission. Such representation made it possible to produce a balanced volume which is referred to by health personnel and school people alike for basic policies and specific suggestions for technics, organization, and relationships in school health procedures.

An important current publication, *Health Needs of School-Age Children and Recommendations for Implementation*, resulted from a joint conference of national government agencies whose programs affect the health of the school-age child. The subcommittee which prepared the statement included representatives of voluntary agencies as well as government officials. This compact, 8-page statement has been published in *School Life* and reprints are available. It merits thoughtful attention from all who are interested in the health of school children.

An outstanding example of integrated thinking and planning on the national level is provided by the National Conference for Cooperation in Health Education. The Conference is composed of representatives of some forty of the national organizations which are concerned with the protection and development of health. The organization serves as a reconciling agency as well as a means of refining and stimulating health practices. Representatives confer in general meetings with respect to common problems.

Influential reports, which are cleared by the constituent organizations, are developed by special committees set up under the sponsorship of the Conference. Notable among these reports is the pamphlet entitled *Suggested School Health Policies*. This charter for school health is available from the Health Education Council. Representatives from more than fifteen national agencies in health and education cooperated in the preparation of this 46-page booklet. The publication, produced in 1945, already has

achieved a wide distribution, and its effect upon school health practices is destined to be far-reaching.

Another important report soon will be issued by the Conference. This report will deal with the functions and the training of some of the important officers concerned with school health. In its present form the report deals with the school physician, the school nurse, and the school administrator. The teacher has not been forgotten, and other school health officials probably will be included in the final report.

These reports have been developed through conferences which balanced types of health officers and gave effect to geographic areas. The report on the school physician, for example, came from a conference of perhaps sixteen persons, half of whom were practicing school physicians representing a variety of local situations. The remainder of the conference was composed of school nurses, administrators, and teachers. The report is significant, both in its content and in the method by which it was formulated. In fact, a conscious attempt to develop a technic which could be followed through effectively on state and local levels was made.

Undoubtedly examples of cooperation on state and local levels which illustrate similar integrating principles can be presented, but these examples are not representative of the total situation. In states and counties departments of health and of education often have not clearly defined and integrated their functions. In communities school health people have not always kept members of the medical profession and public health agents informed of school health objectives and the means employed in reaching them. Members of medical societies and health departments have not always taken the initiative in acquainting themselves with the health practices of the schools. The members of each group need to know more about what other groups are doing. If a conference between the state health department and the state high-school athletic association were held in January of each year, the state basketball tournament picture might be subject to change in some of its details or perhaps appear in a new frame!

In speaking of health procedures across the country, generalizations are easy and misleading. Organizations differ and practices vary. In some instances the health department provides all school medical services. In these cases understanding of school health workers can be integrated effectively; the difficulty, if one arises, lies in integrating the health services with the educational activities of the school. The source of the health services is relatively unimportant; it is all-important that competent services be provided and that they be integrated effectively.

The modern health program requires that public departments of health and education agree to the principle of coordination of health programs for school children, including the health program of the community and the health aspects of school programs. This agreement is nullified if each agency and profession does not respect the contribution of the others. There should be further agreement with respect to detailed administrative plans for efficient, cooperative direction of the various phases of the program and supervision of the various types of professional workers so that they might

be permitted to perform the services in their respective fields for the best interest of all the children.

Such cooperation is based upon the supposition that health agencies, both government and private, are available and that communities are provided with adequate medical service. Unfortunately this condition is not universal. Evidence presented to a Senate subcommittee in 1944 indicated that 40 percent of the counties of the United States lack full-time public health services. More than 500 counties had more than 3000 people for each active physician in private practice, and 81 counties were without practicing physicians. Only 100 of the 2600 pediatricians in the country were available to serve the needs of the twenty million children who lived in small communities, while 1000 pediatricians were ready to meet the needs of the four and one-half million children who lived in the largest cities. More than 40 percent of the counties of the United States are without a registered hospital. Under these conditions the problem of providing adequate health services for school children becomes acute.

The Educational Policies Commission gives a terse description of adequate health services for school children in *Health and Physical Fitness for All American Children and Youth*, a brief booklet published in December 1945 in cooperation with the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. In the minimal health program advocated by the Commission for every child in our country, whether in a large city, a small town, or on the farm, featured provisions are a complete physical examination at least once in two years, with prompt and persistent follow-up to provide all needed corrective and protective measures. These procedures are the keystone in the arch of health protection and guidance.

The health examination, ideally performed in the elementary school in the presence of the parents, should be thorough and unhurried. The "line them up and march them past" type of "medical inspection" has brought the school health examination into deserved disrepute. Eyes, ears, and teeth should receive detailed attention. In the secondary school, testing for tuberculosis should be included. The examining physician needs a thorough health history of the child, and a full record of the examination is essential. The school nurse should assist in the examination which allows time for discussion of examination findings and for establishing common understandings which will promote necessary follow-up. If the physician's time is limited sharply, routine examinations may be spaced at greater intervals so that attention may be given to children whose health needs cause them to be referred by the teacher or nurse. Fortunately insistence on annual health examinations is decreasing. Winning the race to complete a physical examination of each child each year simply did not pay off. More time now is given to cases which actually require attention, and follow-up is coming to be considered imperative.

The health examination fails of its purpose if it does not result in diagnosis and in the corrective procedures which are indicated. It generally is agreed that protective, examinational, and educational procedures are within the province of the school and that corrective measures are to be

applied by private physicians or by specialized public agencies. The responsibility for corrective treatment belongs to the family. The school's responsibility is to lead the family to secure diagnosis and treatment of the conditions revealed by the health examination. When family means do not permit this course, the responsibility devolves upon community agencies, both public and private. Often the school must take the initiative in securing needed action by these agencies and cooperation among them. If appropriate agencies do not exist, the school must take the initiative in their development. With physicians in short supply, with nurses in overdemand, and with community health and welfare agencies understaffed and frequently lacking in funds, adequate health services may not be provided for children in schools unless administrators make their case for them.

The health examination and its follow-up are highly effective instruments of health education, but they require the supplementation of carefully planned courses in health education and in safety. Health belongs in each year of the elementary school, and health courses should be required on the junior and senior high-school levels. Practical aspects of both personal and community health should be stressed. Because health is an essential common learning, it should be dignified in its own right; health is debased when it becomes a casual elective or a rainy-day substitute for outdoor physical education. At the same time, related subjects offer many opportunities for health instruction. Teachers with specific training for teaching health are needed. If a health coordinator is not available, the organization of a school health council helps to correlate instruction and to make use of school situations and practices as educational materials.

It is obvious that a poorly nourished child is likely to be a poorly educated child who may develop into a handicapped adult. The need for sound nutrition is so great that the Educational Policies Commission recommends that special instruction in diet be accompanied by at least one appetizing, wholesome meal each day, even if it is necessary for this meal to be provided by the school. The special dietary instruction should reach beyond the walls of the schools; parents well may be included in this field as well as in first aid, home nursing, and the health guidance of school and pre-school children.

Physical education and recreation are closely akin to health education and provide strong support for the modern health program. In physical education the comprehensive school program balances each child's activity budget as it promotes skill, vigor, and endurance. The school physician works closely with physical education teachers so that activities may be suited to children's individual requirements. Children are classified for competitive activities. Adequate play fields and gymnasiums are needed, daily schedules in physical education are advisable, and groups should be small enough to permit individual attention.

Often physical education finds its most compelling motivation in competitive athletics. Situations are common in which the physically favored few receive expert training and coaching at the expense of the majority of the student body. A helpful corrective is the development of inclusive intra-

mural programs, but in all candor it must be admitted that such programs do not always provide stimulus equal to that which comes from varsity competition. Just now the backwash of war has spotlighted interschool athletics. The drum majorette has come into her own. Schedules are extended, long trips are made by teams which sometimes are accompanied by practically the entire student body, and championship teams are overpublicized. In some instances the public assumes considerable control over schoolboy sports. Strong administrative leadership is essential in order that varsity athletics may add to physical education programs instead of becoming disruptive of their results. It should be borne in mind that the educational objectives of interschool competition are largely identical with those of general physical education activities. These objectives are consistent with the objectives of the health program.

Physical education develops recreational interests, but many school sports cannot be continued in adult life. Modern emphasis is on recreational activities which can be carried on at home, in the backyard, in the basement shop or playroom, and in the field. The out-of-doors is receiving more attention. Camping, fishing, gardening, and work experience provide valuable activities for children, particularly for those in the cities. Along with back-to-nature adventures, the recreational aspects of school subjects and extracurriculum activities are cultivated to promote interests which will continue in adult life. Saturdays and vacation months are filled with diversified recreational programs. Schools are designed to serve as recreation centers, and flexible schedules, both as to hours in the day and in months of the year, make trained recreational and physical education directors available when they are needed. The modern health program rates recreational activities higher than spectator sports and observer types of recreation.

The health examination and its follow-up, health education and nutrition, physical education and recreation are specialized procedures of the modern health program. The program requires adequate finances, trained personnel, competent supervision, and coordination of all agencies which deal with personal and community health. The program presupposes adequate housing, health protection, and the development of school activities which promote both the physical and the mental health of children.

Today hundreds of school districts possess funds derived from the sale of bonds issued to finance the construction of new buildings. Superintendents scan rising building prices and keep a weather eye on Washington lest the first signs of an impending school-building subsidy be missed. The new buildings which will result from this nationwide program require careful planning from the health viewpoint. Facilities which add to the effectiveness of all health services should be refined in this new construction and the new buildings should contribute substantially to healthful school living. The location, design, construction, appearance, cleanliness, and upkeep of school buildings inevitably are influential health factors. Despite extensive building programs, most American children do not attend school in new buildings. In some instances a building's antiquity becomes a virtue, and discomfort long endured no longer is noticed. Many of our older buildings

require extensive improvement and modernization to bring them up to modern standards. Regularly scheduled surveys of school buildings and determined programs of replacement and improvement are necessary if all our school children are to be housed healthfully.

Community and school health authorities are charged with the responsibility of protecting children against safety hazards and the dangers of infectious and contagious disease. Close cooperation in notification of disease, in exclusion, and in quarantine is demanded. Protection of the children and effective administration require that health examinations and health guidance be provided for all school employees.

All of the health measures which have been suggested here are somewhat beside the point unless the school recognizes and discharges its responsibility for the mental health and the personality development of its children. More than half the hospital beds of America are occupied by persons who are unable to face the realities of life. It is reported that 200,000 of the first million men rejected for military service were disqualified because of mental and nervous conditions. Lack of adjustment to requirements of normal living are evident on every hand.

The modern health program insists that all school conditions and activities be evaluated with respect to their effects on the mental as well as the physical health of children. The atmosphere of the school, methods of control, daily programs, assignments, and relationships with the home have a profound effect on mental health and personality development. The modern school health program assumes that children will be treated as individuals, that their personalities will be respected, and that they will be given every possible opportunity and assistance in developing into competent, successful individuals who will contribute to the further development of their communities.

American children have a right to look forward to such successful living; that is the promise of America. Their chance to achieve this objective, which is a broad statement of the aims of all our educational processes, will be greatly enhanced if all school conditions are attuned to the development of healthy bodies and minds and if essential health services are provided. The schools deal continuously and intimately with children from early childhood to the very threshold of adulthood. They occupy a key position with respect to the development of health for children and for their communities.

The modern health program is a ringing challenge to every school administrator.



Stone Mountain, seventeen miles from Atlanta, largest single block of granite known to man

EDUCATION FOR NATIONAL WELL-BEING

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Address at Atlanta Conference .

A short time ago when GI's were staging mass demonstrations in all parts of the world and the wave of strikes had already started at home, a religious publication commented that both were manifestations of America's insolent complacency.

No other nation would have accepted visible evidence of the deterioration of army morale and production paralysis without the gravest concern. In a world struggling back toward peace, and power politics still very much to be reckoned with, every effort would have been made to conceal or suppress what other powers might well interpret as signs of weakness.

We were not greatly disturbed because we did not interpret them as real weakness. We were so sure of our strength that we paid little attention to the warnings of admirals and generals, of economists or stabilizers. Hadn't we just proved that we had "done it before and could do it again"? We felt we could afford a let-down and still play a dominant role in world affairs.

Perhaps we could. But we were complacent about it—and complacency is a dangerous state of mind. We were so complacent about it that the editors of the *Commonweal* termed it "insolent." It must have seemed almost that to some of the nations that barely survived this holocaust and were struggling with stout hearts but little else to feed their people, re-establish their economies, and cling to their independence.

I have been asked to speak today on education for national well-being. I am glad that it is a broad enough subject to let me wander almost where I please. I would not presume to come down here and talk to an eminent group of educators on the specialized problems of their field—or how to obtain the end results that national well-being entails. But I am so convinced that complacency is a threat to national well-being that I am delighted to have this chance to discuss it with you.

Complacency is an intangible—a state of mind—and therefore not easy to combat or remedy. It is a state of mind that we are slow to recognize in ourselves. It isn't to be confused with pride or self-assurance, or innate confidence—though they may contribute to it. It involves vanity rather than pride, a depreciation of others, based on prejudices or ignorance, and sloppy mental processes that jump to quick conclusions rather than think things through.

There are various ways to combat complacency. One is through fear. One might imagine that that would work in connection with the atomic bomb at least. But it doesn't work well. We may frighten people temporarily but if truly complacent they won't let their minds rest on it very long. It isn't pleasant or comfortable to think about, so they think about something else.

There is only one real answer to it and that lies in education. And when I say education I use the word in its broadest sense. I am not speaking only of schooling, although that is the foundation and cornerstone. I would include all forms of adult education as well and recognize that newspaper editors and radio commentators and authors and public men have a share of the responsibility too.

We must train our people for citizenship, not merely for American citizenship but for world citizenship. We have played around with the first objective a good many years but we haven't done half as good a job as we have in teaching technical skills. And we haven't even made a start in teaching world citizenship—in many sections we have been afraid, because of political and other pressures, even to try.

When I say world citizenship I do not wish to imply any superstate internationalism. I want no apologies for America nor any deprecatory attitude toward a loyal devotion to country. But we must learn to lift our horizons. I think that if we are better world citizens we will be better American citizens too.

We should have American history in our schools—plenty of it and well taught. But let it be honest history, with our mistakes as well as our victories and accomplishments. We have so much to be proud of that it is silly and stupid to assume that we must conceal some of the less pleasing chapters of history. If we build up a youngster's faith on a fairy story we invite a reaction when he learns that there is no Santa Claus. We didn't treat the Indians well; we broke treaties every time we wanted more of their land. Why not admit it? We waged a war of aggression against Mexico. Perhaps we won't judge other nations as harshly if we have taken a straight look in the mirror.

If you read the average American history textbook about the War of 1812 and then go up to Canada and read their account of the same events, you may find it difficult to persuade yourself that it was the same war. We concentrate on our little navy's achievements at sea—the "Constitution's" victory over the "Guerrière." If we find a reference to the Battle of Bladensburg, it is just a footnote in small type.

Several years ago I spent an evening with Dr. Hambro, Norwegian statesman who at one time headed the League of Nations Assembly. He recalled that after World War I there was an effort to rewrite school histories in Europe on a more objective basis. It was proposed that the scholars of France and Germany get together and agree on basic presentations of the wars between their countries so that the Germans might know that Bismarck framed the Ems telegram to force the Franco-Prussian War, for example, and that the French might have a truer picture of Napoleon. But they couldn't agree. Finally the suggestion was made that histories in both countries have two pages facing each other—one giving the French version and the other the German. Dr. Hambro suggested that there should really be three pages on that basis—one for the French, one for the German, and one for the truth.

But in Scandinavia, where national jealousies were no longer so keen,

a successful effort was made in this direction. Norwegian, Swedish, and Danish books all glorified their own national heroes and blamed the others for all aggression. The historians of the three nations got together and agreed on basic presentations so that the Swedish version differed little if at all from that of the Norwegian or Danish. And as Dr. Hambro said, this did not make poorer Swedes of the Swedes or poorer Norwegians of the Norwegians. It made them better Swedes and better Norwegians and at the same time gave them a better perspective on world events.

Teach American history by all means and teach it better than ever before. But don't stop there. If we do, it may tend to shrink rather than lift horizons. Too long have we been taught that this country is aloof from the rest of the world, that its oceans are impassible barriers, that Europe and Asia can go on their mad and merry ways without much concern to us. We have studied French or Spanish as mental exercise, with perhaps the suggestion that we may be tourists some day or that a handful of students may engage in foreign trade. But it has been superficial study and we are a little condescending toward "foreigners" who are so backward or benighted that they don't speak English.

Some schools have long given capsule doses of European history with emphasis on Charlemagne, Martin Luther at the Diet of Worms, and England's defeat of the Armada. I am not quarrelling with that. But let's give some attention to English history, particularly so far as its development of self-government charted the course for us. And let us bring it down to the present so that the school graduate knows the difference between a colony and a self-governing dominion. I don't care whether they know the date of the Battle of Hastings or Magna Charta or the year of King Charles' execution. But they ought to know what was at stake in the battle between King Charles and the Parliament, and it might remind them that among other things the principle of retaining the purse strings in the hands of the people's elected representatives is important.

Let's take a look at Russian history too. I realize there are difficulties. Even an objective review of the Bolshevik revolution of 1917-18 may bring queries from parents as to whether their children are being taught communism. We must keep it objective, but we can't dodge it just because there are difficulties. I am not concerned whether they are taught the date of the Battle of Poltava. But they should know that serfs in Russia were only freed when we were fighting our War between the States. And when Americans read in their newspapers that the southern half of Sakhalin Island was given to Russia as a condition of entering the war against Japan, they would not be so harsh in their judgments if they were aware that this territory had been Russian until lost in Japan's war of aggression in 1905. If we had lost territory to an Axis power within our own lifetimes and had an opportunity to reclaim it, do you think we would refrain from doing so? I don't.

I wish there could be a study of previous efforts to control aggressor states and outlaw war. It should include some of the major peace conferences such as the Congress of Vienna and an analysis of the mistakes and pitfalls

that marked them. It should give a lot of attention to the League of Nations—its strength and its weaknesses. It has not been a record of achievement but it would focus thought upon the desirability of the objective and the difficulties which must be surmounted. A better understanding of that history would make us more tolerant of the hesitant and halting start of the UNO, and also make us more alert to spot fatal compromises or weaknesses as they arise.

We must strive to awaken a keener interest in international affairs and we can best do that by making sure that our students are better informed about them. The boys who are most interested in baseball are those who play it; they may think golf is a silly game until they have tried it a few times. Those who know a game are more interested spectators because they know that picking up a hot grounder at third base isn't as easy as it looks.

How often have we encountered a boy who read a historical novel—possibly about the War between the States—and liked it so much that it aroused his curiosity to know more about a certain campaign or some outstanding personality such as General Lee or President Lincoln? He doesn't have to be ordered to do so many pages of reading. And the more he reads about it, the more interested he is in new books that come out on the subject. As his knowledge increases, his interest mounts too.

I am not suggesting elementary training for youthful diplomats or statesmen. But I would draw a parallel with music appreciation courses that are offered in many schools. The purpose is not to train musicians but to give just enough training to awaken an interest in and appreciation of good music. We do not develop violinists or pianists by such courses but we do develop discriminating listeners. We need discriminating observers of the national and international scene.

Our recent war experience gave us some startling statistics on the physical condition of young America—the number of men rejected for military service. But just as startling was the universal conclusion that of all major armies ours had the least comprehension and was least interested in the causes of the war, the ideologies in conflict, and the objectives for which we fought.

Our GI's had been exposed to a lot more education than the British Tommy. But the latter was much more likely to read and discuss what went on at Casablanca or Yalta than the American soldier. The American was too ready to let some one else back home bother about that while he checked on the standing of the big league teams in his copy of *Stars and Stripes*. And when he got back home, he was equally indifferent.

I happened to make a trip to England in 1943, just as large American forces were beginning to assemble for the invasion. We had a few educators over there studying the British orientation classes to make recommendations to our army as to methods and scope of the program. They were agreed that we were far behind and in greater need of such work than the British. Among the English there was frank surprise that our men, so well prepared and equipped in every other way, were so uninformed and uninterested in the causes of the war and our objectives.

Recently a group of educators participated in a roundtable discussion on the war and education and a summary of their conclusions was published by the Public Affairs Committee under the title, *We Can Have Better Schools*. On the first page you will find the following: "The Army found it necessary to set up orientation courses to help the soldiers understand why they were fighting. Millions of our finest men, young and old, were at a loss when asked to explain the meaning of fascism or the underlying causes of the war. Worst of all, many seemed to be little interested even though they were risking their lives to eliminate these evils."

Not interested—complacent—insolently complacent!

This same report added: "On the other hand, the speed with which the graduates of America's schools were able to learn technical skills was attributed to the underlying principles of American education." I would like to question the use of the word "principles." There is no question of our leadership in technical education but isn't there something wrong with the *principles* of American education in the light of the first quotation; namely, our lack of understanding and often lack of interest in the underlying causes of the war?

Nor did the army succeed in filling this gap which our schools had left. The army did a magnificent job training men to be soldiers, taking advantage of the sound technical training so many inductees had already received. But its orientation courses were woefully inadequate. In a recent article in the *Atlantic Monthly* a GI wrote as follows: "Directives out of Washington urged the army and navy to inculcate democratic ideas in our troops but the orders were either disregarded by regular officers who considered one hour a week orientation courses to be pure fiddle-faddle or were turned over to inept officers whose sterile lectures were guaranteed not to make a GI reason why."

When we talk about inculcating democratic ideas, we can't do it with a quick once-a-week polishing, even if the polishing were in good hands. How many of us have a reasonably good definition of democracy? Ernest Bevin, British Foreign Secretary, recently said that the world was in need of a new definition of the word. It certainly is, as it means entirely different things to different nations and to the people within those nations. A good many Americans would probably conclude from a headline on Russia's recent election in which 99,000,000 took part that the democratic processes were taking hold there. They must be more discriminating. They must be enough interested to read beyond the headline and note that there was only one candidate for each office, that the bulk of the people had no voice in choosing the candidates, that the ballot was handed to them, and unless they wanted to vote against the lone candidate whose name appeared they didn't mark it at all. And if they wanted to vote against the candidate, there was no provision even for a write-in ballot; they could cross off the name but had to make themselves conspicuous by retiring to a booth to do so, whereas most of the people just walked in, were handed their ballots, and meekly dropped them in the box as they had been handed to them.

I have been emphasizing largely the challenge to lift our horizons to become better world citizens. Let us return briefly to the education that we need to become better American citizens.

It is shocking that cheap demagogues can get away with the clap-trap they serve up in many campaigns. We go to a meeting or listen to a speaker on the radio who promises to spend more for everything we might want and promises to cut our taxes at the same time. We are to have much higher social security, more generous unemployment compensation, great public-works programs to provide employment, subsidies to raise producers' profits and reduce consumers' costs—and it won't cost us a dime. On the contrary, this magic man will do all this with less tax revenue. He will cut income taxes; remove the levies on furs, cigarettes, and liquor; and reduce the load on business. And nobody heckles him; only a few classify him for what he is in their own minds; his opponent isn't likely to challenge him because he probably follows the same line. Some of the candidates are pretty shrewd people themselves; they have a contempt for the public's stupidity but follow the formula that has put others in office.

Some years ago we had the spectacle of a man running for the office of mayor of Chicago on a platform of twisting the British lion's tail. What had King George III or the present King to do with the affairs of Chicago? But great crowds came to listen and to cheer. He was elected.

"Every man a king" was the slogan that made Huey Long dictator of Louisiana. I contend that it is a damaging reflection upon our educational processes, in school and in adult life, when great masses are swayed by that type of individual and program. It is a challenge to all of us to do a better job if our heritage is to be preserved.

You will probably say that I am asking too much of education—in school or out of it. But what other answer can there be to the problem? Democracy can function only with an informed people; otherwise we place an intricate and skilfully fashioned weapon in the hands of a person who hasn't been trained to use it and may kill his best friend or himself with it.

Labor unions are part of America's economic democracy today and they are here to stay. I believe in them. I think it is impossible to deny that they have improved the wages and working conditions of millions of workers. They have tended to level off the economic peaks and valleys in the country and that is a good thing. But many of them are run by a few men on ruthless, undemocratic lines. The rank and file must be taught the essentials of democracy before they join them so that they can battle for the right to elect their own officers, to have an accounting of their union finances, to make leadership more responsive to the members and more responsible in their dealings with employers.

The lower the skill of a group of workers, the more likely are we to find highhanded and autocratic methods at the top. The common laborers' union had not held a national convention until recently for a period of thirty years; the governing board perpetuated itself in power. And if an individual here or there challenged the system, he was likely to find himself expelled, without a card and unable to work.

It seemed to me an abject surrender of principle when during the war this government, fighting to preserve and promote democracy, not only condoned but encouraged union practices, in the building trades especially, whereby in order to work on government projects men had to pay a high initial fee and continuing monthly payments for a working permit. They were not admitted to the union; they had no voice in its affairs; when one job was finished and they moved to another, they had to pay these fees all over again. It was essentially a matter of tribute to those who had the power to give or deny employment. It enriched the unions who gave nothing in return save temporary toleration of their presence on the job because the unions lacked enough members themselves to meet the government's wartime requirements.

Even in so well-organized and tested a union as the United Mine Workers, there is but limited democracy. In order to assure a majority on the international executive board friendly to the leadership, more than half of the miners' districts have been classified as immature and therefore not capable of choosing their own officers. In such districts the officers are appointed by the international board, meaning the international president, and when an Illinois local leader attempted to challenge the practice at a national convention, he was expelled from the convention.

If the rank and file had a little better understanding of what democratic principles are or should be, they would not tolerate this sort of thing. And since the government has enacted so much legislation favoring unions and securing their positions and influence, there is no reason why it should not amend this legislation to deny these statutory rights and safeguards to unions that do not extend self-government to their members.

We should teach more and better economics. I realize that in suggesting so many fields for greater emphasis in our school program someone may say that there would be little time left for reading, writing, and arithmetic. Some of these subjects should be stressed in college or university years rather than in secondary schools. But only after we have diagnosed some outstanding omissions or failures can we consider how or where to apply remedies.

Millions of our citizens have become stockholders of corporations. In a bull-market such as has been in progress the past year, the little investor is told by somebody who heard from somebody else that a successful speculator was buying Atomic Chemicals. So he buys a few shares of Atomic Chemicals too with about as much discrimination as the fellow who goes to the races once a year and blindly puts his finger on the race chart and comes up with a two-dollar bet on Stormy Weather.

Under SEC and other regulations, corporations furnish a great deal of information to each and every stockholder. How many can make head or tail out of a financial statement, or are enough interested to try? How can we stir that interest, fight that complacency?

A few years ago a retired woman school teacher caused quite a flurry in our town when she went to the annual meeting of the stockholders of a large corporation. The meetings were customarily perfunctory; nobody dreamed that when the chairman invited remarks from stockholders any-

body would take advantage of the invitation. But this teacher got up and said that she noticed the president of the company received a quarter of a million dollars as a bonus each year in addition to his regular and not trifling salary. She said she had no objection to bonus payments when outstanding management had achieved important results for the stockholders but she was disturbed by the fact that the company has lost money for three or four years past and was omitting all dividends. Why the big bonus under those circumstances? Her question struck home. Within a few months the corporation had bought out its contract with the president and fired him. The directors were reminded unpleasantly that some stockholders at least were not overlooking the incongruous situation into which they had gotten themselves and they had to do something about it.

We need more stockholders like that. We would have better operated companies if we had them. And we need a better understanding of basic economics on the part of employees too so that union members will question alertly a leader who tried to convince them that wages have little relation to prices. It is so easy to stir up hate by talking of the big, rich corporation, which may not be rich at all. And when a leader tries to peg wages at the peak the most successful unit in an industry can pay, would it not be well if someone within labor's own ranks asked what that policy might mean eventually in closing companies not quite so successful and thereby reducing employment?

As America's affairs, both political and economic, have become more and more complex, the individual citizen has shown less and less interest in them. In the smaller, simpler communities, everyone but the village idiot took some part in town meetings and had some notion of what was going on in the community and knew personally or knew much about those elected to office. Circuit-riding lawyers seventy-five years ago went from community to community and in the evenings, with local audiences added, discussed politics and national issues. The crossroads store was a forum of sorts. Men whose fathers had fought for self-government prized it and took an active part in it. There is something quite challenging in the picture of the tremendous interest that attended the Lincoln-Douglas debates; *that* was democracy in action.

As things have become more complex and more remote, we have come too much to accept the easy theory, "Let George do it." A job on an assembly line doesn't afford opportunity or inclination for much reflection and when it is over, there are so many diverting ways to spend a pleasant hour without exercising the mind. We have the movies and the radio, and if anybody starts a serious discussion of atomic power at an evening's party, he is quickly put down as a very heavy person to be invited infrequently.

We still take a keen interest, of course, in the most glamorous expression of self-government—the choice of a President. But we can't be bothered to find out much about candidates for Congress or the bench or the state legislature. We have the haziest notions of the issues that are involved and are inclined to vote a ticket even though some men on that ticket have little or nothing in common with the head of it.

We just don't care enough. We are insolently complacent—confident that our resources are so great, our power such that we can muddle through anything, and tell the rest of the world where to head in whenever it suits us.

How can we get people to *care* more—to take more interest? I know of no way except a better informed public. It does no good to scold people or try to frighten them. We must restore the sense of participation and rid ourselves of the notion that we are mere onlookers.

We have the universal franchise. We are not going to change that. But I am enough of a conservative to say that I wish it could be qualified with at least the barest of literacy tests. With the opportunities for education that exist in this country today, it is the least obligation of citizenship to learn to read and write—to equip oneself to learn a little of what is going on in our own country and the world.

But one can be literate without being intelligent or in the least discriminating. As civilization has become more complex, instead of abandoning our interest to entrust it to elected representatives whom we hardly know, we should attempt to prepare ourselves to play our part in democratic decisions.

We are approaching too closely to the totalitarian psychology. When our troops first entered Germany they found that the standard excuse of the population was, "We are only the little people. The Fuehrer decides everything." We may be the little people too, but we have always prided ourselves on that fact that *ultimately* we decide everything.

What specifically can the schools do about it? I do not pretend to be in a position to give much advice on that score; I have merely tried to sketch the need and urge that it be studied and measures taken to meet it. But there is one comparison in the field of education that I believe is worth making.

We are proud in Pittsburgh of the Carnegie Institute of Technology. We think it ranks as one of the best technical schools in the country. It turns out first-class engineers. But recently the president and trustees have come to the conclusion that the engineering courses are too specialized; they develop competent engineers but untrained citizens—technicians but not educated men. So they have brought to Carnegie as provost Dr. Elliott Smith, former master of Saybrook College at Yale University, whose task it will be to add to the curriculum minimum requirements in the liberal arts to broaden the engineer to a richer understanding of life and a better appreciation of a citizen's responsibilities. An engineering degree from Carnegie a few years hence will mean the successful completion of such studies as well as the higher mathematics, mechanical drawing, and other courses that are prerequisite to his professional career.

I hope that our schools will similarly broaden their curriculums. Along with the credits required to gain admittance to college or to complete the home economics course or commercial or vocational training, it seems to me that public education is failing in its duty to the public if it does not attempt to do a more adequate job of training for citizenship.

What does this mean to the schools? It means a reorientation of emphasis

on the whole curriculum. It means that history should be taught not for dates but for its significance; and that comparative histories must be studied too. It means some attempt to appraise and appreciate other cultures. It means more realistic economics and far better current events.

The latter should not be a chore attempted once a week by a teacher whose main interest is in some other subject. And may I say—aloud—that I think teachers' tenure has been carried to such extremes that it militates against the most efficient teaching. That does not mean that I do not favor tenure as a protection against political manipulation. But tenure should not mean that because a teacher at twenty-two or twenty-three has passed examinations for a certificate he or she is thereby forever after a qualified or competent teacher. Many may be content to let dry rot get the better of them; they are products of the horse and buggy era trying to teach boys and girls of the atomic age.

Give them an examination every three years in current problems. Make available refresher courses. Bring leaders in science, politics, information services to them in lecture and discussion groups. Keep teaching the teachers as well as the children. Assure the contacts that anyone needs—whether educator, businessman, journalist, or what not—to keep pace with what is going on around us in other fields.

If a teacher has enough initiative to get a summer vacation job in a radio station, or the personnel department of an industry, or in a labor union headquarters, or as a mail opener in a legislator's office, give him or her some credit, some compensation, for it. The Ph.D. degree is the union card for higher teaching today. I have respect for Ph.D.'s but I do not stand in awe of them. And I think there is a tendency to promote aloofness—the ivory tower attitude—when our school people need more rather than less contact with the world of business and public affairs.

I realize that some of these things will sound visionary or impractical. What does a newspaperman know about the problems created by schoolboards, the inertia and resistance to change, the danger of sticking one's neck out? Well, I am not unaware of those factors and they are a drag on the school system and its service to the nation. There are newspapers that have been reluctant to adjust themselves to new demands, and a lot of them are out of business and wondering why a competitor or a radio station has won from them the public support and favor they once enjoyed.

Let me repeat, I do not mean to infer that this is solely a school problem. It should be of concern to all individuals or agencies that have anything whatever to do with adult education as well. But since my audience is made up of school people, I have tried to sketch some of the challenges which I believe confront them.

In conclusion, I was struck and touched by a news story a few days ago regarding a young Marine officer. He was killed at Iwo Jima and just before his death attempted to put into his will his thoughts—far from home—of what this country lacked and needed. He had had the benefit of an education in a fine preparatory school and Yale University. He had been left \$3000 and in his will he divided it as follows:

To the cause of labor-management peace 40 percent—10 percent each to the CIO and A. F. of L.; 20 percent to the National Association of Manufacturers; to the Congress for research toward a far-sighted foreign policy and better government for all the people in the country instead of government by organized pressure groups, 20 percent; to his school, 20 percent; to his university, 10 percent; to a favorite charity and his church 5 percent each.

These are the needs I have been trying to talk about: labor-management relations based on better understanding and genuine economic democracy; a far-sighted foreign policy and a broader perspective on government at home in the interest of the nation, not sections or groups or pressure blocs. And as the agencies which can contribute most to these objectives through preparation—20 percent to his school, 10 percent to his college.

I think even these ratios were well selected. Much of what I plead for falls properly within the scope of college or university rather than secondary school. But the role of the secondary school is given twice the importance of the college and I would agree with Lt. Ben Toland, USMC.

TOWARD BETTER SCHOOLS

N. L. ENGELHARDT, ASSOCIATE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,
NEW YORK, N. Y.

Address at Kansas City and New York Conferences

Somewhere in the northeastern section of the United States an area of approximately twenty square miles will soon be dedicated to mankind's noblest and most exalted plan. In a beautiful countryside of hill and dale, woodland and meadow, an international reservation is being established. It bids fair to become the most influential and powerful spot in the world. It will belong to the peoples of the world. Its buildings, now about to be designed, will house the parliaments of man. Its ample airport will provide direct connection with those of all nations. Its radio and communication lines will make constant contact with all sections of the world. Here many hundreds of men and women representative of all creeds, races, and ideologies will study, confer, and pass judgments on momentous world problems. Never before in history has a task of this character and importance been undertaken on such a scale and with such a large proportion of all nations cooperating. In the early days of our nation's history a reservation dedicated to the administration of our country was set apart and the District of Columbia resulted. Today the United Nations Organization has chosen the zone in which a world district of Columbia will be built. The center is to be housed temporarily in Hunter College.

The UNO has made rapid strides since the days of its formation in San Francisco. The eyes of the world will be constantly focused on this new international center. Here the problems of mankind will be discussed; here world libraries will be built; and from here messages of guidance, hope, and mercy will traverse the air lanes. It would appear that here

educational principles will be elucidated and educational policies will emerge. Over the centuries the spearhead of educational progress has been moving constantly westward and now it points directly to this limited American acreage out of which the peoples of the world expect so much good to come. This UNO plan marks the beginning of a new educational era. In New York City recently Dr. Stoyan Gavrilovic, chairman of the UNO site committee, met with a group of administrators and children of the public schools. He has commented as follows:

One of the finest experiences I have had during my stay in this country as chairman of the United Nations committee on the site was my reception by the Board of Education of the City of New York on Friday, January 25. At that meeting I was presented with a scroll on behalf of nearly one million children in the school system of the City of New York containing a pledge that these children will use their efforts to the fulfilment of the purposes of the United Nations Organization.

The presentation was made beautifully by a young schoolgirl. I was deeply impressed, particularly as we are building the United Nations Organization not for one, but for many generations. The authors of the Charter of the United Nations did not only think of our generation, which has suffered so much from the ravages of war, but of the future generations which we should save from new recurrences of such human tragedy. The cooperation of the coming generations is, therefore, vital in this task, and I was so happy to see that all these numerous children in the New York area are fully alive to the possibilities which youth has to build friendship and unity throughout the world.

I feel sure that the same feeling exists in the hearts of children everywhere. There is no doubt in my mind that millions of children living in areas which have been devastated by war will gladly pledge themselves to world friendship and work for the same ideals.

In the era now beginning, the first and constant emphasis of education should be upon the success of this unified world peace program. As H. G. Wells has indicated, civilization is a race between education and catastrophe. During the dark months of World War II, it appeared frequently that the race was being lost. In the hopeful days that lie ahead, education in the fundamentals of human relationships and behavior must be so advanced and so supported that never again will peoples shiver and wither under the hideous fears that come out of war's holocaust.

Let's bear in mind that in the newly conceived world framework, education will be represented in its own rights by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, or, alphabetically, UNESCO. Thus is assured a world educational mecca toward which all eyes must be turned and to which all of us must make frequent pilgrimage to become steeped in true world understandings and to learn to teach with appreciation of world problems.

That UNO's center is to be located in our country is no matter of chance. It is a tribute to our sense of fairness, freedom, and justice. Assurance of success and support determined location, as well as the assumption of willingness to accept the attendant responsibilities. Only through better schools can America meet this obligation. The impressions we have made on the mind of the world must become realities. The hopes we have be-

stirred the world over must bear better fruit in our own land. Every American must be given his right to learn under well-trained teachers, with modern media of learning and in school buildings equipped to render the most complete service. UNO's success in America is closely associated with the educational power created in our people to support the peace programs with understanding, good judgment, and the faculty of making fair decisions.

The frightful plight of children the world over cannot be exaggerated. In country after country, allied as well as enemy, every shred of hope has vanished for millions. They have no homes. Many have no parents. Food, clothing, and medicine are lacking. Schoolhouses are in ruins. Many have not even a pencil or a sheet of paper. Teachers, like the children, are physically and emotionally undermined. As a result, all commonly accepted codes of human conduct are supplanted by the hard, cold code of the struggle for mere existence. American schools, untouched by bombs and shells, cannot ignore such world conditions. Better schools in America alone will give no promise of world peace. The children of other nations must be assured the opportunities for decent living and learning, so that hope may be restored and normal human activities may be assured under governments that respect the sanctity of the individual. Better schools in America can build a stronger, a more resourceful nation but to what end if hordes of children and youth in war-torn countries are again misdirected in ideologies and purposes. Many years will pass before every child in Poland and Greece, France and Yugoslavia, in Italy and Germany will have a teacher, emotionally free and equipped to teach, without fear and restrictions, on the basis of a curriculum in the formation of which, truth, fairness, freedom, and individual needs have played important roles. Certainly the handicaps toward achieving that end in American schools are trivial compared to those in many other countries. Our schools will be improved to the extent that such handicaps are removed in our own land, but we as a teaching profession must aid constructively the teachers of other lands. Perhaps it is not beyond the realm of possibility for each community in America to select a similar community of like size and nature, in the Philippines, in China, in Greece or Poland, even in Japan or elsewhere, with the purpose of exchanging ideas, giving assistance, and creating understanding. The mutual gains would result in better schools, here as well as there. The task is colossal. But it appears absolutely necessary for world rehabilitation. America is no longer a smug provincial nation but a world power with all its attendant responsibilities.

It is a striking phenomenon of our civilization that even as war is destroying the priceless legacies of centuries of scholarly and artistic endeavors, man rises to new heights of achievement. This axiom needs no further proof as far as World War II is concerned. The impact upon education of startling achievements is always difficult to predict. Analysis of our own living by each one of us would result in acknowledgment that somehow or other the bases for our thinking, our planning, our teaching are changing rapidly. Changes in communication, in transportation, in so-

cial values, in personal and civic responsibility, and in professional obligations are closely interlocked. A jet-propelled plane, traveling in 4 hours, 13 minutes, from coast to coast raises havoc with our sense of time. A radar impulse, moving the 235,000 miles to the moon and back in 2.4 seconds, stimulates new thinking about the universe. In this new era human progress seems unlimited. Atomic energy is promised for innumerable applications to the peaceful pursuits of man. Research in medical science has uncovered cures and corrections where none existed before. Electric current has become more than human in its applications. New materials are being made out of the production discards of yesterday and man moves feverishly ahead in other areas to improve on the food, housing, and clothing of the world. International trade will take on new dimensions and the luxuries of one nation will become the everyday necessities of others. Out of the Nuremberg and similar war trials, a new international justice is being molded and a nation's obligations to fellow nations are being given definition as never before in history. Out of labor-management conflicts of today, new industrial forces are emerging in our own land. Advanced codes of social welfare are being accepted and the intangible concepts under which mankind lives are being clarified to the end that the masses may profit from their intelligent interpretation. In all aspects of living the impact is felt of the more widespread application of scientific research, the extension of the fields of communication, and the explorations into the confusing areas of human relations. The years directly ahead of us hold great promise of finer living for oncoming generations. The amount of such growth and desirable change depends, in a large measure, upon the opportunities provided in education, the modification of education in meeting new needs, and the knowledge, skill, and application of the teaching profession in promoting a program equal to the demands of the new era. Our great reservoirs of unselfishness, professional devotion, and consecration to freedom must be fully drawn upon to this end.

Never before has this country witnessed a great popular upsurge in educational demands like that sweeping this country. The universities and colleges are turning away thousands. Adult education programs are coming into their own. Nursery schools are in many places acknowledged as essential parts of our school systems. Grange and labor unions, industrial plants, and commercial centers are multiplying their educational offerings. Junior colleges and technical institutes are increasing in numbers. Education is moving ahead on all fronts. In this forward movement success is assured to the extent that the needs and capacities of the individual are intelligently and constructively met. Better schools will result as the teacher molds and modifies self to serve the individual whether in kindergarten, high school, or university.

Current criticisms of education stress the failure to build strong character into our young, the lack of world understanding, the proclivity toward juvenile delinquency, the general education and broad cultural needs of a large proportion of our students, essential preparedness for a livelihood, the continuity that education must have for successful living, and the re-

quirement that a society select its highly intelligent and provide assurance for their education in the areas of their special abilities. These and many other criticisms the educator does not desire to turn aside lightly. He is fully aware that education must be a dynamic force ever-changing to meet new conditions and to adjust to new problems as they rise. The task immediately confronting every American community is the analysis of its present educational offerings in the light of the stirring challenges now being made to American leadership in this world. Educators in their respective communities must assume active responsibility for making their communities—large and small—intellectual strongholds in which the potentiality of every individual is encouraged to ripen into constructive accomplishment.

The strength of American education is the sum total of the values to be found in the many communities. A nation grows as its individuals and its communities grow. Isolation of school from community has no place in modern education. The community's advancement is related directly to the worthwhileness of the school's program. To get the greatest return from the local education program, a number of questions should be raised. Is the program a traditionally standardized one or has it actually been adapted to the needs of the community served? Does the program offer wide opportunity for all, adults and children alike? Do the offerings result in every individual's reaching his highest potential in all areas of citizenship? Does entrenched privilege, in any form, control curriculum, teachers, teaching method, or the financing program? Let educators and other community leaders gather about a roundtable and democratically answer these questions. Out of such discussion will come better schools, for such are the devotion and ambition of the American people.

Such community leaders might find it advantageous to prepare the outline of what the new community educational program should be like. No doubt they would include many of the following objectives: the development of superior intercultural understanding; opportunity for learning about the music, art, and literature of all peoples; creating understanding about the foods, the clothing, and the houses of the world; giving ready and constant information on the advancements in science and medicine; giving access to books and motion pictures on sociological, economic, and political world developments; instruction and display in the field of geopolitics; the development of new vocations and guidance therein; a program of consumer education; the problems of labor and management; informative conferences on the current local community problems. Another group of topics that would meet local needs would include: parent education, home planning and building, vocational rehabilitation, the cooking and sewing arts, training in making household repairs, opportunities for participation in the musical and dramatic arts, and other particularized courses to meet common everyday needs of citizens. Discussion groups for keeping informed on the national government, the United Nations Organization, current literature and music and recreational offerings of many kinds would also be listed. A community school providing extensive opportunities like

these for adults and corresponding offerings for neglected out-of-school youth as well as regular school attendants would be making citizens skilled to carry on the problems of citizenship and the family and also competent to render service and to voice opinions in the larger realm of world relations. Building facilities planned to meet these needs would represent considerable variations from traditional conventionalities with their auditoriums, gymnasiums, and library stereotypes. The school building should permit and encourage the accomplishment of what society needs today for the preparation of thinking, alert, adjusted, skilled, well-rounded, and emotionally stable citizens. The desirable redefinition of our traditional concepts of what constitutes a school is taking form. Extracurriculum successes are being merged with the curriculum; health and nutrition programs are moving toward their desired goals; guidance, based on adequate psychological, sociological, and psychiatric knowledge has had wide recognition as one of the most significant of school functions; and work-experience is being integrated with the classroom studies. Better schools are in the making due to the pioneering, exploratory attitudes of teachers and administrators in all levels and facets of the educational service.

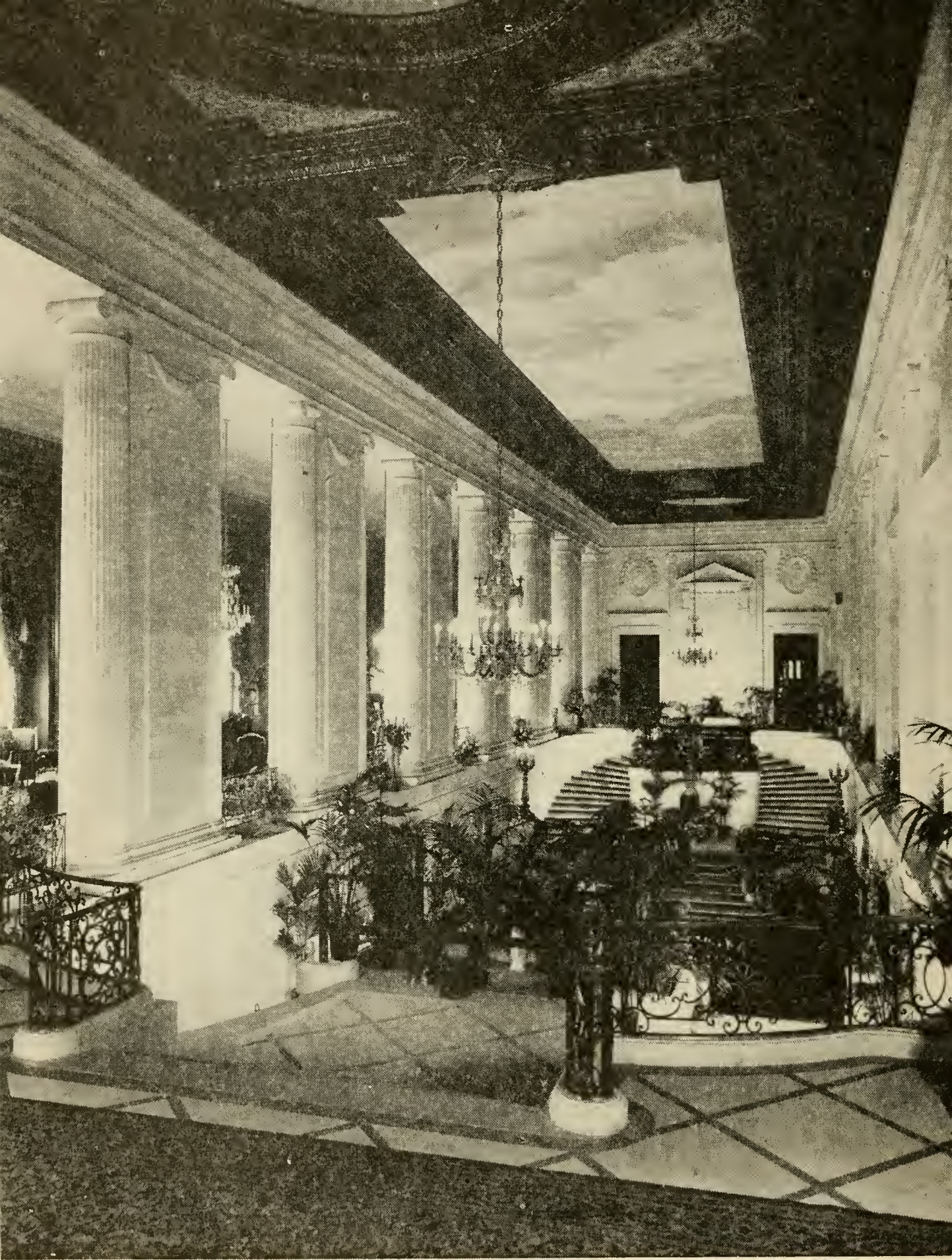
In the struggle against American provincialism, much remains to be done. The pronouncements of our leaders on freedom, justice, and economic opportunity for others have not been accepted as idle words the world over. A maximum share in world leadership has become our responsibility. To make that leadership real, our nation must make possible a more extensive and intensive educational program for all, the most competent as well as the less privileged. Public opinion and public decision in our country must rest upon sound, well-diversified, and thoroughly substantiated educational backgrounds. This applies equally well to every geographic section, to every race, and to all economic levels. The wide variations in educational opportunity in this country constitute a national disgrace. The world obligations which our nation has assumed certainly require the educational strengthening of the long neglected, low economic areas of our own country. This can only be brought about through federal aid to public education. The need has long existed and further postponement of such provisions will not be for the best interests of our nation.

Better schools in America will only result as more adequate salaries are paid to educational workers. Teaching positions paying less than a living wage, as happens altogether too often in our nation, will not entice those who can carry the responsibility for tomorrow's program. Teachers are not missionaries nor should they be treated as such. They are entitled to family life, to a good home, to opportunity for further professional training, and to freedom from unnecessary economic strain. The teaching profession should attract the best of our young men and women on the basis of offering them adequate rewards for high professional service. The leading nation in the world must provide every means for improving the status of its teaching profession. Exploitation of the partially trained, niggardly programs of pay deductions for absence when ill, attempted dictation of the teacher's social life constitute not only a disservice to the teachers but

to the cause of education as a whole. In this winter of labor's discontent, let communities give new and constructive consideration to the problems of teacher status. As is the teacher, so will be the school. A discontented teacher will find it difficult to provide the leadership America's better schools require.

America has many excellent school programs, fine, well-equipped teachers, splendid buildings, and stimulating ambitious student bodies. That American education has served our nation well is proved conclusively from the glorious record of our youth moving directly from school into war ranks. No one doubts, however, that American schools can do a better job than ever before. They must provide safe and sanitary housing for all. They must encourage curriculum expansion. They must extend the school program to meet the needs of all youth. They must provide as satisfactory equipment to the schools as was provided to meet the educational needs of the armed services. They must encourage the most capable of their sons and daughters to enter this national service. They must provide the funds so teachers may live comfortably and advance reasonably. Better schools in America will mean that no area and no youth are neglected. Such schools will help tremendously to assure continuity of world leadership for our nation. They will aid materially in making the better world which mankind seeks.

This desired achievement requires courage, taxes and skill, and must draw upon the inventiveness and imagination of us administrators. Each of us should take from these meetings a disturbing discontent with our past accomplishments. For better schools we are required to raise our sights, to draw upon our latent powers, to remold our professional thinking, and to instil a new force into our educational programs. The school system that stands still during the next twelve months will have failed the nation. The administrator, unable to conceive and redefine his new responsibilities, can count himself a straggler in the forward march. America needs today valiant souls and intelligent minds, unafraid and undaunted. You, members of the American Association of School Administrators, constitute the leadership upon which the destinies of many peoples rest. What will you do with your new stewardship? Medals and ribbons will not be yours but may you enjoy the satisfactions that come from a service which you know is well done.



*Grand Stairway of the Stevens Hotel leading
to the meeting hall of the Chicago conference*

EDUCATION AND BUSINESS

ERIC A. JOHNSTON, PRESIDENT, CHAMBER OF COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Address at Chicago Conference

This is a moment I thought I had been waiting for ever since I was nine years old. Finally, I thought, I'm going to get a chance to tell a lot of teachers what I think of them. At about the age of nine that was my life's ambition. There was a slight difference of opinion between me and one of my teachers. We compromised, of course. That is to say, she had her way. She had her way, but I said to myself: "Just wait. Someday when I'm grown up, I'm going to tell teachers what I think of them." I would have added "and but good," except that the phrase had not then been invented.

So now I'm grown up, and now I'm here, and for the life of me I can't remember what it was I was going to scold about. All I can remember are the nice things teachers did for me. I'm willing to bet it's that way with most of us.

A very wise man once said that because God couldn't be everywhere, he created mothers, and I'd like to tack an amendment to that thought. I'd like to say that because mothers and fathers can't do everything that's why we have teachers. There are thousands of us who can honestly proclaim that what we are or what we hope to be we owe to our teachers as well as our parents.

Owe our teachers? The debt of America to the profession of education is astronomical. But for a number of years, it seems to me, we didn't even acknowledge that debt, much less make any effort to pay it.

I think times have changed. I truly believe that there is more interest being shown in education by laymen today than ever before. We in business sense that. Business is learning and learning fast that education is good investment.

We're learning that good education is good business. Ideally, I suppose, we should be interested in good education without regard to its value as an investment and without regard to the returns we get from it. But that isn't the American way. We Americans play everything to win. The secret of our success is our innate urge to approach everything from the practical standpoint. It's a good way, because it seems to create an ideology of idealism as it goes along.

As a matter of fact, there's no truth in the old story that the best poetry is written by starving men in chilly garrets. On the contrary, the best poetry seems to have been produced by men in reasonably comfortable circumstances who had a strong streak of practicality in them to match their flights of fancy.

Our Committee on Education in the Chamber of Commerce of the United States is composed of practical businessmen, you may be sure. The chairman is Mr. Thomas C. Boushall, a banker from Richmond, Virginia. I think I am thoroughly justified in saying that Mr. Boushall and his col-

leagues on his committee have made a tremendous contribution to education in the last few years.

In 1944 the Committee began to feel that business and education had grown too far apart. It felt that this was a bad state of affairs because both are integral parts of our economic structure. They need each other. Business needs trained workers which only education can supply, and education must have operating funds which business can provide. It seemed imperative to the committee that a better understanding was definitely demanded.

The Committee launched a study to see if there was any positive relationship between the economic status of people and the educational level. What it found out was highly interesting, highly informative, and highly useful. It compared a number of countries throughout the world and it found that high income and high standards of living inevitably accompanied high levels of education and technical skill.

It discovered that even in countries which are short on natural resources but abundant with good education that the living standards were high.

And the same pattern held true in a comparative study among states and cities in the United States.

Wherever higher incomes prevailed, they were inevitably hand in hand with high levels of education. People in areas which are strong educationally paid higher rents; they made more per capita retail purchases; they subscribed to more magazines; they had more telephones. And fewer men were rejected by the Selective Service. They were healthier.

The net result of all that is this: Education can contribute hugely to our expanding economy by increasing the productive capacities of people so they can earn higher wages. An ever-expanding economy is what we've got to have if we expect high levels of employment, reasonable prices, and general prosperity. This means more consumers, and more consumers consuming more things. The only way to get more consumers and to have more consumers consuming more things is to train them into those wants and to educate them to earn enough money to fulfil those wants.

We have only to look at our own figures to see that our economy can be greatly expanded. If we lift incomes and increase wants, the economy is bound to expand, and education is the answer to the question of how to lift incomes and increase wants. The greatest natural resource of any nation is the capacity of its people to be educated.

In our study of educational levels in foreign countries we found some amazing contrasts. Denmark, for instance, is practically devoid of natural resources. But Denmark, from a per capita standpoint, is actually better off than the United States, rich as we are in natural resources. Switzerland has no oil, no coal, no minerals, no productive forests, and little tillable land. What land it has is mostly up and down. But the Swiss have an economic status which matches our own. Both Denmark and Switzerland have high levels of education.

Then we turned to some countries overflowing with natural resources. Colombia in South America, for example, teems with rich forests, rich

mines, rich soil. It has nature's own power lines in the form of waterfalls. But rich Colombia is poor—pathetically poor in per capita wealth and individual income—and Colombia's education level is very, very low.

Wherever the Committee cast its lines for facts, it found the same story, the story of high living standards hand in hand with high education levels. And, always the reverse of it too—low standards of living, low education level.

Naturally, the Committee did not make its comparisons between nations with any thought of pointing scornfully to those with low standards. It merely wanted facts and it got them. It wanted the facts to check its findings in this country. Its essential interest was this: What can we do here in *our* country to lift the standard of living in those sections where it is now much lower than it ought to be?

What would it mean to us to have a fully developed economy at home? That is our fundamental economic interest. We want and expect to seek foreign trade, of course. I think we will have a greatly expanded foreign trade in the next few years. It will be profitable to us and profitable to those with whom we trade. But expand foreign trade as we will, it is still the frosting on the cake. The solid slices with the real nourishment for the ever-hungry economic machine are found right here at home.

We talk a lot about the things we have. We like to recite the fascinating figures of how many telephones we have, how many cars we have, how many iceboxes, and how many bathtubs. And that's well and good. But we don't always talk so gayly about the thousands of Americans who don't have telephones or refrigerators or radios or even enough to wear and an adequate diet.

I am inclined to think that most Americans who don't have those things really want them. They know about them. That would not be true in some countries with low incomes per capita. There are hundreds of thousands of people in this world who never heard of a refrigerator, much less have ever seen one. We here, on the other hand, can be pretty sure we can look toward expanding our economy in a setting of people who want advantages and conveniences and know what they want.

Mass advertising on the radio reaches even those who don't own radios but who hear them in corner stores and at neighbors' homes. Mass radio advertising and mass billboard advertising, plus mass magazine advertising abundant with pictures, reaches those who can't even read, telling its story in word and sketch and photograph. We will anticipate little trouble drumming up wants.

One want leads naturally to another. Look at the icebox. It was mother's pride and joy for many years. The idea of having somebody deliver ice every day looked like a small piece of heaven to her. She practically purred because the butter didn't melt and leftovers didn't spoil. Then came the mechanical refrigerator. Refrigerators didn't need a ration of ice. There was no messy pan of water to empty and no iceman to clean up after.

But behold the refrigerator. It is almost incomplete these days without a deep freeze unit so we can keep frozen foods. What's the next step in

the refrigeration line? Whole meals conveniently frozen solid, ready to be thawed out and served at once.

Now that we're in an ice mood we might touch on air cooling and air conditioning, too. True enough, it is probably odd to think in terms of air cooling when there are too many homes without adequate heating facilities, but more and more people are wanting air conditioning units. The time will come when a home without air conditioning facilities will be regarded as quaint as one where the only heat comes from a fireplace.

All of which means what? Only this: The capacity of our own people to consume hasn't even been halfway fathomed. The power of the people to consume, however, is limited, and we can check its limitations from year to year. The power of consumption is limited to the current income from personal effort or from invested funds.

If we want to increase the power of the people to consume, we must increase the income. The question is how? How in the world can we increase incomes when every now and then somebody invents a machine which does the work of a hundred men? How can we have a constantly expanding economy if we have recurring sieges of unemployment? Haven't we become slaves to the machine and made the machines our masters?

Look at the American farmer. He's a case in point, some people will say. During the war our farmers greatly increased their production and did it with far less help than they had before the war.

That is all very true, and farming isn't going back to methods outmoded by a more extensive use of machinery. That means farming can't absorb more and more workers.

Is this something to be frightened about? It is not. It just sounds that way. It sounds a little frightening to recall that a man with a bulldozer can move more earth in one hour than twenty men can move by hand in one day. What becomes of those other nineteen men?

Industry—our economy—absorbs them, and the strange law of economy finds more men working at vastly increased rates of pay and for shorter hours where there are more bulldozers than there are picks and shovels. The housemaid in a well-equipped home, the farm laborer on a mechanized farm, the very street sweeper, indeed, earn more today than their harder working predecessors of yesterday.

But to get along in this age of ever-increasing complex machinery, our workers must be trained to handle it, educated to handle the machines and themselves. We are by no means up to where we ought to be, but the educational level of our people has risen tremendously since 1900, and so has our income. In 1900 our total earnings were sixteen billion dollars. In 1930 it was eighty billion—five times as much, but our population had increased only 30 percent. And in 1945 the national income was one hundred and eighty billion—twice that of 1930. All along we have been developing new machinery, but as we developed new machinery, we have developed new skills, a better trained population—a better educated one.

The two factors go together like an ax head and an ax handle. Neither one is much good without the other.

I have talked a lot about technical skills—so much, perhaps that you may suspect I want a nation of mechanics with no other interest except running some noisy machine. But that isn't so. Businessmen though we may be, we are not overlooking the cultural side of education. Again, it's because the cultural side is good business too. Suppose we could teach a given number of workers how to earn more money than they ever earned before, but in the process we failed to teach them the desire to want anything but the creature comforts? It's cultural education which fosters the desire for more travel, for more books, for more theater-going, for more music, for better churches, for more artistic homes. And the production of all these things is highly important in our economy—just as much so as the production of gadgets in some factory.

It seems important to me that the process of raising technical skills and cultural appetites must be brought to the whole people and not reserved for a chosen few.

Even among our so-called liberal thinkers of a few generations back, there was a concept that only the prospective leaders of the people should be educated. The broad mass was to remain ignorant and expected to be blissfully happy in their ignorance. This was supposed to be a good economic argument too. Out of the broad and unenlightened mass, the leaders found cheap labor.

But how thin that argument looks today. Today's businessman knows that the worker—the producer—is also a customer. The shoe factory owner in this day and age who doesn't reflect on the fact that his own workers buy the very product they make and are his customers as well as his employees ought to go back to making moccasins. If all labor were cheap, who would do the buying?

But you can throw all of this right back at me, I know.

You can point to a long and dreary list of places right here in America where the amount spent on education is absolutely pathetic. You can point to underpaid teachers, to schools which are nothing but shacks. You can point to communities which seem absolutely satisfied to keep their educational levels down to a standard appropriate perhaps to two hundred years ago.

How are we going to arouse the whole people of today that education is the best investment for a prosperous tomorrow?

We aren't going to do it by passing a string of laws. Laws never accomplish that which the will of many people is against. We can't choke education down craws which have no appetite for it. Compulsion never accomplished anything in this country or anywhere else—particularly here.

The way to improve the educational level in this country is by education. That's your job and it's my job. It's a job of salesmanship. Over and over and over, we have got to tell the story that a high level of education means a high standard of living. Over and over and over, we must teach that prosperity and an informed, intelligent citizenry go hand in hand. Seven times seven times we must teach that education is good investment.

Does this sound like an impossibly idealistic program? I don't think so.

We start with this fact: Everyone—even if the interest is casual—has an interest in schools. The man without children remembers his own school days. The man with children lives them over again—frequently twice if he lives to have grandchildren. If he takes no other interest in education except to compare the modern trend unfavorably against the way it was in his childhood, at least he has an interest. He's ripe for a good argument and he'd probably enjoy one. Make a convert out of any critic and you have created the strongest colleague you could have.

But let's be specific. Let's approach this process of educating the country on the value of education with all the scientific viewpoint of the public relations man. That's what it is—a job of public relations which in its turn is salesmanship.

We need to put a little more "oomph" in education. It is a field packed with the dramatic and glamour too, if you like the word.

I hope, for one thing, that you and all other educational groups will invite more and more businessmen, professional men, farmers, labor leaders, and housewives to attend your gatherings. Let them criticize if they want to. They'll like you if you do that. It's the first step toward understanding.

Let's see if we can get some fiction writers interested in wrapping some words about plots laid in schools with the characters teachers and school administrators. Let's play along with the men and women who write magazine articles, remembering always that these people, like the novelists, have got to have a story. That means meeting their prying questions with honest answers, refusing to take offense at their occasional jabs and jibes. That means laying the facts right out on the table and holding back nothing.

And let's keep our story simple. Let's tell it in language people understand. I don't know that there is, but if there is any gobble-de-gook in the trade of education, get rid of it. Let's take a little lesson from the comic strips. They count their readers in the umpty millions. A catch phrase created today by Milton Caniff in "Terry and the Pirates" or another by Fred Lasswell in "Snuffy Smith" and "Barney Google" is tomorrow's pet expression. Meanwhile, the allegedly erudite journals count their readers in small numbers.

Let's not kid ourselves that we can sell the value of a high level of education without getting down to the level of the man in the street. This takes level thinking. Look at the Community Chest movement. For its charitable and social welfare purposes, it takes in many times over what individual agencies used to get by individual solicitation. Somebody with a good sense of human nature sold the idea that people would be more apt to contribute if they were bothered only once by a solicitor who represented all agencies instead of by fifteen. And it worked.

And I think you can count on the motion-picture industry to do its part. I am rather new in that business but I have been impressed at the tremendous strides in the field of the so-called "educational film." Naturally one thinks first of all about motion pictures in terms of entertainment. But the motion picture is also a vehicle of communication through which education is inevitably imparted. I think there will be more and more of

this as we go along. The value of the motion picture to education ought to be magnificent. Alone among all the mediums, it has the power to reenact and recreate events which otherwise cannot be recaptured. Here, for example, is the story of the French Revolution. In film, you hear it; you see it. There is the story of the Custer Massacre. You see the Sioux as clearly as the ill-fated Mark Kellogg saw them; you hear the rattle of musketry, the triumphant shouts of the attacking Indians; and at last you see Comanche, the surviving horse, plunging riderless across the prairies, carrying with him only a story he couldn't tell.

I am not here to sell you the motion-picture industry. I mention it only as an example of the dramatic appeal which must be combined with a practical approach in the solution of this riddle of how to sell education.

To my mind, there is a great story in education—a succession of stories. I think education is dramatic. It has everything in it to make it so: struggle, pathos, triumph, competition, good humor, and interesting people. Just as business needs more customers, education needs more enthusiasts. For my part, I'll buy it, and what's more I'll bet we can sell the story.

THE CONVENTION EXHIBIT

JOHN J. KRILL, PRESIDENT, ASSOCIATED EXHIBITORS OF THE NATIONAL
EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

Address at New York and Chicago Conferences

In this momentous period of reconversion, the attention of the entire nation is focused on the school. For America now recognizes, more than ever before, the vital role of education in the social, economic, and industrial life of our nation.

The Associated Exhibitors with you and all of America are profoundly grateful for the blessings of peace. We are grateful that we can again meet and work with you according to our God-given American way of life. We appreciate your great responsibility in the educational program, the enormity of your task, and the many difficult situations now involved in the peacetime program of school operations. We welcome the privilege and the opportunity of collaborating with you in your great work of directing the country's most important business by way of providing the material, equipment, and supply requirements of education.

During the war school administrators and the instructional forces met every wartime demand placed upon the schools and school facilities. In this the educators have the gratitude of the nation for the magnificent contribution made to a common cause.

The war-training program involving the preparation of twelve million adults and youth for new war jobs established a close working relationship between schools and industry. The contribution of our schools to the armed services, in trained personnel and through facilities for specialized training and service, is the world's most noteworthy educational achievement. Recog-

nized early as an indispensable war instrument, our schools provided a greater variety of services than in any previous period in American history.

And now as the peacetime program is getting under way, as a result of the services and accomplishments of our schools, the whole country is turning with favor to education as the most certain means of establishing and maintaining a sound national economy and a permanent peace.

Just recently the Chamber of Commerce of the United States and the National Association of Manufacturers expressed the dependence of business and industry on education in resolutions calling for the betterment of our school systems and for adequate support so that this could be accomplished.

This dependence and responsibility of education establishes our schools as vast public service centers integrated with our social, economic, and business life, and operated to develop the full utilization of this nation's vital, factual, and material wealth.

The impact of World War II on our country clearly outlines the essential educational services the postwar school will be called upon to provide in order to meet the country's needs and demands.

Your professional efforts as school administrators are dedicated to the successful accomplishment of this vitally important service to America. You are here in convention assembled to formulate a workable plan of action for the peacetime program of school operations. You will not miss the responsibility and the great opportunity all of this imposes upon your professional leadership.

You are invited to visit the exhibits. Spend as much time as you can with the exhibitors. There are over 150 exhibits staffed by people experienced in servicing the interests of the schools. Secure the benefit of the facilities and experience so conveniently available to assist you in solving your product and service problems. Many new and improved products are on display. You should see without fail all that is now available and inform yourselves of what is in the making in schoolhousing facilities, educational equipment and supplies, textbooks and related text material; in fact, in all the essential tools of education required in this new era of school operations.

Again, may I express the greetings and good wishes of the Associated Exhibitors and our sincere appreciation for the opportunity of serving the educational interests of our country under your professional leadership.

PERSONNEL PROBLEMS IN AMERICAN EDUCATION

EDGAR G. DOUDNA, SECRETARY, STATE BOARD OF REGENTS OF
NORMAL SCHOOLS, MADISON, WISCONSIN

Address at Kansas City Conference

This topic is inclusive enough for a book, or perhaps a library. For the record I want to say that it was not my choice of subjects, but one that I accepted as an assignment which might be limited to thirty minutes. We have many precedents for a sweeping and comprehensive treatment of education. The title of one of the first books on pedagogy to be published in America got us off to a good start. In 1808 Joseph Neff, an immigrant disciple of Pestalozzi, published in Philadelphia the theories of that reformer in a book with the uninhibited title, *Sketch of a Plan and Method of Education Founded on an Analysis of the Human Faculties and Natural Reason, Suited for the Offspring of a Free People and for All Rational Human Beings*.

Setting up a problem or problems is the usual method of attacking an educational subject, but problems frighten me. I have an impulse to run away from them, rather than rush in to conquer while spouting, "I am the master of my fate; I am the captain of my soul." I compensate in other ways. This feeling of inadequacy is probably a Freudian complex derived from my youthful struggles with the problems of Robinson's *Progressive Practical Arithmetic*. I can still get a nightmare from the problem of measuring a post which stood $4\frac{7}{8}$ feet in the mud, $3\frac{2}{3}$ feet in the water, and $6\frac{1}{2}$ feet in the air. Why anyone but an idiot wouldn't have measured the post before setting it, or why he needed to know about its length, was my real problem. I perspired over the poor fish that couldn't tell how much of himself was head, body, and tail and which the inquiring Mr. Robinson requested us to allocate, divide, measure, and total. Rooms had to be plastered, papered, painted, and carpeted—the author must have foreseen the housing shortage. There were fearful and wonderful problems involving complicated fractions, decimals, percents, ratios, and proportions, to say nothing of the horrors of square and cube root. No wonder spiritless and uninterested children considered themselves mathematical morons. Those problems were juvenile tragedies, inventions of the devil for the torture of the arithmetically blind.

Another reason for my aversion to problems is the problem method, one of those educational patent medicines promoted at conventions, institutes, and summer schools, and guaranteed to correct all of the failures resulting from outmoded and traditional procedures. Teachers took this one to school, reorganized their lesson plans, and gave the kids the works. When the craze was at its height I saw an attractive little travel book on a teacher's desk. Picking it up to see what the children were reading about Europe I found it had been adapted to the problem method. The first sentence was a question. "How would you like to go to Paris with Miss Agnes?" How could I tell; I'd never seen Agnes, and anyway I was married. Now there was a problem!

Children accept this sort of thing as adult hypocrisy and slide over the pedagogical jargon to read about Paris. The method has its points, but it's not the answer to a teacher's prayer.

At this point I had better state my problem more explicitly. It is really this: What educational problem isn't in the final analysis a personnel problem? Education deals with persons, those individuals who collectively are the people. Their likes and dislikes, their repulsions and attractions, their abilities and their deficiencies so often lead to envy, jealousy, animosity, and conflict. People are not abstractions derived from carefully planned and statistically verifiable data. They are more alike than different, that's true, but even so they are always blowing bubbles and forever making troubles.

One of the uncounted personnel problems is enough so I shall discuss only teaching and teachers—the basis which determines the success or failure of the educational process. Almost everything that can be said on this subject has of course been set down endlessly. Perhaps that's why Emerson a century ago lamented that, "It's ominous that the word education has so cold, so helpless a sound. A treatise on education, a convention on education, affects us with a slight paralysis and a certain yawning of the jaws." All that I can do is to rearrange and shift the emphasis.

When a half century ago educators discarded philosophy and took science as their guide they started an educational revolution. Objectivity and statistical measurements shifted attention from the personal and subjective and everything that did not yield to such study was unorthodox or merely on the borderline of respectability. The extremists, called "measuring-worms," by the unrighteous, asserted with unscientific dogmatism that "Whatever exists, exists in some amount, and whatever exists in some amount can be measured." Ergo! Much of the research which followed was significant and added greatly to the efficiency of the schools. A great deal was glorified busy work and in some areas failed completely.

This movement led to absorption with the quantitative side of school administration which concerned itself with problems of finance, building, administrative organization, and the like. Consideration of fundamental values, of the human side of education, and of the imponderables of personnel adjustment were passed over or treated casually and cavalierly. Such studies were two-dimensional only. Almost never was the quality of teaching recognized in educational books and on convention platforms. Teaching competence was assumed to be directly proportional to work done in achieving or acquiring credits and degrees. Those who held that teaching was an art could not make reports with the kind of impersonal and objective evidence which had become almost sacrosanct; they did not get a hearing. To get on, to be a real educator, one must do research, no matter how shoddy; write, no matter how obscurely; i.e., produce something physically tangible that could be measured, counted, and charted even to the neglect of "the weightier matters of the law."

Now happily a counterrevolution seems in the making. Values are again being considered, persons are again central, and the statistical man, the economic man, even the mysterious common man, and other generalized abstrac-

tions are less talked about. Teaching may possibly become almost as respectable as research, publication, and administration. Again Emerson—"Happy is the natural college built around every natural teacher." There is an implication here that great teachers are born, not made; and of course to a degree it is true. But with a proper recognition given to teaching as an art, a fine art, many potentially great teachers could be drawn to the schools instead of taking their talents into other fields or using teaching as a steppingstone to something lower. Schools and colleges will never do what they should until teaching draws into its ranks more men and women who can light the lamps of learning and kindle in young people a zeal to live, at least part time, in the kingdom of the mind.

Teaching is at its best a fine art, but like acting, dancing, and singing, it is an impermanent art. Great teaching makes impressions that are vivid, deep, lasting. The activity is transient, the effects permanent. In great teaching there is activity on the part of both teacher and learner, and the result is more than entertainment. The actor, dancer, and singer perform *for* an audience, the teacher works *with* a class and with individuals in a class. This difference emphasizes the difficulty and the challenge of teaching as an art which incites members of a class to individual activity directed toward achievable and rewarding goals. There are thousands of individual goals as well as the collective objectives variously called general education, citizenship, and the like. These may be fused, organized, and integrated into an infinity of combinations transforming the learned from what he is to what he becomes. The process and results are generalized as "education"; the activity which produces it is "teaching," the least publicized but most richly rewarding of the arts.

The personnel problems arising from the desire to raise teaching to the level which we would all like to see are not to be solved overnight by academic appeals or by success formulas. First, and most difficult, is how to attract and hold the kind of teachers necessary to make effective the educational ideals to which we subscribe. In fact, if we could surmount this hurdle it would be relatively easy to educate and train teachers and much easier to administer a school system and supervise a teaching staff. No matter how platitudinous it may sound the school is what the teacher makes it, or in the older formula, "As is the teacher, so is the school."

In his annual report on enrolment at colleges, as reported in *School and Society* for December 29, 1945, President Walters of the University of Cincinnati shows a loss in public universities of 22.5 percent, in colleges of liberal arts 14 percent, but in teachers colleges 40.8 percent. For all higher institutions the decrease was 21.7 percent. Young people are not turning to teaching. In both number and quality the teacher shortage will become greater. This is an educational tragedy about which the public is not greatly concerned and the profession most apathetic, complacent, and indifferent. The recruiting of the profession is Personnel Problem Number One.

Unless we can change the public attitude, teaching will be what it has too often been, a depression job, a marginal occupation, a confession of

inability to do something to which society awards its honors and emoluments. Teachers will be recruited as Ben Franklin advised, from "the lesser sort." What then is to be done?

You may accept as dogmatic, emotional, rational, or wishful these self-evident propositions. Teachers will have to be paid at least double what we have considered to be adequate salaries. Americans believe that they get what they pay for. The number of pupils per teacher will have to be reduced to a point where a high level of teaching is humanly possible for the majority; a small minority will do, have done, and are doing the impossible. Ways will have to be found to free teacher and pupil alike from the bondage of credits, grades, and a barrage of organizational directives. This demands of teachers an increased personal responsibility, which accepted and carried out is the highest reward of every self-respecting person.

Above all there needs to be an understanding of the hard reality that America will survive only if its basic ideals are understood, taught, and practiced. No need to repeat the Wellsian conflict between education and catastrophe. We all feel that and have faith in our ability to interpret the American ideals.

This day, the birthday of George Washington, is an appropriate time to recall that the men of his era formulated our basic law. Of him we can say, "Verily let it be remembered too that had he not been, the law would have been forgotten in Israel." These fundamental laws the people will learn only through incessant, persistent, and unflagging teaching. "Thou shalt teach them diligently unto thy children and shalt talk of them when thou liest down and when thou risest up."

While Washington was not a college man, he was highly intelligent, well-informed, and a synonym for integrity. He presided over the men who in convention formulated our constitution. Of these men, De Tocqueville wrote in 1835, "This convention contained the choicest talents and noblest hearts that ever assembled in America." They were educated men, for twenty-nine were graduates of colleges and universities—Princeton, Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Pennsylvania, Oxford, Glasgow, and London. The "father of the Constitution," little Jimmie Madison, had studied the classics, history, politics, and theology at Princeton under President John Witherspoon, a great teacher, preacher, and statesman. He was at home in the literature of the world, his knowledge of all experience in democratic government was encyclopedic, and he had "a very handsome wit."

Presiding over this group through the long, hot summer, George Washington, without making a single speech, brought the convention through to a triumphant conclusion. Out of the best knowledge, wisdom, and experience of the past, the Constitution had been distilled by this group of *educated* men. I emphasize *educated* because it is often forgotten that the foundations of our political structure were made by *educated* men adapting their learning to a new situation.

This was true of all our early history. Scholarship was effective everywhere; scholars were respected, they accepted leadership without academic smugness or scholastic isolationism. The explorers, leaders in settlement,

and ministers were all educated. Education is woven into the economic, political, cultural, and religious pattern of the American Dream. "The Americans," said St. John Crèvecoeur, "are the western pilgrims who are carrying along with them that great mass of arts, sciences, vigour, and industry which began long since in the East."

Who then is to be the carrier of this educational heritage? Who but the teacher? A story in the Hebrew tradition says, "Several learned men were once sent from Jerusalem to establish schools and promote instruction wherever needed. They came to a town where they found no traces of tuition whatever. Indignantly they summoned the citizens and asked them to bring before them the guardians of the town. But only magistrates and politicians made their appearance. 'These are not the protectors of the town, they are the destroyers,' they exclaimed. 'Who then?' inquired the citizens with astonishment. 'The teachers,' was the laconic reply." The story does not tell us whether they found the teachers or whether the people accepted their verdict, but it illustrates the belief of Ancient Jewry that the teacher had the greatest responsibility, the highest social standing, and that he was looked up to, almost with awe. The highest name that the greatest of them took was "The Great Teacher."

With a mission like this ahead shouldn't we too believe that with the possible exception of the ministry, teaching is the highest of callings? If Americans really understood and consciously accepted that they will be just as good as their schools, we should have an upsurge of faith which would make the nation and the world safer than all of the armies that could be recruited. That's the social goal of education and the inspiration of great teaching.

There is another and more obvious reason for affirming our faith in great teachers—the personal influence for good which a teacher exerts through her personality. Here is a homely illustration. When Big Tom Sullivan was leader of Tammany and a member of the New York State Senate he cast the only democratic vote for giving women the ballot. His reason was his affection for a teacher who believed in women's suffrage. This is his story:

"It was way back in 1873 and a boy named Sullivan was going to the Elm Street School, and there was a Miss Murphy who was a teacher. This boy had an old pair of shoes, and one day she asked the boy to stay after school. He thought some other boy had done something and put it up to him and he was goin' to stand for it. So he said, 'Miss Murphy, if I've done anything let me know because I want to get away and sell papers,' and she told the boy he hadn't done nothing, and gave him an order. That order was to Timothy Brennamen, brother of a big Tammany leader, and he gave me an order for a pair of shoes. I needed them shoes and I thought if I ever got any money I would give shoes to them that needed 'em and I'm goin' to buy shoes for people just as long as I live."

As an illustration from a totally different man, we find this in Thomas Jefferson's autobiography. "It was my good fortune, and that probably fixed the destinies of my life, that Dr. William Small of Scotland was

then professor of mathematics, a man proficient in most of the useful branches of science, with a happy talent of communication, correct and gentlemanly manners, and an enlarged and liberal mind."

But I think the finest tribute ever paid to a teacher was that of Stephen Vincent Benet to William Lyon Phelps. Benet wrote a review of the autobiography of Phelps for the "Books" supplement of the *New York Herald Tribune*. In it he says:

"In my mind, teaching is not merely a life-work, a profession, an occupation, a struggle: it is a passion. I love to teach. I love to teach as a painter loves to paint, as a musician loves to play, as a singer loves to sing, as a strong man rejoices to run a race." Well, there is the recipe, young candidates for Ph.D.'s. That is what you have to have first—and the most scholarly thesis on the minor works of Hannah More or the rhyme-endings in Wordsworth's Ecclesiastical Sonnets won't do it for you.

The art of the great teacher is, in one sense, as impermanent as that of the actor—it cannot be reduced to print, not even by Billy Phelps. But it leaves an impress on the minds of those who have known it. The popular Phelps course, in my day, was "Tennyson and Browning." But it might have been "Meredith and Hardy" or "Beowulf and Galsworthy"—the classrooms would have been just as crowded. For, behind any method of teaching is the personality of the teacher himself. *And I think we knew what we were getting.* The alert enthusiasm, the informal manner, the handsome, unmistakable presence, the open and generous mind, the passionate interest in both subject and class as living organisms—these were some of the things. But there was something else, and I fear the only word for it is character—a character of singular sweetness, not without salt. It has made him beloved by the generations he has taught.

Problems of teacher personnel will always be with us as we try to make better schools. As one is solved complexities increase and more difficulties arise. There can be no ease in Zion. With adequate salaries, reasonable enrolments, responsible freedom, and social recognition of teaching as a profession, we may expect better schools, better teaching, and a better world. But the divine spark can be kindled only by a great purpose, which dreams of a great future for all of the people, and for the humblest of them a share in achievement and in service. Teaching, which can do this, is the highest of the arts. Without high purpose it can degenerate into the sorriest of trades. Whatever else we do to promote education through adequate schools, great teaching, artistic teaching, must always be the goal. And great teachers are great persons teaching.

BRITAIN'S GREATEST ASSET—HER CHILDREN

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Address at Atlanta Conference

This past year a member of the British Embassy and Dr. E. W. Jacobsen, president of the University of Louisville, Louisville, Kentucky, were discussing ways and means of promoting better understanding between the peoples of the United States and the United Kingdom. This conversation occurred at a social function and was something like this.

"Don't you believe that we must have more exchange teachers in our universities?"

Dr. Jacobsen agreed that was one way, but continued the thought by saying, "If we are truly interested in promoting understanding, an effort must be made in the elementary school with boys and girls many of whom never attend universities. At present the impressions that the majority of our children receive are from a few pages in a geography text. This usually is a factual presentation concerning climate, products, and industries, none of which seem very vital to young people. Also their history books emphasize the story of the American Revolution and the War of 1812 after telling why the colonists came to this country."

A few weeks later an invitation was extended to Dr. Jacobsen by the British Minister of Information to visit the schools of the United Kingdom and to bring with him three American teachers who were teaching boys and girls. Plans were made by the Ministry of Information and the Ministry of Education that schools of all types be visited. This included all ages from the nursery school to the university. The objective was not to see how schools were operated but rather to understand children. During a month's time each of us had the opportunity to talk with administrators, teachers, parents, and hundreds of children. Teachers and headmasters often said, "Our children are shy and reserved; they probably won't talk with you." In every instance a group was soon eager to tell of games, books, collections, and to ask many questions about America.

We found that most of their impressions of us had come from our films. Eighty-five percent of the films shown are American so they expected us to live in skyscrapers and to know many gangsters and cowboys. We all chew gum and live a life of speed and violence. One girl in Newcastle on Tyne asked where a family would sit if you have central heating and no fireplace, as a fireplace is so much the center of the home.

It has been a fine thing that so many of our soldiers have been stationed in Britain because they have been so friendly in their relations with children. They have visited with them and shared the PX supplies, especially gum and candy bars. "Have you any gum, chum?" has become a national question with children to the embarrassment of their elders. Also the people time and again have told us stories of the ingenuity of the soldiers. In one place we were told of the incident of two GI's and a truck

which was loaded to a height two inches more than would pass under a bridge. Looking over the situation one of them walked around the truck and proceeded to deflate all four tires. He cheerfully called to the other to drive ahead. Then they pumped air into the tires once again and were on their way in a few minutes' time. In another town where the water supply was destroyed an engineering unit drilled deeper than had ever been drilled before and in four days' time had water available to the community.

One expects to see noticeable physical differences in children whose lives have been under war restrictions for six years. There was little to indicate this. Older people say they do not have high resistance to colds and flu but they appear well fed and healthy. The government is to be credited for the fact that early in the war they planned for a cooked meal at school each day. In some schools this was prepared at school; in other places it was prepared in community kitchens and delivered to the schools. Many of the schools did not have dining halls so each day students and teachers arranged tables and chairs in a gymnasium or assembly room shortly before the noon hour. However, this extra work did assure one cooked meal a day to each child at a very low cost to supplement the scanty home rations. Also during the school day each child had one-third pint of milk. Thus they tried to give as complete menus to children as were available. Since Britain depends upon imports for much of the food, it seemed monotonous to us to be without fruits and varieties of vegetables. I saw one orange in six weeks and it was dry and shriveled. It was in a nursery school on display so that they might recognize that fruit. They use the term "sweet" for dessert, as dessert is uncooked fruit which has seldom been available during the past six years. The sweet served in the school meal was usually a steamed pudding or a tart with custard.

Another reason we believe that Britain realizes the importance* of the next generation is the fact that in 1944 during the war a new education act was passed in Parliament, improving the support of the school services to include another year to the age of fifteen by 1947 and eventually, as teachers and equipment are available, to the age of sixteen.

It is difficult to compare their schools with ours at the present time. In the first place, we have forty-eight state systems so what may be true in one state is not in another. Since their tax-supported schools are under the direction of the Ministry of Education they differ less from one community to another. There is a group of His Majesty's Inspectors, HMI's, to supervise the programs and curriculum. These are appointed for life by the King. They have been former headmasters or headmistresses of schools. The majority are Oxford or Cambridge graduates who try to bring standards of all schools to a high level.

The greatest difference we noted is the separation of students as they enter the Secondary Schools after six years in the Primary Schools from age five through eleven. At that time they take qualifying examinations which determine the type of education they will have from age twelve through fourteen. The upper 25 percent enter the Secondary Grammar

Schools while the vast majority attend the Secondary Modern Schools and a few go to Technical Schools. Those who enter the Grammar School take an academic course and may prepare for the High Schools and Universities. About 10 percent of the Grammar School students continue their education beyond age fourteen. None of those attending the Modern Schools and only a few from the Technical Schools continue beyond that age. A few in the Technical Schools are now continuing one day a week after being employed. The term "Multilateral School" was applied to our schools which accept all students from the elementary grades and offer them a diversified curriculum within the same social situation.

One teacher asked the top class of the primary school how many wished to enter the Grammar School the following term. Almost every hand was raised but only the upper 25 percent of that class would have the opportunity.

The Modern School emphasizes handicraft and homemaking for the girls and shop and woodwork for the boys. In Modern Schools, where space is available, gardening is part of the science work. School gardens are developed and cared for by the boys. Transplanting and grafting of trees, as well as growing vegetables and flowers, are done by students under the supervision of the teachers. Care of bees, poultry, and rabbits is also a part of their class work. The produce is frequently used in the cooking classes and, in some cases, for the school meals. Also some of the newer schools, built shortly before the war, have large grounds and buildings which are becoming community centers for night classes and youth clubs. Classes are offered in sewing, art, music, dancing, shop; and young people are returning in the evenings to use the school as a center of their social activities. Cooking classes have learned to use wartime substitutes. "Reconstitute an egg" is a frequent direction in recipes.

The courtesy and restraint of the boys and girls were noticeable. The relationship between faculty and students is more formal than in most schools in this country. The patience with which all people wait in queues for buses, trains, food amazed us. Voices are usually lower. Differences in accent vary as much from one section of the country to another as they do in this country. Less slang is used by young people when talking with older persons than by our young boys and girls. Perhaps it is due to war shortages, but I felt it characteristic, the absence of fads and bangles so characteristic of our teen age.

The schoolrooms are kept at lower temperatures than usual here, partly due to fuel shortages and partly custom. Fifty-five degrees was the goal, not seventy. Students do not wear uniforms as they do in many of the fee schools but some follow the custom of jumpers for girls and blazers for boys. Few of the children have out-of-school employment but they do help with home tasks and stand in queues to do the family shopping.

We noticed that they played fewer war games and seemed to care less for war toys. War was too real to be duplicated as play or art. Many of them belong to Scout and Girl Guide Troops. Hiking is a favorite Saturday pastime—likewise games. Emotionally they seem little disturbed by the trying experiences of war. Even those who had been transferred from one

community to another seemed to accept it as a normal procedure. Compulsory billeting was the order of the Authority in some safer communities. If you had extra room in your home you took others in. Most of the children have now returned to their own homes. In Doncaster two hundred Dutch children are at present receiving better food and care than they could receive in Holland. They have come with teachers and a chaplain. Many of these have been separated from their families by war and have survived by their wits the past years. They show malnutrition and need guiding in ethical living after lives where scrounging was the order of life.

When a nation does its best to give children good food, homes, and schools, and even shares with its less fortunate neighbors at a time when normal living is most difficult, that nation has a true sense of values and realizes that the greatest asset is the children.

LEADERSHIP OR ADMINISTRATION?

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Address at New York Conference

The absence of Commissioner George D. Stoddard, the speaker originally scheduled for this meeting, is striking testimony of its fateful character. At this moment, he and twenty-nine others of our number are in Tokyo, guiding the beginnings of an educational system designed to produce a race of free men. If they are successful, what a magnificent contribution they will have made to the peace and happiness of mankind! And we in New York, and in other regional meetings, are meeting to discuss "The Unfinished Task." Both groups, in Tokyo and New York, are discussing the same task. And it is unfinished if the task be to secure a peaceful world. This morning's program brought out very forcibly the kind of world in which we are living. Mrs. Dean called it "A World in Chaos," and Dr. Carr described "Education for World Citizenship." The two topics, with no comment or amplification, describe the problem and suggest the answer. Truly a world in chaos, with education the only permanent solution.

There has been presented a vision that fills us with a sense of duty and a desire to devote ourselves wholeheartedly to its performance. We administrators realize the urgency of the crisis. We have heard the speeches and will read the reports. We can do our share, however, only through the teachers in the classrooms. We can serve only by leading our teachers to their highest effectiveness. We must build a morale in our teachers, and through them, in our young people.

It is hard to define morale. It is the state of mind that makes a teacher of a class of slow-learning boys refuse a promotion because she does not know

¹ At the last moment Superintendent Hanley took over the assignment on this program of New York State Commissioner of Education George D. Stoddard. Shortly before the New York conference Dr. Stoddard departed for Japan with a group of American educators appointed to consult with General MacArthur on the future of Japanese education.

what will become of the boys in her class if she leaves them. Morale exists in individuals and in groups and is in most cases the determining factor in the success of both. Napoleon has said that in war the morale is to the physical as 3 is to 1.

Professor Hocking in his book, *Morale and its Enemies*, says, "Morale is to the mind what condition is to the body. Good morale is good condition of the inner man. It is the state of will in which you can get most from the machinery." Munson in his book, *The Management of Men*, defines it as follows:

Morale is a term which should be used to express the measure of determination to succeed in the purpose for which the individual is trained, or for which the group exists. It describes the nature and degree of cooperation, confidence, and unity of understanding, sympathy, and purpose existing between the individuals composing the group. It is a sense of solidarity of strength and purpose, and ability to undergo in the accomplishment of a common cause.

A rather academic definition, but we can recognize good morale in a football team. It means everyone unselfishly working together, mightily, wholeheartedly, as a team for victory.

In any task in which people unite, morale is a vital factor. If it is important in war, industry, and athletics, it is not only important but is absolutely essential in effective education. A worker with poor morale can operate a machine or perform a mechanical operation with some degree of success; a frightened, discouraged soldier can continue to march; but a pupil without the desire to learn, or who learns half-heartedly, and a teacher who is a bored time-server not only fail in their main jobs, but also produce negative or harmful byproducts.

Purpose, interest, confidence, pride, loyalty, and cooperation are the components of good morale.

A school system with good morale then is an organization in which everyone is conscious of its purpose, believes in the importance of that purpose, and is working with pride, satisfaction, and determination towards its accomplishment.

In so far as morale means human cooperation, it is one of the most important things in the world. The world needs most of all a spirit of respect and cooperation among men. America's great industrial power lies paralyzed because man with all his research and technological advances has not mastered the science and art of cooperation, of working together happily. In the world, in industry, and in school because it is basic to both, the development of morale—the spirit of cooperation to attain a common purpose—is at the heart of the problem.

How can we then improve morale in our school systems? How can we counteract the effect of the factors that destroy morale among all people, including teachers, and then inspire them to devoted service? The increased cost of living; the decreased opportunities for promotion; the vague, general uncertainty about the future; the contagious example of other employed groups are distracting, demoralizing influences at a time that calls for the very best of our teachers in effort, in devotion, in skill, in intelligence.

It is a responsibility that may be slighted as administrators are bogged down with such pressing problems as the budget, the teacher shortage, building programs, veterans education, adequate finances, and the other pressing obligations that face us. But it is only by increasing morale that we can meet the challenge of this meeting.

There are three areas from which I believe we can derive some help in our attempt to unite and inspire our teachers. They are the field of industry in which several studies in management-worker relations have been made, the science of mental hygiene in which useful hypotheses have been expressed, and the study of the functions of leadership in which some brilliant analyses have been made.

In the light of the present industrial crisis, American industry is not exactly the place one would look for guidance in improving the morale of employees, and yet through cooperation between universities and large organizations, studies have been made with interesting and helpful results.

The most important of these studies, in which Harvard University participated, took place at the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company. Here several interesting researches were made into the subject of industrial morale. There is, I know, a difference between workers in a manufacturing plant and teachers, and yet the results are so interesting that there may be an application to the morale of teachers.

The researches started out to determine and to plot the relationship between physical conditions such as illumination, rest periods, and other objective data and the output per worker. It looked simple. Measure the foot-candles of illumination, check the output per worker, and figure the correlation.

But they soon found out that workers were not simple objects but human beings, that changing the number of foot-candles or varying physical conditions did not make very much difference. They began to realize that they were dealing with people who had hopes and disappointments, fears and ambitions, who reacted to and were influenced by people in their own group, and in the groups above and below them in the ladder of prestige that exists in every human organization. When they varied the illumination in the shop they were not getting close to the springs of human behavior. When they selected five girls from the group assembling electrical relays and explained to them what they were doing in the experiment, took an unusual interest in them, called them to meetings in the superintendent's office and asked their advice, relieved their fears about pay and unemployment, let them talk at work—in other words, treated them as human beings—it made very little difference whether they had a rest period or a shorter day or brighter lights or a lunch at intermission. The output increased substantially. The human factor was infinitely more important.

Industry rediscovered that workers were more than machines, that they were complex beings, and that emotions were much more important than any logical thinking in determining their attitudes. It found that workers were conscious of other people around them and that their relation to these people was very important. Strangely enough, they discovered that money was not

the most important incentive, that workers were often more upset about the unfairness of a wage differential of some other group than about the actual amount of money received.

In the words of Dr. Roethlisberger of Harvard who helped to direct the research: "Whether or not a person is going to give his services wholeheartedly to a group depends in good part on the way he feels about his job, his fellow workers, and his supervisors—the meaning for him of what is happening to him."²

Before pointing out the application to the school staff, let us follow the experiment a little further. The next step led them into a study of workers' attitudes by means of interviews. Skilled interviewers not directly connected with the shop arranged to talk with hundreds of workers on a confidential basis.

Here again the problem was not as simple as it seemed. First, their technic of the interview was faulty. The interviewers found it difficult not to give advice, to argue, or to dominate the conversation. Later they devised rules and technics for understanding the employee's sentiments. Dr. Roethlisberger in his book, *Management and Morale*,² describes the rules for the interview. They are, I think, worth quoting:

"The first rule is that the supervisor should listen patiently to what his subordinate has to say before making any comment himself. Probably the quickest way to stop a person from sufficiently expressing himself is to interrupt.

"The second rule is that the supervisor should refrain from hasty disapprobation of his subordinate's conduct. It is not his business, in the first instance at least, to give advice or moral admonition. If the employee says, 'This is a hell of a company to work for,' the attitude of the supervisor should not be, 'Tut, tut, my good man, you are not displaying the proper spirit.' Instead, he should try to get the employee to express himself more fully by asking why he feels as he does.

"The third rule is that the supervisor should not argue with his subordinate. It is futile to try to change sentiments by logic. The best way for the supervisor to avoid arguments is to see that the employee's sentiments do not act on his own.

"The fourth rule is that the supervisor should not pay exclusive attention to the manifest content of the conversation. The interviewers had discovered that there is a tendency to rationalize sentiments and that in ordinary social intercourse the participants are likely to become more interested in the truth of the rationalizations than in the sentiments that are being expressed.

"The fifth rule is that the supervisor should listen not only to what a person wants to say, but also to what he does not want to say or cannot say without assistance."

I have quoted the rules because they are of practical value and because they illustrate that what came from the interviews was a mixture of fact

²Reprinted by permission of the publishers from F. J. Roethlisberger, *Management and Morale*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press. 1941.

and feeling, with emotions or sentiments prevailing over and coloring the entire product.

They found that the behavior of workers could not be understood apart from their feelings and sentiments, that the sentiments were easy to disguise and difficult to recognize and study, and that the sentiments could be understood only in terms of the total situation of the worker.

This does not mean that the results of the interviews were not valuable. They demonstrated the important place of emotions in the behavior of the worker and indicated the nature of the social structure that is industry. Properly interpreted, what they found was a gold mine of useful information. As a result of it the company established the policy of interviewing all employees by skilled interviewers on a confidential, anonymous basis. Out of their interviews it is possible without violating the premises to keep management informed of the general state of morale within the plant and as to the major factors which are affecting the attitudes of employees.

Its main purpose is to help the individual employee adjust himself to the social structure of the plant, to evaluate himself and his situation, and to help him secure changes if they are justified. It is a recognition of the human character of workers.

The Hawthorne studies demonstrated scientifically in terms of objective standards the importance of meaning, of status, of recognition in the attitudes of workers. It pointed out that acceptance in the informal groups that formed in the plant was essential to the workers' happiness. Recognition, being asked his opinion, being asked to help a newcomer, or to do a special job—these were the important things.

The application to teacher morale is, I think, obvious. The same desire for status, for consideration, for recognition exists in all of us, as in the employees at Hawthorne. We can do better work when we are somebody, when we count, when we have had a share in the plans, and have an interest in the outcome.

To extend our personnel services to provide counselors for teachers would undoubtedly reveal tensions, disappointments, and emotional distress. Buried within a teacher, these demoralize. A discussion with a friendly, skilled counselor may be the first step in relieving them. It should help the teacher and at the same time inform the counselor of dangers to morale. It will also give information regarding the talents, experience, and skills of teachers that may otherwise go unrecognized and unused.

Education knew, long before industry, the influence of the emotions on the behavior and attitudes of people. Human beings, mental hygiene has told us, have four basic emotional needs if they are to be properly adjusted. They are security, recognition, new experiences, and self-expression. All of us need them—workers, administrators, teachers, children.

Human beings need security, a feeling that regardless of changes and outside forces they will not only have the necessities of life, but that they can of their own efforts cope with and prevail over their changing circumstances. Teachers have more job security than any occupational group I know. It will, I think, be even more secure in the next few years. There is a real

shortage of teachers throughout America. Superintendents are looking for good teachers everywhere. It must be good for morale to know that. But teachers need more than job security. They need the consciousness that they have a place in the respect and affection of some other person or persons. They need to have a sure confidence in us as their leaders. No feeling can destroy morale as effectively as a lack of confidence in the fairness of their leader, or the fear of losing their job. The figures in the *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association last December disclose an alarming state of insecurity:

Nearly five thousand teachers replied to a questionnaire on personnel administration. To one question asked, "If you had some cause for dissatisfaction in your present teaching position, what would be your chances of getting a hearing and a square deal?" less than half the teachers answered, "Good," 22 percent answered, "Fair," 17 percent answered, "Chances about even," 6 percent of urban teachers and 5 percent of rural teachers said, "Poor," and 9 percent of urban and 10 percent of rural teachers said, "Very little chance."

More than half the teachers, and the distribution of questionnaires followed fairly well the population distribution of the country, have some misgiving, at least are not absolutely sure of a square deal from their employers.

I reread the table after my first impression, but my first reading was accurate. Regardless of the objective truth in the matter, a majority of teachers replying say they are not absolutely sure they would get a square deal if they had a cause for dissatisfaction.

In our supervision, in our assignments, we can build security or we can demoralize by adding to fears already present, with teachers reading into actions and words meanings, threats, and causes for fear frequently groundless but none the less real. Security is essential to morale.

All of us too need recognition. Need is a mild word for it. Most of us are starved for it, crave it. And most superintendents and principals fail miserably in our use of it. I know hundreds of teachers in Providence who work intelligently and brilliantly, and yet I do not tell them so as often as I should. We need to remind teachers that they inherit a prestige; that children and parents look up to them; that, more than we realize, people respect them and are grateful to them. I was astonished but pleased to hear a young naval officer recall a story I had told a junior high-school assembly ten years ago. Every teacher needs a specialty which, however humble, is her own. It need not be a school specialty, but she needs to be able to say when clouds are gray and the winds cold and unfriendly, "Wait till they come to dahlias, or needlepoint," or whatever she does well.

My small son caught the idea when he said to his mother, "Mother, let's play darts. I'll throw the darts, and you say, 'Wonderful!'"

No consideration of recognition can fail to consider the matter of teacher salaries. Salary is an indication of prestige. It is concrete recognition by the community of the status of the teacher. Unless salaries are improved it will be impossible to attract promising young teachers to the profession or

to retain the services of the more able on our present staffs. We must lead in the campaign for salaries for teachers, not only as a matter of justice but because it contributes to morale. It is a tangible and genuine form of recognition by the community.

Again, all of us need a chance to express ourselves. Teachers must be allowed initiative in planning their work, freedom in selecting the material to be emphasized, and opportunity to develop their own methods. For self-expression we need a chance to do what we can and want to do. For many of us music or art or a garden or a charity or sports or dramatics gives us this opportunity. Until the war we had a dramatics club called "The Faculty Players" which gave opportunities to many and entertainment to all the teaching staff. We have learned that the most effective curriculum development occurs when teachers cooperate in its making, when the thinking and experience of teachers find expression in the course of study. Every teacher has a unique personality. No two are exactly alike. All deserve to be treated with respect. All have a natural hunger for self-expression.

This self-expression is provided by supervision that presents the challenge of teaching as an art, the careful planning of one's work to build background, to arouse interest, to set the stage, and guide the responses and activities of youngsters so that permanent changes in reactions and attitudes occur. This can be real activity—the work of a master craftsman.

Whatever the means of expression, we should provide opportunities and encouragement for teachers to use the particular aptitudes with which they came into the world.

Teachers like other folk need new experiences. These may take many forms. In Providence we arrange several exchanges with other systems each year. We permit teachers' leaves of absence for study and travel, paying them their salaries minus the pay of a substitute. Visiting days, conferences with consultants with a new approach to a subject, occasional lectures are illustrations of acceptance of the idea that new experiences are essential. Teachers need to realize the need for new experiences, not as luxuries but as necessities—the theater, the world of books, the shore and the mountain, and the vacation trip. Any break in routine is good, any new experience, any interruption of the flow of habit.

But adventures are neither so far off nor so expensive. The challenge of the classroom, what William Lyon Phelps called "the excitement of teaching," can provide them; for instance, how to learn with children the new and one world that the war and modern science have opened. I met one of our first-grade teachers the other day—sixty-seven years old, I found out later—but young, happy, cheerful, enthusiastic. She was coming from attending the "Lone Ranger Circus." "Had to go," she explained, "really to know what the children were thinking and talking about."

A leave of absence even for different work frequently refreshes and brightens a teacher.

These principles of mental hygiene—ways of respecting human values and recognizing the dignity of human nature—are new only in their form of expression. Religious leaders have used them through the ages.

If it is true that leaders are a product of their times and circumstances, then 1946 should develop great leaders. The times demand leadership and in no field as in education. The crises of the past ten years have produced educators who saw the threat to democracy and enlisted the schools to defend it. The work of the Educational Policies Commission and of the National Education Association was the answer to the needs of the times. Their influence has not yet been fully appraised.

Leadership requires these things: an understanding of the conditions under which people do their best work together, a means of communication, and a purpose. Most of all, it means a determination on our part to refuse to be deterred from dynamic leadership by the routine of administration.

The machinery that makes an organization united in purpose is a means of communication. The lines of communication from the teacher to the leader and the board of education must be clear, and the lines down from the board of education and superintendent to the classroom must also be open. Each will draw inspiration from the other. This does not mean, of course, the transmission of minute details from one to the other. Gradually these are generalized as they reach the top and conversely they assume detailed form as they come to the teacher. It does not mean a complication of bulletins and reports. It does mean, however, a sharing of vision and purpose and faith. The vision is of a better world, better because men and women have developed integrity of mind and soul and respect for one another. The purpose is to bring fulfilment and growth and significance to the lives of American youth, and through them to the world.

The faith is in education, in the work of the teacher, in our fellowman everywhere, in the doctrine of understanding and brotherhood, in the goodness of a God whose children we are.

Teachers can unite in this faith and serve humanity as few generations have done.

It is our blessing to have the chance to lead them.

DEVELOPING LAY LEADERSHIP

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Address at New York Conference

The development of lay leadership has taken on new meanings as a result of the studies of adaptability carried on during the last decade. It seems to be the most readily available means by which the schools can take full advantage of the strong influences which the community has on education. I shall review briefly the background of this statement, outline some of the facets of the problem, and treat two of these facets in some detail.

TIME FOR REORIENTATION

In the early decades of this century the responsibility of the state for education, as opposed to the community, was greatly emphasized. This probably had something to do with the rather general overlooking of a very vital fact: that virtual home rule over the educational program places the school in strong crosscurrents of local public opinion. The wide range of discretion actually provided local administration not only frees it from a slavish ministerial relationship with state officers but makes it subject to a vast range of community influences which it would otherwise be empowered to ignore, or at least to resist.

Because of the strong emphasis on state control, the findings in the early studies of adaptability of the tremendous strength of the community in setting the educational pattern were therefore something of a shock. These studies sought to find out why some communities were pioneers, some followers, and some laggards. They plumbed into the characteristics of the teaching staff as usually dealt with—amount, place of training, age, sex, turnover—and into various social and economic characteristics of the community—size, education of the population, occupations, tax rates, wealth, etc. They showed the surprising fact that it is possible to predict pioneeringness, followership, or laggardness far more readily from the characteristics of the community than from the characteristics of the staff.

Whatever this might mean as to the staff, it certainly brought the community into new light. It became clear, among other things, that it is not enough to consider the community as fully represented by the board of education. Attention must be given to the population characteristics that condition community faith in education, to what can be achieved through influencing the understanding of education existent in the public mind, and to the whole series of social and economic conditioners that tend to spur on or slow down community action on educational matter.

NEW TASKS FOR ADMINISTRATORS

The tasks of administration thus became more complex. The administration could not be satisfied solely in inducting schoolboard members into the philosophy of the school system and in performing those public relations

tasks which tend to give a community a sense of well-being. With no less work to do with the board of education, as outlined in the early chapters of the AASA 1946 Yearbook, school administration must see to it that groups interested in the evolution of the community as a community understand how various acts of planning, zoning, or population stimulation would affect the schools and, by implications, the other social institutions of the community.

School administration must be concerned also with the picture held in the public mind of what constitutes a good school, for it is increasingly clear that through the questions asked of teachers, administrative officers, and board members, questions flowing from the public conception of what a good school looks like, there is a continuous shaping of educational policy as determined not only through influence on the boards of education and administration but also through influence on school principals and teachers.

The result desired is two-fold: (a) the building in the public mind of a picture of the most powerful school for the transformation of human personality, for realizing social and economic well-being that can be built out of the know-how now available; (b) the opening of channels from the public that will make it easier for creative ideas, as well as urge for action, to flow from this improved setting into the schools: influence on board of education, the administration, and both directly and indirectly on the teachers in the classroom.

HOW THE PUBLIC MIND WORKS

First a word about how the public mind influences the school other than by electing schoolboard members, voting on the budget, and exercising influence through pressure groups.

The problem is to get into the public mind what a school looks like that is utilizing effective methods in teaching the skills and the basic knowledge necessary for an intelligent population, in discovering and developing talents, and in cultivating civilized patterns of behavior. The difficulty is that the public by and large, looking at a school which utilizes the know-how, having no understanding of what is going on, tends to class much of the work of the school as play—just a small boy not understanding the operation of the steamshovel may think of the job of operating it as the most delightful game in the world. The public, conditioned to judge educational practices in terms of the inefficient methods with which it was familiar, and having no basis for judging efficient methods, is a public that will ask all the wrong questions, will, in fact, ask questions that cannot be answered, such as, "If Johnny didn't play so much, wouldn't he be better with his spelling?" These questions are like the old poser, "Have you stopped beating your wife?" They draw teachers back, they make them cagey, causing them to carry on their better practices in a surreptitious manner. As a matter of fact, hundreds of the questions asked by parents and other laymen cannot be answered because they cannot see the answer from where they stand. By the same token, the transformation of the picture in the public mind of what a good school looks like may be expected to change the character of these questions in such a

way that they will encourage the good practices, make the work of the good teacher easier, and let good education come out into the light of day.

WHAT SCHOOLS CAN DO

Clearly before we can undertake to develop in the public mind a picture of a powerful school, someone must have that picture in his own mind. He must translate it through words, pictures, and discussions into the public mind. This demands that whatever is done through current methods of public relations to build up the conception that the present schools are the best possible schools in the best of all possible communities, that seemingly contrary objective must be achieved of building up a background of understanding in the public mind that will reveal how the present educational program lags behind the best-known ways of providing education.

Let us first examine this picture of what schools can do that should become the possession of the public mind. Struck by the above line of thinking, a group of some sixty superintendents of schools in the metropolitan area of New York City undertook to construct a picture of a powerful school. Realizing that in this group were more than half of the really well-supported public schools in America, and realizing also that no challenging formulation of a powerful education had been forthcoming for more than a decade, these men promoted a study of what was going on in the classrooms of their schools. The theory back of their approach was that they must have, by sheer accident if not otherwise, employed a goodly number of superior human beings to teach in these schools. If this is so, these superior human beings, working under favorable conditions, must certainly have introduced practices that outran the theory of the Twenties of which they were by and large the masters. Utilizing the most extensive portrayal of schools then available—the document, *What Education Our Money Buys*, developed by the New York Educational Conference Board—the staff of each of the sixty school systems was asked to report areas in which in their judgment practices in their schools were superior to anything reported. This was done by the thousands of classroom teachers, principals, and supervisors in these schools. Two hundred and fifty selected staff members then went to work on following up these practices with the result that some six thousand descriptions became available. The group then classified these practices into 101 patterns of practice and the results were published in a document, *What Schools Can Do*. This of course is only a beginning. Studies are now going forward seeking not only to portray the more powerful patterns of practice with moving pictures, but seeking also to discover additional practices challenged by the publication of this document.

From the work to date, some conception can be achieved of how present know-how in education adds up. It is clear that what was long considered a matter of philosophy as to whether we taught from textbooks or from life-like situations is not and never should have been a matter of argument. What is a matter of argument is whether or not there is enough know-how by means of which the more powerful job of teaching can be done. It can be reported that sufficient know-how has developed in the work of master

teachers over the past quarter of a century definitely to change the pattern of the school from a rather ineffective instrument for instilling of skills and knowledge into an effective one. The ultimate development of know-how is not yet, but there is enough to make a difference.

First it is clear that schools can do much more than is usually expected of them in developing the skills and knowledge basic to intelligent behavior.

With respect to the skills, this is manifested in three ways:

1. More attention can be productively spent on oral communication so useful not only to the individual person but also to group work in our economic life and in the operation of our democratic institutions.

2. Time can be profitably spent on a continued teaching of the basic skills on through the high school. This is particularly true of types of reading skills.

3. And, finally, a sufficient supply of know-how has accumulated to make it possible to do a great deal of the teaching of skills in life and lifelike situations which are so much more effective than older methods. This is particularly true when staffing provision is more ample than in the average school.

With respect to the accumulation of useful knowledge, this is manifested in two ways: (a) Here too the invention of know-how has made it possible to use life and lifelike situations for instilling knowledge in a way that promises to be useful in life situations. (b) In addition, teachers have discovered that children grow even when the teacher is not talking, thus freeing much formerly wasted time for exploration. The result is much more reading by children as well as learning by the manipulation of scientific instruments and the interesting array of available art from this technological world.

The second point that seems clear from these studies is that schools have made great strides in the development of the know-how by which, through an enriched educational setting, the talents that lie within the individual chrysalis of each particular boy and girl and young person can be discovered, and in finding the teachers who can not only discover the persons of talent but also perform that miracle of drawing it out and developing it. When we think of talents we usually think of art, music, or writing. Important as these are, they do not begin to exhaust the list of the arts we live by, and in all of these arts some persons in every group are better than others. Whatever it may have to do with the promotion of individual happiness, a worthwhile end in itself, it is essential for economic reasons to discover those who are better at the typewriter, at the comptometer, at the drill press, at handling live stock, at developing plants, at developing applications of chemistry and physics, at flying aeroplanes, at providing personal service, and developing those talents so that the oncoming generation will be a more economically productive people. Note how vulnerable such a school is to the darts of a public mind burdened with a picture of the older, simpler school. Observing youngsters working with paintbrushes or musical instruments, or developing skills and communication in clubs, on the playground, or in the auditoriums, the public is puzzled. This is not school as they knew it. The youngsters are having too much fun. So they tend to classify these activities as play in their ignorance of the significance of what is happening.

Finally, it is clear that somehow or other a greater proportion of what we honor as master teachers may be observed in schools such as those of

which I am speaking. When we speak of our own great teacher, we tend to think of the person who had an influence on us in some crisis of personal development, who pointed out paths that our own eyes would not have seen, who gave us patterns of human behavior by which we could meet situations in the realm of citizenship, home life, personality, or character that we might never have hit upon otherwise. Philosophers have long talked about concomitant learning but the school was organized for the direct learnings. It left the concomitant learnings greatly to chance. We now see an increasing number of teachers who have the faculty of standing on the outside of a group and of observing individuals and groups on the playground, in the clubs, in the auditorium as well as in the classroom in a vast series of human relationships and occasionally dropping the hint or suggestion, or raising the question which leads to the blossoming of a more abundant life pattern in individual boys and girls. We see this essential life guidance not made a matter of a few specialists each with five hundred youngsters to guide. In the best schools these special crutches that make up for the deficiencies in the classroom teachers themselves seem to be less necessary, for the classroom teachers are less often deficient as observers and guides of personality, character, and citizenship patterns essential to the intelligent human being and fruitful in establishing the character of a people.

It seems to me that it is important that the public understand what the possibilities are in this area. Certainly when speeches are made about retiring teachers they make a great deal about their being builders of men as well as scholars of mathematics, history, or English. If, as it seems, we have something tangible in this area, the potentialities should be shared with the public. Probably nothing could be more influential in developing a public attitude looking towards the employment of first-grade persons as teachers and giving those persons the right facilities to work with and money enough that they could continue to grow by travel, by books, and by human associations.

LIFTING LAY UNDERSTANDING

Typical public relations programs clearly are not designed to carry over a picture of the full potential of public schools; although to the extent that the schools have achieved the best, such programs tend to do it. But clearly the best of schools fall far short of what they could be if they were to use available know-how. Universally, therefore, it would appear that we are faced with the task of painting the picture of what schools could really do as demonstrated by piecemeal practice here and there. To the degree we succeed in doing this, there is reason to believe that the public mind will give the schools a psychological lift, and, it is not too much to expect, will find ways and means in organization and financial support to implement more powerful education. For out of the process will arise lay leadership, not by selection but by acceptance. As Chester I. Barnard has stated:

Leaders as functioning elements of organizations are not formally nominated, selected, elected, or appointed, nor are they born to leadership; they are accepted and followed; and are sometimes pressed or (rarely) coerced into leading. Indeed, I

have never observed any leader who was able to state adequately or intelligibly why he was able to be a leader, nor any statement of followers that acceptably expressed why they followed.¹

It seems to me that Barnard's position on this matter is well supported by Alinsky's chapter on "Native Leadership."²

A number of school systems are working on ways and means of developing public understanding. They are humanizing the thinking of laymen. Typical of a sizeable group of communities, a school system of 100,000 has groups of teachers and laymen working together on unmet needs. A whole school day was recently used for this purpose and engaged some eight hundred people—teachers, parents, nonparents, board members—in the process of getting down on paper the lacks which individual teachers and laymen felt. This same community already had eleven groups of teachers and laymen working on unmet needs identified earlier. Another community is following the policy of inviting groups of citizens to visit the schools. They are accompanied by the superintendent and one or more members of the board of education. Following their day of visitation, there is a discussion period held in a comfortable place. A third community, a part of the city of New York, has the principals of the individual schools working with small groups of laymen drawn from various community organizations in an attempt to develop leadership for the study of education in such groups. A fourth school system makes large utilization of bodies originally created by real-estate developments within the community; these organizations having lost to a large extent their original functions have had their efforts sublimated to a consideration of educational policy for the larger community. They carry much weight in the formulation of the budget, in the nomination of schoolboard members, and in current educational policy.

A word ought to be said about what we do for the budding laymen. Few schools do anything of consequence in the study of education as a powerful instrument of society except as it appears in the senior high-school course—"Problems of Democracy." These treatments, so far as I at least have been able to judge them, are not only inadequate in scope but in content. It is a rare thing to find educational books available in high-school student libraries for students. It might be added that it is a rare thing to find an educational book that would be useful. I suggest the new AASA 1946 Yearbook, *School Boards in Action*, as such a useful book to be called to the attention of students. Perhaps there could be an education club not for budding teachers but for young citizens in general to study such books as *School Boards in Action*, *What Education Our Money Buys*, *What Schools Can Do*, *What Makes Good Schools?*, as well as some of those produced by the Educational Policies Commission.

It is clear that this is too much of a task for the administrator or for some special person in the administrator's office, such as the publicity director.

¹ Barnard, Chester I., *Dilemmas of Leadership in the Democratic Process* (Stafford Little Lectures.) Princeton, N. J.: University Extension Fund, Herbert L. Baker Foundation, Princeton University, April 25, 1939. p. 17.

² Alinsky, Saul D., *Reveille for Radicals*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1946. 228 p.

Schools experimenting in ways and means of building up public understanding and the promoting of creative thinking about education are finding it necessary to utilize large numbers of teachers as well as principals, supervisors, and other administrators. One community in this vicinity has 125 teachers (one-fourth of its staff) working in small groups with an equal number of chosen laymen.

CHANNELS OF PUBLIC INFLUENCE

It is not enough to build up understanding. Channels of influence have clogged up in most communities, or have entirely disappeared, as school districts grew in population and size and as school administration grew in dependence on an overemphasized state authority.

Perhaps with a public mind carrying about a picture of a 1910 model school, or a notion that education is improved only by increasing its scope, it would be just as well not to open the channels for the inward flow of influence. But with a public mind lifted upward, the opening of channels of influence can but improve the educational program. The need is particularly insistent when, as Professor Hallenbeck has pointed out, many persons who have high regard for the values represented by the schools do not have a strong voice in the power groups of the community.

A highly important process now in operation in the schools lends itself to this purpose. I refer to the budget. The budget, born out of prudential considerations and extended in recent years out of the hands solely of the board of education and superintendent of schools through democratic considerations, suddenly looms as a powerful agency for the inward flow of influence from the community. Clearly, a community which has many of its normal groups studying next steps for bridging the gap between the schools as they are and the schools as they could be has in the budget-making process an opportunity for taking stock as to a great variety of group interests and ambitions. The budget-making time should be an annual rounding up of community thinking for school development. Into the formulation of the budget should flow the considerations of groups of pupils, teachers, janitors, and the public. The board and the administration have the opportunity and responsibility for making a trial balance of these demands. Once this trial balance is made, budget hearings cease to become a time to defend the budget and, instead, become conferences for checking the board's trial balance of the aspects of improvement urged from various quarters. If all things were taken into account, a budget as usually evolved might well prove to be far below what an enlightened public would demand. A budget so used is not only a prudential device; it is an instrument of community thinking going infinitely farther in obtaining participation than suggestions simply those from the urge to make administration democratic.

In summary, I have reviewed the eye-opening findings of the studies seeking to find why some communities are pioneers, some followers, and some laggards. I have indicated what I think they mean in bringing a new emphasis to home rule in educational control. I have pointed out that they make

demands upon the shaping of the community population and the economy. I have indicated the need they show for the study of the potential transforming power of education. I have pointed out that they demand a tremendous effort in dealing with the public involving board members, teachers, other employees, and pupils. In short, they demand a public relations program that far outruns public relations programs we talked of during the past twenty years and a program of planning drawn on far more inclusive lines than those that are commonly proposed. I have given some indications of first yields of attempts to discover what a powerful school would look like in terms of the know-how actually observed in schools, of efforts to share it with the public mind, and of possible modifications of budgetary practices to open up channels of inward flow into the schools.

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF PROFESSIONAL LEADERSHIP

JOHN A. SEXSON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,
PASADENA, CALIFORNIA

Address at Kansas City Conference

Professional leadership must chart its course—The thoughtful professional leadership of America and of the entire world is now fully conscious that all educational institutions are face to face with new problems—that as we go forward into this new and changing world of tomorrow our schools must be adjusted to changing needs and to changing demands.

Whenever the orderly affairs of mankind are dislocated by the course of events, educational leadership is challenged to chart a new course. To every generation come circumstances wherein the gravity of the disturbances call for the plotting of new courses for most of man's institutions. In the words of Havelock Ellis:

The present is in every age merely the shifting point at which past and future meet, and we can have no quarrel with either. There can be no old without traditions, neither can there be any life without movement. There is never a moment when the new dawn is not breaking over the earth, and never a moment when the sunset ceases to die. In the moral world we are ourselves the light-bearers. . . . For a brief space it is granted us, if we will, to enlighten the darkness that surrounds our path. As in the ancient torch race, we press forward, torch in hand, along the course. Down from behind comes the runner who will outpace us. All our skill lies in giving into his hand the living torch, bright and unflickering, as we ourselves disappear in the darkness.

We are in the midst of great events—This audience is made up in large part of those who hold positions of responsible leadership in education. We are the torchbearers for the moment in a world that has experienced disturbances of unprecedented proportions. The gravity of the problems confronting us and all the peoples of the world cannot be questioned or minimized. Society has experienced a series of shocks that threatens its political, economic, social, and moral structure. Mankind stands paralyzed with a fear of the forces he has released in his frenzied effort to win a war—to

defend himself and his institutions against the threat of totalitarian domination, to protect and save the values he has struggled for centuries to create.

Change is impending—The effect of atomic fission has been to leave men aghast at the tragic catastrophe that impends if men fail to find in universal peace the one desperate defense that must save all humanity from destruction. Whether we like it or not, we are at last driven by fear to achieve that cooperation we have failed to reach by agreement. However much we may deplore the fact that we have been impelled to better behavior by fear, rather than by conscience, we cannot be less concerned about the character of the impending changes or the processes by which they are to be effected.

Education must assume heavy burdens—For more than half a century, society has made increasing use of education in coping with its problems. Whether these problems have had to do with youth, with crime, disease, war, peace, foreign relations, or domestic tranquility, men have turned to education for aid and to learning as the best foundation for progress. At no previous time has this been more evident than during the course and at the termination of this war. Immediately upon the entrance of our country into this war, our nation turned at once to the schools asking their aid to train men and women to produce the materials of war, to demand that organized institutions of education spearhead the activities essential to gird the nation's services in a desperate battle for the protection of human rights and for the survival of humane institutions of government, industry, and interaction.

Now that the shooting has stopped, the United Nations have taken action designating education as one of the major instrumentalities for establishing and maintaining peace among the peoples of the earth.

Armed forces and treaties are not now accepted as safe guarantors of peace—For the first time political and military leaders are admitting, with the utmost frankness, that the time-honored instruments and agencies of human accord, such as treaties and agreements, are obviously ineffective and untrustworthy and that the hope of the future world lies in a new direction—in the direction of educational, cultural, and scientific collaboration between all the peoples of all the nations to the end that the attitudes and behavior of nations and their government will reflect better attitudes and better behavior on the part of the individual citizens thereof. This is a direct reliance upon educational and cultural forces rather than upon might or force. The idea has been succinctly phrased in the preamble of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization which says:

... since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defenses of peace must be constructed;

That ignorance of each other's ways and lives has been a common cause, throughout the history of mankind, of that suspicion and mistrust between the peoples of the world through which their differences have all too often broken into war;

That the great and terrible war which has now ended was a war made possible by the denial of democratic principles of dignity, equality and mutual respect of men, and by the propagation, in their place, through ignorance and prejudice, of the doctrine of the inequality of men and races;

That the wide diffusion of culture, and the education of humanity for justice and liberty and peace are indispensable to the dignity of man and constitute a sacred duty which all the nations must fulfill in a spirit of mutual assistance and concern.

This is professional leadership's first responsibility—This pronouncement challenges the educational leadership of this and every nation to devise and to implement an educational program that shall in fact and in time produce those changes in the minds and hearts of men that are essential to international unity and goodwill, as well as to domestic peace and tranquility.

Here at long last is the opportunity education has sought. Here is a challenge thrown round the world, to make operative in the minds and hearts of men those attitudes, behaviors, and tolerances that underlie amicable human relationships—whether between individuals, groups, races, or nations. Here is a directive that in every schoolroom in every part of the world children, youth, and adults shall be taught new ideas and made to behave in new ways.

It would be most unrealistic to assume that education as it has been going on in the past may be extended into the future with assurance that it will accomplish such results.

Education in the prewar world served indifferently, and with equal effectiveness, the dictator and the democrat, the warmonger and the peace advocate. The world has gone along under the assumption that man may control his destiny through political and economic organizations buttressed by armed forces. He has allowed children, youth, and adults to be steeped in ideologies that were obviously subversive to the purposes he has sought to further. He has overlooked or ignored the cumulative impact of ideals and the influences of ideas upon men's attitudes, responses, and behaviors. The war has taught mankind, at tragic cost, that the forces essential to his welfare and happiness must be spiritual forces, that there must be engendered in the hearts and minds of millions of men the will to make the sacrifices, to perform the labors, to promote the causes that underlie security, respect for human life, and a common concern for the welfare of every individual.

Education serves good masters and bad—Before this war education was effectively used by the dictators to nurture a generation devoid of every vestige of human tolerance—a ruthless, barbaric, bigoted, and selfish mob responsive to maniacal leadership. Education was used to bolster political and economic philosophies of every kind and to cement whole nations to their support. Education was used to stifle religion and to offset religious impulses in an entire nation. Education was used to promulgate falsehood, false doctrines, and false ideologies. It has taken a war of gigantic proportions to stem the forces set in motion by the school teacher.

Education in the postwar world—This brief survey of the present scene is not presented under any assumption that the facts are not well-known to you. They are presented rather as a summation of the arguments that should impel every responsible educational leader to take immediate steps to project plans that will make education an effective instrument of progress toward new goals—goals we have heretofore given enthusiastic lip service but only lackadaisical implementation.

The Atlantic Charter and the worthy ideals embodied therein have thus far been used for little more than a slogan by which to recruit armies and to rally the allied peoples to win the war. It still remains to be seen whether these and other nations shall make these same principles effective as a basis

for lasting peace. It is one thing to use an ideal as a war slogan but quite another thing to make this same ideal a basis for long-time peaceful association. This is the unique and peculiar function of education. Education only can translate ideas and ideals into action, attitude, and behavior.

But before we complacently assume that education will accomplish this much desired end, remember that there is as yet no institution or agency of international education. True a start has been made. But the goal is far in the future. Even after the organization has been perfected the program and processes will necessarily be slowly initiated.

What can be taught and how it can be taught in our own and in other countries must be determined by the slow processes of experimentation, demonstration, and evaluation. Under the most favorable circumstances and with the full and enthusiastic cooperation of educators, we shall barely be able by the means of the best attainable education to learn enough to save ourselves from destruction.

Professional organization must move quickly—Thus, the responsibility for what happens to our world is our responsibility. Without implying that this great task is the sole responsibility of those who teach in our educational institutions, we must face the fact that the initiative for educational and cultural plans must originate in the existing professional organizations.

Organizations such as our own must do their share in underwriting, wherever needed, the expert services necessary to devise and administer educational systems and educational programs adequate to meet the needs, whatever they are. In some parts of the world this involves tasks and expenditures of such tremendous proportions that an effort comparable to that required to win the war seems to be demanded. The genius of our people in the production of the materials of war and in recruiting the armed forces to wage war must be matched by an equal genius in devising new and effective ways of living together and in recruiting the forces necessary to make them effective in the lives of millions of persons.

Echoes of the call for such professional leadership have been heard at this conference. More than twenty of our best professional leaders—many of them members of this association—have been drafted for such service by General MacArthur and are tonight en route to the Orient. Others once familiar in our meetings are tonight employed in professional services in the European and other theaters.

No person with the health and strength and the necessary professional competency can be unmindful tonight of his personal obligation to render high professional service in this hour of crisis, to enlist militantly in the effort to build impregnable defenses against intolerance, greed, and aggression. While we are stressing these new global problems of community living, we must not forget that the theme of this conference is "The Unfinished Task"—a solemn reminder that here in America we still have much to do.

Should education go back?—Good as American schools and American education has been, it has not been good enough. Every generation has found fault with its schools and the results produced in them. Each generation has sought to improve and extend them—ours is no exception. For nearly two

decades the barrage of criticism, the pressure of organized groups, and the undercurrent of dissatisfaction among our patrons have been convincing evidence that we have not reached educational goals satisfactory to our people or adequate to the needs of our society.

Lately there has been a popular clamor for what has been sloganized "a return to fundamentals." The inference is that at some past time our schools taught the tool subjects satisfactorily, and to all, and that the mastery of these tool subjects was a guarantee of effective citizenship. The inference is that education today is less efficient than formerly. No one—not even the slogan shouters—has ever believed such nonsense. The schools have never taught anything as well or to as many as the needs demand. Up to fifty years ago only a relatively small percent of our children and youth were in school at all. Of those in attendance many were present but a few weeks per year and for but four or five years of total schooling. Thousands were in poor schools with little or no equipment and with poorly or totally untrained teachers.

To urge a return to these primitive conditions and methods is stupid. One is amazed that otherwise rational people would make themselves ridiculous by the advocacy of such a policy.

We have improved our schools, increased the attendance, supplied more and better trained teachers, enriched and improved the curriculum, but despite all that we have accomplished, much remains to be done.

Education still academic—It is a trite commonplace to observe that our present educational practice is conditioned almost entirely by the learner's reading ability. We seem to have forgotten that prior to the Protestant Reformation all learning was oral or by imitation; reading was incidental and nonessential. The learner literally sat at the feet of the teacher and heard his lesson.

Today our classrooms are planned to accommodate the number of children whose reading a teacher can supervise and can hear recite what they have read. This procedure has bottlenecked our educational processes. It has throttled our program of vocational education and stood as a barrier before educational services suitable for the nonverbal students who comprise some 30 percent of our student body. It has isolated the school and our cultural institutions from contact with the masses of our population.

New technics for universal services are at hand—We are still using the technics of mass education to produce leaders in a society that must make progress on the basis of individual differences and on a capitalization of individual aptitudes, abilities, and interests. We are not teaching the fundamentals well enough; we are not teaching anything well enough nor to enough people. We are not pointing our educational effort at the points of our most critical needs.

The release of atomic energy was due primarily to refined technics of directing the tremendous forces necessary to break the atom toward the center or core.

We must accept responsibility for directing the mighty force of education at the critical areas of educational need. So far we are ignoring the fact

that the radio, the cinema, the audio reproducer, and soon television are the immediately available instruments for universalizing education. Through these media, millions may be provided with educational services who could not otherwise be served if we are to continue to rely upon ability to read and the utilization of the present machinery of education as the only usable tools of learning.

Clearly, under present conditions, the responsibility for the use of these most potent media of education does not rest upon the shoulders of the professional educators. Their use is directed by those seldom identified with our educational and cultural institutions. Their educational and cultural influence is tremendous at home and of even greater import internationally. Unfortunately, despite the fact that the materials presented through these channels are taken from the same fields that furnish the major content of the curriculums of our formal education—music, art, economics, sociology, social science, national and international relations—the voices heard are not those of our recognized scholars, scientists, teachers, and accepted authorities.

When the programs presented parallel the offerings of formal education as they do in health, we do not hear on the radio from our licensed physicians and health authorities. We hear instead the propaganda of the nostrum advertisers, the quack, the fakir. Health education on the radio is back in the era of the medicine man and the Kick-a-Poo Indian spieler.

All of this is presented as a preface to an inquiry as to the educator's responsibility in the matter of freedom of speech, one of the most vital international issues and one of the most pressing of our community problems. Does the educator believe, along with his commitments to a policy of academic freedom, that there can be no enforced regard for truth, for fact, for accuracy, for tolerance, or for fairness except on the part of those in formal teaching? We have already faced across the international council table those who are critical of many of our practices. They question our plan for the administration of justice, our treatment of minorities, and the propriety of our interpreting freedom of speech as freedom from accountability or responsibility for what one teaches through the media of the radio, the cinema, and the press.

We must make adjustments too—It is plain already that if we are to belong to an organization of fifty or more nations united to bring peaceful cooperation to this earth, we must make our share of the adjustments necessary to reconcile international differences. Men who have spent these last years in other countries are fearful that we shall find it difficult to appraise our own institutions, to recognize our own weaknesses, and to accept in good spirit better adjustments of human affairs irrespective of where they may originate.

Social research needed—These matters prompt the suggestion that we must quicken our researches in the social sciences. Our physical, chemical, and industrial laboratories have been developed to an amazing degree. The physical scientist stands in a position of respect and influence all over the world. The social scientist is still on trial.

For a generation we teachers have been screening the high school and college student bodies, turning the most apt, the most ambitious, the most talented toward engineering and technical schools.

Men of equal competency have not been equally trained in the social use of the billion-dollar gadgets our scientists have produced. "Without adequate understanding," says Mark Starr, "we are children playing with matches in a powder cache—social illiterates who are simultaneously scientific supermen." In our new world physical continents are spanned in a few hours, ideas spread at the speed of light, but the cultural lag of centuries divides the peoples of this same world.

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization is an effort to set in operation the educational, cultural, and scientific machinery necessary to attack these educational problems on a global basis. It is our responsibility to support this effort, beginning in our local communities and pushing forward in every direction and at every opportunity.

There must be an exchange of pupils, of teachers; the revision of textbooks, of lesson materials; the matching of men's minds on all these issues of vital concern to human welfare and security. It is a missionary service. It calls for high purpose, for deep sacrifice, for the spirit of the crusader. It means a genuine concern for the welfare of starving, freezing, suffering millions whose physical as well as spiritual needs must be serviced if they are to survive; or, if they survive, if they are to be receptive to ideas that will cement the world together.

When this nation was founded, our people committed themselves to the democratic way of life—to government by popular verdict, to government with high social responsibility. They turned to their schools to prepare their children and youth for the duties, responsibilities, and obligations of such a society. This marked a turning point in the affairs of mankind. Out of these resolutions emerged a nation that has twice saved the world from a hideous fate.

With the close of this war men again commit themselves to new ways, to new purposes, to new forms of human associations, and to a new world dedicated to the proposition that the peace and security of the world must be built on goodwill and understanding, that liberty and justice depend primarily upon freedom from ignorance, and that freedom from want and fear wait upon an opportunity for all men to share with all other men their ideas and their ideals as well as their goods if all are to enjoy the pursuits of happiness.

We must learn or perish. We must make professional leadership the most potent and most respected of all leadership. Our opportunity lies in our schools—the schools that we administer, and in our communities—the communities that our schools serve. We must see that education becomes a mighty force that will change the behaviors of all men toward that common ideal that underlies all religions and supports every humane impulse—"All things whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them."



Willis A. Sutton, Superintendent Emeritus, Atlanta Public Schools

PRESENTATION OF HONORARY LIFE MEMBERSHIP TO WILLIS A. SUTTON

PRESENTATION TRIBUTE BY S. D. SHANKLAND

At Atlanta Conference

Willis A. Sutton—eloquent champion of education, skilled administrator, loyal friend of little children—you have served your profession with competence, your city with distinction, and your country with fidelity. You have inspired youth with ambition. You have impressed your colleagues with the dignity of their calling. Your vigorous messages have made business men and women conscious of the fact that the basis of business is education.

Your leadership has had nationwide significance. As president of the National Education Association you strove to secure integration of educational forces at all levels, to encourage social vision among teachers, to stimulate health programs in the schools, and to emphasize the sacredness of home ties.

As spokesman for thousands of your colleagues and friends, I have the privilege and honor to tender you this certificate of honorary life membership in the American Association of School Administrators, the oldest department of the National Education Association of the United States. It is a small but sincere token of our professional esteem and deep personal regard for a great educational leader.

PERSONNEL PROBLEMS IN AMERICAN EDUCATION

HENRY H. HILL, PRESIDENT, GEORGE PEABODY COLLEGE
FOR TEACHERS, NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE

Address at Atlanta Conference

For a good many years I have been a student teacher, and practitioner of school administration. I was about to reveal how many years, but since this is a characteristic of age I checked myself. I have learned some things about the science and art of school administration, perhaps too many things, for we may learn too many methods that will not work. These years have left me with due modesty and some dubiety about solutions that seemed good during my sophomore years of school administration. It is, nonetheless, a pleasure to talk with you about our common tasks during these after-the-war years ahead. The close of World War II has eliminated our possibly too-ready alibi that "of course nothing can be done about this until after the war."

A school system must have both materiel and personnel to function but personnel is the more important. I have spent many extra hours trying to obtain good personnel. Our schools are a personal service corporation, and the personnel employed will determine their success and prestige.

It has been observed that enough money will secure a better quality of both materiel and personnel. Within limits this is true, but it doesn't answer the problem for a great many of us who must all our lives deal with rather sharp limitations in the amount of money to be obtained. Doubling the money for our schools overnight would not solve all our problems of personnel, although it would be a great and noble experiment. In school systems where money is relatively abundant the problems of personnel remain difficult.

Everything should be focused about the children, but if children are to be dealt with fairly and the curriculum is to become functional and growing, the right kind of personnel must be obtained.

A glance at our present situation may be of some value as a background for this discussion. Statistical data, not available for the nation as a whole just now, are perhaps not necessary.

The Office of Education thinks that the number of emergency certificates in use in 1945-46 may reach as high as 100,000. This is an estimate and not a final figure. A report made in Indiana in January 1946, that is, last month, estimated that at the close of the present school year there would be 3556 vacancies and that there were available only 1158 qualified persons, thus leaving 2398 positions in that state to be filled by persons with substandard qualifications. In larger cities there is still a considerable shortage, especially in certain fields.

I think no one will seriously question the fact that in February 1946 most school systems are still carrying on temporary arrangements made during the war, that they have not comfortably staffed their schools as yet, and that instead of finding it easier to get teachers they are in many instances finding it more difficult to get the kind of teachers they want and need. This

immediate difficulty may become somewhat less severe during the next three years, but I do not anticipate much improvement until some of the conditions which have created this situation are changed. There is an accumulated deficit in teachers. Over the past several years very few persons have been getting ready to teach. More about this later.

I want to discuss this afternoon the immediate problems of staffing the schools, recruitment, administrator-teacher relationships, democratic administration, and creation of prestige in the teaching profession.

As far as the immediate problem goes, I think we need not be entirely defeatist in our attitude. We can still select the best possible person available instead of the first person available. Even in the least favorably situated school systems, those which have less money than the average, it is possible to capitalize on certain assets or actually to create out of a liability an asset which may be of some help in the future. For example, I know a small school system which capitalizes on the fact that teachers leave every two or three years. Actually the superintendent of schools secures a much finer kind of beginning teacher for his school system, because he points to his record as a training ground for better positions in other systems. There are those who bemoan the fact that some of the schools serve only as temporary stops for teachers. Some would set up artificial barriers to stop the normal flow of talent toward the more popular teaching centers. I have only partial sympathy with this idea. To condemn a teacher to stay all her life in any village or city, or to sentence the school district to a permanent staff does seem to rob teaching and community life of all semblance of change and adventure. A poll some years ago taken among a group of farmers indicated that they and their wives actually enjoyed having a new teacher in the community. She was an object of interest and took their minds off their troubles for a while.

There are other liabilities which may be converted into assets. On occasion I have sharply etched the difficulty of a particular job. Instead of trying to paint it in Pollyanna hue, I have rather challenged an individual with the fact that it would take all of her skill and ingenuity to master the situation. This will work occasionally, depending of course on the hardihood and desire for adventure of the person to whom you are talking.

Another asset which can be capitalized is that of climate, but it takes some money to get along even in the most beneficent climate. Nevertheless, I have seen persons stay on for less salary in a community they liked rather than take a much higher salary in a community which did not appeal to them.

We should take the necessary time and all the skill we have in selecting the teachers we have to take immediately. There is a tendency in some of us who do not write too well anyway not to write as well as we know how. As between two rather poor risks in the teaching profession, I think it is worthwhile to take time to determine the lesser of the two risks. It is sometimes possible to lure back into our teaching profession a very fine teacher who has left it and who at first refuses to return. I can hear some of you saying that you have exhausted all of these possibilities long since.

Keep the poor teacher, that you necessarily have to employ, for as short a

period as possible. Write this individual and everybody else concerned a letter with carbon copies in every direction, stating the duration of the temporary appointment and being careful not to use an unwary sentence or paragraph which will give her squatters' rights some months or years hence. Nearly all the problems which exist where there is tenure exist to only a little less degree where there is no legal tenure. In other words, we do not like to put persons out, and we tend to put that job off if we can possibly do so. This being true, avoid the mediocre teacher as a permanent liability if it is humanly possible.

To retain teachers and add to the attractiveness of teaching we should make more effort to solve their complaints, those of long standing and those created by recent emergencies. This attitude of patience and kindness toward teachers' complaints, even listening intelligently to complaints, goes a long way toward making a poor teacher a little better and a good teacher far superior to what she might be normally. The personnel director of a big department store in Pittsburgh deals with twenty-eight different unions. I pass along to you his analysis of how employees in his store wanted to be treated. I do so, because most superintendents of schools are personnel directors. They deal with human beings, and may well take seriously the conclusion of this department store personnel director who said that human beings could never be made happy solely by increases in salary; that fundamentally this was not the matter which made them most unhappy; nor would the gains in salary result in fine relationships if salary alone were all they obtained.

Here are his suggestions:

1. Treat with *fair* and *equal* consideration all employees.
2. Give credit where credit is due.
3. Give employees a share in plans and results.
4. Employees want and should have the opportunity for advice and counsel from their superiors.
5. Employees want and should have a chance to learn more about the job and an opportunity for advancement.

Perhaps these suggestions do not fit entirely in the case of a school system, but they have merit. I am not denying that a substantial salary increase is a boost to the morale in any teaching group. And yet I have seen good morale lost in an astonishingly short period where salary was the only gain.

It is usually possible to bring about a better allocation of duties. I have been a bit discouraged at times with the unwillingness of some principals and heads of departments to give proper consideration to the ordinary personal and professional desires of teachers. Certainly every teacher can't have the assignment she wants immediately, but more effort could be made by administrators, if they will, to see that she gets the assignment she wants within two or three years if she is suited for it. A better curriculum is itself a morale builder if we don't "wear our teachers out" with its production, leaving little interest and energy for its application.

Another help in the immediate problem, one that will always be good, is simple recognition of the good qualities of our teachers as individuals and

as a group. The irritating faults of some teachers make it a little difficult to recognize their good qualities. I am not advocating an insincere acclamation of virtues which are nonexistent. I am saying that teachers are, first of all, human beings. They like to feel that they are important to some one. We in administration would, I fear, be more nearly victims of neurasthenia than we are now if we never had an opportunity to appear in the limelight or to have that feeling that we were consulted and needed in the life of the community. This is a more difficult problem in large school systems than in smaller ones. I sometimes think that teachers starve as much from a feeling of lack of appreciation and recognition on the part of administrators and the public as from want of a proper salary. For human beings starve not only from lack of food or even vitamins but also from a lack of recognition and appreciation.

So much for our immediate problem of securing personnel for our schools. The long-term problem is the more difficult and of more consequence to the next generation.

During the war the teaching profession has suffered a deterioration in the quality of the personnel coming into it. This is true, of course, of some other professions. The competitive standing of teaching has gone down rather than up. Wages in industry have increased 40 or 50 percent compared to 15 or 20 percent in our teaching profession. Again, the opportunities and attractions of industry and business have been increased tremendously for young women going out of high school and college. Even civil service which used to pay only slightly better than teaching is about to become a formidable rival. Since a profession is dependent for its attractiveness not only on conditions existing within its ranks but also on the conditions of other professions and businesses, we must improve our competitive position by paying better salaries, offering greater security or greater challenge, and whatever it is that attracts better individuals into a business or profession.

Perhaps the greatest problem, the one on which we should start right here and now, is that of recruitment. I must admit quite frankly that I have not done much recruiting in my life. I would say with equal frankness that my change of attitude on this matter has not come about as a result of becoming a teachers-college president last September. It has grown during the war years as I have watched what has been happening to the teaching profession, as I have become better acquainted with the situation in our high schools where hardly a corporal's guard is thinking of entering teaching. In a southern state a few weeks ago I heard the story of a high school with 132 graduates. The superintendent called them all together to find out how many were going to teach. Only one girl in the entire group expressed any desire to enter the teaching profession. Was she weak and unhealthy, do you suppose?

Perhaps some of you don't realize how serious this matter is. It takes at least four years to produce acceptable teachers; and now for five years the supply of those beginning the four-year teacher-training period has been constantly diminishing. It is no mere accident that most teachers colleges are lagging behind the general trend in mounting enrolments.

What shall we do? Well, I think as superintendents of schools we can

endeavor to picture the assets of the teaching profession to our high-school students and their parents. Other professions are able to secure competent persons because of the challenge of the ideals within the profession or because of the possibilities of doing good. Surely these time-honored virtues are not entirely unappealing to our youth of today, if only we will point them out. During the fall I happened to have dinner with a banker and his wife and some fellow school administrators. The banker's wife expressed regret that her daughter, then a freshman at a state university, had about decided not to enter teaching. She had some natural aptitude for teaching, her mother and father thought, and they were quite willing and anxious for her to enter the profession. Why was she not entering? Now this is perhaps the most discouraging of all. Her high-school teachers had advised her not to enter the teaching profession. Later, the college teachers with whom she had talked at the university level had repeated this advice. They had pointed out the attractiveness of other avocations open to girls in 1946. Maybe we should first point out the advantages of teaching *to our teachers!*

Well, I am not denying the attractiveness of other occupations; but I believe so completely in the importance of the task of the schools and the utter impossibility of solving the problems of the future without better education than that which we have had in the past, that I think we must enlist in the teaching profession some of the best high-school graduates. Teaching does have its compensations, aside from salary. It is still a profession which has a long vacation, even when due allowance is made for summer-school attendance. After all we do not go to summer school every summer. I shall not endeavor here to list all the attractive features, but I do think that we should enter wholeheartedly into a program of recruitment using the legitimate devices which have been called to our attention by other organizations recently.

Even in the better-paying cities recruitment is going to be necessary if incoming teachers are to be anything but mediocre and below average. Pittsburgh, for example, where salaries are reasonably high as such things go, has a very great shortage of competent elementary teachers, one that has been existing for some years and still exists. As salaries are raised elsewhere in Pennsylvania, the advantages of teaching in Pittsburgh are less clear-cut, and many teachers who formerly were attracted there no longer want to go because of better conditions in their local environment. The problem of recruitment is important also for those school systems which do have good salary schedules.

One of the most promising ways to solve this long-term problem of attracting better personnel into our school systems is to enlist the support of business and community leaders in securing recognition of teachers. This has never come to them economically or socially to the degree that it has existed in Europe for many generations. The average citizen or businessman tends to look on teachers without much enthusiasm or too much respect. He recognizes exceptions, just as we recognize good persons among groups against whom we have prejudices. This problem, of course, is difficult, for we need attractive and abler persons in our profession in order to get this

recognition which would in itself make it possible to attract better persons. Nevertheless, we have to start somewhere. I think I would start by becoming acutely aware of the simple, broad outlines of our educational problems over the next generation, and then I would endeavor to enlist the intelligent and sympathetic understanding of one or more of the most influential community leaders. Fortunately the influence of a single top person is very great. The influence of two or three individuals who partake of some of the high ideals of Horace Mann of a hundred years ago would do much to solve this problem. We ourselves can become more enthusiastic about our teachers and our profession.

For good or ill during the past generation there has come into existence more of a cleavage between the interests of teachers and those of administrators. In part this has been the natural outgrowth of an attempt by teachers to share in efforts to benefit the profession. In part, however, it has been egged on, in some instances at least, by teachers who have the natural itch to stir up doubts and difficulties and rather fancy themselves in the midst of a storm center. I don't know whether this is a kind of inferiority complex or delayed maturity or just how it is accounted for psychologically. At any rate, I know there are certain individuals who do our profession more harm than good by their determination to keep problems unsettled rather than to settle them.

Whatever may be wrong with this movement, we have to take it as it is and work with it intelligently. There is no denying that administrators of another generation were generally quite autocratic. They might have been benevolent also, but there was never any doubt in their minds or in the minds of anybody who knew them that they were autocrats. That this was good for the teaching profession may be debatable, but the verdict of the people is that it is bad. Especially in cities but also in smaller areas there have grown up teacher unions—the long-established American Federation of Teachers, and some of the newer CIO groups, including a few rather small but somewhat radical groups in two or three of our larger cities. There was a time when I thought these groups came into existence because of long-standing wrongs which needed redress. I still think bad conditions in many cases started them; but I have also observed their growth where no long-standing abuses existed. Perhaps it is a part of the trend of the times or part of the growing pains of a democracy meeting in full the consequences of an age of mass production.

We must remove so far as possible the just grounds for complaint which teachers have and deal with them as fairly and frankly as they will permit. There will always be honest differences of opinion between teacher groups and the administration which has to take the responsibility of decision. There will be selfishness and misunderstanding on both sides. In some instances, however, these newly organized groups are an absolute necessity if teachers are to get the advantages which they deserve.

While administrators must seize every opportunity to know and understand the legitimate objectives of this new kind of teachers' organization, yet, in my judgment, they should never exhibit weakness either in catering to

unworthy selfish aims or in avoiding leadership of the profession. It is an easy matter for a superintendent to abdicate his responsibilities as a leader. If there is to be any real leadership, some must come from the teachers themselves but much should legitimately come from the administrator if he is competent and has the requisite qualities of tact and courage.

Certainly I hope that the professional organizations of teachers remain just that. I am not entirely convinced that they can. In the midst of a world which seems bent upon group and bloc pressures and programs, that organization which completely neglects the protection of its selfish interests will be ground between the upper and nether millstones as has happened through the ages.

During recent years much has been said about democratic administration. As an administrator, I have thought much of its advantages and disadvantages, of the many claims made for it, and oftentimes of the serious misunderstanding of what it means. It comes so readily to the lips of anyone who is being opposed in something which he wants for his own advantage.

What then is democratic school administration? Time will permit me to say only that, as far as I am concerned, it means the kind of administration which is possible and desirable in a representative democracy such as we have in the United States.

Our democracy is governed through majority opinion expressed through ballots in the choice of certain key positions of leadership. We do not, as a rule, ballot to determine the selection of those persons who are to be experts in the fields of science, education, and certain similar fields. We achieve a kind of compromise with pure democracy by which we select legislators who in turn delegate the actual selection of most experts to boards, usually composed of laymen. In this representative democracy, the chief executive still has the veto power. Note also that democratic administration does not mean weak administration or administration without definite allocation of responsibilities and duties. It seems wise to have a lay board of education elected by the people, at least in communities where it is possible to know well those persons who are to be elected, and to entrust to them the selection of a superintendent of schools, perhaps by law setting up certain reasonable qualifications of preparation and experience. It is logical to expect the superintendent of schools to recommend persons for appointment and to exercise leadership in his school system.

In some quarters it is argued that the superintendent might well be chosen by the teachers or that the principal might be recommended by the teachers in her building. I am reminded that quite recently a committee appointed by Robert Hutchins of Chicago worked out a plan by which the chancellor of the University of Chicago could recommend to a particular department an individual for appointment whom that department did not want. He explains this by saying that "those departments which do not want to be improved may under this method be improved anyway."

Please do not misunderstand me. I have gone to a great deal of trouble and used up hours and hours of allegedly valuable time in trying to administer democratically. It requires endless time and patience; but, on the

whole, I think it pays dividends in better support of the administration and in building an honest desire to have better schools. We are interested chiefly in those things in which we have a share. In my experience, however, the average teacher does not really want to select the individuals who are to lead her so much as to be consulted about policies having to do with instruction, curriculum, textbooks, and her welfare—fields in which she does have a professional and personal interest and competency that ought to be utilized. We should distinguish, in our use of democratic administration, between those expert tasks which ought to be primarily the work of specialists in school administration and those general policies which ought to be shared in generously by the teachers in their fields of professional competency.

I have referred to the idea that teachers need to be recognized as individuals of some consequence, at least in the area in which they serve. If we are not going to pay teachers salaries which will give them prestige—I am not for one minute denying that we should—then we can, in part at least, make up for this lack of salary by making conditions of working and living pleasant.

The continual loyalty of those of us who are superintendents to our teachers as a group and the effort to explain some of their mistakes and errors would help here. I do not have to justify every single thing my friend does in order to be loyal to him. If he is attacked unjustly, then certainly I should defend him against the unjustness of the charge. On the other hand, he may be attacked justly. What am I to do in that case? Well, I think we cannot stultify our own consciences by justifying something which cannot be justified; but I do think that we can explain some of the ameliorating circumstances under which such action takes place, some of the reasons, if we may change back to the teacher, why it is better for the parents to put up with some minor injustices on the part of the teacher toward their children than try to get the teacher discharged.

Our school systems have not failed during the past generation. The best evidence of this is the success of the young men and women who served in the armed forces recently, 90 percent of whom come from our public schools. But you and I readily admit that the war revealed weak spots in our educational system and in our American way of life in general.

If we are to survive in a world of mass production and speed, we must be able to solve some of the problems of human relations. To do this we must have a far abler group of citizens in the next two generations. The problems are difficult and unique.

Unless a larger proportion of the best young men and young women are attracted to our teaching profession and unless the public pays better salaries and gives greater recognition to the teaching profession, our enterprise of democracy is certain to fall far short of those goals which it might reasonably be expected to attain.

We and we alone here in the United States are the ones who can cause the downfall of democracy as it has been known these 169 years since the Declaration of Independence. We can do it, not so much by overt acts, by

strikes, or by sporadic hysterias of one kind and another which afflict small groups of human beings from time to time, but by the negative stand of refusing to face the tough problems having to do with labor, agriculture, education, and government.

Better education is not an option; it is a compulsion. Only education in better human relations within these United States and throughout the world can possibly save our children—perchance even us—from the atomic bomb. Only education which costs more and attracts finer men and women can be powerful enough to make us understand the absolute, stark necessity of dealing justly with all mankind.

In summation, reconversion of the teaching profession to a peacetime basis is progressing despite serious difficulties and bottlenecks. There are no strikes for higher salaries. Teachers are sticking to their crowded classrooms. There is a bountiful crop of students and greater numbers are in store, for the birth rate for the past five years exceeds by nearly 20 percent that of the preceding five years.

But there is a serious shortage of good teachers. Many who enlisted in the armed forces or left the classroom for industry are not coming back to teaching, for the competitive position of teaching has slipped seriously. Where industrial workers get 40 to 50 percent more money today, teachers get 15 to 20 percent more.

Just as durable goods cannot be produced satisfactorily without a good supply of machine tools so there will be an insufficient supply of good teachers until more students become prepared to teach. Both our profession and the public must recruit better persons for the teaching profession or the nation will start the first generation of atomic age citizens with a great handicap. Education cannot by itself save our world from disintegration but, on the other hand, only educated men and women can be free to work out the problems facing us, difficulties different from those encountered during previous centuries.

The teaching profession offers opportunities for service and real satisfaction to those who like people and can see the real contribution to civilization which a good teacher makes. But there is no reason save lethargy and misunderstanding of the serious situation America faces, why the wealthiest country in the world should not be willing to pay as much to the teacher who works with children as to the laborer who works with automobiles, unless we do really consider cars more important than children. This I refuse to believe.

SUPPORT FOR BETTER SCHOOLS

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It has become a truism that we live in an age of rapid and profound change. The growth of freedom of thought, the use of the scientific method, the advance of the industrial revolution, the rise of political and economic democracy, and the ever-widening applications of technology—culminating in the atomic age—are recasting the thoughts and actions of men in strange new patterns.

Communism and Fascism challenge democracy for world leadership. Isolationism and nationalism retreat before the conception of "one world." Opposing racial theories struggle for supremacy in both domestic and international affairs. Total and global warfare give way to atomic warfare. Mankind confronts a choice between the abolition of war or annihilation. Modern man, indeed, is obsolete!

In such periods social institutions either wax or wane. Like civilizations they do not stand still—least of all in an atomic age. They either adapt to new demands or go out of existence.

In looking forward in American education, we may well take inspiration from our forebears in this field. Their creation of the free, common, nonsectarian public school was a social achievement which future historians will rank high in the accomplishments of the past century.

We who work in education today may well ask ourselves: Are there victories for democratic education to be won between 1946 and 2046 which are comparable in importance to those achieved in the preceding century? Undoubtedly the answer to this question is "Yes." Let us identify some of them.

First, we must extend the scope of our educational system to make it adequate to the needs of this century.—We have not yet provided a range of educational facilities appropriate to the needs of Americans of all ages.

The facilities available at the kindergarten and prekindergarten level are quite inadequate in the typical American school system today. Less than one in four of our five-year-olds now attends kindergarten. Only one child in sixty, aged three or four, is in a nursery school.

The great importance of the early years of childhood as revealed by psychological research and the significant educational results which good schools can achieve at this level urge the necessity of providing adequate nursery-kindergarten education. One of the first goals of leadership in the decades just ahead should be the provision of adequate school services for young children.

The growth of junior colleges and technical institutes at the thirteenth- and fourteenth-grade level is the result of insistent needs in our society. These institutions, in conjunction with the upper years of high school, should

provide for effective vocational and semiprofessional education and for the extension of general education. They should primarily be terminal institutions rather than mere preparatory schools. Education at this level should be made available to the rank and file of American youth. Here is another major goal for educational leadership in the decades just ahead.

One of the notable shortcomings of American school systems today is the meager provision of adult educational facilities. The need for action in this field is great. The accelerated tempo of change which makes childhood schooling obsolete far faster than in previous times, the enormous increase in governmental activity calling for more and better action by the rank and file of citizens, the catapulting of the United States into the forefront of world leadership in an atomic age, the difficulty of individual and family adjustment in an age in which crises are the rule rather than the exception, the greatly increased and increasing amount of leisure time, all call insistently for a program of adult education keyed to the needs of the day.

We should develop an adult education program involving everything from literacy and vocational training and retraining to general education concerned with leisure-time activities, the needs of individual and family life, and the difficult problems of national and world affairs. This would involve employment of the kinds of teachers and methods which are not dependent upon compulsory education laws for a clientele, and could reclaim a portion of the American mind from the thrall of commercial amusement.

A second major goal for educational leadership in the years ahead should be the removal of the obstacles which prevent millions of Americans from taking advantage of educational facilities now in existence.—Complete educational coverage of the whole population should be the objective.

The 1940 Federal Census listed nearly three million adults who had never attended any school. An additional seven million reported so little schooling that we know they are virtually illiterates. Nearly two million children aged six to fifteen were reported not in school—ages during which, by common agreement, all should be in school.

Of the seventeen million young men examined under the draft, some five million were rejected—nearly one in three. In several states—those which make least adequate provision for education—more than half of the men examined were rejected. The high rate of rejections was pronounced a matter of national concern by Selective Service. It is a national disgrace that General Hershey should have had to say in one of his reports, at a critical time in the recent war, “. . . it is regrettable that we lose so many physically qualified who must be rejected because of illiteracy.”

At the top of the educational ladder we find another example of denial of educational opportunity. The most regrettable educational casualties in the United States are among our talented youth. Numerous careful studies made in all sections of the country reveal that approximately half of our most capable youth, according to intelligence tests, school marks, and other measures of capacity and diligence, either find it impossible to finish high school or to go on to college. Our educational system is about 50 percent efficient in developing our most valuable resource—youth of superior ability.

In the years ahead, education should be made effectively free at all age levels. Every American youth, with ability and willingness to study should be guaranteed a chance to realize the best that is in him. This would involve free tuition or scholarships at all levels, and provision of living costs of students in the upper years of high school and in college, so far as may be necessary to keep every youth in school or college as long as he should be there.

Such a program need not weaken individual initiative; in fact, all youths who enjoy such privileges should, in addition to their school tasks, do some work which is clearly of social or economic value as part payment for their education.

This is essentially what we did during the recent war period when we were really serious about using all our resources. All youths came under Selective Service. All those accepted were given basic training for warfare. Those of superior ability and industry were given advanced training and education. All living costs during the training period were met from public funds. In addition, each youth received a small wage which began on the day of induction. Extra compensation was available to help in meeting family responsibilities.

It would have been utterly stupid to let family economic status determine how well a youth should be trained for warfare. We have not yet recognized that it is equally stupid to let economic barriers determine how well a youth will be prepared for peacetime service.

Equal opportunity, including free access to education for all, has been one of the guiding tenets of American life. The facts reveal, however, that the principle of equal opportunity is violated at every level of our educational system. One of the priorities for educational leadership in the years ahead is the correction of this indefensible situation.

*A third major goal for educational leadership in the decades just ahead is the substantial improvement of the facilities of American public education.—*By facilities, I mean teachers, school plant, instructional aids, that is, all the provisions for personnel and materiel essential for the conduct of first-rate schools.

This presupposes an acceptable minimum of financial support for every classroom unit in the United States. We have no such minimum today.

In 1939-40 some five million children, nearly one in four of those in attendance, were in school systems spending less than \$1000 a year per classroom unit.¹ More than one million children were in \$500 classrooms or worse. Children in such poverty-stricken school systems seldom get a decent educational opportunity.

It is about time that somebody sticks a pin into the colossal myth that education is generously supported in this country. The fact is that the United States is one of the few important nations of the world that still supports education at the level of semiskilled labor, rather than as a calling requiring professional preparation. We spend many billions more for nonessentials than we do for the schooling of our children and youth. We allow millions of

¹Norton, John K. and Lawler, Eugene S., *An Inventory of Public School Expenditures in the United States*, Two Volumes (Mimeo.) Washington D. C.: American Council on Education, 1944. 409 p.

talented youth to leave school too early, because they cannot afford to go on. We tolerate vast educational slums in which school facilities are so miserable that they would be a disgrace to a third-rate nation.

Twenty percent of the teachers in the United States now hold an emergency certificate which is the euphonious name of a certificate to teach granted an unqualified teacher. The present alarming shortage of teachers at all levels is due to several factors. One important reason is that teachers' salaries have greatly lagged behind other incomes during the war period. They have far less power to command and hold good teachers than in 1940.

Accordingly, a first priority in the years ahead is to restore the absolute and relative purchasing power of salaries to the place where teachers as good as those of 1940 can be obtained. We should then resolutely push ahead toward a professional wage for every one of our million teachers.

The pittances traditionally doled out to American schools for instructional materials such as textbooks, libraries, and auditory and visual aids stand in sharp contrast to the generous provision wisely made in connection with the recent training program in the military services. It is uneconomic, if not stupid, in an age when technology has made remarkable teaching devices available, to give a teacher only the instructional materials used in the nineteenth century. If we operated on such a policy in other fields—warfare, business, agriculture, or medicine—we would soon become a second-rate nation.

School buildings represent another shortage. There has been little school-house construction for fifteen years, except hasty construction in war-industry communities. As we enter into a new period of school building, we should take advantage of the remarkable recent advances in lighting, heating, ventilating, and in the development of new construction materials. Flexibility of plant should be achieved along with a sufficient degree of permanence to keep down costs of operation and maintenance. Each school site, and the buildings placed upon it, should be planned as a community center, ministering to the educational, cultural, and recreational needs of contemporary life at all ages.

A fourth area which educational leadership should vigorously deal with in the decades just ahead concerns the character and quality of our educational program.—A first-rate education for those who attend our institutions of public education, after all, is the great objective. All else is merely a means to this end.

What are some of the major changes in emphasis and direction which should characterize the educational program of coming decades?

To begin with, we should complete the liberation of education from the discredited doctrine of faculty psychology. Forty years of research have disproved the myth that the mind learns like a muscle. Under this conception, various sections of the brain allegedly were strengthened by mental calisthenics, much as a gymnast strengthens the various muscles of his body. Therefore, any content was good for the mind so long as it was hard and heavy. Thus a defense was established for the retention of obsolete subject-matter in the school program. Teachers were also mercifully spared the pain of changing their ways.

The trained mind is not one which has been forced through a series of distasteful mental gymnastics. This medieval doctrine has already driven tens of millions of children and youth prematurely from our public schools. It is responsible for the fact that many adults today look back upon the schoolhouse as a place of boredom, if not of failure. Today's curriculum should find its content primarily in current needs.

The educated mind today is one which has some preparation for dealing with the changing problems of individual and family life, some conception of the contemporary forces which are shaping the thoughts and action of men, some understanding of the alternatives from which we must choose in meeting strange new problems of politics and economics, much faith in the unfettered human mind as a guide to healthy social evolution, and above all else ethical standards which reflect themselves in terms of ethical action.

This does not mean that modern education should not take account of the lessons which may be drawn from the social heritage. To recognize that one hundred so-called great books have something to contribute to modern education is easy. To say that their mastery *is* modern education is quite another matter. Such a policy would put public education into the museums alongside the mammoth and the dodo.

The modern curriculum should be founded in the needs of and problems of modern life. It should draw upon the heritage of the past, just so far, and only so far, as this material clearly contributes to the good life of today.

Another clearly needed change in modern education involves the replacement of a false and undemocratic idea of what discipline is by one which is consistent with the American way of life. Discipline in nondemocratic societies means habitual and uncritical obedience to one's masters, conformity to official ways of thinking and acting, and heel-clicking obeisance to a *fuehrer* and his henchmen. It should be crystal clear today where this type of discipline leads. It made Italy, Germany, and Japan menaces to world safety. It will do the same to any nation which succumbs to its evil influence.

All democracies, and ours especially, need discipline. Discipline must exist in every school if it is to be an instrument of democracy. What is democratic discipline? It is the habit of judging people by what they are rather than according to prejudices associated with the group they belong to. It is an attitude which makes citizens the masters rather than the victims of government and social institutions. It involves a very large element of self-control, and a feeling of responsibility which operates when the policeman, the teacher, or other outer controls are absent. It is the kind of education which makes an honest "Why" rather than a servile "Heil" the mark of good citizenship.

Such discipline is more difficult to achieve than that of the totalitarian state, but it is discipline none the less, and the kind of discipline which a democracy, and a school for democracy, should be principally concerned with.

There are, to be sure, automatic elements of discipline even in a democracy. One should not have to think through whether he is to respond to each red light encountered in traffic. But these are the superficialities rather than the fundamentals of life in a democracy.

Again, the school of the future should fully reject the cruel and unsound doctrine that chronic failure by children and youth is desirable education. Psychological research has taught us that few things add more to the growth of healthy personality than justly earned success and achievement.

In too many schoolrooms, even today, opportunity for accomplishment is largely confined to the area of abstract thinking. Those who are good at verbalization achieve success, and sometimes with too little effort. Others gain such recognition as they get from outside the classroom, or through misbehavior in the classroom, or after they *leave* school. (One-half of the seventh graders go through.)

A primary purpose of school organization should be to offer a range of educational opportunities which will permit every child and youth to achieve enough success to permit him to respect himself and to gain some respect from others.

Thus far in this address we have considered the school system of the future from the viewpoints of needed extensions in scope, better diffusion of educational opportunity, improvement of personnel and materiel, and modernization of program or curriculum.

Many of you have doubtless been asking: Can we afford such a program? Where are we going to get the money?

Several estimates have recently been made as to what it would cost the nation to provide genuine access for all to the kind of educational opportunities which have been described. Both the National Resources Planning Board and the National Education Association have estimated that it would cost approximately six billion dollars annually. This is approximately twice the prewar cost of public elementary, secondary, and higher education.

Assuming that the national income should stabilize at about one hundred and thirty billion dollars a year after reconversion, which is a reasonable expectation, six billion dollars for education would be 4.6 percent of the national income, as compared with 3.5 percent expended in 1940.

Is an increase in the ratio of educational expenditures to national income feasible in an economy such as ours? Such an increase may not only be possible, but also desirable. It appears likely that the maintenance of a high level of employment and national income will require substantial increases in the proportion of workers and capital employed in service occupations and social welfare services, as opposed to those concerned with the production and distribution of tangible goods. Harold D. Smith, Director of the Budget, in a recent book dealing with the problem of maintaining a high level of income and employment after the war, makes the following statement:

... Complementary to a greater production of things must be an expansion in services to the people. Our medical centers and hospitals, our schools, our churches, our youth organizations, our social centers, and our recreation programs illustrate some areas where expansion of services can better our standard of living and promote full employment.²

²Smith, Harold D., *The Management of Your Government*, Whittlesey House, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1945. p. 155-156.

There are of course a number of powerful and unpredictable factors in this whole situation. If the economy should slip back into the stagnation of the 1930's our whole standard of living including our standard of educating would not improve, but retrogress. Also, if we let inflation get away from us it would set back both private and public enterprise for an indefinite period.

But is it too much to expect that the American people will be able to work out of the morass of reconversion onto the high land where we will make reasonable use of our unequaled resources?

There is also the question of whether the federal government will adopt the fiscal policies which are requisite to the adequate financing of education. During the period since the "New Deal" came into existence, education has been the poor relation of the federal government. The national government has preempted much of the fiscal capacity of the states and localities. It has aided many other areas of public enterprise. Public education has not been aided except in dire necessity, and then on an emergency, piecemeal basis.

There are growing indications that the federal government will eventually take its proper place beside the states and localities in making its indispensable contribution to the financing of education in the United States. The current battle for federal aid for education is in many ways a repetition of those won earlier in our educational history—first at the local and next at the state level of government.

The final decision, however, as to whether a first-rate educational program will be financed in the decades ahead will depend primarily upon whether our people gain new conceptions as to the social value of this great public enterprise—whether they look upon it merely as a custodial function which keeps children and youth off the streets while they are taught a few skills and facts more or less pertinent to the real business of life—or whether they recognize education as an opportunity for a great social investment which like all good investments enhances rather than depletes the resources of the investor. At this point lies the greatest challenge to education of today.

Although the payments of the American people for education in the past have been an excellent investment, our great industrial democracy has far from exploited the full possibilities of education as an instrument of national progress. The provision of education right in amount and kind to every American would be an investment which would pay wonderful dividends in individual and general well-being, both tangible and intangible.

We still permit millions of American children to go virtually unschooled. Other millions of youths of proved talent and diligence are denied opportunities to prepare for leadership because economic barriers stand between them and the advanced education which they should have. American civilization, therefore, operates at a lower level of skill and competence than it might achieve.

We soon discovered this fact when we were forced into the war and had to use our full resources, both material and human, in order to survive. We did not haggle as to where we were going to get the money to train

men for both war and civilian work. We got the money. We trained the men, even in wartime, literally by the millions. We lifted our productivity to a level above our most fabulous estimates.

A century ago Horace Mann and other far-visioned leaders challenged the imagination of a young nation with the possibilities of a free public school system for all. This was something new under the sun. The American people accepted the challenge. Their wisdom in establishing a system of public education, after all debits and credits are balanced, has been abundantly justified. Education is undoubtedly one of the important reasons why that particular part of the New World known as the United States has become the most powerful nation in the world.

During the past generation the world has offered demonstrations of the enormous power of education. Too often, however, these demonstrations have been given by the modern despotisms which prostituted this great social instrument to evil ends. It remains for the United States to demonstrate the unparalleled potentialities of education when it is rightly and fully used in a free industrial democracy.

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

KENNETH MC FARLAND, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, TOPEKA, KANSAS

Abstract of Address at Chicago Conference

During the course of a year it is my privilege to speak before a rather wide variety of business, industrial, and professional groups. Since I have a job of my own to do and cannot accept more than one invitation out of each dozen or so, I might as well have some policy about my speaking. The policy is to address about ten noneducational groups to each school gathering. I follow this policy because I became convinced quite some time ago that we school people do a terrific job of selling education to one another, but we could well spend more time selling it to the people who pay for it.

Then, too, I find some of the best educational meetings I ever attend are held under other names. If one can visit a wide variety of groups, talking to them, but more important having them talk to him, he soon finds himself much better prepared to go back to his school with a little more of an idea what young people should know who wish to enter these various groups he has contacted. I have never quite understood how some educators I have known thought they could prepare boys and girls to live in a world concerning which they themselves were almost totally uninformed. My plea to educators is to take off the cellophane wrappers and come out where the people live. If education is life, let us indulge in some of it ourselves and we shall do our professional jobs better as a result.

I find one speaker can make a small contribution to most any kind of business, vocational, or professional group for several reasons. In the first place the principles of organization are essentially the same no matter what

the business is. Given good personnel and good organization you can always answer the rest of the questions.

Secondly, people are not failing in the vocations, professions, industry, and business because they lack the skill technics involved. Approximately nine-tenths of the failures are due to the inability to master the human elements involved. Important studies show people fail or are fired most often because they are lazy, irresponsible, dishonest, immoral, intemperate, disloyal, ill-mannered, ill-tempered, have poor health, possess poor personalities, or "talk too much."

All this leads us to the homely but profound conclusion that before a man can be a good businessman, professional man, or tradesman, he must first be just a good man. A man cannot divorce himself from the institution he is running or the job he is doing. He cannot be one kind of a man and run another kind of a place.

The personality that will succeed in the years ahead must be gracious, not defeated by the yappings of little people, and will take time to be human. These qualities cannot be substituted for skill, but skill cannot be substituted for them either. We must have both.

This thing we call education is culture, and culture is polish. It is like any other polish in one respect at least—it must be "rubbed on." Children cannot acquire it by reading about it or hearing about it; they must rub shoulders daily with people who have it. It is very difficult for a child to learn good manners without ever seeing any. That is why no canned or accelerated educational process can ever take the place of high-grade ladies and gentlemen in the classroom; and there is no use talking about buying that kind of quality at bargain prices.

The ideal learning situation exists when a child so admires his teacher that he wants more than anything else just to be like his teacher. There is perfect motivation.

I have not tried to discuss the whole field of personnel administration—just a few special aspects of it. The secret of personnel administration will be found in the fact that the word "personnel" begins with the word "person," and that means *someone in particular*. We must somehow realize that every person we ever contact is really and truly *somebody*, and *somebody very special*. Then it would never occur to us to be unfair, inconsiderate, or crude in dealing with children, teachers, patrons, or the public.

The encouraging message I bring you is that the old Golden Rule is scientifically sound. If you will follow it you do not need to know the answers to all the problems ahead, because out of that policy will come answers that are good enough, and they will come when you need them.



President Krill of the Associated Exhibitors presenting the American Education Award to S. D. Shankland

TRIBUTE TO THE RECIPIENT OF THE AMERICAN EDUCATION AWARD FOR 1946

JOHN J. KRILL, PRESIDENT, ASSOCIATED EXHIBITORS OF THE NATIONAL
EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

Address at Chicago Dinner Meeting

It is indeed a great privilege and a very real pleasure to extend the most cordial greetings and good wishes of the Associated Exhibitors of the National Education Association in welcoming you to this, our first peacetime program.

You are all familiar, I am sure, with the annual presentation of the American Education Award by the Associated Exhibitors to a person who has made an outstanding contribution in the broad field of education. During the past two decades, the recipients have been chosen from various areas of outstanding educational service, including school administration, music, art, athletics, authorship, science, social and civic work.

As you now know, the recipient of the 1946 American Education Award is your own executive secretary, and friend and counselor to us all—Sherwood D. Shankland. To tell you of S. D.'s outstanding contributions in the field of school administration alone would take more time than is now at my disposal. All of his twenty-five years as your executive secretary are characterized by outstanding administrative accomplishment and service. Education during this past quarter of a century has been involved with stupendous problems, difficulties, and opportunities for service. The guiding influence and effective directives of your executive secretary are evident in all the deliberations and administrative actions of your Association during this, the most difficult period in the history of our country. No better expression of his great service and the esteem and love of his immediate associates and of all school administrators and friends could be made than is expressed in the illuminated manuscript drafted by Milton C. Potter, past president of the American Association of School Administrators.

Sherwood D. Shankland's work has been well done and his deeds acclaim him as a most worthy recipient of the American Education Award. The honor that now comes to him is wholly deserved, and his name adds luster to that distinguished list of educators which appears on the bronze plaque in the lobby of the National Education Association building in Washington, D. C. It is now my great privilege, in the name of the Associated Exhibitors of the National Education Association, to present to you, Sherwood D. Shankland, the American Education Award for 1946.

ACCEPTANCE OF THE AMERICAN EDUCATION AWARD FOR 1946

SHERWOOD D. SHANKLAND, EXECUTIVE SECRETARY, AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS, NEA

At Chicago Dinner Meeting

To receive the American Education Award is an honor which I appreciate more than the words which I may utter can tell.

Administration is not a matter of a single individual. It functions only through competent staff work. At Washington headquarters, across the long years of my service, an unusually able group of people has worked with me—some on the staff of the American Association of School Administrators and some in other divisions and departments of the National Education Association. Not only for myself, personally, but also as the symbol of my many devoted associates, I accept the American Education Award for 1946.

About three years ago the army asked thousands of enlisted men to state the three items which they, as soldiers, considered most important. They listed, in order—equipment, leadership, and a cause. In this room tonight, all of these essential requirements are represented.

TO
SHERWOOD D. SHANKLAND

*In Affectionate Recognition of a Half Century
as Counselor and Friend of School Administrators*

IS PRESENTED

THE AMERICAN EDUCATION AWARD

For years a tribune of the children as a member of the Ohio Legislature, head of a city school system and a woman's college, he was first and foremost a teacher. Like the gentleman scholar of the Tabard Inn "gladly wolde he lerne, and gladly teche."

For a quarter century he has been the executive secretary of their organization for all American School Administrators.

An ensampler amongst them he has been the main-spring of their plans and policies.

This master secretary has excelled as program arranger and peacemaker. He has manifested a true passion for anonymity and has channeled all credit to the presidents and committees and commissions. He has never been elated when any man was hurt and never dejected when anyone was blest.

Secretary Shankland's life has been so gentle and so quietly effective, loyal, far-sighted, wise, astute, always holding high the ideals of home and country, that his friends and associates now proudly proclaim: "This is a noble gentleman."

*The above is the wording on the illuminated
manuscript presented to Sherwood D. Shankland
by the Associated Exhibitors of the National
Education Association*

First, in the great exhibits at our winter meetings the finest school equipment, supplies, and instructional materials in the world have been displayed.

Second, in the membership of the American Association of School Administrators are hundreds of those whose foresight and understanding have provided educational leadership in nation, state, city, and small community.

Third, we have a cause which merits the best endeavors of the ablest people. In brief, it is to preserve the heritage of the past and to build a new generation of citizens worthy of America's best traditions.

Had normal conditions prevailed, we had planned to hold this year a great diamond jubilee of the Department of Superintendence. Organized seventy-five years ago, the Department has witnessed three distinct periods of educational progress:

During the first quarter century opinions interchanged at the annual meetings among the keenest minds in the profession were the guideposts of progress.

In the next quarter century everyone knew exactly what to do. With meticulous care we observed the college-entrance requirements. It was a time when we followed the established patterns.

The quarter century just closed has marked the development of leadership through two important channels—namely, professional organization and research.

In the quarter century just ahead, new names and new faces, new ideas but old ideals, will chart the course of education. In this association of school administrators the opportunities for leadership were never greater.

Some time ago a group of archeologists dug far into the ground on the site of an ancient city. There they found the remains of what had once been a beautiful temple. Carved across the entrance were the words, "After me cometh a builder; tell him I too have known." Like that ancient builder, we may say, "After us cometh other builders; tell them we too have known."

SOME QUESTIONS ABOUT SCHOOL ORGANIZATION AND THE SCHOOL PLANT

JOHN GUY FOWLKES, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION AND DEAN OF THE
SUMMER SESSION, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN, MADISON, WISCONSIN

Address at Chicago Conference

A school plant is merely the biggest single piece of learning equipment essential for a good school system. To be sure, a school building, like all other working quarters, has a primary function of housing, but most especially the facilities of size and arrangement of the component units of a school building must reflect the educational needs which are to be met by a given school system.

Too often school buildings are planned without due regard to the ages of people that are to be served, the various kinds of educational offerings that are to be made available, and the particular pattern of school organization that is to prevail. Just as the variety of ages and the particular educational program have marked relationship to a school building, similarly these factors also affect greatly the pattern of organization in a local school system. In effect, therefore, the influence of the organization of a school system on the school plant cannot be considered validly until who is to be served and what is to be offered are also given due attention.

WHO IS TO BE SERVED?

The early concept of the population that needed to be served by the schools of a local community was a decidedly limited one in contrast with contemporary practice. Even our compulsory attendance laws throughout the country, which on the whole provide for eight years of schooling, reflect a much lower level of education than is recognized as essential by a sharp majority of our local communities. High-school opportunity for all at public expense is now accepted throughout our nation. There is growing evidence that local schools must also take care of three-, four-, and five-year-olds and adults if basic educational needs are to be served. Consequently, in establishing a pattern of over-all organization for a local school system, it is clear that cognizance must be taken of the age levels for which school opportunity is to be offered.

It is highly essential that school buildings reflect specific planning for the particular age groups of people that are to be served. Very few school buildings at present have any appropriate facilities for programs of adult education. Practically none of our elementary-school buildings are designed or equipped to take care of children under five years of age. As a matter of fact, even in many communities that have kindergartens, the quarters for such kindergartens as well as the rooms for the Grades I and II are ill-suited, indeed, for the type of educational opportunity that should be offered for these early age groups.

WHAT IS TO BE OFFERED?

Just as the philosophy of what age groups need local school opportunity has changed, so also the philosophy of what kind of schooling that should be available has changed. No longer are the Three R's alone acceptable as an adequate educational program. Particularly for those people over fifteen years of age is this true. Although general education still is, and must be, one of the major functions of any school unit, it must be recognized that general education must include development of the hand and development of social ability, as well as development of the mind. Furthermore, the necessity for prevocational and vocational training must be met by local school systems for relatively large numbers of people for whom the high school or junior college is still the last formal educational experience.

Laboratory facilities—especially with respect to household arts, commercial arts, industrial arts, and agriculture—demand very careful planning

at all levels. The school building handicap under which an attempt is made to offer educational opportunity in these fields is the most forceful argument that could be advanced for the need of careful plant planning in connection with these fields.

THE OVER-ALL ORGANIZATION

As has previously been implied, the over-all organization of a local school system should be determined on the basis of who is to be served and what is to be offered. Similarly, the number of people to be served should sometimes play a major part in the establishment of an over-all local school organization. Some of the specific questions that should be carefully considered in the development of a pattern of over-all organization are:

- Shall there be nursery schools?
- Shall there be junior high schools?
- Shall there be senior high schools?
- Shall there be a junior college?

After these questions have been seriously pondered over, the question then arises as to whether these units shall be housed separately or together and the extent to which it is desirable and practical to keep these various units housed separately or collectively.

Up to approximately 1920, the 8-4 plan of organization was found most frequently in this country, as is still the case. Such an organization obviously did not recognize the need for kindergartens or the need for a junior college. Between approximately 1920 and 1930 the junior high school as a separately housed unit made its appearance throughout the country. Roughly, during the decade 1930-40 the trend towards the separately housed junior high school eased and school buildings housing the last six grades, namely, Grades VII through XII, made their appearance in many sections of the country. In the relatively few communities that have established junior colleges in connection with the local high schools, practice of separate or collective housing of the high school and junior college is varied.

Too few communities have attempted to establish nursery schools as integral parts of the public-school system to make any generalized statement concerning this latest development in our system of public education. Some communities as, for example, Dearborn, Michigan, are experimenting with the construction of small school buildings which will take care of children in the three- to seven- or eight-year group. The belief is held in some quarters that relatively small outlying schools for these younger age groups can be built and operated at considerable saving without any serious effect on the educational experience enjoyed by the children.

Whether the school plant organization of a local school system should be the 7-6, 7-3-3, 4-4-4-4, or one of the other possible, commonly found arrangements must be decided in terms of who is to be served and the kind of educational opportunity that is to be offered. By and large, it seems sound to say that, if a community is not to have a junior college, all things considered, the six-year secondary-school building is more efficient both edu-

cationally and financially than separate buildings for Grades VII, VIII, and IX and X, XI, and XII. This is especially true in communities having populations under 100,000.

It should be remembered that a school building which provides for six years of secondary-school opportunity does not necessitate the organization of a single six-year school unit. Many communities have found it very satisfactory to organize and operate a junior high school composed of Grades VII, VIII, and IX and a senior high school of Grades X, XI, and XII, both of which are housed in a single school building, but which operate on separate and different daily schedules.

ORGANIZATION OF INDIVIDUAL SMALL BUILDINGS

Even after the over-all pattern of school plant organization has been established, certain problems of the individual school building will inevitably arise. Some of the more important of these problems are as follows:

Shall there be a separate technical high school?

Shall the school which houses children from three to six years of age be housed separately?

In the school building which houses six years of secondary school, shall two sets of administrative offices be provided?

In the school building which provides for the last two years of high school and two years of junior college work, shall two sets of administrative quarters be provided?

To what extent does collective housing of junior and senior high-school pupils or high-school and junior-college students necessitate increasing physical education facilities?

The general thesis for dealing with these questions is that the richest possible educational opportunity should be offered at the least necessary expense. If there is an educational or social reason for separating various groups of students which are housed in a single building, full provision should be made for separate administrative offices of the various groups. Also, collective housing of students in a single building should in no way limit necessary facilities for all essential educational experience.

Particular care should be exerted in arrangement of rooms for all buildings that are to house relatively wide spans of age groups. Similarly, in establishing daily schedules, great care should be taken in allocating and assigning rooms. In many communities where a single building houses Grades VII through XII, practically all of the classroom work for Grades VII, VIII, and IX is done on one floor and practically all of the work for Grades X, XI, and XII is done on another floor, with alternate use being made of shops, laboratories, cafeteria, and gymnasium.

Such seem to be some of the major problems that arise in connection with school organization and the school plant. The particular answers to these problems in relation to a given community must be worked out by all concerned in terms of what best meets local school needs. The writer knows no magic formula which will fit any and all situations.

THE MODERN HEALTH PROGRAM

GEORGE E. ROUDEBUSH, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, COLUMBUS, OHIO

Address at Chicago Conference

For more than twenty-five years the health of school children has been a major concern of this Association. The subject has been discussed at nearly every meeting. It has been the topic for study by many committees and commissions. Sections of reports, chapters of yearbooks, and even one entire yearbook have been devoted to this subject. Many of these discussions have been conducted by leaders, and many of the reports have been written by competent authorities in the specialized field of health, both within and without our own profession. I am assuming, therefore, that the purpose of this discussion is not so much to bring something new or authoritative on the subject, but rather to renew our interest in and to reemphasize the importance of children's health. Like democracy, because of its importance, and because there is always a new generation, health must forever be defended and promoted.

The general topic for this session of the conference is "Conserving Human Resources." What subject could be more appropriate, now that we live in the wake and not in the midst of a great world war. Then life was cheap, life was to be destroyed. It was expendable. But no nation can long endure on such a program. A wise use of resources, both natural and human, is imperative if a nation is to be prosperous and is to enjoy national happiness.

A recent booklet prepared for the Committee on Education of the United States Chamber of Commerce compares several nations as to natural resources, level of education, and income or prosperity. In each case, the result shows that it is not the natural resources that determine the prosperity of the nation, but the level of education. This report establishes the fact that the most important factor in the prosperity of a nation is a program that improves the individual and promotes his general welfare. It is people that make a nation great. We cannot long afford the extravagance of unnecessary human waste. We can have a greater and nobler America only to the extent that we are willing to conserve and develop human resources.

My specific assignment is "The Modern Health Program." The development of health work in connection with education must be regarded as a phase of this important conservation movement. Conservation of the child is not only humanitarian, but is good business. Questions of health relate directly to the elimination of waste. As a nation we have directed attention to the stoppage of waste, both in our natural and in our human resources, yet the great problem of national conservation is not so much soils or forests or water power, important as these may be, but the conservation of our national vitality.

War has taught us much about physical fitness and the value of human life, yet among the people generally there is still much ignorance as to

disease, health, and safety. The annual loss to our people through preventable diseases and accidents is appallingly large. To increase the knowledge of hygienic laws and to reduce such ignorance and waste is a national duty. No agency of our society has such opportunities for usefulness in this direction as has the school. In fact, education is the one general means for improving the health of succeeding generations and for reducing the present enormous waste due to physical defects and disease.

We now know that health was vitally important for war. It is no less so for peace. It is a human need that is necessary for the more abundant living. History shows us that from primitive times peoples have been afflicted with the inroads of disease, pestilence, and plague, and that through various practices attempts have been made to control health conditions. Progress has been slow. Only in modern times has scientific knowledge and legislation been brought to bear effectively on these problems.

At the outset let us observe that probably more progress has been made than most of us realize. One of the greatest accomplishments of civilization has been the remarkable progress made in increasing the average life expectancy. In the Middle Ages the average life span was twenty years. In the seventeenth century it advanced to twenty-five years. Through the years there has been a steady increase until, today, the life expectancy is sixty-three years for men and sixty-six for women. Is it not remarkable also that twelve million men and women of the armed services have gone to all corners of the world and additional millions have been displaced here at home for war work, and yet no serious pestilence or plague has attacked our people? These are evidences that we do have a knowledge of the controls of health conditions and that they have been applied effectively in some areas.

We have the "know-how" in this country, if we only set ourselves to the task with determination. Yet the fact remains, in spite of the increase in life expectancy and in spite of control of disease, we are not the healthy nation of people we should or could be. The rejection of draftees called up for military service in World War I and World War II because of physical unfitness should be a matter of national concern. I personally believe that a careful, unprejudiced analysis of these rejections will show that much improvement was made between World War I and World War II. In fact there is evidence to show that young Americans of draft age in this war were better nourished than their fathers, better protected during childhood against disease, and are the healthiest generation America has ever produced. So high was the average condition of these men that the government had no major problem in selecting twelve million individuals to meet the new and more exacting standards of fitness. However high the standards, and however successful we were in meeting quotas, yet the truth is that approximately one out of every four called up for military service was rejected. In the light of the evidence on increase in life expectancy, progress in control of spread of disease, and probable improvement between the two wars, may the whole thing not resolve itself into the question of whether we are willing to do better and more

aggressively those things that there is evidence that we as a nation know how to do? Is this not an opportunity for education to give added impetus once more to its favored and "high priority" objective—health?

If these obligations are to be met, the first step is to fix responsibility for the development and control of health programs. Originally these controls were largely with boards of health. Medical inspections in schools began as an extension of the work of these boards. This was because the police power of the board of health was needed for the control of contagious diseases. Beyond this phase of the work, school health has other functions. Its work is educational and preventive; its program is to build up health. Since the whole correction program depends very largely upon parental cooperation, the administrative control in this respect is unusually important. Better cooperation can be secured from parents because they are accustomed to dealing with school officials. The first line of defense against communicable disease is formed by classroom teachers who may be trained to recognize the early signs of disease. As health work has gone from medical inspection for detection of contagious diseases to the more fundamental purposes of prevention and upbuilding, activities emphasized in schools become more significant. Habit-formation, exercise, cleanliness, healthful surroundings, ventilation, rest, growth, safety are everyday educational activities. These are the reasons that many cities have placed the control of health work for children in the school under the board of education. This should be one of the principal departments of a city school system, responsible to the superintendent of schools as the coordinating head of the whole school organization. In this department will be physicians, dentists, nurses, and specialists. Coordinated with it will be classes for the handicapped, recreation and health teaching, child study clinics, and associated services. All these must be responsible to the educational department in order that the work may be effectively carried on in cooperation with other members of the educational staff.

If in the last analysis health is largely an educational matter, then the teacher holds an important place in the program. The modern health program must increasingly recognize this fact and utilize the teacher as a key person in the program. Any health service in the schools will have to depend upon the intelligent cooperation of the teacher. By her example and her instruction she exercises a strong influence over the attitudes and practices of pupils. She more than any one else has opportunities for observing the effects of instruction, nervousness, eyestrain, defective hearing, and first symptoms of contagious diseases. This means an awareness on the part of teachers. It means that teachers must be trained to observe defects, detect diseases, and know something of the hygiene of growth. Such work is elementary but will enable teachers to observe their children and be increasingly alert to the need of educating the whole child.

But many health problems of the child arise before the child comes to school. Upon the home rests the responsibility for assuring the mental and physical health of every child before he enters school. No child should be forced to enter school with any remediable physical defect. Parents have

done the best they could, with limited knowledge. Today parent education and preschool examinations appear as means of improving this important period of health service. Schools can and must provide the leadership through parent education and through enlistment of cooperation of family physicians, clinics, and all available services.

A modern health program must be comprehensive. In an educational program it is more than the immunization against disease or proper care of teeth. A health program must provide for the protection of children, encourage the correction of defects, and create the right attitude towards health. As one of the first objectives of education health must necessarily permeate all phases of the educational program from physical plant to details of instruction. This is the main reason that it is a school responsibility. Schools can work in areas of child development where the work of health boards and private agencies would be limited.

These areas of responsibility have been well described in the professional literature and conference reports of recent years. They will be briefly discussed here partially for emphasis and more particularly to establish the fact that the school health program for today must be comprehensive and all-inclusive.

School health responsibilities may be grouped under many headings. For the convenience of this discussion let us look at three main areas. They are: (a) the school environment of buildings, grounds, equipment, and program; (b) the health supervision of children; and (c) the health guidance and instruction program.

It seems axiomatic to state that the school's physical plant should provide a healthful surrounding and atmosphere for the child while at school. Yet most of America's children are housed in school buildings that are not new and do not meet modern standards of health, safety, and sanitation. All communities cannot have new buildings. But all communities can be kept constantly alert to the needs for rehabilitating and replacing old and obsolete school buildings. Services for safety and sanitation must be adequate to meet health needs of children. Up-to-date standards should be maintained in construction of new buildings. In modernization of older buildings special attention must be given to improvement in cleaning, heating, ventilating, lighting equipment, and to the adequacy of drinking fountains, lavatories, and toilets. In buildings, old or new, there are daily health problems involving cleaning, seating, lighting, heating and ventilating. These require supervision and training for custodians and housekeeping employees. There should be a planned routine of inspection to maintain a healthful environment. In most cities additional health and safety protection can be secured through the cooperation of city health and city fire departments. The city health department will make inspections of the sanitary conditions of school buildings. The fire prevention bureaus will make thorough and rigid inspections that are a distinct contribution to the protection of health and safety of the children.

In addition to the school plant environment the social and emotional

environment of the pupil requires earnest consideration. The intimate contact of teacher and pupil has a profound influence on the health of pupils. Informality, freedom, and cooperation should characterize classroom procedures. The total program of the school should be so organized that it serves the needs of each individual child. Marks, tests, promotions should be evaluated in the light of the effect on health. All assignments, including homework, should be adapted to individual children and should be of such nature that they do not cause undue worry, fatigue, or interfere with normal play or sleep.

In short, school officials are responsible for the provision of surroundings that are conducive to safety and health of pupils. No health and safety program can, therefore, be called modern until buildings, equipment, and programs meet recognized standards.

The second general area of the health program is the health services which include medical examinations, care of emergencies, prevention and control of communicable diseases.

The effectiveness of the health services depends almost wholly on the quality of the personnel. Physicians, nurses, and other specialists should be a part of the educational staff, should be chosen on the basis of desirable personal and professional qualifications, and should have training in public health work. But the full value of health protection and improvement services is never realized unless the services are made a part of the pupil's learning experiences and made to contribute to his understanding and growth.

All pupils should be examined periodically. But the frequency should be regulated so as to place more emphasis on children having the greatest need for the service. The purpose of the examination is to determine the child's health status, leaving details and diagnosis to the family physician. Parents should be encouraged to have the examination by the private physician most familiar with the child's health status. If the child has a family physician or attends a clinic regularly, this resource should be used for periodic health examination and reports sent to the school.

Emphasis must be given to the fundamental role of the teacher in every school health service program. The day-by-day observation of pupils by teachers and the referral of those needing specialized attention of nurse or physician may be as valuable as the periodic health examinations.

The follow-up campaign to secure correction of remediable defects is the important phase of this area of the health program. Treatment is not a function of the schools, but is the responsibility of practicing physicians and dentists. Sound school health education teaches children and parents where and how to get treatment so that when they leave school they will have learned how health needs may be met.

On the basis of the health examination results, the school program should be adjusted where necessary to individual cases. These adjustments may include rest periods, modified activities, proper feeding, modification of class work, seating to compensate for eye and ear defects, and modified programs of study,

Immunization programs for communicable diseases should be sponsored by the school authorities and when necessary provided by state or local boards of health. In addition, the school should apply measures aimed at control of communicable diseases—daily observation and inspection of pupils and isolation of those exhibiting signs of illness.

The third general area is the health instruction program. Everyone in the school system shares in this part of the work. All experiences in the classroom, school, home, and community go to make up health instruction, since they all contribute to the child's understanding and growth. As a means to healthy living, health instruction must be based on best scientific authority, must be practical, related to the situation, and truly functional.

The educational implications of nurse-pupil relationships and the educational outcomes of examinations by physicians and dentists are recognized by many. These experiences should be developed so that the educational values are realized.

In addition to these experiences a definitely planned health instruction program is necessary. This is the real challenge to schools because in these areas the greatest contribution to health can be made. Schools should clearly and definitely instruct pupils concerning the functioning of the human body, procedures for maintaining health, something of hygienic laws governing the causes and prevention of diseases, and the work and place of community health programs.

The child needs to know a great deal about health. He needs to know how to develop good health for himself, how to avoid illness and accidents, and how to protect the health of others. He must understand the difference between adequate and inadequate diet, the effect of drugs and stimulants, and the value of vaccination and immunization.

All possible opportunities to influence health behavior should be utilized. Direct health instruction should be emphasized in regular courses in hygiene, health, physical education, science. Advantage should be taken of all opportunities for supplementary and incidental instruction in all other subject fields and activities, both curriculum and extracurriculum.

The real purpose of this whole effort should be to arouse interest in healthy living and to develop good habits and attitudes. Like all other educational programs the school health instruction will be effective to the extent to which these habits and attitudes are carried over into daily life.

One phase of health instruction is urgent and presents itself today as a real challenge and opportunity for education. This is training in safety and accident prevention. Man is so beset with hazards today in a world of mechanization and complexity of living, that one can truly ask what is the chance of living in safety and security, without accident or injury? Home, alone, cannot deal with this complicated problem and school must assume increasing responsibility. The schools have for a long time taken a very active part in providing for the protection of lives and property. It seems to be a natural tendency for youth to seek adventures and to take risks. Learners need to be made conscious of their personal responsibility for safety, not only for themselves but also for others. They should learn

to sense dangers, to avoid them, and to help others forestall waste and suffering. It is probably not too much to hope that the safety education taught in the schools will also reach a large number of adults both directly and indirectly.

Instruction in safety can be developed in connection with the regular school program, without adding another separate subject. Considerable material regarding safety education is included in regular school subjects. The formation of school safety councils should be encouraged. Real life experiences are profitable for study. Ideals can be practiced in and related to school situations in which pupils live. This is a "must" in any health program, for health and happiness cannot be enjoyed by the suffering.

No school health program is complete that does not provide for the identification of handicapped pupils and the adaptation of programs to meet their needs. The regular program must be varied for pupils whose physical disabilities require special attention beyond that given to normal pupils. All are familiar with special classes for children where the physical handicap is so evident that special care is required. These are classes for the blind, those with defective vision, those with defective hearing, the crippled, and the mentally retarded. But a thorough examination program will identify many other pupils with minor physical defects that handicap school progress.

Modern procedures require that the handicapped be treated as far as possible as a normal child. The child should be helped to live successfully within his limitations. To help this group of children adjust socially is the important contribution to their education.

I have tried to emphasize that a modern health program is the responsibility of the schools, and particularly of the educational department of the schools; that in this department there must be competent, well-trained, specialized personnel with an understanding of children and school health programs. These steps are important and fundamental. Yet, because health is increasingly an educational matter, the teacher becomes increasingly the key person in the whole program.

This position of the teacher has important implications. It is a phase of the program that has not yet received the serious consideration it deserves. I refer to the training of teachers, not as technicians in the field of health, but as workers with a better knowledge of the importance of health and its place in the school program.

The prospective teacher herself must be a healthy individual. In her preparation for teaching she should acquire information about health and principles of healthful living. Teacher-education courses should prepare teachers to recognize physical handicaps and symptoms of irregular health conditions among children, to have a working knowledge of growth and development of children, and to be familiar with procedures for development of health habits and attitudes on the part of pupils. For teachers now in service provisions should be made for refresher courses and in-service training programs. In the last analysis it is an awareness, an alertness on the part of teachers that must be encouraged and promoted.

And finally, there must be some plan of appraisal of the effectiveness of this work. Undoubtedly the weakest spot in the school health program is the follow-up, both of the individual child and the effectiveness of the program as a whole. For the latter it means a continuous and long-term appraisal. This consists of observing resultant individual and group health behavior. This type of appraisal is in addition to and different from statistical data giving number of examinations and number of corrections. Some common elements can be readily observed: Are children happy? Are they making desirable growth? Are they alert? Are they strong, active, graceful?

Appraisal can also be made in terms of the awareness of health needs of the school, the extent of use of health resources in school and community, and the extent of participation by children and personnel in use and promotion of health programs.

And now, regardless of how thorough the program or how satisfactory the immediate results, we must not expect success too rapidly. It has been said that it takes two generations to change the habits of a people. Everyone knows that false beliefs, misconceptions, superstitions, folklore, and other popular beliefs pass for truth. We must allow not only for immediate results but for the establishment of permanent habits in a community. Health, vitality, stamina—personal or national—like democracy will never be automatic, but must be eternally defended and promoted. We as school people cannot, therefore, become discouraged. Health must eventually become a point of view, a state of mind, a will to do, as well as a condition of body. Then, and then only will health as a first objective be realized.

WHAT THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS SHALL TEACH IN MEETING INTERCULTURAL AND INTERRACIAL PROBLEMS AT HOME

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Address at New York Conference

I have been asked to open up the problem and attempt to define the issue. Aristotle said, "The world revolves on the axis of definition." If we can clear and define the issue we may be able to make considerable progress toward its solution.

In discussing this question we must bear two facts in mind: (a) The question is as old as history; (b) it will not be settled in our generation or in several generations except as we build an appreciation of differences, and remove the fear of submergence of a group-desired culture into a group-undesired culture. A good example of this latter fear is found in the taboo against intermarriage with any other tribe which is enforced by the Sun Blas Indians in Panama—they do not want their culture to be weakened thereby.

The question is an old one, older than the dawn of history. In the Homeric Age, non-Greeks were barbarians; in the Bible, non-Hebrews are Gentiles. This tendency to view the unity of one's own culture was so strong that nonconformists were exiled or exiled themselves via migration. Abraham left Ur of the Chaldees; Aeneas and the Trojans migrated to Italy after their defeat; the Pilgrims and Puritans migrated to the New World; Roger Williams migrated to Rhode Island; William Penn to Pennsylvania; and Smith and his Mormons to Utah.

The problem is more acute today because there is no longer a place to which to migrate, and because the agencies for propaganda such as radio, movies, the press, even education, when authoritatively controlled, can be used to concentrate upon a given culture to the detriment of others. Hitler showed us that. The substitute for migration is in the understanding of differences. As Charles Evans Hughes has expressed it, "When we lose the right to be different, we lose the right to be free."

To recognize differences is not easy especially when the question of superimposed cultures is involved as it has been from the very discovery of America. The white man imposed his culture on the Indian in all the Americas. Wasn't the ruling idea as late as the Sixties and Seventies that "the only good Indian is a dead Indian"? Very early the black man was imported to till the soil and labor, and the white man imposed his culture upon him. Around the time of the Gold Rush the yellow man came and resisted the white man's culture. He threatened the standard of living and the workingman's job and therefore was excluded both from citizenship and our shores. About the same time with the conquest of Mexican territories, the Anglo-Saxon culture was imposed on people of Spanish heritage. Such imposition does not make it easy for the one who imposes to regard the one imposed upon as his equal; and when, as in the South, the imposer is numerically in the minority the conservative force which holds groups to conformity operates at great strength.

Yet, in spite of this, we were making pretty good progress until the Nazi propaganda machine appeared on the scene. The Irishman who had been the digger of ditches, whose St. Patrick's Day parade found the Orangemen on the rooftops, became part of the American scene; the Italian who took his place became the contractor; the Greek, the merchant; and so on. Israel Zangwill's enthusiastic acceptance of the "Melting Pot" showed what had been done. This was why Theodore Roosevelt blasted with such vigor hyphenated Americanism. Not only foreign loyalties in World War I impinged on our attitudes, but a new force infiltrated American life—communism, an attacking force. Whenever a dominant culture is under attack the conservative force becomes more binding and its ranks are consolidated. There is the fear that any loosening of the bonds will bring dissolution. The idea that race relations are a part of the party line produces a resistance to needed actions on the theory that the real profit accrues to the communists.

Lastly, we must bear in mind that knowledge alone is not here of much avail. We are dealing with the field of the emotions in which often the heart overrules the dictates of the intellect. As Pascal phrased it, "Le

coeur a ses raisons que la raison ne connait pas." Emotions and attitudes are the result of deep-rooted conditioning. Under these circumstances, appeal to the intellect is insufficient—"A man convinced against his will is of the same opinion still." The education of the emotions is a prime requisite and this is more difficult than the education of the mind; as Shelley phrased it, "My head is with Spinoza, my heart with John and Paul."

The greatest block to race relations is the emotion of fear. In the case of the Negroes, Mexicans, Orientals, the fear of the workingman has been that they would cut his standard of living. Employers would have cheap labor and plenty of it. The history of the American labor movement will show that its leaders worked diligently for exclusion acts; the fear of losing their hard-earned gains was the motivating force. Something of the same fear was to be found during the depression and this operated to the disadvantage of the Negroes. In the South, there is the definite fear of a white minority being swallowed by a black majority. And that fear is all-powerful.

What can be done when fear is removed is shown by the Springfield plan. In this city a heterogeneous mixture of children lived in perfect accord because they were not subject to the indoctrination of adults dominated by, to them, real fears.

In Grover Cleveland High School the problem was tackled years ago through the adoption by the student organization of Grover Cleveland Code. This sets character, scholarship, and service as goals of human conduct and has brought general acceptance and amity in a school with a widely diverse population which has numbered Negroes, Chinese, American Indians, and European refugees of all stripes among its population. The uninformed visitor would gain no inkling of the diverse elements that make up the population but would judge it a school of typical American children.

Knowing what the problem is, we must ask ourselves, "What to do?" The answer is not simple but the following seem to offer promise:

1. Stick to fundamentals. Don't worry too much about clichés, names, and movie characters. They are but symptoms and individual symptoms. You may abolish the symptoms without abolishing the disease. Fundamental is the fact that Negroes, Indians, Mexicans, Japanese, Chinese *are people*; that they love their children and their parents just as we do; that they love their adopted home just as we do. We need, therefore, as part of our American history, to take note of all the people who have come to our shores, when they came, why they came, what they brought, what they have done—just as we have studied the Dutch, Swedes, French, English, without any idea of who contributed most.

2. We must provide opportunities for working together in community activities, especially in helping the sick and unfortunate. Nothing breaks through an emotional barrier so swiftly as the need for human sympathy. The need is not for sporadic activity but for organized cooperative activities in which school children can set an example to their elders.

3. We must make haste slowly. The law cannot make a man love his wife; how can it make him love his neighbor? And, in making haste slowly, we must work on individuals. That is no easy task. A Jewish youth who

has heard a speaker criticize some Jews will have to learn that the speaker is not therefore an anti-Semite; and a Negro will have to learn that the employer who has turned down his application is not necessarily discriminating against Negroes. We shall have to warn against hasty generalization because, at the last analysis, prejudice often is rooted in a single concrete case taken as indicative of the whole field.

This analysis and these suggestions should place the issue before us with a fair degree of clarity, with room for agreement or disagreement, and with opportunity for amplification and supplement of the suggestions.

SECONDARY SCHOOLS—DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS AND THE CURRICULUM

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Address at Chicago Conference

During the past five years three important pronouncements about the high-school curriculum have been made. The first, entitled *What the High Schools Ought To Teach*, was issued by the American Youth Commission in 1940. The second document, issued by the Educational Policies Commission, appeared in 1944 and was entitled *Education for All American Youth*. This, together with its companion document, *Planning for American Youth*, sponsored by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, presents basic material which is to be discussed at this meeting. The third important pronouncement on the curriculum is the Harvard report, *The Objectives of a General Education in a Free Society*. We do not mean to imply that this document is not important to secondary-school educators, but it does not deal in the same fundamental way with the problem of curriculum in the secondary schools as do the first two reports.

Before entering into a discussion of the specific matters which should be included in the secondary curriculum, we wish to give in brief outline the developmental tasks which adolescents face and which are to them most important. The period from birth to adulthood can be divided roughly into four stages, the first extending to the age of six years, during which the individual learns to walk, to talk, to feed himself, to boast a bit, to tell a lie when it seems necessary to appease his parents or his peers, to remember back a year, to understand 2500 words, to quarrel with his contemporaries, and to know whether he is a boy or a girl.

The age from six to twelve, which includes the elementary-school period, is one of great intellectual learning. Here a child learns in six years what the race has learned in six thousand. He learns to read, to write, to tell time, to multiply and divide, and to deal with fractions and decimals. He adopts simple eating habits; he knows right from wrong; he learns to get along reasonably with his age mates; and he learns to lead or to follow.

From twelve to eighteen is the period of great physical and social growth. The principal lessons are emotional and social, although the in-

tellectual learnings are also important. The period from eighteen to twenty-four is one of apprenticeship, of becoming a man or a woman, of courtship and marriage, and establishing a new family.

There are a number of ways in which developmental tasks may be enumerated. At three of these the adolescents in high school work without rest. This discussion will deal largely with these three.

1. Accepting one's physique; accepting the fact that one is to be a man or a woman
2. Achieving new relationships with age mates of both sexes
3. Achieving emotional independence of parents and other adults

During adolescence the hands and feet grow very fast; the shoulders and the head lag in growth. Everyone compares himself with his age mates. Am I short? Am I tall? Am I too fat? Am I good-looking? Parents and peers compliment them on good looks. Often they try to make themselves look like adults by padding shoulders or in other ways as they see their elders do. Every man in this room has pads in the shoulders of his coat, presumably to make him more handsome, and it is generally known that adult women have not been satisfied with the shapes of their bodies and have tried to change the contours to please themselves or others. Since we know that one-half or more of the girls, and one-third or more of the boys are disturbed by the shape of their bodies, we must take cognizance of it in the curriculum. In Biology it would be well to devote a good deal of time, perhaps half, to study the development of bodies, with emphasis on the limit within which normality can be found. For example, we can show through pictures that some fat little boys of fourteen became beautifully proportioned adults at eighteen or nineteen. We can also show that scars and freckles are not insurmountable hurdles to reasonably good looks, and that acne is a skin condition which normally disappears when adulthood is reached. Certainly counselors must make it easy for students to get information about normality and human development and help them accept the proper sex role without being disturbed about the change in body shape, or without undue concern because one is slow in developing. It means too that accurate information about the functioning of the human body must be furnished, for the amount of misinformation which young people, particularly girls, possess is appalling.

The second task, at which adolescents work harder than anything else, is achieving new relations with age mates of both sexes. They learn to talk with persons of the opposite sex, by sitting in the corner drug store interminably, drinking "cokes." They use the family phone for hours on end so that parents become annoyed feeling that important calls for the adults may have been prevented or at least delayed. They play games, especially those which allow the boys to show their proficiency, and are slaves to convention in hair styles, shoes, and slang. It is more important to wear "sloppy joes" and saddle shoes than to know the facts about the binomial theorem. Conversation between a group of girls in the family car on the way to school, as the speaker knows from daily experience, is of the sort,

"Oh, Helen, what 'spiffy' new shoes," or, "What a cute way to do your hair," and, "Has Bobby asked you to the dance?" If a group of boys ride with one girl, the conversation is confined strictly to sports, the speculators discussing and disagreeing which home room is most likely to win the home room championship in intramural basketball. If the load to school is made up equally of boys and girls, the conversation is almost certain to center on the next sunlight mixer and the relative merits of a Black Cow *vs.* a Chocolate Sundae. Thus there are variants in conversation as adolescents work out relationships with age mates of both sexes. But never lose sight of the fact that they are working like mad at the task of Getting on with Their Age Mates of Both Sexes. Thus the Pythagorean Theorem and Caesar's Gallic Wars, like Mortimer Snerd on Charlie McCarthy's program, are necessary secondary characters, but not the "main show" in the life of high-school age adolescents.

Achieving satisfactory relations with one's age mates means a reasonably good social adjustment throughout life. If you achieve this task you will probably be a success in the others. The "better students" are more likely not to make this adjustment. That is one reason why they are "better students." They frequently do not get on with their peers and so become "bookworms." The school is a social laboratory; let us make it a good one so that everyone has a chance to make adjustments with his age mates of both sexes. This implies that socially backward boys and girls, some of them good students, must be brought forward by sympathetic counselors. It means that teachers must be sensitized to understand that many of the facts of medieval history, botany, and trigonometry are less important to these adolescents than "how to get on with the gang."

Athletics has a large part in this picture because one of the ways for a boy to demonstrate his normality is to demonstrate his athletic prowess. He can also demonstrate it by standing on the third floor window sill, by throwing rocks at a cop, by sassing the teacher, or by stealing watermelons and chickens in certain rural areas where that is the accepted practice. He may also demonstrate his bravery by driving the family car around the corner on two wheels. The needs of the developmental tasks imply a very wide social program so that young persons can have success without resorting to antisocial or outrageously dangerous practices. This means a much greater use of the school plant both by students and by community groups. And it implies that the schools must furnish a greater variety of activities, both competitive sports and quiet activities, that all boys and girls may make proper adjustments with their peers.

The third developmental task is achieving emotional independence of parents and other adults—"cutting the apron strings." This sometimes leads to impudence because young people can think of no way to assert their independence but by being impudent; it also gains status with one's peers whether heard or merely told. Again schools can help young people achieve this development by using literature which shows how young persons have grown into normal adults and by enabling youngsters to understand what is happening to them. Teachers can play a role by serving as an intermediate

step in the transition from "dependence on the home" to "complete independence." Sometimes a sympathetic woman teacher can serve as an ideal or a helper as a boy "cuts the apron strings" from his mother. This condition quickly changes when the boy chooses a girl companion of his own age. Those who do not achieve this development and are still "mamma's boy" at twenty-five or thirty are pitiful objects. Everyday we read stories of such persons who cannot adjust in the world. Parenthetically it may be said that far too many of our women teachers are still under the domination of an elderly tyrannical woman who would "never let Rose mix with those awful children on our street."

These three tasks are the ones at which adolescents work unceasingly. They cannot be neglected in *What the Secondary Schools Ought To Teach*.

WORK EXPERIENCE

TERRY WICKHAM, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, HAMILTON, OHIO

Address at Chicago Conference

The American people believe that work has a definite place in the proper development of our youth, but they usually think of it as something the young people will experience after they get out of school. This concept of a sharp cleavage between school and book learning, on the one hand, and out-of-school life and work, on the other, stems from the failure of the public to grasp the significance of two great social and economic changes in our American way of life which have occurred in the last seventy-five years. These changes are: (a) the enrolment in our high schools of an overwhelming majority, instead of a small minority, of our "teen-age" youth; and (b) the shift of a major part of our people from simple rural to highly complicated urban living.

When most Americans lived on farms the elemental considerations of family economic survival required school-age children to accept responsibility for performing a share of necessary work and this share of work grew progressively larger as they grew older. In those days it was easy to make a practical division between home and school activities because the formal tools for promoting intellectual growth were scarce and these tools, as well as the persons qualified to instruct in their use, were found only in the schools. On the other hand, the tools for manual work were a part of the regular operating equipment in every farm home establishment and the parents took pride in helping their sons and daughters to achieve a high standard of work performance. Today the situation is nearly reversed. Books and other reading materials, the radio and the cinema—instruments for intellectual growth—are as freely available outside the school as in, while the need for children to do real work in urban homes is practically nonexistent.

It is only by having our high schools accept responsibility for planning and operating a carefully designed program for providing work experience

that the great body of American youth can be given its benefits. It is also becoming clear that as the high schools take full advantage of the developmental possibilities that work experience offers they will find it increasingly easier to meet the growth needs of the masses of students of every conceivable shade of intelligence, background, interest, and ambition with which their enrolments are now filled.

I have chosen two tasks in which work experience can be a highly influential factor, namely: (a) selecting and preparing for an occupation, (b) achieving assurance of economic independence.

1. *Selecting and preparing for an occupation*—Our industrial arts, home-making, commercial, and vocational departments offer to pupils who have not yet selected an occupation the opportunity to work at several types of occupations as a technic of their exploratory function. This opportunity is usually extended initially in the junior high school and then continued through the senior high school. To the extent that these work experiences possess elements which are found in the different occupations, and in the degree that they are made meaningful to the students, they contribute materially to occupational guidance.

It has been for many years a common practice to have pupils who have made a tentative choice of an occupation begin work at the chosen vocation while they are still in school. Vocational education, with trades training courses in which students do real work at a trade, has used the work experience as a focus for the organization of instruction in a series of related areas in which the work itself has helped the pupil to recognize his shortcomings and to solve the problems of preparing himself for competency. There are thousands of well-established Smith-Hughes and George-Deen departments in schools throughout the country where students are working outside the school in trade, industrial, homemaking, agricultural, and distributive occupations because our vocational experts have long since convinced us that such work experience offers a sound and economical approach to preparation for an occupation. The federal government has placed its stamp of approval upon this type of work-experience project through its program of subventions, maintained over a long period of years.

2. *Achieving assurance of economic independence*—Work experience offers an opportunity for close contact with the economic problems of real living. When especially arranged and controlled for educational purposes, it can be an effective means of developing the understandings and the perspectives upon which an individual must build his own economic independence.

In this developmental task the element of *control* for educational purposes is of paramount importance. The work situations must be real and not make-believe; they may or may not lie in the field which will ultimately be the vocational choice of the pupil, but they must not be haphazard. It is in this area that the school's guidance service has its greatest opportunity and meets its most severe challenge.

The Philadelphia school-work program, reported in the November 1944 *Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, is an

illustration of a large city attempt to adjust the secondary-school program so as to afford every high-school youth the opportunity to participate in useful work under school guidance. From this program Philadelphia believes its pupils achieve: (a) a more vivid sense of the necessity for self-support; (b) a greater awareness of the importance of diligence and cooperation; (c) greater interest in accuracy when the pupil finds that business demands it; (d) an added sense of security, of "belonging" to what is going on in the world.

A more specific benefit of an organized school-work program stems from the fact, which we learned the hard way during the late depression, that it is often almost impossible to place an unemployed young person in any position unless he has had previous experience on another job. The pupil who has held a real job in an organized school-work program has thereby cleared a hurdle which may otherwise be insurmountable.

An especially interesting type of work-experience project is that in which goods are produced for the market. For a single illustration of this type let us refer to a project being carried on at Cuyahoga Heights High School, located in an industrial suburb of Cleveland.

The Cuyahoga Heights work project is based upon the production of machine tool products for the Cleveland industrial market. The work is done on a subcontract basis, with students and teachers working together in the school machine shop to produce many thousands of dollars worth of small parts. The school's effort won approval of the WPB as a valuable contribution to the war effort.

The Cuyahoga Heights project has grown to a point where it gives pupils and teachers experience in working with all the major problems encountered in conducting an industry. They have had to seek customers, to draw up contracts, to keep books, to prepare bills, to deal with organized labor and management, to work out pay rates, and to do many other things besides the actual machine shop work. One of the unusual features of this project is that it has included women teachers as well as men—girl students as well as boys—and that each person has been encouraged to participate at the point where his skill, training, and experience made him most valuable.

In this project the high school has assumed full responsibility for planning and organization; the work carried on has been genuinely useful; the unique relationship between pupils and teachers who worked shoulder to shoulder in production has made it possible to work out unusually effective controls. The principal of Cuyahoga Heights High School assures me that all those who have participated, both pupils and teachers, have showed marked development in the direction of achieving assurance of economic independence.

In this paper we have supported the thesis that the young people of America should have the experience of working at a real job during the years that they are in high school; we have contended that the high schools should themselves assume responsibility for planning and controlling the work-experience program. We have reminded you that there are many high

schools in which work-experience projects have been carried on successfully. Finally we have suggested that work experience can be a highly influential factor in: (a) selecting and preparing for an occupation, (b) achieving assurance of economic independence.

The high school which develops a vigorous program for making work experience available to its students will be transforming a traditionally disintegrating influence into a constructive asset. Traditionally our pupils have *quit* school to go to work; under the proposed program they will *stay* in school to get work experience. The jobs at which they work may be inside the school or outside; school credit may or may not be given; wages may or may not be received; these matters are merely details of administration. The significant elements are but three: (a) that the school *plan* the program, (b) that the work be genuinely *useful*, and (c) that the school maintain effective *control* of the operation of the project.

WHAT THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SHOULD TEACH TO ARTICULATE WITH THE HIGH SCHOOL

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Address at New York Conference

The educational program should be continuous from the primary grades, and possibly lower, through the high school and beyond. The high school is not the destination but merely a part of this educational journey. The purpose of the elementary school is not to prepare for high school, but to provide those desirable and attainable "learning situations" which allow maximum development of pupils at these particular stages in their growth. "Education" must be of value at the time it is received. The "learning situations" referred to, however, must be controlled by the *philosophy of the whole educational program*, so that what is begun in the elementary school is developed further in the high school. Elementary and high school, then, constitute a continuous program of education, providing conditions for continuous growth and development in the individual child.

If we accept the philosophy of the importance of the individual and his growth and development as basic in selecting the elements of the curriculum, we must first recognize that he must develop certain values and ways of living. To live successfully and happily in a democratic industrial civilization such as ours, we must develop sound habits of thinking; we must acquire competence in the tools of learning; we must develop democratic beliefs, values, and practices; we must acquire ethical, moral, and spiritual values; we must learn to adjust to life situations as they arise; we must utilize wisely human, natural, and material resources; and we must appreciate and respond to the beautiful. Verily these attainments and acquisitions cannot be set forth as the *sine qua non* of the completion of any arbitrary and

formal division of education, certainly not so long as variation in the mental, physical, and emotional growth of the species persists!

In determining the ends for which we educate in both the elementary and the high school, we must give studious attention to the concepts, the skills, the information, and the interests of youth. Consideration is given to these in the elementary school; they are enlarged, developed, and refined in the high school. The individual is constantly and continually changed and modified by all education and experience throughout life; when he stops changing, education is no longer effective.

The areas of the curriculum from which the elementary and high school selects experiences should be:

1. Personal growth and development. The individual grows up as a person. In this area, the elementary school should develop basic skills in physical education and health, and recreational interests and skills, and should provide the personal guidance so essential.

2. The individual lives in a world of things. The elementary school should introduce him to his natural environment. It should develop on the part of its pupils an understanding of physical environment; it should develop an appreciation of the need of conserving natural resources and materials; it should attempt to develop the scientific way of learning by observation and experimentation, as well as to provide ways in which scientific information may be practically applied.

3. The individual lives in a world of ideas and people. Education must therefore give consideration to the social environment. Examples of the treatment of this phase of the curriculum in the elementary school are: practicing the skills and attitudes of good citizenship in the classroom, school, and community; participating in the social activities of the school and community in a manner conducive to the common good; developing an elementary concept of the interdependence of individuals, communities, and nations; and acquiring both an intellectual and an emotionalized concept of the heritage that is the right and privilege of every American.

4. The individual expresses himself and enjoys the creative activities of others. In the elementary school this factor finds expression in participation in artistic, musical, and dramatic activities; in the development of skills in creative expression—in art, crafts, writing, dramatics, and the like. All these properly presented and intelligently participated in tend to bring about an appreciation of the beautiful in everything and to release the innate yearning of the individual to express himself in any medium for which he has talent.

5. The individual lives in a world of work. It is not impossible to develop in the mind of the elementary-school child the idea that education—largely skills in his case—is the tool of work. Not work as defined by some future vocation, but work that is at hand. Here should begin the mastery of skills known as “tool subjects,” not as an end in itself, but as a necessity for effective living—for the living he must experience as one of a group. These skills are:

- a. Communication: reading, writing, spelling, mathematics
- b. Skills associated with the life of the group: planning, assuming responsibility, finishing the job, evaluating results, considering others, sharing, and the like
- c. Skills of observation: using resources, investigating, and the like
- d. Habits of orderliness and accuracy
- e. Skill in performing useful tasks.

If we recognize the fact that the individual is a living, growing, and developing human being, and if we provide for him in the elementary school suitable educational experiences appropriate to his maturity level, effective articulation with the high school will take place. "Effective articulation" thus becomes a natural consequence and not an end that has been achieved through a process of specific preparation.

WHAT THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS SHOULD TEACH— KNOWLEDGE AND INTEREST IN THE NATURAL AND SOCIAL WORLD

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Address at Atlanta Conference

Far-reaching changes in our social world and new challenges confronting our democracy have given us some comprehensive social goals which should underlie all of our school activities.

International education is one of those goals. The war has sent men and women—the fathers, brothers, and sisters of the elementary-school children—to distant places, places the names of which we had never heard before; air travel has reduced distances; plans for extending American trade are discussed over radio and through the press; the UNO and the problems before it we follow with interest—all have made urgent acquaintance with other nations.

The radio and the press bring us ideas, attitudes, medical and scientific discoveries, music, art, inventions of foreign nations. All these things are helping boys and girls in the elementary schools to have clearer understanding that this is "one world."

It is not enough to teach the use of maps, to explain differences in climate in various parts of the world. We need to build international-mindedness.

In the past we have given attention largely to the culture of the countries of western Europe. Children have known something of London, Paris, Amsterdam, Berlin, Rome, but it took war headlines to make real for us such places as Chungking, Sydney, Burma, New Guinea. Today we are beginning to learn about the countries of Latin America, about China, and the Soviet Union—not merely the geography and history of these countries, but we are trying to bring about appreciation of the distinctive contribu-

tions of other peoples—an understanding of the way human beings struggle for security and for freedom.

As world problems multiply, we need to work definitely to create international understanding—to see problems as the Russians and the Chinese see them as they work to develop their resources. We want our elementary children to understand other peoples enough to have respect for them as individuals and for their contributions to the world.

Just as in international education an understanding of people is of first importance, so in the study of our own nation it is important to know and to appreciate our people and their problems.

During the war years children have been brought face to face with many economic problems through rationing, salvage campaigns, bond and stamp campaigns. There is critical need for conservation of our natural resources, and children need to know this and to understand how they can help. Just now we are being called upon for food to share with the hungry peoples of Europe. Children are asked to share books and toys and clothes with those children in countries where there is great need. So an increased and better understanding of our social policy and the willingness to cooperate in matters for the common good will remain a major objective in the economic education of our youth.

In the elementary school we need to learn how to read newspapers and magazines—to ask questions as we read, to have a growing and intelligent interest in issues that confront us in our own communities as well as on state and national fronts. Attention to current happenings—maps, charts, newspapers, radio, speakers, documentary films, recordings, and books—all contribute to the spirit of international unity and understanding and should be used as instructional aids in the work of the elementary school.

The children of the early grades are interested in everything that comes within their range of experience—concerned with homes and schools, toys and pets, trips to places in the community. And the war years have affected all of these areas and widened the horizon of even the youngest of our elementary-school group as well as adding to their fund of information. As the scope of their interests broadens, children grow in the ability to ask thoughtful questions and in the means they use to find answers—from books, from people, from listening, and from observing—as father or friend returns from overseas, as a new classmate from a distant state becomes one of the group.

Science interests include seasonal change, adaptations of plant and animal life, stars, rocks, magnets, compasses, and simple machinery. Even the eight-year-olds are interested in a study of the heavens, what stars and planets are and something of the order and rhythm of their motion. They may learn to identify some of the constellations. Awed and impressed by the immensity of the universe even though they do not understand it, they are interested in such questions as, “When you go up in a plane, where do you go? Out of this world? Do we live on this world or in it?” asked by a fourth-grade child. Just now the atom bomb and the contact with the moon offer much cause for speculation and discussion.

All elementary children are interested in aviation which offers many opportunities for science facts and understandings. A study of weather, simple experiments with electrical equipment and magnets will deepen the understandings of boys and girls in our elementary schools. The horizons of time and space are being pushed out rapidly and the elementary-school child revels in new knowledge and new experiences as we open new areas for him.

After all, knowledge and interest in the natural and social world is a matter of relationships—relationships of man and his physical environment, man and his social environment, and countless interrelationships among all. It would be a grave error to minimize with children the problems in today's world which have to do with people—how they solve their problems in satisfying their physical needs for food, clothing, and shelter; how, too, they solve problems of getting along together in little and big groups; what happens when, in solving their problems, interests clash.

SELF-EXPRESSION AND APPRECIATION OF THE CREATIVE ARTS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

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Address at Atlanta Conference

Ideas are born and come to fruition in an atmosphere of happiness, freedom, and understanding. In a classroom where these abound, a primary child looked out with wonder and delight upon a world new to her. The small world within the range of her vision was now blanketed with snow, the first snowfall of the season; in fact, the first that this child and most of her little friends had ever seen, for it was in a southern town where even a light snowfall was a rare and beautiful experience.

"May I draw what I see and how I feel?" she asked enthusiastically of her teacher who seemed awed, too, by the new beauty that lay all around. The teacher and children made the most of the experience, and an appreciation was developed that was akin to reverence. A creative urge took possession of the entire group. The children found materials that were kept ready for such occasions, and they were soon giving expression in one way or another to what they saw and how they felt.

The teacher moved quietly among the little artists, for such small children are until adults begin to dominate their thinking and repress the spontaneity and freedom that is characteristic of early childhood. She was alert to the opportunities to encourage, suggest, and stimulate. The freedom and encouragement seemed to "loosen up their feelings and their thinking" and the results were pleasing.

Children are by nature sensitive to their surroundings, and the environment should continually feed the natural creative spirit with ideas. A basic

principle of the school then should be to increase every child's sensitivity to the world about him and let his everyday experiences furnish the chief source for creative activities.

Since the desire to create is fostered by a rich and varied environment, a flexible program, which provides for abundant opportunities for self-expression through a variety of mediums, becomes imperative. As Hughes Mearns expresses it, "The child needs little instruction but he must have materials, and his environment must be such as to call his efforts worthy."

A worthwhile program which takes into account the latent creative abilities of children should provide for many forms of expression, utilizing speech, acting, rhythmic movements, sound, color. One group of children will turn a story into a play and make the characters come alive; another will give meaningful interpretations to appropriate poems; they will come to appreciate beauty and rhythm in the choice of words used to convey ideas; they will learn spacing, form, and proportion in letter writing or in making a class magazine or a school newspaper; they will show vigorous creative thinking in expressing the idea of a story in pictures, or the sequence of events in a mural; they will interpret the feelings and customs of children of other lands through games, plays, and songs. The creative arts will be utilized in beautifying the classroom, bringing into play such basic principles as cleanliness, arrangement, orderliness, and coloring. It must be remembered that art is not necessarily something that is made with brush and paint, nor with rhythm and sound. It is a way of living that is expressed in various ways.

Creative expression should contribute to the growth and happiness of every child. Regardless of what form the expression may take, it should help him to recognize, enjoy, and make use of the beautiful that lies about him. It should lead him toward self-discovery and help him to experience the priceless joy that comes with recognized achievement. It should help to establish habits of persistence, self-reliance, and evaluation.

The responsibility of the teacher in fostering creative expression and developing sincere appreciation is great. As Laura W. White has said, "We need to become increasingly sensitive to the concerns of children, more aware of the factors conducive to creative expressions, better skilled in the art of human relationships—so shall we discover that art is not limited to the talents of the privileged few, but is found as well in the familiar and unspectacular events of everyday living."¹ It is only when we accept and meet this responsibility that we can have the joy of seeing children drawing, dancing, singing, acting, and giving sincere expression to what they see and feel.

¹ White, Laura W. "Art Is Personal." *The Arts and Children's Living*. Bulletin of the Association for Childhood Education.

WHAT THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SHOULD TEACH— DEMOCRATIC GROUP LIVING AND SERVICES

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Address at Atlanta Conference

Perhaps we all agree that first consideration should be given to the teaching of democracy—to inculcating democratic principles in everyday living, to making known the facts of democratic living, and to fostering in all school life democratic group activities.

No better way has been found to learn than by doing. Learning the ways of democracy involves both the teaching of democratic principles and the doing of democratic activities.

One does not learn to live effectively in a democracy simply by reading history. Democratic living must be practiced in the classroom, in the home, in the community. Democracy must not be taken for granted. To teach democratic ideals, these ideals must form the basis of classroom procedure. If children participate in choosing what shall be done, how it shall be done, and in deciding what value is to be given an activity, then democracy is functioning in the classroom. We have a great opportunity through the schools to put into the life of our nation those things most desired.

Life in the classroom must reflect the principles of democratic living so that the child may through experience be prepared for constructive participation in a democratic world. A child cannot be given a pattern cut to fit every situation; but by helping him learn the technic of living intelligently and peaceably with others, we can teach him to make fair and wise decisions, and as he grows, to steer his course as wisely as possible through life.

Provision must be made for situations that involve group discussion, group planning, committee work, cooperative activities, and evaluations in terms of criteria which have been cooperatively determined. The act of cooperation recognizes that we live and work as groups as well as individuals. In such, there is democratic sharing of ideas, much opportunity for conversation and for discussion of topics of mutual interest in order that the group may gain ends that serve all members.

Also, we may add situations which provide ways of living and learning together, looking towards habits of good citizenship and neighborliness.

Furthermore, the approach of the elementary school to all worthwhile and essential services of an educational nature, as included in the school program, should be from the point of view of not only meeting the needs of the individual but also the groups he contacts in the social realm in which he lives.

There should be many opportunities to practice group cooperation rather than individual competition. Democratic group living and its successful fruition in educational services which adequately take care of the physical, social, and mental needs of the growing, developing citizen is an essential

in American life—the good life most desired for all citizens of a democracy like ours.

As we know, the good life involves wholesome normal growth of the individual. It means vision, faith, ideals. It means hard work and an enthusiasm and a will to do. It means temporary discouragements met with courage and hope. It means love for humanity and an ever-growing understanding of and respect for all people. It means growing intellectually, socially, and spiritually. It means keeping young in mind and spirit. It means companionship with friends—with good books and good music. It means having fun. It means serving and being served.

Granted that these are some of the basic considerations when planning what the elementary school should teach, what then is the supporting evidence that this is the American way of education?

For the answer, we have only to go to the 1945-46 editions of all types and kinds of professional publications and note the illustrations as well as the records of real learning situations where children are provided many and challenging opportunities to participate in group experiences designed to benefit both the individual and the group.

Almost every day we observe that the traditional is more and more fading out of the picture and new patterns of group living are emerging to suit the demands of the times. Evaluated in terms of new patterns of democratic group living in the classroom, personality and character traits may be observed as outcomes of experiences and growth in whatever problem confronts them.

Emphasis must, therefore, be placed upon that type of school where democratic ideals are promoted; where the program as such is based on the growing interests, needs, and capacities of the children it serves; where there are guided experiences in accordance with the child's maturity; where within the child there takes place integration of school, community, and home living; and, above all, where there is ample provision for group planning, thinking, and acting—essentials in American life.

THE PROPORTION OF FAMILIES WITH CHILDREN IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS TOGETHER WITH EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

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Address at Chicago Conference

One of the original concepts of free public education in this country was that by virtue of its being free it would reach directly the total population. Later it was made compulsory to give added assurance to that end. Now, however, with a sharply declining birth rate, which has been generally downward since 1800, when it was about three and one-half times as high as in 1930, that probably is no longer true. The question, therefore, at the

moment is: To what degree do the public schools reach directly the total population and what, if any, are the educational implications?

As noted above, population trends, at least up to 1940, have been characterized by a declining birth rate. Moreover, this declining birth rate has been accompanied by an appreciable shift in the distribution of population according to age groups. Significant in those changes has been a sharp decline in the proportion of the population in the lower age groups, and a considerable increase in the proportion of the total population in the age group of sixty-five or over. In 1937-38 the National Resources Committee carried on what was undoubtedly the most extensive study of population trends that has been done in this country. The results of that study are incorporated in a publication entitled *The Problems of a Changing Population*. In that study there are included population estimates by five-year periods from 1935 through 1980, together with a distribution of those estimates according to age groups. According to these estimates the total population of the country will reach a peak of approximately 154,000,000 in 1980. However, during the period covered by the estimates it is expected that the proportion of the total population in the school-age group, that is, five to nineteen, will decline from 28.4 percent in 1935 to 19.6 percent in 1980. Of this decline of nearly 9 percent in this age group, 6 percent of it is expected to occur by 1960. In the case of the sixty-five-and-over age group the percent is expected to increase from 5.8 in 1935 to 14.4 in 1980.

The sharp increase in birth rates since 1940 is, of course, well known. Whether it is the beginning of a trend toward higher birth rates or whether it actually represents an acceleration of the normal birth rate and will, therefore, be accompanied by a later decline remains to be seen. Quoted from the study of the National Resources Committee mentioned above is the following:

Furthermore, there will be a peak in the number of young persons of marriageable age about 1945 (about twenty years after the peak in the number of births already mentioned). Therefore, after the middle of the century further decrease must be expected in the number of births each year unless present trends in fertility are reversed or unless the population is augmented by heavy immigration.

The foregoing information on population trends and birth rates is included because it has an important bearing on the proportion of families having children in the public schools at a given time. In order to find out what that proportion actually is Dr. Roy Wenger, now at Indiana University, and I undertook a study in Ohio in 1942 to get figures in different types of school districts. Although it seems to us a very important problem, we were greatly surprised when our librarian reported only one such study in the literature. That, incidentally, is one I had done myself in Iowa in 1921-22. That study included sixteen consolidated school districts, all with schools offering instruction in grades one through twelve. It was found that in that group of districts 58.4 percent of the families were represented by children in the public schools. Further indication of the importance of this problem is found in the November 1941 *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association, which lists as one of three questions of

immediate significance to educators the following: "With fewer adults interested in schools through their own children, what new public-relations questions must be faced?"

Undoubtedly one of the reasons why similar studies have not been made is the difficulty of making them. We recognized at once that it would be impossible to cover completely large city school districts. We, therefore, took samplings in those. In some of the smaller school districts our figures included the entire district. By means of the sampling process we had information on 135,161 families from 93 school districts located in 62 of the 88 counties in the state. Incidentally that represented more than 7 percent of the total families in the state. The districts from which usable materials were obtained included cities, that is, those having a population of 5000 or more; exempted-village districts, which included those having a population of 3000 to 5000; and rural districts.

In order to get the proportion of families with children in the public schools two sets of data were necessary: the first, the total number of families in the district; and the second, the number of those which had children in the public schools at the time the study was made. In the case of those districts which included both a village and rural territory we kept separate the figures within and without the village corporation.

The data were gathered by a variety of methods. In three of the cities the files of the attendance departments contained the necessary information, although tabulating from this source was a large task. The Federal Census gives the number of families by wards in cities with populations of 100,000 and over. School-district boundaries, however, do not coincide with wards, so we had the problem of adjusting for this difference. In two of the cities the enumerators who take the annual school census made special tabulations for a representative portion of the city. Four cities used the collection of data as a project for social science classes, and organized the pupils to make a house-to-house canvass. Others made use of sugar rationing to check on the number of families. All were asked to use the Bureau of Census definition of a family which is as follows: "A group of persons related by blood or marriage or adoption, who live together as a household, usually sharing the same table."

As already noted, the study included city, exempted-village, and rural school districts. In the city group complete coverage or a sampling was obtained from the following eighteen cities: Akron, Bellefontaine, Canton, Chillicothe, Cincinnati, Circleville, Columbus, Dayton, Dover, Gallipolis, Jackson, Logan, Salem, Shelby, Toledo, Wilmington, Wooster, and Youngstown.

In the case of the exempted villages usable information was obtained from the following thirteen such districts: Bay Village, Bluffton, Elmwood Place, Gibsonburg, Greenfield, Lisbon, Malta-McConnelsville, New Lexington, Orrville, Sylvania, West Carrolltown, Westerville, and Wyoming.

Sixty-two rural districts widely distributed throughout the state were included in the study. In the case of all of these, the figures were kept separate for the corporation and the rural territory outside the corporation.

In the case of the 18 city districts the sampling included a total of 86,442 families, of which 33 percent had children in the public schools at the time of the study; in other words one family out of three was thus represented. The range among this group of cities was from 14 percent in one ward of a large city to 52 percent in a city of about 20,000 population. In the case of the exempted-village districts 16,602 families were included. Of these 38 percent had children in the public schools at the time of the study. The range in this group of districts was from 26 percent in a suburb of Cleveland to 49 percent in a district in the vicinity of Toledo. In the case of the rural districts there were 12,985 families within the corporation limits, of which 36 percent had children in the schools. Outside the corporation in these rural districts there were 12,231 families, 44 percent of whom had children in the schools. When these two were combined it was found that 40 percent of the families in these rural districts were represented by children in the public schools.

In the cities of Columbus and Toledo two wards were included in the study. In both cities these wards differed in many characteristics. For example, Ward 9 in the Columbus study is a downtown section just next to the main business district. It includes many poor homes and a smaller proportion of lower middle-class homes, and is populated largely by laboring groups. On the other hand, Ward 19, used in the study, is located approximately three miles north from the center of the city, and comprises a neighborhood business district, populated for the most part by upper middle-class homes of business and professional persons. We thought there would be a considerable difference in the proportion of families in these two wards having children in the schools. Contrary to our expectations, however, the percent was 36 in Ward 9 and 35 in Ward 19.

Likewise in Toledo the study included two contrasting wards. Ward 12 is located on the west side of the Maumee River and comprises a factory district, a business district, and some of the better residential sections, including Indian Hills, Old Orchard, and the University of Toledo. Ward 19, the other one used in this study, is in the east side of the city, and is populated in the main by unskilled and semiskilled workers, particularly railroad workers. While most of the population in this ward are American-born, a number of southern European immigrants are also included. We here expected a considerable difference, but found that in both wards the percent was 31.

One measure of the direct services which the schools give to a community is found in the percent of families that at any given time have children in the schools. The parent whose child is in school wants the school building to be safe, adequate in size, and modern in equipment, and the teachers to be capable, well-trained, and efficient. Families that have no children in school may or may not have this same interest. If the proportion of persons having children in schools decreases markedly, the schools may find it increasingly difficult to obtain the necessary support. In the light of our very heavy national debt and its consequent effect on taxation, the problem of school support will undoubtedly become acute should we enter another

period of depression. What, then, are the major educational implications of these data? Undoubtedly, one important implication is that of school support. In Ohio, for example, we have a ten-mill constitutional limitation. Since that limitation does not provide sufficient money for the local taxing subdivisions, the schools in particular have voted levies outside limitations. In fact, at the present every one of the 113 Ohio cities has such an outside levy for school operation. These range from two to six mills, with a median of about three mills. Since these cannot be voted for more than five years, then at periodic intervals the schools must ask for a renewal of these levies. These require a 50-percent-majority vote; so if only about 35 percent of the families have children in the public schools a considerable number of the votes necessary to pass the levy must be cast by persons who have no children in school. Since bond issues require a 65-percent-majority vote, then an even greater number of voters must represent families that have no children in the public schools.

A second implication of these data, it seems to us, is that the school must find ways of extending its services, thus developing and maintaining interest among the large majority of citizens through services directed to them or to members of their families. A number of activities to extend interest among the citizens can be and are being engaged in by many schools. In the first place, the school program must be made so useful to those whom it serves that it will intrinsically justify itself in the community. In the second place, the school must give conscious attention to the place of education in our democratic social order so that all the pupils, as they go through our schools, will be made aware of the privileges and benefits they are receiving. At the present time the chief attention given to the contributions of education is found in courses on social problems where an occasional chapter in the textbook is devoted to education as one problem of democracy. The organization and influence of education in the particular community should be given at least as much attention as are the water-works or fire-department services, which are studied repeatedly in the public-school program.

The suggestions thus far are part of a long-time program which will help to build up support for the public school. But a number of more immediate and direct activities can make the schools the real servants of the public, and services can be extended to more people through improved programs of adult education, which should become integral parts of the school's program in every community. The industrial boom and the war have high-lighted the need for educational activities in such areas as nutrition, health, first aid, and industrial training. Thus, even though only slightly more than one-third of our families are represented directly in the public schools through their children, with a good program of adult education organized in a community a much greater proportion of the families could be directly affected by the school program.

Another implication is to enlist the participation of competent laymen in the formation of the school's policies. In a few places community councils representing the various organizations within the community are help-

ing the school consider and plan its general policies. As a specific example of bringing the community into the planning I cite the recent action of the Cincinnati Board of Education in connection with their school-building program. At the time the survey report came to the board of education there was sent to every civic organization in the city (some 600) a summary of the program, as recommended in the survey report. Also there went a letter from the superintendent indicating how community groups who wished to have more information on how the survey report was developed, or who were not satisfied with the recommendations, could, if they desired, have a hearing before the board. Five months elapsed between the time the survey report was submitted until the board of education took final action. In the meantime, every group that so desired was given an opportunity to be heard. As a result of these hearings certain modifications were made in the building program as finally approved by the board of education. Although this relates only to one phase of public education—namely, the school plant—it seems to us that similar opportunities might be offered in other areas.

The final suggestion is that the citizens of the community should be kept informed concerning the aims, purposes, and accomplishments of the schools. Too often publicity about the program of the schools is presented in concentrated form just before an important school levy or bond issue is to go before the public. This often takes the form of high-pressure salesmanship. To be most effective, however, information about the schools should be regularly provided. When the public is thus taken into the confidence of school officials, we believe it will more readily support the requests which the schools make.

THE NEED FOR SCHOOL-BUILDING STUDIES

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Educational leaders have given much time, thought, and effort to the problems of school finance, curriculum, teachers, and transportation. They have given relatively little attention to one of the most important aspects of education—the school plant. Too long have we depended upon architects with little understanding of the educative process and still less interest in it to plan the physical plant layout, and we have allowed prejudice and selfishness to become the major guides in the location of school plants.

During the past five years school-building construction has been drastically curtailed. At the same time deterioration and obsolescence continue, and school-plant needs are accumulating. Now is the opportune time to take stock of what we have, to evaluate the results of past practices and policies, and, in the light of these appraisals, to determine our future course

in the school-plant field. Evidences of the need for better planning of school buildings are numerous.

In contemplating studies of school-plant needs the planners should keep in mind the fact that the school building is a means to an end. The plant is efficiently planned to the extent that it contributes to the desirable physical, intellectual, and emotional development of the population which it serves or should serve. Adequate planning will contribute to the development of safe, comfortable, and satisfactory plants for the school population.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR SCHOOL PLANT SURVEYS

Comprehensive and scientific studies of school-building needs should be a function of the state. To plan and to conduct such studies require trained personnel. In Georgia we have recently completed a rather comprehensive study of the school-building situation and have concluded that such an investigation can be carried on effectively on the state level. Data about every school building in the state were secured with the assistance of state, county, and local school officials. In addition, a statistically sound 10 percent sampling was made of the school buildings in the state, and trained staff personnel made minute studies of this sample, including the checking of more than six hundred items on each school plant. The data from these two sources were then processed and the findings and recommendations were made available to the legislature and to the public.

KINDS OF DATA NEEDED IN A SCHOOL-BUILDING STUDY

A careful examination of the characteristics of school plants is necessary as a part of a statewide survey. Data should be gathered on the number of white and Negro school plants, the value of plants, the enrolment of students housed in the buildings, the per pupil investment in plants, and the general description in terms of construction, number of stories, site, number of classrooms, age of buildings, ownership of buildings, water supply and drinking facilities, types of toilets, electric current, types of heating equipment, special rooms, and the like. The survey should provide the basis for answering such questions as:

1. Are the plants and school personnel reasonably safe from fire and other hazards?
2. Are physical conditions such as to promote desirable physical, intellectual, and emotional development of the individuals to be served?
3. What is the financial responsibility of the local community and what are the needs for state and federal participation in providing adequate school plants?
4. What is needed for projecting remedies for the undesirable situations discovered?

PROCEDURES FOR MAKING SCHOOL-BUILDING STUDIES

In making studies of school buildings, the active participation of as many school administrators and teachers as possible should be sought. A large statewide advisory committee will be helpful in the formulation of a study and will be able to contribute to the implementation of the findings. On the local and county levels committees of principals and teachers should be

formed to assist in gathering the data and in studying the implications of the data for the improvement of the school plant.

In 1945 the Education Panel of the Agricultural and Industrial Development Board of Georgia made a statewide study of school-building needs. Mr. Sam P. Clemons served as director of the study. He has recently been added to the staff of the state department of education to carry out the recommendations of the investigation. A large number of professional school and lay persons participated in outlining the study, gathering and analyzing data, interpreting the information, and proposing programs of action. The study was organized to gather two kinds of information:

1. *General data on all of the buildings in the state*—Dr. Ray Hamon of the United States Office of Education and others helped to develop a sheet of desirable and obtainable data regarding each building in the state. A general description of each building was secured, with such specific information as age, ownership, water supply, toilets, electricity, heating, specialized rooms, types of construction, number of classrooms per building, and the like.

2. *Detailed data on a sampling of school plants*—These data were gathered on a statistically sound sampling of the buildings and were procured by persons who had special training in evaluating school plants. The Strayer-Engelhardt score card, revised to fit southern conditions, and containing more than six hundred items, was used in checking the sample.

THE GEORGIA STUDY OF SCHOOL-BUILDING NEEDS

I believe I can best give you a picture of the needs for school-building studies by indicating some of the specific findings regarding certain aspects of school plants as revealed in the Georgia Study. These major findings are presented to indicate the specific kinds of data needed and to show the situation as it exists in one state in the Southern Region.

Major findings from statewide study of school buildings—There are 2403 white school buildings in the state, housing a total enrolment of 500,547 school children and 15,073 teachers. The average size of the white school building has 6.2 classrooms, and a total enrolment per building of 208, or 33 pupils per classroom. The total value of these buildings is \$64,292,304. The mean value of white school property per building is \$26,755, or \$4315 per classroom, or \$128 per pupil enrolled. The mean age of these buildings is 17 years.

There are 3075 Negro school buildings in the state, housing a total enrolment of 269,289 school children and 6839 teachers. The average size is 2.2 classrooms per building; and the mean total enrolment is 87 per building, or 40 per classroom. The total value of these buildings is \$7,992,576. The mean value of Negro school property per building is \$2599, or \$1181 per classroom, or \$29 per pupil enrolled. The mean age of these buildings is 16 years.

Fifty-five percent of the white school buildings are of frame construction; 18 percent are of brick veneer on frame; 13 percent are of masonry walls with the rest of the construction of frame; and 14 percent have floors, exterior and interior walls and partitions, stairways, and roofs wholly or partially of fire resistive materials. Eighty-three percent of the white school

buildings are one story in height, 12 percent are two stories high, and the remaining five percent are more than two stories in height.

Ninety-one percent of the Negro school buildings are of frame construction; 2 percent are of brick-veneer on frame; 1 percent are of masonry construction, with the rest of frame; and the remaining 6 percent have floors, exterior and interior walls and partitions, stairways, and roofs wholly or partially of fire resistive materials. Ninety-three percent of these buildings are one story in height. Practically all of the remaining 7 percent are two stories in height.

Sixty-two percent of the white schools have water under pressure on the school grounds, and 38 percent do not have water under pressure. Fifty-six percent have had the purity of the water tested within the past year, and 44 percent have not done so. Forty-seven percent use flush-type toilets, 46 percent use pit toilets, and the remaining 7 percent use either chemical or surface types or have no toilets at all. Seventy-three percent have electricity connected, 12 percent have electricity available but not connected, and 15 percent do not have electricity available. Eighteen percent of the white schools have a central heating plant of steam, hot water, or warm air; 28 percent use the jacketed heater; 50 percent use the unjacketed heater; the remaining 4 percent use warm air or other types of heating equipment.

Twelve percent of the Negro schools have water under pressure on the school grounds, and 88 percent do not have water under pressure. Eighteen percent have had the purity of the water supply tested, and 82 percent have not done so. Seven percent use flush-type toilets, 48 percent use pit type toilets, 35 percent use surface-type toilets, and most of the remaining 10 percent have no toilets. Fifteen percent have electricity connected, 18 percent have electricity available but not connected, and 67 percent have no electricity. Two percent have a central heating plant of steam, hot water, or warm air; 9 percent have jacketed heaters; 84 percent have unjacketed heaters; and 5 percent use some other type of heating or have no means of heating classrooms.

Libraries are found in 30 percent of the white schools; lunchrooms in 32 percent; auditoriums in 28 percent; auditorium-gymnasiums or gymnasiums in 6 percent; and health clinics are found in 6 percent.

Libraries are found in 4 percent of the Negro schools; lunchrooms in 12 percent; auditoriums in 5 percent; auditorium-gymnasiums or gymnasiums in .3 percent; and health clinics in .8 percent.

The detailed study of more than 500 buildings, or 10 percent of the plants in the state, when compared to desirable standards of school plants reveals some interesting information.

1. Out of a possible 1000 points, the mean white school building of the state scored 443 points; and the mean Negro school building, 158 points.

2. Authorities agree that a school building scoring less than 300 points out of the possible 1000 is unfit for school use. According to this standard 40 percent of the white and 95 percent of the Negro buildings of Georgia are at present unfit for school use.

3. More than one-half of all the school buildings need repairs on each of the following: foundations, steps, walls, roofs, windows, blackboards, and furniture.

4. More than 50 percent of all the school buildings of the state fail to provide appropriate rooms and other building facilities to carry on a good school program.

5. Of the 22 conditions of school buildings considered by competent authorities as the greatest cause for accidents and as capable of endangering the lives of pupils in case of fire or panic, the mean white school in Georgia was found to have 12; and the mean Negro school, 17 of the 22. Some of these conditions are:

- a. Entrance doors not opening outward
- b. More than three minutes required to empty buildings
- c. Corridors not fireproof in buildings of two or more stories
- d. Corridors not provided with adequate natural light
- e. At least two stairways not provided in buildings of two or more stories
- f. Stairways not fireproof
- g. Storage closets under stairways
- h. Stair treads not of nonslip materials.
- i. Basements not fireproof. For example, one building was found which contains on the second floor an auditorium with a seating capacity of approximately 500, and with only one stairway four feet wide. A fire occurring with this auditorium filled might easily cause the death of 300 to 400 persons.

6. Of the 14 conditions considered by competent authorities as the most common causes of school fires, the mean white school was found to have 10; and the mean Negro school, 11. Some of these conditions are:

- a. Stove pipes not adequately supported and bradded
- b. No metal floor mat under stove
- c. Storage rooms containing waste paper or other combustible rubbish
- d. Electric wiring not inspected and approved by licensed electrician
- e. Fire extinguishers not provided.

7. Present heating equipment is incapable of heating the building adequately in 43 percent of the white schools and in 60 percent of the Negro schools. Repairs are needed on 65 percent of the heating plants, inclusive of stoves, in the white schools and on 85 percent in the Negro schools.

8. Forty-four percent of the white schools and 82 percent of the Negro schools are using drinking water that has not been tested for purity. A dipper or cup for the common use of pupils was found in 32 percent of the white schools and in 74 percent of the Negro schools.

9. Five percent of the white schools and 8 percent of the Negro schools have no toilet facilities. Thirty-five percent of the Negro schools still use surface toilets.

10. Sixty-six percent of the outside toilets of white schools are in bad

state of repair. Fifty-five percent of the Negro toilets are so reported. Sixty-two percent of the white schools and 84 percent of the Negro schools provide no means for washing hands.

11. More than 2500 white classrooms and more than 3000 Negro classrooms are overcrowded.

12. Sixty percent of the white classrooms and 87 percent of the Negro classrooms receive less than the required amount of natural light. Even when supplemented by artificial light, less than the minimum light requirement is provided for 50 percent of the white children and 85 percent of the Negro children.

13. To meet the present requirements, the state needs more than 1000 lunchrooms, 1200 libraries, and more than 6000 classrooms.

14. Although the study reveals a need for additional instructional space, it was discovered paradoxically that many buildings contained more space than was being used. One school was found containing four classrooms with only one in use. One school costing \$30,000 was abandoned after being used five years.

15. The schools showed their greatest deficiency in lack of special space providing for agriculture, home economics, science, art, manual arts, and music. It is expected that the expansion of curriculums during the postwar period will greatly increase the need for special classrooms. To meet this need alone will require the construction equivalent in space to a minimum of 4000 classrooms.

16. One-third of the schools are not centrally located with reference to the population and thus cause unnecessary transportation costs. For example, the noncentral location of one school causes a community to spend \$1900 more annually than would be required if the school were located in the center of the population.

17. The value of the school plant was found to be ten times as great per pupil enrolled in one district as the value of the school plant per pupil enrolled in a neighboring district.

18. Ability to finance the construction of school buildings varies greatly among the districts. For example, one school district with taxable property assessed at \$128 per pupil enrolled is in the same county with another district that has an assessed valuation of \$3930 per pupil enrolled. Under present constitutional limitations the first school district could issue a maximum of \$9 per pupil in bonds for constructing school buildings, whereas the second district, with the same tax levy, could provide \$275 in bonds per pupil enrolled.

19. The mean value of school property in the state is \$101 per pupil enrolled. The mean in the nation is \$371 per pupil enrolled. The aforementioned types of survey findings indicate that many children are attending school in public-school buildings in Georgia which are dangerous, inadequate, and unhygienic. Those conditions have come about because of poor planning, unsound financing, and lack of funds. Although the education of its people is one of the important functions of the state, most state edu-

cational authorities have not been granted sufficient legal authority to remedy the situation regarding school plants. Statewide studies of school plants as described here will tend to make the public conscious of the need for more attention to the school plant.

One of the major outcomes of the statewide study in Georgia is legislation giving the state board of education authority to deal with many of the problems of school buildings. The state board of education has adopted a school code and is employing personnel to carry out the provisions of the law and of the code.

Another important outcome of the statewide school study is that of stimulating boards of education to initiate studies of school-building needs in the county or system and of making long-range plans for improving the school plants. On the local and county level, data regarding population trends, spot maps showing locations of the people, financial resources, kinds of occupations in the community, kinds of curriculum in the schools, roads, and the like are gathered and utilized in projecting building programs to meet the needs of the specific county or school system.

Too much money has been wasted in school buildings because of the lack of planning. Too many buildings are unsafe and unhealthful and provide inadequate curriculum opportunities. Remedying these situations will require careful study of the present situation and the projection of long-range plans to insure that new plants meet the educational and health needs of our people.

HOW WE CAN HAVE FEDERAL SUPPORT FOR EDUCATION AND AVOID UNDESIRABLE FEDERAL CONTROLS

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Address at Atlanta Conference

The many problems of federal, state, and local governmental relationships have received much attention in recent years. What governmental responsibilities should be exercised by each level of government—federal, state, local—is perhaps the most important political science problem before us today. The problem which I am discussing, namely, the provision of federal support for public education and the avoidance of undesirable federal controls, is but one phase of this larger problem.

Happily, there is practically unanimous agreement upon which particular level of government should be assigned the responsibility for enacting the laws governing and controlling public education in the United States. Each of the forty-eight states has provided in its organic law or its statutes for the establishment and supervision of a system of public education. No group of any consequence, lay or professional, desires that this fundamental pattern be changed. Emphatically, we do not desire federal control of public education.

Why is it that we are so unanimously opposed to federal control of public education? Perhaps the most important reason is that federal control of public education is contrary to the democratic philosophy and that national or federal control of public education is invariably associated with totalitarian forms of government. No other instrument is as powerful as a nationally controlled system of public education in perpetuating the political philosophy of the ruling class. We instinctively shrink from any policy which would make it possible for any political party or fuhrer to impose upon the people a system of learning which first enslaves the minds and later the bodies of its youth. We have fresh in our minds the terrible example of what has recently happened to a once great nation for having permitted this. I have but recently returned from Germany, or rather what is left of Germany, where I observed firsthand the fate of a nation which so enslaved the minds of its people that they are incapable of operating a democratic form of government.

The decentralization of educational control is a part of the democratic philosophy of government. The unique function of education in a democracy has been well described by the Educational Policies Commission and many other educational organizations and leaders.

Nevertheless, the wide dissemination of learning is perhaps more essential in a democracy than in any other form of government. Thomas Jefferson, probably more than any other of the early leaders of our government, clearly recognized the importance of education in a democracy. The fact that the national government is deeply concerned in the education of the people cannot be denied because the success of the democratic form of government is largely dependent upon the educational status of its citizens. We have seen the democratic form of government fail in countries where the educational status of the citizens was too low to make that form of government possible. In America we believe in government by a vote of the people, but if the people of a country are not given the opportunity for an education, a vote of the people merely becomes a consensus of ignorance.

Numerous studies have been made by both lay and professional organizations which clearly demonstrate that wealth is not evenly distributed throughout these United States. One of the latest and most significant of these studies is *An Inventory of Public School Expenditures in the United States—A Report on the Cooperative Study of Public School Expenditures*—by John K. Norton and Eugene S. Lawler assisted by Cecil L. Rice and Cecil E. Spearman. Our children are all citizens of the United States but the income per child of school age of our richest state is five times the per capita income of our poorest state. Some of the states of the nation, especially the southern states, are too poor to provide from their own resources the financial support necessary to provide an adequate system of education for the children residing in those states. This is a matter of national concern.

Full acceptance of the democratic philosophy of government implies that the wealth of the entire United States should be available for the education of the children wherever they may live. This can be accomplished only through the use of the federal taxing power. Equality of opportunity can

become a reality throughout the United States by means of liberal federal support for public education.

How can we reconcile the necessity for federal support for public education and our belief that the federal government should not control public education? It is not impossible, nor is it even difficult, to attain these two objectives because the principle of federal support for public education and the principle of local control of public education are not in conflict with each other. An excellent analysis of this whole problem is given in Chapter V of the *Forty-fourth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education. The federal government is already participating in the support of public education in the United States. However, federal participation in the support of public education for the most part has been on a piecemeal basis and the planning has been chaotic. We have only to recall some of the activities of the WPA, the PWA, the NYA, the FWA, the FDA, and other alphabetical agencies in order to shudder. The educational objectives which these agencies sought to attain were for the most part desirable; but these agencies, in so far as their relationships to education were concerned, were not organized and administered in accordance with sound principles of educational administration. As long as political expediency and bureaucratic self-interest are the dominating factors in influencing the formulation of legislation providing for the financial support of public education, we will not have an effective system of federal support for public education. Legislation providing for the financial support of public education should be formulated in accordance with sound principles. Such principles are not a secret. They are already generally recognized by the educational leadership of this nation. I shall now enumerate some of the principles which should govern the formulation of legislation for federal support of education without undesirable federal control of public education. They are as follows:

1. All federal funds provided for public education should be appropriated to the U. S. Office of Education for allotment to the states through the central educational authorities of the states.
2. Federal legislation providing for the distribution of appropriations for public education should either incorporate equitable, objective technics for determining allocations to the states or should require the U. S. Office of Education to formulate equitable, objective allocation technics based upon a statement of principles and purposes incorporated in enabling acts.
3. Federal grants-in-aid for public education should be made for the support of the general educational program as contrasted with special grants earmarked for particular phases of the educational program.
4. All federal grants-in-aid for education should be restricted to support of tax-supported public educational agencies.
5. All federal auditing of federal grants-in-aid to public education should be restricted to the auditing of respective state central educational authorities and the states should be responsible for the auditing of federal funds received by local school administrative units.

The acceptance of these principles in the formulation of federal legislation for the financial support of public education will avoid undesirable federal controls of public education. However, we cannot stop at that point. It will be noted that the plan that I am proposing does not give the federal government, or any agency of the federal government including the U. S. Office of Education, any direct control over the educational programs of the several states. The activities of the federal government would be restricted to an audit at the state level, primarily for the purpose of seeing that the federal funds so appropriated are actually expended upon public education. This plan leaves to the state and local-school units the responsibility for actually administering and controlling their systems of public education. That is a tremendous responsibility and it cannot be taken lightly. It implies that each state must develop an effective and competent state department of education. It implies that each state must develop strong and effective school administration at the local-school level. Public-school systems cannot be most effectively administered by remote control, either at the state or the national level. The nature of public education is such that it can best be administered through properly organized and administered local-school units. The state can best discharge its responsibility by establishing minimum standards and stimulating the improvement in the effectiveness of local-school administration by furnishing the necessary leadership and consultative services through its state department of education.

While I do not believe that the federal government should be given the power to control public education, nevertheless I believe that the U. S. Office of Education should be given the important responsibility of providing research facilities and consultative services to the several states. I believe that the U. S. Office of Education should be greatly strengthened as a service agency but not as a control agency. A properly organized and administered educational agency at the national level would be of great assistance to the states in formulating their educational programs.

In conclusion, I have pointed out (a) that federal control of public education is undesirable; (b) that federal financial support of public education is necessary; (c) that it is possible to have federal support of education without federal control; (d) that federal legislation provided for the financial support of public education should be in accordance with sound principles which are already widely recognized; and (e) that federal support for public education without federal control demands that the educational leadership of this nation should be strengthened at all levels—federal, state, and local.

DESIRABLE FEDERAL-STATE RELATIONS INVOLVING HIGHER EDUCATION

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Address at Atlanta Conference

May I say at the outset that the question is not whether the federal government should enter the field of higher education; it is already there and has been for a long time. The question we are most concerned about now is the extent of the federal government's future participation in higher education and the bases upon which that participation should be projected.

To refresh your memories on the federal government's interest in higher education, may I review briefly federal-state relations in this field. In any discussion of this subject we must not forget that the founders of our republic carefully omitted mention of any form of education in the Constitution. A search of the debates of the Constitutional Convention reveals that only once was a question relating to education raised by that body, and that question concerned the power of the new government to establish a national university at the seat of government. The chairman ruled that the new government would have such power.

The first grants of the federal government for higher education were land grants made by Congress to the Ohio Company in 1787, when two townships were given "for the purposes of a university." A third township for the same purpose was granted with the Symmes Purchase in 1788. When Ohio was admitted to statehood in 1802, the previous grants of three townships for seminaries of learning were confirmed. The first grant became the basis of the endowment of Ohio University at Athens, and the second the endowment of Miami University at Oxford.

The granting of two or more sections of land for "a seminary of learning" or for "a state university" was continued with the admission of each new state. These grants formed the beginnings of the state universities which were created in all the new western and southern states.

All grants by Congress for college purposes were placed from the first definitely under the control of the legislature of the future state. From this position Congress has never departed. The Morrill Act was passed in 1862, appropriating to each state thirty thousand acres of land for each senator and representative for the founding of what are now known as land-grant colleges; Congress designated the legislature of the state as the responsible body to carry out the intent and purposes of the Act. The Act specified the purposes for which the appropriation could be used—the teaching of agriculture, mechanical arts, and military science and tactics. Once the appropriation was accepted by the state, no further Congressional controls were exercised. All details of expenditure were left to the states as long as the general purposes of the grant were carried out.

In 1887, just one hundred years after the first land grant had been made for higher education, Congress passed what came to be known as the

Hatch Act, appropriating \$15,000 to each state for the purpose of maintaining an agricultural experiment station in connection with the land-grant college. This was a new departure in that the grant was in money rather than in land. Since that date Congress has become increasingly generous in its aid to the land-grant colleges and to the experiment stations. Today these institutions are generously endowed by the federal government in the fields of teaching, research, and extension. Each of these fields has been subjected to a degree of federal supervision which has tended to increase through the years, although the authority imposed has not yet limited local initiative immoderately.

The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 appropriates money to the states for vocational education below college level. A portion of the fund, however, may be used for teacher education and all states now use some part of this money for that purpose.

That the federal government has been exerting more than a nominal influence on education in recent years must be clear to all of us. There has been federal aid since 1921 for rehabilitation of students on the college level. The National Youth Administration aided large numbers of college students in the Thirties. There are few state-supported institutions of higher education that did not use WPA and PWA funds to construct buildings, to build walks, and to make other campus improvements. Federal aid was given on a contractual basis to great numbers of privately controlled and state-supported colleges and universities during the war years. Many of these institutions would have found it difficult to survive without army and navy contracts. Practically every college and university in the land is receiving federal money today in the form of tuition under the G. I. Bill of Rights.

Undoubtedly the privately controlled institutions would favor continuance of a policy permitting them to deal directly with the federal government, because this seems to be the only way in which they could receive federal funds. Such a procedure seems to me, however, to contravene the development of education upon the basis of the Tenth Amendment to the Constitution, a basis that most states have accepted as desirable.

It must be clear to all who have studied carefully the educational inequalities in the nation that unless federal aid for education at all levels is provided, many states must continue to give a substandard quality of education or to neglect large numbers of their young people. Before the war there were more than one million students in the institutions of higher education in America. It is predicted that by 1950, or soon thereafter, the number will be doubled. Such an increase will place a financial burden on the institutions that many states cannot possibly meet.

Federal aid in the future, in my opinion, should not be confined to the limited areas which are subsidized today. The national government should be as much concerned about education for health and for citizenship as about education in agriculture and engineering.

All of the federal grants to the states for educational purposes prior to

the Smith-Lever Act were outright gifts to the states. Matching of federal moneys with state moneys was required for the first time under this Act.

In the administration of the more recent acts of Congress there is a tendency to be more vigilant in the supervision of expenditures in the states. It is natural for the states to want a maximum of freedom in the administration of any program. Even within the states we prefer to use state funds for universities and colleges with as few restrictions as possible. When bequests are made to our institutions of higher education, we are better pleased if they have no conditions attached.

Some people continue to insist that, when federal aid to higher education is provided, freedom of thought and freedom to teach what is considered best in a democracy will be endangered—that subvention could easily lead to conditioning or even to dictation of what is thought. None of our experiences with federal aid thus far indicates that this would be true.

Many people feel that the federal government has been encroaching in recent years on the educational rights of the states. Some even fear that another system of education may be set up under the guise of the education of veterans, just as a separate system of education was set up during the depression years under the guise of meeting new needs for the education of the young people of America. On the other hand, there are people who would like to see the federal government take over a considerable part of education in the United States, if not all of it. They feel that our schools are too traditional to serve an ever-changing world, and they would build another system of education to meet the needs of youth and adults as they see those needs.

Most of us are agreed that public schools and colleges in many states have been unable to build the kinds of educational programs necessary to the effective education of the citizens, young and old. The solution is federal aid at all levels of education from the nursery school through the university based upon the needs of the states. The opponents of federal aid for higher education, and there are many of them, contend that since most high-school graduates have to leave home to attend an institution of higher education, they can select a good one if they desire. Actually, the cost of travel, out-of-state tuition charges, and the higher cost of living in larger centers make it impossible for many high-school graduates to attend the better institutions in America. Moreover, a situation has arisen that did not exist a few years ago. Because of the tremendous enrolment of veterans, many institutions are being compelled to limit the number of their out-of-state students. This will undoubtedly become more common in the months immediately ahead.

The problem of higher education for those who want it and need it is critical. The economic and social problems facing the world today are exceedingly difficult and need the best thinking that can be brought to bear on them. It should be evident to all who have watched the progress of science that unless we are willing to see the world of modern civilization blown to bits, education must multiply its speed and effectiveness in helping the peoples of the world understand each other and in developing cooperative habits on a worldwide basis. Education in the ideals and attitudes of tolerance, cooperation, and mutual helpfulness must become the fundamental objective

throughout the world. Intelligent, unselfish leadership is essential to the world today. The federal government has a responsibility here.

What then would we consider to be desirable federal-state relations in higher education? First, the federal government should insure to all of the states adequate funds for a minimum program of education through the university level. We in the South would welcome a relationship that would give us sufficient funds to build institutions of higher education comparable to those in states more favored economically.

Second, the federal government should establish broad, general policies upon which federal aid will be granted to the states. The government should require of each state a plan for the expenditure of all federal funds allocated to the state and should exercise enough supervision to make sure that the money is spent in accordance with the plan. Many will strenuously object to any federal supervision of moneys allocated to the states but this seems to me to be a short-sighted policy. The federal government has a responsibility to see that its funds are wisely spent. It should not attempt to control or administer these funds directly, but it must insure their expenditure in accordance with the purposes of the acts appropriating them.

Third, the federal funds should be allocated to the state—not to institutions in the state. I am convinced that no direct grants should be sought by colleges and universities. Grants for education at all levels should be made to the state and, when accepted by the state subject to the purposes for which they were appropriated, should be administered by the state. This will compel state planning from nursery school through the university and will result in a better integrated and more carefully articulated program within the state. This kind of planning will enable the states to get a maximum return on the federal funds used.

Fourth, the United States Office of Education should be the agency through which federal moneys for higher education are made available to the states. The majority of such appropriations are now made through governmental departments and divisions. These funds will undoubtedly continue to be appropriated through the same channels, but I would hope that all new appropriations could be made through the Office of Education. It seems unfortunate that federal appropriations for education to be allocated to the states should come through competing agencies. Unification in one federal agency would result in more effective programs.

Fifth, when federal money for higher education is appropriated to a state, it should be sent to a central board of control for higher education in the state, to be administered by that board. This might be a state board of education, a state board of higher education, a council on public higher education, a commission on higher education, or any other body designated by the state to receive and administer the fund. Some agency within the state must be responsible for the formulation of the state plan and for safeguarding to all publicly supported institutions of higher education the opportunity to share equitably in the moneys appropriated. It must also assume responsibility for seeing that federal funds expended purchase a maximum of education for each dollar spent.

One excellent result of the stimulation that federal aid always gives to education would be the planning that would have to be done by the institutions within a state. All institutions participating in federal funds would be compelled to plan together for the wisest use of the funds. Too frequently state-supported institutions work on a competitive rather than a cooperative basis. In all too many instances there is unnecessary duplication of educational programs and activities. If each state had to submit a plan for the proposed use of federal funds, the institutions would have to work together in formulating the plan and would undoubtedly profit from thinking, planning, and working together.

Federal aid to higher education should also stimulate regional programs in the South in many fields where services are seriously lacking. For many years we have been discussing regional services in areas where the demand is so small or the cost is so great that the states do not feel justified in developing a program. There is a strong possibility that federal funds appropriated to the states for higher-education purposes would encourage cooperative planning among the states in such fields as medicine, public health, dental education, veterinary science, forestry, and architecture.

One additional advantage that I am sure would come to the South as a result of federal aid for higher education would be an improved program of education on the college level for Negroes. This is an improvement greatly needed and greatly to be desired.

While privately supported colleges do not generally participate in federal funds, they may profit indirectly from the expenditure of such funds in a state. If state-supported institutions would take privately supported colleges and universities into their counsel when planning for the spending of federal money, certain types of programs might well be allocated to non-state-supported institutions. This would make possible a more economical and a more adequate offering on a statewide basis.

May I summarize my thinking briefly?

1. The fundamentally correct way for the federal government to participate in education in the states is to make funds available to supplement the tax resources of the states.

2. All moneys allocated to the states should be on the basis of need and no state should be required to match any appropriation for education on any level. This will leave to the states the development of a suitable comprehensive plan of education, including higher education.

3. If the federal government should insist on earmarking appropriations to the states for certain kinds of education, the guiding principle must be to assist the states with the branches of education which will help most in establishing a body of competent citizens, capable of developing the nation's economic and social resources.

4. All federal aid for education should be administered by a central office in Washington. There is definite need for the coordination of agencies concerned with educational programs. Too many agencies of the federal government are involved in the promotion and direction of programs of education. It would be more economical and more satisfactory if all moneys appro-

priated for education could be administered through a central agency. The agency that should administer these programs is, in my opinion, the Office of Education; but this office needs to be greatly strengthened if it is to serve the states effectively and well. It should have a large staff of America's foremost men and women in education.

5. All money allocated by the federal government for educational purposes to a state should be administered by one legally constituted board or commission. This could be the state board of education or any other agency or body designated by the legislature to administer such funds. It seems useless and stupid to organize a new agency either in the federal government or at the state level every time we have a new idea or a new appropriation of funds.

6. There may be some who would postpone federal aid to higher education until a minimum common-school education is available to all people, irrespective of race, wealth, or place of residence. To me this is not sound thinking. To postpone federal aid for higher education for any reason would be to postpone the research and learning essential to our industrial, economic, and social development.

MAINTAINING THE TEACHING STAFF—CURES AND CONTENTMENT

W. M. OSTENBERG, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, COFFEYVILLE, KANSAS

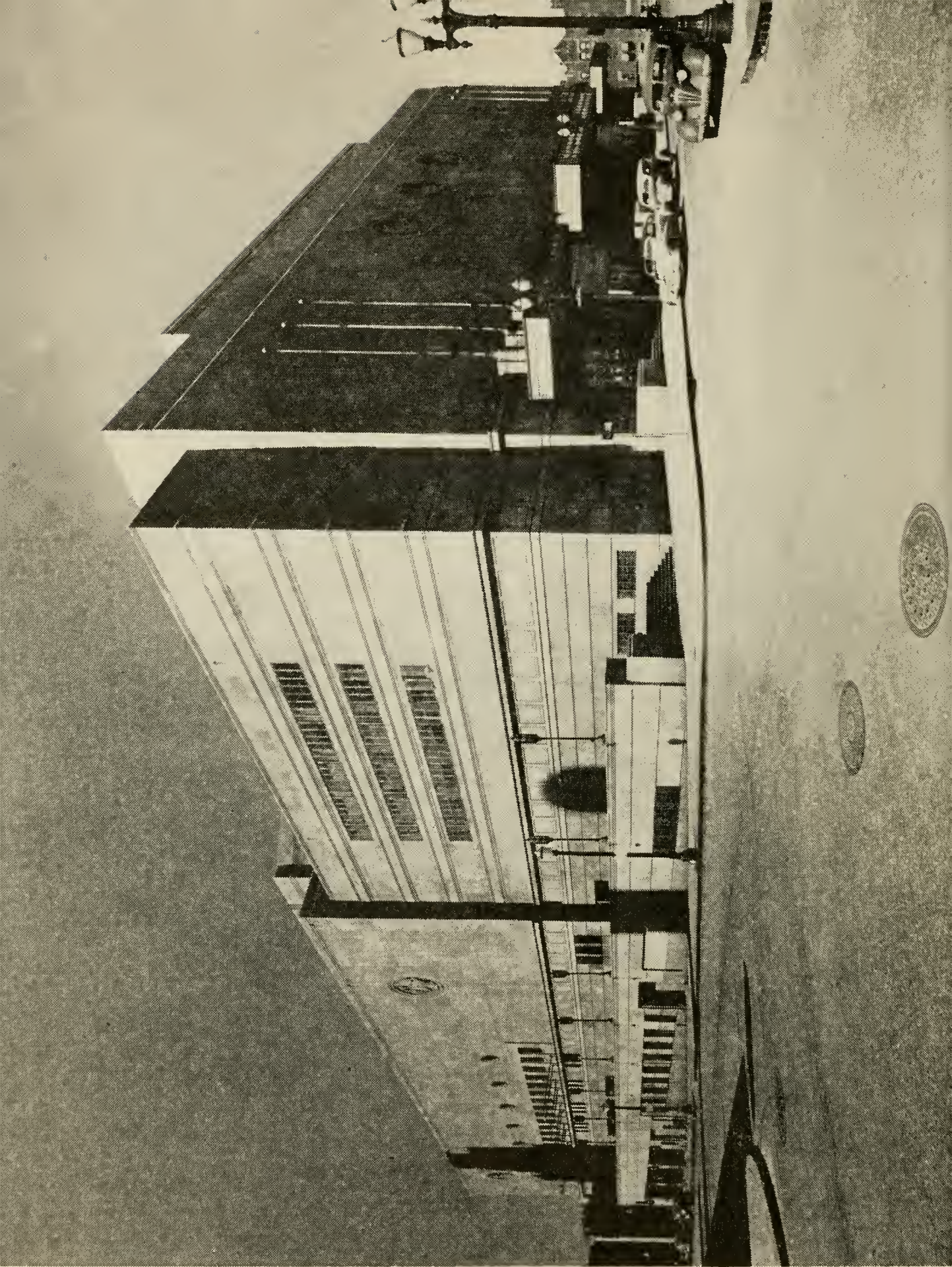
Address at Kansas City Conference

If I possessed the wisdom of Solomon, which I definitely do not, I should still not be qualified to answer with any degree of authority the questions that suggest themselves by the subject "Cures and Contentment."

Our only hope in this brief discussion is to suggest some possibilities that may contribute to better and more friendly relations between the school and the community and between those who administer the school and those who teach classes.

School administrators must have a genuine and keen appreciation of the importance of personnel policies. One outstanding superintendent of schools once said that one of his major tasks was to make the school system of his community "a safe and pleasant place for good people to work." The policy of the school administration in that community was "personnel first" and it was not merely a lip-service policy.

Over and over again it must be emphasized that the most important factor in any good school is the teaching personnel. There should never be a board of education policy that suggests expanding the school plant and then lowers teachers salaries to pay for the plant expansion. The public must never be permitted to make the tragic mistake of considering schools in terms of buildings, grounds, and equipment. Good teachers in a poor building that lacks good equipment will still make a good school but the rule cannot be reversed—poor teachers in a beautiful, perfectly equipped school



*The sessions of
the Kansas City
conference were
held in the beau-
tiful Municipal
Auditorium*

plant will avail nothing. In all our communities we must continuously emphasize that good people are in demand and that salaries and working conditions must be such as to attract and keep such well-qualified persons in the teaching profession. I asked one of my neighboring superintendents what he would say if he were asked to speak on the subject assigned me and he said he could answer the question in two words, "higher salaries." The president of the board of education of Coffeyville recently made a speech on the subject, "The Future of Coffeyville." Present at this meeting was a young man who resigned as one of the elementary principals in Coffeyville in 1943 and is now manager of a feed and seed store. The president of the board of education and a leading attorney made this significant statement: "We have a distorted sense of relative values. We haven't a right to expect very much in our town as long as men like Steve Aduddell are worth twice as much to process feeds as they are to process children."

While we have succeeded in a measure in our efforts to raise teachers salaries, all of us know that we still have a long way to go before we can take any particular pride in our accomplishments. Most school districts are spending all the money they can raise under present laws and therefore higher salaries mean additional state and federal legislation. It is obvious that if we can enlist the support of lay organizations and groups in the promotion of a better and more adequate financial structure for our schools, our results will be better.

It should be evidenced in a variety of ways that the school is a "safe and pleasant place for good people to work." The superintendent and the board of education must at all times act as a "buffer" to protect the teacher from distracting political influences and minority group prejudices which oftentimes disturb the teacher. The administration should have the courage to defend a teacher when she is unjustly attacked or accused and must stand fast when pressure groups would use the school for selfish purposes. Such matters can be handled more efficiently if a school is operated in such a manner that the board of education is a policy-making group and board members leave the administering of the schools in the hands of a professionally trained administrator.

A survey of teacher-training institutions indicates that there are not enough prospective teachers to meet the demand. "We need to glamourize the teaching profession," said Irene Dunne, movie actress. When the airlines wish to interest young women to go to school to learn to be airline hostesses they send attractive young women into the high schools and colleges to interview the girls. The same procedure is followed by many other groups. When the teachers colleges and departments of education send representatives out to high schools to interview prospective students and to interest them in making teaching a profession, they usually send the oldest and most unattractive member of the staff. Recently one superintendent suggested that the three teachers colleges in Kansas and the departments of education in the several colleges and universities in the state employ an attractive young teacher whose duties would be to contact high-school girls and point out to them the advantages of becoming a teacher. Let her point

out that teaching offers a three-months' vacation during the summer, a week or two at Christmas, and several other holidays during the school year. Let her tell them something of the satisfaction that comes to anyone who works with young people. In other words, her responsibility would be to point out the advantages of making teaching a career for a time at least. If this method works for private business it might well be tried by teacher-training institutions. We have overpublicized the low salaries and the other disadvantages of the teaching profession. It is time now that the other side of the picture be presented with equal emphasis. Educational organizations and teachers themselves can suggest that the teacher be not caricatured as a person with a long nose and an unattractive personality who rules her class with the proverbial switch or ruler.

School administrators have been afforded an unusual opportunity during the past few months in the matter of building a better morale in the teaching staff. I refer to the members of the profession who are returning from military service. Those schools which gave to the veteran an official leave of absence and which are reemploying that veteran now are learning that such a policy makes for an excellent attitude on the part of veterans and nonveterans on the faculty. In this connection may I quote from a statement made by a young veteran in my town as he was presenting the veteran's viewpoint to the members of the chamber of commerce.

Yesterday you were his friend because you were his boss. Today he counts on that friendship even more because between yesterday and today he has done many, many things, which neither of you ever contemplated at the time you hired him, to preserve and protect not only that friendship but *you*. Yesterday he came to you with his problems looking for help because you were a successful man, a man for whom he had sincere and deep respect and admiration. Today he will do the same. He will not understand if you are so busy that you have no time for him; he will not understand if you have been so busy that you have not had time to acquaint yourself with possible solutions to his problems. He may wonder why he went away.

By and large, the veteran who comes to you is not seeking charity, gifts, or donations. If he was industrious enough to win your war, he is industrious enough to make his own way in life. He asks nothing more nor less from you than a chance—a chance again to become a civilian and enjoy the normal existence which he enjoyed before he dressed in his uniform. You, through your assistance, or lack of assistance, will have much to do with the determination of whether or not he has that chance. Give him a break, he deserves it.

I have on my desk many letters from veterans who have returned and who were members of the teaching staff in cities in our vicinity and who now ask for a position in my community for the rest of the school year. Several of them have told me personally that they were not given a leave of absence but were told that they would be considered for a position in the community in which they taught if a vacancy should occur when they returned from military service. Treating the veteran with fairness and justice will pay dividends in any community.

Teachers should be told all the facts about the school system in which they are employed. People cannot be interested in or manifest any loyalty to an organization about which they have virtually no information. If teach-

ers are to be interested in the larger problems of the school system, then they must be informed relative to the major facts involved. There should be no secret policies, no unexplained motives, no financial information which are not placed squarely on the table. All policies and actions should be fully discussed. Various methods are available to perform these functions. Carefully planned faculty meetings afford an opportunity for the administrators to explain policies and programs and to answer any questions concerning them. Many school systems use the superintendent's newsletter for this purpose. In other well-managed schools the teachers themselves publish regularly a newsletter or paper giving essential information.

There should be no emphasis on the annual election of teachers. Most states require by law that teachers be officially elected for one year. In some communities this becomes an annual event and warrants headlines in the local paper. This idea should be completely de-emphasized. Instead every teacher should know that her tenure is permanent as long as she performs her work satisfactorily. When teachers are officially reelected by the board of education the matter, if mentioned at all in the press, should be in the last line of the last paragraph of the news story on the board meeting. Under no circumstances should it be an "event" which has any particular news significance.

In any good school system a spirit of democracy must prevail. Obviously every teacher must recognize certain responsibilities to the organization but the spirit of free inquiry and initiative must never be stifled. The school that would secure and retain the best in personnel should have a modern, comprehensive supervisory program but this supervision should be courteous, considerate, and fair. Teachers should be made to feel that their judgments and their opinions freely expressed in the proper places are genuinely appreciated. They should be encouraged to participate in various affairs of the school and the community.

There is a definite need for liberalizing the absence regulations for illness and death in families. While it is true that most school systems have adopted a more liberal plan of absences for teachers the fact remains that only a beginning has been made. I know from experience that there is no better way to build the right kind of morale than that of being generous when teachers are absent for long periods as a result of illness. We don't build morale nor create contentment by adhering strictly to set rules for absences as a result of illness. The school system which I administer has not made any deductions for absences due to illness during the past five years. It doesn't cost very much more to have such a plan and it is the cheapest way to secure satisfied employees.

And finally the school administration should carefully avoid attempts to regulate the social, economic, and religious lives of faculty members. No standards less than that of true ladies and gentlemen should be acceptable from those who are to teach. Teachers should not be expected to sign away their lives when they sign a contract to teach school. The head of the placement bureau in a teachers college recently told me that several of the girls in last year's graduating class did not intend to teach because they said,

"We don't want to teach because we want to live our own lives and some communities won't let teachers do that." A superintendent put it this way: "Absurd regulations and impossible codes for teachers tend to create an unnatural gap between themselves and the rest of the community which seriously impairs the teachers' efficiency and which will not long be tolerated by capable people."

THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS TO MEET NEW PROBLEMS

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Address at New York Conference

One can hardly open a magazine or newspaper in these days without finding some article or speech about the responsibility of education in our times. It would seem that the world is to be saved or lost by the teachers and the results of their teaching to the boys and girls in their classrooms. A naive observer would be led to think that the American people really believe that education is the most important agency in our social life for the prevention of crime, war, and the various other evils which beset us. If this were true, educational budgets would be trebled immediately, and we should be talking about universal education instead of universal conscription. Undoubtedly we shall continue to talk of the responsibilities of education and we shall continue to support it inadequately.

All over the country, a shortage of teachers exists and thousands of teachers have been employed in the past few years with substandard certificates, many of them with only a high-school education and a few weeks of summer school as their initial training. In many parts of the country, people are satisfied if the school is kept open and has someone to take care of the children, regardless of her education and her fitness for the job. Young people cannot be enticed to enter teaching in sufficient numbers to give assurance that even in a few years there will be enough adequately trained teachers to fill the vacancies which will exist. If the American people really wished to take education seriously, they could undoubtedly make teaching an attractive occupation which would attract the best talent. Such a profession would have some chance of tackling some of the problems which beset our time.

Teachers ought to realize that their work in shaping the future is only part of the story. Schools at best are educating those who will take part in making decisions several years after they leave the classrooms. Schools must share with other agencies the task of educating for the kind of world in which we live. The press, the radio, and the platform have a large share in this task. Decisions are being made every day in legislative halls by those who got their education many years ago. Business and industry, labor, and various pressure groups are all making their wishes known and attempting to get decisions made which are advantageous to them. How can the schools

be of influence in this kind of a competitive society when, after all, the schools must in the long run adopt a philosophy which is pretty much in tune with the dominant philosophy of the society in which it exists?

First of all, the school must adopt a philosophy of recognizing its function in educating people to understand the problems of the society in which they live and to have some basis of preparation for the solution of these problems. Every age brings its own peculiar problems and responsibilities. Unless the school is to retire into a monastic kind of setting, it must concern itself with these problems and try to prepare pupils to meet the realities of the world in which they live. In any age, teachers face a certain kind of frustration in attempting to perform this function because, even though young people graduate from high school, several years are bound to elapse before they have to face the most important personal, social, and civic problems. And they are not apt to exert much influence on political and public affairs for several years more. Meanwhile, conditions may have changed so rapidly that the kind of education which they received in elementary and secondary schools is badly out of joint with the current problems which have to be faced.

There seems, therefore, to be an inevitable lag between education and the current life of any time. That lag is particularly serious now because of the very rapid progress which our age has made in science and its applications. We live in a world of railroads, steamships, airplanes, large cities, mass production, and countless other such phenomena which characterize our modern industrial society. To think that education which was geared for a rather simple, rural kind of existence where there was no great need of interchange of raw materials and products, where there was not the contact between the different levels of culture, will fit young people to take part in the modern world, is to live in a dream.

In general, it seems safe to say that the wars of our century have as underlying causes man's inability to develop his social wisdom so that he can utilize to his own advantage the tremendous technological changes which have been made. So the world gets sick and war is a kind of surgical operation which settles very little but allows man to make some new starts.

When Mark Sullivan wrote his volumes entitled *Our Times*, he used two hundred pages in the second volume in relating the ideas of people in 1900 concerning the content of the curriculum of the American common school of the 1870's and early 80's.

It seems accurate to maintain that the United States was not ready for World War I because we had not emerged from a century dominated by our interest in our own national expansion in our continent. We felt that we were safe behind the two great oceans and we had no understanding of the way in which our vital interests were tied up with the rest of the world. So, when the war was over, we thought again that we could withdraw within ourselves and let Europe, as we said, "stew in her own juice." We announced to Europe that we were not interested in her affairs and, consequently, we were by our inaction partly guilty for allowing the Fascist and Nazi regimes to develop and to secure such barbarous power.

In the Twenties and the Thirties we taught the doctrine of peace, but we refused to face the hard reality that peace does not come from even such a fine sounding document as the Kellogg-Briand Pact of 1928. It comes only as the result of mutual interest in the development of cooperative measures for the benefit of mankind in general and in the willingness to sacrifice certain local, specific interests for the common good.

Now that we have been through the fire of war, we face the same problem again. Undoubtedly the schools face new problems of rather technical importance in their own field of development. But the most important problem of our time and the future is to solve the problem of living peaceably with other nations.

Isaiah Bowman, President of Johns Hopkins University, pointed out a year or two ago in an address to the American Association for the Advancement of Science that we now have four necessities of life—food, clothing, shelter, and international security. Without the last it is folly to talk of the other three because they cannot be achieved. Food, clothing, and shelter amount to nothing in view of the threat of self-destruction inherent in the atomic bomb.

What can be done in the schools to meet this kind of a problem, which at the present time seems to baffle the wisest statesmen of our time? I should be the last one to claim that the schools can work out any magical solution. I do believe firmly, however, that it is within reasonable limit of possibility for schools to create a climate of understanding in this country which would assist greatly in the solution of these problems. Teachers must understand the world in which we live and try in every possible way to get this understanding across to children. Unless they themselves are aware of the changes that have taken place and realize the interdependence of the world technically and commercially, it is obvious that they will have little effect in creating this kind of climate.

Surely we can teach young people a point of view toward our responsibility in world government as effectively as the Nazis and Fascists taught the race doctrines and the specific philosophies in which they were interested. Mussolini's creed was that young people should be taught to "obey, believe, and fight," and he was very successful in indoctrinating youngsters from the lower grades up. The Nazi philosophy that the individual amounts to nothing but must devote all of his energies to the state was so successfully taught that the greatest problem in the next few years in Germany is to try to undo the ten years of teaching which was so successfully carried on by the Nazis. Some observers have thrown up their hands at this problem and think that the only thing that can be done is to begin again with the children in the lowest grades and to practically admit the impossibility of reeducating those who were under the domination of the Nazis.

Surely we can teach our young people the fundamental propositions that we must do our share in working with other nations for the solution of common problems—that unless we can do this, the next war seems likely to destroy about all that we know of civilization. They should understand that the so-called culture of the modern world is a very thin veneer and

that under this lies a savage who is capable of exterminating millions of people in most cruel fashion, as has been done by the Nazis and Fascists. No one can look on the atrocities of this war with any feeling of complacency as to what was accomplished by education and culture in the last fifty to one hundred years.

The task of education is, therefore, an enormous one in trying to create citizens who are really interested in the common welfare of all people in the world. This problem has a very definite relationship to the problem of living together within our own borders. Unless we can solve our problems of race and creed and color differences, we shall have very little promise of solving the wider problems of world importance.

It is gratifying that some of the teachers colleges and schools of education of the country have been grappling with this problem during the past year under the auspices of the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education, supported by a small grant from the National Conference of Christians and Jews. Eight colleges have been working on these intergroup problems, some of them developing courses of study, some experimenting with practical cooperation with social agencies of the community, others working out problems which are met by students in their practice teaching. The grant from the National Conference of Christians and Jews is to be increased and extended for the next three years and it is the sincere hope of those interested in this problem that the increase of grant will mean an additional number of institutions that are concerned with this problem which may constitute soon one of the major crises of our society.

America was founded on a definite philosophy of equal rights and opportunities for all. We have fallen far short of this mark and surely the public schools must bear a very large responsibility in attempting to fulfill the American Dream. If teachers are to be prepared for assignment of this sort, they will need to have broad general education and courses in sociology and economics which give them a realistic view of our world. They will have to have more opportunity than they have had in the past to take part in the activities of community life. They will have to be encouraged after they secure a position to become active citizens and to learn by participation what actually goes on in this world and what can be done in the schoolroom to meet the problems which the world deposits there.

We are foolish if we think the future teacher is going to tell our businessmen and our legislators how to run the world. We are very foolish, however, if we do not set up for ourselves higher goals than we have ever had before in turning out teachers who understand their world and can give young people a scientific, objective viewpoint towards it.

WHAT A SUPERINTENDENT LOOKS FOR IN NEW TEACHERS

ARTHUR W. FERGUSON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, YORK,
PENNSYLVANIA

Address at New York Conference

The school superintendent as he interviews the candidate for a teaching position or as he appraises the work of the new teacher during his first visits to her classroom is looking for:

First, personal qualities favorable for success in teaching; second, attitudes that identify the teacher as a member of a great profession; third, breadth of general education; and fourth, evidences of a functional type of preparation for her work as a teacher.

Probably no subject has been more thoroughly explored than the personal characteristics of the successful teacher. It is not within the province of this discussion to review the literature of this field or to report the collective opinion of those having contacts with teachers as probed by someone's checklist. Without attempting to be dogmatic or to oversimplify this matter of personal qualities, the superintendent is looking for the teacher who is attractive to children. Voice, dress, patience, an innate sense of fairness—the ingredients are many, but for the teacher who attracts children analysis of her personal qualities is unimportant.

The ablest kindergarten teacher within my knowledge secured her present position as the result of a scene a visiting superintendent witnessed in her classroom. The superintendent knew in advance of his visit of her superior family background, of the A.M. in kindergarten education achieved at a first-rate institution, but the telling of a story to a group of young children revealed a teacher attractive to children. Trustingly grouped at her feet, eyes unwaveringly fixed upon the teacher's face, these youngsters were swept into the reality of the story by the charm of its telling. It was not dramatic art; it was rather a revelation of an understanding of childhood.

What attitudes identify the professional teacher? I would place at the head of the list a genuine belief that teaching is a respected calling. Can there be success in teaching without high consciousness of a service motive? A superintendent feels a keen sense of disappointment in a new teacher who is apologetic for her profession.

The school administrator is seeking eagerly these days for the teacher who believes that whatever makes for the development of children is part of the job. What strange contradiction, in this day of the whole child and integrated programs, for teachers of English to maintain that dramatics is something apart demanding extra compensation, or for teachers of health and physical education to believe that an after-school intramural sports program merits additional pay whereas preparation for tomorrow's work by a teacher of academic subjects does not.

Theodore Roosevelt once stated that whoever belongs to a profession owes something to that profession. The superintendent is delighted with

the new teacher who quickly joins professional groups within her teaching interests, and then assumes leadership and responsibility in these truly professional organizations.

The most hopeful attitude in the new teacher is recognition of the need for help and the intelligent acceptance and use of supervisory services. The new teacher with this attitude can influence the pattern for a helpful in-service program for all teachers within the system. Their eagerness to improve, their selection for leadership in committee and workshop activities is professional leaven for their older and more settled colleagues.

Cousins in *Modern Man Is Obsolete* observes that the human race has been plunged into the atomic age without ever achieving the social and economic implications of the age of steam. How important it is for teachers to be alert to the world about them whether it be UNO or Dick Tracy. This surely is the basis for any scheme of general education. The superintendent is looking for teachers that live in the same world with children and youth.

Some acquaintance with great literature, at least an elemental knowledge of principal scientific achievements, and some idea of the most important eras and movements in the story of man's progress through the ages constitute the minimum cultural area in the general education of the teacher.

There is another aspect of general education so important for teachers. Superintendents are looking for new teachers who have had rich educative experiences beyond the academic shades. Travel, summer employment in other fields, community work, church work—these are suggestive of non-academic activities which contribute so vitally to the general education of the teacher.

Superintendents are constantly looking for evidence in new teachers of a functional type of preparation for their chosen calling. Probably the greatest single lack in many of the institutions educating young people for teaching is the opportunity to observe superior teaching. Just one liberal arts college in Pennsylvania maintains a campus school of its own in elementary and secondary education. Exclusive of the thirteen teachers colleges, there are fifty-seven degree-granting institutions in Pennsylvania and most of them prepare teachers. Even where campus schools exist there is not always the opportunity to see superior teaching. Those institutions which depend upon near-by public schools for observation and student teaching opportunities are exposing prospective teachers to the greatest gamble in the whole business of teacher education. The fetish for supervision of all student teaching and observation by a member of the college staff is a bar to richer opportunities beyond commuting distance from the campus. One hopeful prospect in this area is the development of sound films in teaching technics comparable to those produced by the armed forces.

Superintendents are looking for evidence that new teachers know how to apply methods learned in presenting subjectmatter. In some institutions there is a great gulf between the college and the training school. The superintendent is looking for demonstration of "know how" in teaching.

Prospective teachers need experiences in the managerial side of their craft in actual classroom situations. Attendance registers, records, reports, interviews with parents, technics of home-room control can be made less formidable for new teachers if such experiences are provided in the training period. Every superintendent has seen new teachers stalled by inability to cope with the pure mechanics of the job.

Another type of functional preparation a superintendent seeks in the record of the new teacher is experience in out-of-class activities with children. Student teachers should have opportunities to organize and conduct school excursions, to direct intramural athletics, to supervise noon activities for pupils. The opportunity to work with groups of children in areas of natural interest is functional preparation for teaching.

How may we produce in greater numbers the new teacher the superintendent seeks? Only through the cooperative efforts of the producer, the consumer, and the middle man. The colleges, school administrators, and state departments of education have a cooperative job to do. In my judgment, no one has a greater responsibility for the recruitment of suitable young men and women for the teaching profession than do the superintendent of schools and the high-school principal. On the other hand, the state teachers college should be the educational headquarters for its area. It should attract to its campus the ablest teachers of the area for various services to the students of the college. It in turn should send out to the public schools of its area members of the college staff competent to perform specialized services for teachers in service.

The various cooperative movements now under way in a number of the states are calculated to produce more new teachers of the type superintendents are seeking. The effect of some of these cooperative efforts is already reflected in improved classroom service. Better teachers for better schools is a cooperative project.

THE ROLE OF CERTIFICATION IN GETTING BETTER TEACHERS

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Address at New York Conference

In recent years those groups which hold the view that anyone can teach have urged the lowering of standards for admission to teaching. Public and professional interest in teacher education during the prewar and war periods, however, has given certification authorities faith and courage to support existing minimum requirements for admission to the teaching service. The National Survey for the Education of Teachers, the Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York, the recent reports of the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education, the Harvard Report, and similar studies indi-

cate public and professional concern about the preparation of teachers. There is general agreement that periods of preparation considered adequate for the education of teachers during the depression days of the Thirties need to be extended if new recruits for teaching are to be educated for the responsibilities of a period when international understanding is basic to the peace of the world. There is every indication that the public wants teachers who understand children and who possess the ability and technical skill to use instructional materials in ways that will produce maximum growth on the part of each individual child. This is a challenge to the teacher educators; likewise it is a challenge to the certification authorities—the guardians of the people's children.

Certification has to do with professional qualification. The regulations controlling it are usually administered by professional authority. The certificate is a legal instrument which grants the holder thereof the right to teach in accordance with the terms therein. In New York State this is one of three employment conditions; the other two are citizenship and an age of at least eighteen years. Obviously, the schools entrusted with the care and instruction of children should be staffed by certified teachers—persons who have completed those elements of a teacher's preparation which are generally accepted as essential to the right to practice in the teaching profession. It is important that the unqualified be excluded and one sure way to accomplish this is through a state system of teacher certification. Regulations which relate to teachers' qualifications are of vital concern to every member of the profession. They protect the teacher, the school administrator, the board of education, and tend to guarantee to every child his educational birthright, that is, the right to receive instruction from those well qualified to impart it.

In a democratic social order such as ours, certification standards and practices should be receptive to the needs of the times. The regulations in force during any particular decade should result from continuous studies of teacher education and of the instructional needs of children in the public school. We have observed the great advance which has been made in the qualifications of those seeking the right to practice in other honored professions. Although the standards for admission to teaching are not yet as high as those now prescribed for admission to the practice of medicine, law, and the other honored professions, much progress has been made in recent years. There is ample evidence to support the statement that higher qualifications for the issuance of certificates will bring better teachers to the public schools.

One role of certification is to increase the flow of teachers across state lines. During periods of teacher oversupply some states have prescribed specific requirements which tend to limit the issuance of certificates to graduates of local institutions. For example, the certification requirements of the state of Texas prescribe that a candidate complete a course in the Constitutions of the United States and Texas. Under this requirement is the footnote: This course must be completed by residence in a senior college or a junior college in Texas or by correspondence with a senior college in

Texas. The great state of California prescribes that each applicant complete a course of not less than two semester hours in the principles and provisions of the Constitution of the United States, said course to be completed in a California teacher-training institution. Evidently the professional leadership of this great state has little confidence in the kinds of courses in constitutional government that are offered by accredited colleges in other states. Following a similar pattern, the state of New Mexico prescribes that six semester hours of satisfactory work must be completed in an institution of higher learning in the state of New Mexico, of college or university rank. Steps need to be taken by our professional leadership to eliminate such foolish and provincial requirements in the certification programs of states. There is need for regional conferences of certification authorities to formulate programs which will lead to a uniformity of certification requirements in the states of the region. Some beginnings have been made by the certification authorities of the southern states and by similar authorities of the New England and Middle Atlantic states. The staffs of the better schools of a region need the stimulation which comes from the employment of better teachers of other states. Certification requirements should encourage the importation of teachers from other states.

Another role of certification is to stimulate the leadership in cooperating teacher-preparing institutions to restudy existing programs in terms of the findings of recent studies. This is a function of certification which is too often neglected. This role is recognized by many professional leaders to be far more important than the usual mandatory role followed by the states. The importance of this role was recognized by the state of New York six years ago. At that time the Teacher Education Committee of the State College Association agreed to cooperate with the Teacher Education Commission of the American Council on Education in a study of teacher-education programs offered by up-state public and private institutions of higher education. This Committee sponsored conferences and workshops to encourage leadership in cooperating institutions to reappraise the elements comprising a teacher's education. In addition the Committee formulated criteria for judging institutions seeking the approval of teacher-education programs. The final activity sponsored by this Committee was the selection and employment of a panel of four experts who were charged with the duty of visiting twenty-five up-state colleges and universities preparing secondary-school teachers to evaluate existing teacher-education programs in terms of the criteria. These criteria include evidences of appropriate studies in the fields of human growth and development, an appreciation of the nature of contemporary society and the role of the school in the sound promotion of such society, a comprehensive acquaintance with our cultural heritage and vast body of established knowledge which needs to be mediated to the youth, a thorough mastery of the materials in the fields of teaching interest, an adequate knowledge of the learning process with a demonstrated ability to appraise the teaching art effectively, and an understanding of the responsibility and ideals of the teaching profession.

In my judgment, another criterion will soon be added to this list, that is, evidence of appropriate studies in those sciences which are essential to a thorough understanding of child development.

A third role of certification is to encourage institutions to conduct controlled experiments and research studies in the field of teacher education. The appropriation bill recommended by Governor Dewey and recently passed by the New York State Legislature includes an item of \$10,000 for the state teachers colleges for services and expenses incurred in connection with curriculum conferences, workshops, and research studies in teacher education. This item was requested in order that research studies and experiments might be initiated which will carry forward certain phases of the teacher-education program sponsored by the state committee working in cooperation with the Commission on Teacher Education. The shift of emphasis from the teaching of subjectmatter as an end of education to its appropriate use as a means in the development of youth implies the need for much experimentation. Everyone recognizes the fact that the teaching of subjectmatter requires less ability and understanding than using subjectmatter as one means in the total development of the child. There is need for many studies which throw light upon the problems connected with the growth and behavior of growing children. The recent publication of the Teacher Education Commission, *Helping Teachers To Understand Children*, and materials developed by teachers participating in the child development center sponsored by the Teacher Education Commission in connection with the University of Chicago provide an excellent basis for teachers college faculties to evaluate materials of instruction and procedures now in use and to set up experimental programs which tend to improve existing practices.

For many years the state of New York has operated campus schools in connection with its teachers colleges. Generally speaking these schools have been used for demonstration teaching and for supervised student practice teaching. It is anticipated that the time is not far off when they will be used for an additional function—experimental education. It seems to me that controlled experiments and research studies in curriculum materials and in teaching technics related to those materials should be conducted by competent personnel in regularly organized schools devoted to the education of children. Campus schools of practice are ideal centers for such controlled experiments since they may draw upon the staff and resources of the entire teachers college.

Well-conceived patterns of preparation, scholarly staffs in charge of the major areas of learning, and excellent institutional facilities to implement instructional programs fail to make their full contribution unless the teachers college or cooperating private college has in effect a well-planned program of recruitment. Admission should no longer be limited to a selection of the most fit from the group who apply voluntarily. Once a person is admitted it should not be assumed that his selection for the teaching service is final. In New York State for a ten-year period the state teachers college faculties cooperated with the state education department in the

development of a statewide selective admissions program. During the war years this program gave way to institutional programs of recruitment. Experience with these programs has brought teachers college faculties to the realization that there is a large untapped reservoir of talent which should be recruited for the teaching service. Recruitment is the cooperative responsibility of the classroom teacher, the supervisor, the administrative staff, and the professional staffs of the teacher-preparing institutions. A recruitment program should result in the selection of the most promising from the pool of candidates that have been recruited for admission to the teacher-preparing institutions. After admission the selective process should be continuous in order that only the most fit are finally recommended for teacher certification. Some hold the view that leadership in the development of institutional selective recruitment programs is the most important role of a certification office.

Finally, one might raise the question how certification may stimulate and encourage teacher-preparing institutions to place in operation the criteria mentioned above. In New York State the certification requirements prescribe the satisfactory completion of approved curriculums. In the past, approval of teacher-education programs has been based upon evidence that the total program of preparation included a modicum of general education and specific courses in education. As a result, many of the cooperating institutions have been satisfying requirements rather than performing a leadership function in the field of teacher education. It is time that certification authorities place less stress upon specifics and greater emphasis upon approval of curriculums which are based upon criteria that necessitate evidences of institutional leadership. The realization of this goal will mean better teachers for better schools.

SCIENTIFIC AIDS TO EDUCATION

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Address at New York Conference

Consideration of aids to education should center attention on instruction. The provision of a proper setting for instruction is the function of every aspect of school organization, administration, and supervision. Buildings should be planned so as to aid instruction; schools should be organized so as to aid instruction; personnel should be selected so as to aid instruction; textbooks and visual materials should be provided so as to aid instruction; relationships with the community should be established so that community resources will aid instruction. When attention is focused on aiding instruction the maximum contribution will be made to achieving a good education for the student.

A second aspect of the topic requires interpretation—the term “scientific.” This provides an important guide for our treatment. It suggests that we give particular attention to the influence of the scientific movement in education on aids to instruction. To do this in any comprehensive fashion would be a very big job. Here we can only sample and illustrate and generalize.

The scientific movement has been one of the two or three greatest influences shaping American education in this century. Receiving its initial impetus from laboratory work in educational psychology, it spread rapidly to affect practically all aspects of the educational program. The use of scientific technics in studying the age-grade status and progress of pupils was rapidly followed by similar application to school buildings, school finance, school organization, the curriculum—in fact, no phase of the educational program has escaped this influence. Roughly from 1915 to 1930 there was great optimism about what could be achieved through the application of scientific procedures to educational problems. Many educators believed that organization, administration, and instruction could be reduced to clearly defined, verified procedures which would achieve the desired outcomes with practical certainty. For example, one widely known educator described during this period how the scientific method would affect the curriculum as follows:

The engineer first plans the object he wishes to make—the house, the bridge, the electric transformer, the railroad bed. He sets up his plan in the form of a detailed blueprint and studies the adequacy of each of its parts from the standpoint of established theories. After he has perfected his blueprint in every detail, his next step is to have the plan embodied in concrete materials. Now precisely the same procedure characterizes the new education. Our first step is to get a blueprint of the individual . . . we want. . . . Our second step is, then, by using such instrumentalities as school subjects, discipline, and example as tools, to forge out individuals to conform to these blueprints. In searching for means through which to attain clearly conceived ends, the educational engineer determines by scientific experiment which will most economically serve his purpose.¹

Now to come to the point of this brief look backward. Gradually after about 1930 skepticism began to develop regarding the good to be realized from the effort to treat education as a science. All along there had been objectors to the extent of the emphasis on scientific method in contrast to the philosophical, but gradually unwanted results became evident and the scientific approach to education came under a cloud. Interest in the study and development of education on the basis of scientific inquiry is, in my judgment, at a low level today. Consider, for example, the field of instruction. The current literature is dominantly descriptive or philosophical. It is rare to find a report involving the rigorous use of scientific inquiry.

It is my view that, as so often happens, we have swung from one extreme to another. Unreasonable faith has been followed by undue skepticism. We should now undertake to move to a more balanced use of scientific procedures. In order to do this it will be helpful to appraise with some

¹ Peters, Charles C. *Objectives and Procedures in Civic Education*. New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1930. p. 21-24.

care ways in which heretofore it has been thought that scientific aids could be brought to bear on instruction and draw from this appraisal guides for the future.

The establishment of research bureaus in city and state school organizations has been one of the principal means employed to bring scientific aid to bear on instruction. Through the period of major emphasis on scientific study of educational problems a great many city and state departments of education organized bureaus of research. These bureaus tended to be staffed by persons specialized in statistics and measurement, and in experimental and objective methods of study. The entire educational program was made their field of inquiry. On one occasion a study might be directed at some aspect of school finance and at another time at a problem of the curriculum. Impartiality and objectivity were presumed to be the virtues of this plan.

It is my belief that this plan of organizing research activities not only has not been an aid to instruction but has often resulted in harm. The difficulty arises from the fact that the person in the research bureau is expert in the technic of study but he is not expert in the content with which the study deals. Thus, he is not in position to determine on a sound basis what problems will be fruitful for study or how studies may best be organized in order to get the results translated into action. The outcome has often been that bureaus of research have initiated studies which have dealt with problems of no concern to those working on instruction or have even done things which tend to defeat the efforts of instructional workers to improve instruction. I know a research bureau in a state department of education which periodically conducted studies from which it was concluded that a six- or seven-month school term was just as good as a longer one at the very time the division of instruction was working to get acceptance of a nine-month term. This is no doubt an extreme illustration, but to a lesser degree I have seen the same thing happen again and again.

It is my belief that research competence in any sound sense cannot be generalized beyond the content in which the person is prepared. In other words, a person must be prepared to do research in instruction, or in finance, or in school-plant development. It is my further belief that research to be of significant aid in improving a program must be planned and conducted as an integral part of the instructional program. The right questions must be asked at the right time and only those involved in planning the program and carrying it out can make a sound decision on this matter.

Effective use of special research resources as an aid to instruction requires reconsideration of how these resources shall be made available. Either one of two approaches should be used. The research bureau may be looked on solely as a resource unit to provide technically trained assistance. In this case it would not be given the responsibility of initiating research or even the exclusive control of the conduct of studies. The division or divisions of the school system responsible for instruction would have a clear assignment of responsibility to employ research as a means of improving instruction. They would be expected to determine what questions should be studied

and at what time. They would have staff members competent to do this. The research bureau would provide technical help on research methods and central facilities for tabulation of data. Or it would be possible to organize research facilities in direct relationship to the functional divisions in the operation of the school system. The instructional divisions could have research directly provided for, administrative research could be associated directly with the superintendent's office, school-plant research with the division of buildings and grounds.

I am confident that a move in the direction here suggested would increase the value of the specialist in scientific procedures as an aid to instruction. It would encourage a more balanced use of the scientific study with other methods in improving instruction.

A second area which merits consideration is indicated by the term "instructional materials." Included are textbooks, workbooks, reference materials, construction materials, and the like. Scientific procedures have influenced these materials both in their production and in their use. For the purposes of our discussion the use factor is the important consideration. School systems have given a great deal of attention to the procedures for selecting all types of instructional materials as well as to the manner of distributing them. Generally an effort has been made to introduce a large element of objectivity into these procedures. Economy has generally been a major consideration.

Nobody can quarrel with these two purposes in and of themselves. Obviously, it is desirable to have as much reliable information about a particular item of instructional material as can be secured. Also, it is only sensible to arrange for its most economical purchase. But these considerations are by no means the most important factors to be dealt with. The central issue is the appropriateness of the material to instructional purposes. Decision on this point introduces a large element of subjective judgment. Objective procedures do not apply to any large extent in answering this question. However, in the actual operation of plans for selecting and distributing instructional materials reliance is often placed almost exclusively upon the objective factors. Central office staffs frequently set up plans for the selection of materials on the basis of rating scales and like instruments. Once selected, everyone must use the same materials. In other words, standardization results. Frequently, in distribution, schools must indicate months in advance just what they wish in the interests of economy.

From the standpoint of instruction these procedures overlook some of the most important features of a good curriculum. Teachers differ in the kind of instructional materials they can use effectively. There should be a range of choice to provide for these differences. Furthermore, the significance of a particular item of material depends upon its timeliness. It must be available when needed and frequently in a curriculum with desirable flexibility needs cannot be anticipated long in advance. Any procedure which makes such flexibility impossible handicaps instruction.

Developments in this area point up certain weaknesses frequently arising from overemphasis on scientific technics. First, subjective factors are fre-

quently minimized entirely too much. In the case of instructional materials, teacher judgment should have a dominant place in their selection. In the final analysis the teacher is the only person who can apply the ultimate test, that is, how it works in the classroom. Second, undue emphasis is often placed on standardization and uniformity. Differences in situations, flexibility to meet changed conditions, and the varying effectiveness of individuals are apt to be submerged in a standardized procedure. In dealing with instruction, deadly uniformity tends to result and the development of a curriculum to meet the needs of individual pupils is hampered. The solution is not to throw out procedures which seek to apply objective methods to the selection and use of instructional materials. It is rather to subordinate these procedures to the basic test of the way the materials function best in the classroom. In doing this, supply management, textbook commissions, and other central office agencies must come to look upon their function as that of rendering service to teachers. They should not take the attitude of telling teachers what they can have and when they can get it. Rather they should find out what teachers need and when they need it for good instruction and should devise ways of seeing that these needs are met.

It is probable that we shall see a great increase in the immediate future in the use of various audio-visual aids to instruction. The wide and generally successful use of such aids during the war by the armed forces has stimulated high hopes for the improvement of instruction by similar means in schools. It is to be hoped that mistakes made in relation to the use of other types of instructional materials under the influence of scientific procedures will not be duplicated in the extension of the use of audio-visual aids. Systemwide programs which tend toward standardization and uniformity should be avoided. Selection of these materials on any basis other than the needs of the curriculum as planned should not be tolerated. Teachers should have a continuing and major part in the selection and evaluation of the usefulness of all such materials. Flexibility of use should be assured to permit adjustments to individual needs and differences both of pupils and teachers. Only in these ways can there be assurance that the increased range of audio-visual aids to instruction will really result in improved instruction and a better curriculum.

In drawing inferences from the use by the army and navy of various types of audio-visual aids for school use one point in particular should be held in mind. These aids were largely employed in the development of specific skills. One of the most ingenious devices which came to my attention was designed to train men for night observation at sea. Development of skill in handling arms and mechanical equipment was speeded up by films, film strips, and drill devices. Development of specific skills plays a much larger part in training for service in the armed forces than in civilian education. War experience throws little light on the effectiveness of audio-visual materials in developing attitudes, understandings, and generalizations—objectives of great importance in instruction at all levels of our school program.

There is no question but that audio-visual aids may be more widely used to the advantage of instruction but it would be most unfortunate if they were viewed as the principal means of providing an adequate curriculum. To be a constructive force in instruction they must supplement a carefully planned curriculum which utilizes all types of activities and materials in instruction.

One of the most important outcomes of the scientific movement in education has been the development of standardized tests. Possibly the influence of these tests has been greater on instruction and the curriculum than any other single factor arising from the application of scientific procedures to educational problems. The use of standardized tests should be an outstanding scientific aid to instruction but they have their negative as well as positive features. In viewing the future development and use of scientific aids, standardized tests should receive a great deal of study in terms of their influence on instruction.

There is no doubt that the wide use of standard tests has provided a great body of information about the achievement and ability of pupils. Further, it is to be recognized that these tests have made it possible to secure reliable information on instructional problems which otherwise would not be available. Having said this, it must be added that tests have frequently been used so as to hinder rather than to aid instruction. There are several practices frequently employed in testing which need correction.

In the first place, there has been a tendency to separate testing from the improvement of instruction. Testing bureaus have often been established either as independent agencies or in bureaus of research which are quite unrelated to the program of supervision and curriculum improvement. The result is that evaluation is often carried on out of relation to the objectives which instructional leaders are seeking. Testing is one of the most effective means of controlling the curriculum. A testing program which measures outcomes in contradiction to those emphasized by instructional leaders can largely defeat efforts to improve instruction. One of the key ideas in the modern evaluation movement is that objectives must first be determined by those responsible for the educational program and that it is the function of measurement to provide evidence from which to determine with maximum reliability how far these objectives are actually achieved. To make this concept of evaluation operate requires that tests be selected and used in relation to the developing program of instruction. Central office staffs should be so organized as to make this happen.

In the second place, standardized tests have frequently contributed to the development of a poorly balanced instructional program. These tests have emphasized objectivity. They have as a necessity tended to center attention on things which could be measured with a degree of readiness and assurance. Memory of facts and mathematical and language skills are particularly susceptible to exact measurement. As a result many highly important objectives of education are not encompassed in standardized testing. Emphasis on test results with publication of school ratings and recording in permanent pupil records has exerted an influence of first importance on

what teachers devote time to in instruction and what pupils view as important. In this way, the larger instructional program often has been harmed rather than aided by standard tests. Looking to the future, we may correct this situation as the range of objectives tested is broadened and as subjective evidence is given an appropriate place in evaluation of the outcomes of instruction.

In the third place, standard testing programs have given undue emphasis to averages. The standard or average tends to dominate interpretation of results. The achievement of schools and even of individual pupils is judged in terms of relation to the standard. From the standpoint of aiding instruction this is an unfortunate emphasis. It tends to obscure facts which are of importance in improving instruction rather than to bring them out. How well do individual pupils achieve in comparison with what might be reasonably expected of them? What is the range of achievement to be expected in an instruction group? How does achievement from group to group overlap? How does the use of particular instructional methods and materials influence the achievement of individual pupils? These are questions, the answers to which would help provide a basis for improving instruction. Emphasis on averages and standards obscures the answers to such questions. Standard tests will be a real aid to instruction only as attention is shifted to answer questions which relate directly to procedures for improving instruction.

This leads me to the expression of an opinion on a procedure often followed by test experts. This is the use of continuous city- and statewide testing programs. It is my belief, based upon long observation of the influence of such programs on instruction and the curriculum, that they tend to magnify most of the bad effects of standard tests and contribute in only limited ways to instructional improvement. Each of the foregoing weaknesses, namely, separation of testing from the program of instructional improvement, unbalanced emphasis on readily measurable objectives, and encouragement of mass instructional thinking through emphasis on averages and standards, is accentuated when school systems are tested as a whole on schedule and results regularly compiled to compare schools and grades.

It is my conviction that if tests are honestly approached from the point of view of being an aid to instruction, quite different procedures will be followed. The testing program will move along with the program of instructional improvement. It will be planned so as to throw light on problems recognized by instructional workers and about which it is planned that something will be done. Further, it will be designed to serve the particular needs of individual schools and teachers. It is a rare occasion indeed when the same instructional problem arises in all schools in a system at the same time. Differences in school leadership, in staff, in pupils, and in the immediate community served give rise to different problems. Testing should help schools make a sound evaluation of the problems which are significant in the school. Test results should be specifically relevant to the improvement of instruction in the particular school.

If testing were brought into this service relationship to instruction, its value would be increased many times over. As it is now, I know of no place in our school system where large funds and a great amount of energy are expended with so few good results and so many bad ones.

Four types of aids to instruction have been discussed which reflect the scientific movement in education to a marked degree: first, the organization of research facilities in school systems; second, the provision of written and constructive materials; third, the utilization of audio-visual aids; and fourth, the provision of standard tests. School buildings, personnel administration, and other phases of school organization and administration should also serve as aids to instruction. Each has been influenced by the scientific movement. In looking to the future, we see that three general guides appear to be of particular importance in dealing with all scientific aids to instruction. First, every aid should be selected and used in terms of a general curriculum plan which utilizes all types of materials and activities in relationship to achievement of all the desired educational purposes. Second, every aid should be tested in terms of its actual influence on instruction, all other criteria being recognized as secondary. Third, aids should be so administered as to facilitate flexible use rather than uniformity of practice. If these guides are followed it is my belief that many harmful practices of the past will be corrected and that new and improved practices will be developed in the future.

CRITERIA FOR ALLOCATING AND SPENDING THE SCHOOL DOLLAR

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Every state should prescribe minimum standards which are needed to assure that every child will have an adequate education. Some of these standards should be written into law but most of them should be prescribed by the state board of education.

The fact that the state should prescribe minimum standards does not mean that it should exercise undesirable control over local education or would deprive communities of the opportunity for local initiative and leadership or the right of local self-government in education. It means instead that the license of local school officials to be inefficient at the expense of the children or the community should be a limited license which would prevent practices which fail to meet the requirements prescribed in the minimum standards. There would still be ample opportunity for local leadership and initiative above the minimum standards.

If the state is to establish such minimum standards it must see that necessary funds are provided to enable all communities to meet these standards. All too often we have been satisfied to prescribe minimum standards and

then we have failed to provide funds needed to put them into operation. The result has been that many minimum standards have been only paper standards and have not meant as much as they should for the children and other persons to be educated.

The following criteria for providing and apportioning school funds and those given later for expending school funds have been adapted largely from the criteria proposed by the Southern States Work-Conference¹ and by the National Council of Chief State School Officers.²

PROVIDING AND APPORTIONING SCHOOL FUNDS

1. Each state should define an adequate program of education which should be provided for all children and youth regardless of residence or place of birth. Very few states thus far have attempted to define such a program. They may have defined some aspects of the program but usually what is defined is what leaders think the next step can be rather than what they consider an adequate program.

2. The state minimum or foundation program should be a comprehensive program providing for all aspects of educational need. It is not possible to establish a satisfactory minimum program unless all phases of the program are taken into consideration. States have frequently attempted to guarantee an adequate minimum in the way of educational opportunities by providing funds for teachers' salaries or transportation or for certain other special aspects of the program. In the final analysis this plan breaks down. It simply will not work satisfactorily. The program must not only be comprehensive including all essential phases but must be properly balanced to avoid overemphasis on any phase.

3. The program of state support should require a minimum uniform local tax effort which leaves ample leeway for local initiative and effort beyond the state-supported minimum program. It is generally recognized that it is much better for the funds for school support to be derived both from state and local sources than for all of them to come either from state or from local sources. The state has the responsibility for assuring an adequate minimum program which cannot be met unless state funds are provided. Yet if the state should undertake to provide all of the funds needed for the program some of the advantages derived from local initiative and effort would be lost. However, if the local tax effort required is so great that there is little opportunity for additional local support the program tends to be limited and the advantages to be derived from additional local initiative and effort are again likely to be lost.

4. The state revenue sources should be stable enough to permit accurate budgeting for at least a year in advance. There are a number of states in which the appropriation is made with a lot of "ifs" and "ands." A school program cannot be satisfactorily planned unless a certain minimum in the

¹ Morphet, E. L. editor. *Building a Better Southern Region through Education*. Southern States Work-Conference on School Administrative Problems. Tallahassee, Fla.: the Conference, 1945. Part IV, Chapter VII.

² School Executive. "Financing the Educational Program," Policies of the National Council of Chief State School Officers. *School Executive*; June, 1945.

way of financial support can be assured at least for the year for which the program is being planned. Uncertainties or inadequacies in revenue sources tend to bring on needless complications which seriously interfere with the development of a satisfactory program.

5. The program of state support should be so organized and administered as to provide for the integration or unification of state funds for schools and prevent the establishment of numerous special funds distributed without reference to each other. Under ordinary circumstances one state fund for schools should suffice to meet all needs. When such a fund is properly established and apportioned it is certainly better than a dozen funds for special purposes, some of which may be adequate and others totally inadequate. There is always serious danger that certain phases of the program may be overemphasized and other phases neglected when special funds are being established.

6. Any plan for computation of educational needs should provide for an objective calculation of all phases of need in proper relationship in order to provide a reasonably well-balanced educational program. At least the following items should be included:

a. Determination of instruction units and need for instructional salaries. The amount included for instructional salaries should be required to be devoted to that purpose and if a smaller amount is used the amount used in determining needs should be reduced accordingly.

b. Transportation expense. This should be based on cost factors which are related to density of transported population.

c. Other current expense needs should be related to the number of instruction units and the value of the unit.

d. Capital outlay and debt service needs should similarly be related to the number of instruction units and the value of the unit.

e. The total educational needs should be the total of the items included above.

7. The ability of the local school system to meet the cost of the minimum program should be calculated on an equitable basis including the proceeds from the required uniform levy on the true valuation of property and other sources uniformly available.

a. If property is not assessed at a uniform ratio some index of valuation or an index of taxpaying ability should be used in determining funds which should be provided from the uniform local tax levy. If this procedure is not used, local school units with low assessment ratios will benefit unfairly from the apportionment of funds.

b. If there are additional state funds such as census or attendance funds and if there are any other local funds which are uniformly available, all such funds should be considered as available toward meeting the cost of the minimum program.

8. The funds needed by any local school system to support the minimum or foundation program should be determined by subtracting the funds available from the uniform millage levy plus the amount received from any state

or federal funds uniformly available from the calculated cost of the minimum or foundation program.

9. The requirements for participation in foundation program funds should be objectively stated and should operate to help to assure the establishment of minimum standards needed for an adequate program of education.

10. Special care should be exercised in developing the state program to assure that the plan of apportionment will not reward or tend to perpetuate undesirable or uneconomical practices. If, for example, units are allowed for small schools regardless of need, the state aid formula may tend to perpetuate small schools. If the number of pupils used in determining the teacher units in high schools is much less than the number for elementary schools, the state aid plan may tend to perpetuate an undesirably heavy elementary-school load. Similarly, it is conceivable that the state plan might tend to encourage higher salaries for high-school teachers than for elementary teachers, encourage duplication in transportation routes, or other similar undesirable practices.

CRITERIA FOR EXPENDING SCHOOL FUNDS

It is essential that the program of education and of financial support be organized to assist in assuring a maximum of economy and efficiency in the operation of all schools.

1. The case for more adequate support of education should be based on objective evidence of need rather than on subjective opinions or the efforts of pressure groups.

2. So far as practicable provision should be made for permitting local school administrative units to pool funds from all sources in one general fund and expend these funds subject to such controls as the laws of the state may provide.

3. Every local school unit should be required annually to prepare a budget which meets certain standards prescribed by law and which is checked carefully by the state to assure that those standards are met.

4. Provision should be made for assuring that all expenditures except where bond or warrant issues are necessary are kept within the funds available and properly included in the budget. At no time should local school units be permitted to create obligations for current operating purposes above and beyond those which can be met through funds provided by the budget.

5. If at any time anticipated sources of revenue fail to materialize, the local board should be required to include only obligations incurred within the limits of the budget and for which funds are not immediately available in their budget for the ensuing year and to pay these obligations out of the first funds available.

6. Every possible safeguard should be provided to assure that full value will be received for every school dollar expended.

7. The laws and the financial structure should encourage construction on as nearly a pay-as-you-go basis as possible. Provision should be made for creating reasonable reserves for that purpose.

8. If bonds are found to be necessary careful study should be required before bond issues are undertaken and the proposals should be checked by the state to assure that all requirements are met and that bonds are needed in the amount proposed.

9. Bids should be required for all items exceeding some reasonable amount such as \$300 and cooperative purchasing plans should be used whenever they are advantageous.

10. All school officials should be properly bonded.

11. Provision should be made through the state for auditing school accounts at periodic intervals to be sure that all requirements of law and proper legal safeguards have been observed.

POSSIBLE SOURCES OF STATE REVENUE FOR PUBLIC SCHOOLS

MARK SMITH, SUPERINTENDENT OF BIBB COUNTY
SCHOOLS, MACON, GEORGIA

Address at Atlanta Conference

I begin this discussion by quoting from Mr. J. C. Moffitt in *The American School Board Journal*, February 1946, from an article entitled "Education—Legally a State Function."

"Universally the several state constitutions contain the mandate to the legislative body to provide for a system of public schools. For example, the Illinois Constitution states, 'The General Assembly shall provide a thorough and efficient system of free schools.' That of Kentucky likewise asserts, 'The General Assembly shall, by appropriate legislation, provide for an efficient system of common schools throughout the state.' In the case of Alabama, this decree is given: 'The Legislature shall establish, organize, and maintain a liberal system of public schools throughout the state.' The Arkansas lawmaking body is required to 'ever maintain a general, suitable, and efficient system of free schools.' Similarly Delaware's basic legal code is couched in identical words. A number of the state constitutions provide for a 'uniform system' of schools, giving emphasis to the democratic ideal that all children in the state, regardless of local residence, shall as nearly as possible be provided with equal educational opportunities. Thus, the Wisconsin Constitution states, 'The Legislature shall provide by law for the establishment of district schools, which shall be as nearly uniform as practicable.' In Montana, a 'uniform and thorough system of public free common schools' is the order to the legislature. Likewise from state to state, the mandative commission exists and extensively the identical words have been borrowed from among the older state constitutions, thereby providing much duplication in content. In some of the states, the requirements of the legislature are couched with other edicts, thereby adding to the obligation of the lawmaking body. Thus, in California the legislature is required to 'provide a state high-school fund from the revenues of the

state,' and to arrange 'for distribution in such manner as the Legislature shall provide.' "

With control such as that, why should the state fail to finance its schools? Almost all states have laws setting forth the plan of election of board members, they have textbook committees, school building committees, and I believe every state department of education has supervisors for almost every subject taught. Then it is my contention and honest belief that the states should assume the financial responsibility for the operation of the schools.

In presenting the subject, I thought it best to get information from several states and look at the number of sources from which the different states derive their revenue.

What I will say is a compilation of information gathered from eleven states. In the eleven states, I find there are 90 main sources of revenue, not counting the miscellaneous items carried in every state. So we can easily estimate that there are hundreds of different kinds of taxes being used at the present time in these eleven states for school purposes.

Eight of these states receive their school funds from the general funds of the state. Only three now have the allocation plan. My experience teaches me that the appropriation from the general fund is the best plan, and I believe the general trend in all states now is to get away from the allocation of state funds.

The leading sources of income are from income tax, sales tax, franchise tax, beverage tax, consumer sales tax, producer sales tax, motor fuel tax, cigarette and tobacco tax, and ad valorem tax. It is easy to see that practically all these taxes are in a sense a sales tax. In every state that has a sales tax from which I had a reply, the sales tax and income tax were producing the majority of the revenue to operate the state.

This, of course, is a very dry subject when we begin to talk about finances, but I also find that in each state where liquor and wines are sold a large percent of the state's revenue is derived from taxes on liquor and wines and beer; so, after all, maybe it is not such a dry subject as you might think at first glance. In our own state, we have just recently received an extra month's pay for teachers, and the revenue was produced by increasing the tax on whiskey.

There are some very interesting facts revealed in studying the different state tax sources. In one state you have to pay a tax to die; in the same state you pay an unemployment tax; so I am wondering whether it is better to be unemployed or to die in that state.

In another state, teachers and fortune tellers are charged a fee to operate their business. I am just wondering if we, as teachers, have been promoted into the same class as the high business of fortune tellers. I grant you that many times we tell fortunes, and oftentimes miss the goal.

At least three of the eleven states pay more than 50 percent of their revenue for education. One pays as high as 58.8 percent; this is Louisiana. The other two states I mention are North Carolina and Georgia.

The state official in Louisiana replying to my inquiry had this to say: "We are satisfied and are not seeking additional sources of revenue for the schools." This must be a wonderful haven in which to teach.

Ad valorem tax has ceased to be a satisfactory tax, because of the variation from state to state and county to county of valuations. In some states valuations vary from 20 percent to 100 percent. Some states have already discarded ad valorem tax entirely and are depending in a large measure on sales tax and income tax for their revenue, as I have already stated.

I believe, without exception, every reply I had from the states where they do not have a sales tax, the person replying added that they hoped to have a general sales tax to replace ad valorem tax and also to give them sufficient revenue to run their schools properly.

In the two states making allocations to the counties, cities, and school districts on a per capita basis, one state allocates \$27 and the other \$30 per child. Anyone who is familiar with the operation of a school system can easily see that this is inadequate, yet that is much more than we get in Georgia in many counties.

We have a variation in our state tax systems and a difference in the various states which causes a great injustice to the children in some states.

I have a friend who was superintendent of schools in one of the mid-western states in a small city with an enrolment of 3500 children, and a budget of one million dollars, which gave him \$350 per pupil. He had 200 teachers, or an average of $17\frac{1}{2}$ children per teacher, and a janitorial and maid force of 100. In other words, he had more money than he knew how to spend; yet in my own county with 20,000 children, I have a budget of \$1,100,000. There is simply no fairness in a differentiation of this type. I mention this because we are all interested in bringing about the thing which will some day equalize educational opportunities in these United States.

Practically every state I heard from has a state equalization fund, distributed on the basis of needs to different counties, school districts, and school systems.

This is a familiar statement in the letters from states where money is appropriated from the general fund, the funds provided from the state budget: "In this state our funds are appropriated from the general funds of the state. No tax is levied for schools as such." I am heartily in favor of this plan, as I have already stated.

I am going to make a statement which will probably irritate some politicians, but with the variations of valuations of property set by different county boards of assessors, I believe that every state should have a state equalization board to pass on the valuation of property and make it all on the same basis in every county in the state.

THE TEACHERS OF EUROPE ARE STILL AT WAR

MRS. BETKA PAPANEK, WIFE OF MINISTER PLENIPOTENTIARY
OF CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Address at New York Conference

The chaos and demoralization brought on by almost six years of war in the economic, social, political, and cultural life of Europe did not suddenly overnight dissolve into nothingness. While the armies and air forces are being demobilized, the ranks of architects and builders are forming to clear away the ruins and destruction of the war; to lay the foundations for a better peaceful world, both material and spiritual; to build a new family, community, national, and international life—not for the kind of peace which a period between wars is sometimes considered but for a peace that will be lasting, because it is carefully planned and cultivated.

I wish to speak to you of the teachers in this postwar Europe. Theirs was a difficult role during the war, one which brought indignities, degradation, and execution to many; prison, concentration and labor camps to others; exhaustion to most. Yet, those who survived, looking forward to release and relaxation in peace, are still at war—at war with war and all its horrible results on the minds, the bodies, the morals, and the spirit of their pupils, the future citizens of the world.

It is said that wars are made in the minds of men. Certainly the Axis powers used their educational program to breed prejudice, intolerance, hatred, and war; and their most violent attacks were concentrated on the perversion and destruction of the educational programs of all the countries in Europe that they occupied and overran in the course of their military campaigns. During the war there was little difference, perhaps it would be better to say just a degree of difference, in the methods that the Nazis and Fascists used in their efforts to pervert and destroy school systems. The problems to cope with since the war is over are much the same everywhere.

For six years the teachers of Europe knew only regimentation, insecurity, and fear. They taught not as free people, but as the Nazis dictated. They taught history, not true history but history falsified to meet Nazi views, omitting their own country's most glorious chapters, of course. Thousands of teachers were arrested, put into concentration camps, driven to forced labor; hundreds were executed. For six years they suffered physically and mentally. As a result, the losses in their ranks by death and mental breakdowns are great. Many who returned after two and one-half to five years in concentration or labor camps were so weakened physically that it took months and will still take many more of hospitalization and care to bring them back to good health.

In Czechoslovakia and other European countries there is no new flow of teachers, for the universities and teachers colleges were closed for almost six years. In Czechoslovakia they were reopened within a month after the liberation, in spite of all obstacles, and the enrolment of students is more than twice the normal number before the war. At Charles University in

Prague last summer there were 20,178 students and there are more this winter. Of these 4000 have received state scholarships. Housing and feeding them is difficult. Other university cities have the same problems. No new homes were built in six years, no old ones repaired. Many were destroyed by bombings, others in actual battle. Movie theaters are used for lecture halls. Professors and lecturers are carrying more than twice the normal number of classes and bearing up under the load with enthusiasm, because the students, eager to make up for lost time—six years of it—are more eager and diligent than ever.

In the secondary schools, many women teachers who had given up teaching when they married have returned to their classes to fill the thinned ranks of teachers. But there are other factors that make resumption of teaching difficult. Many school buildings were destroyed; many were taken over and used by the German army for barracks, hospitals, and warehouses. They were emptied of equipment and supplies and were generally unfit for use as schools without great changes. The general shortage of all supplies and tools; the manpower shortage; and the lack of even the simplest of cleaning aids such as brooms, mops, soap, disinfectant, and so on make for complications too. Yet the schools have been cleaned and repaired. The teachers, parents, and pupils scrubbed and repaired them.

A return to prewar text and reference books is impossible for the Nazis burned them. Textbooks used during the war that taught the Nazi ideology in every history, reading, or writing lesson are unusable now. Of course, textbooks were prepared by educators abroad but the scarcity of paper and of printing presses to print new textbooks has resulted in a great shortage. All the countries occupied by Germany were hermetically sealed to real science, scientific and literary works of all the world for six years. It will take years to fill in the void. Pencils and chalk too are scant, to say nothing of aids for auditory and visual education and laboratory and research equipment for high schools and universities. .

The educational program, the curriculum itself, has had to be reconstructed altogether. The Nazis knew the effectiveness of psychological warfare and used the schools, as well as the radio, films, books and newspapers, to perpetuate the myth of their racial superiority and the others' inferiority, to glorify war and subordinate by force the interests of the individual to the interests of the state and party. Now the plan is to restore compulsory education for all and through it to build democracy, equality, freedom, and peace and to reawaken the moral and spiritual consciousness that recognizes the rights of others. Education must now be adjusted to new social conditions. It must now wipe out the aim of spurring successful underground activity against the usurpers' laws and replace it with desires for cooperation and responsibility to law. In other words illegality, which was the rule of every patriotic Frenchman, Netherlander, Yugoslav, or Czechoslovak, of every nation united against the Nazi oppressors, must now give way to order and lawfulness, to thoughtfulness, service and sacrifice for others—from children to adults. It is not an easy task to make children understand that stealing and destroying the property formerly in the hands of Germans that

used to be praiseworthy is now evil. But this is only one small part of the picture. The destruction of the home, the separation of families, the sending of the father to a concentration camp, the mother to forced labor and sometimes the children to the so-called "reeducation" centers in Germany resulted in almost insurmountable problems. Imagine, if you can, children who returned from children's camps, denying their people and their nation, like the twelve of Lidice, who had been forbidden to pray in Czech to God our Father, speaking German and knowing only a German prayer for Hitler. The fears, anxieties, and shock that resulted from the separation of children from their parents; the neuroses that develop in children who experienced bombings; the emotional instabilities that result when children see their mothers and fathers shot before their very eyes; and the difficulties of readjusting to their old or strange new homes, to being reunited with the remaining member or members of the family must all be combated. The general weakened condition of both children and grownups because of the years of insufficient food will mean that all this will be a very slow and difficult process.

First of all, they must be built up physically in order to be able to re-establish successfully their faith in people and in themselves. The most recent survey showed that there are well over seven hundred thousand children in Czechoslovakia alone who are in danger of starving to death or suffering from deficiency diseases and malnutrition this winter. This means that almost three-quarters of a million boys and girls in Czechoslovakia alone, a number that is greater than all the children who were fed in the Hoover Food Administration in Europe after the first world war, are threatened with death or disease from lack of proper food over a long period. Some schools are now distribution centers for one hot substantial meal a day for fifty-five thousand children. Twenty-five percent of all primary-school children have tuberculosis.

These are some of the conditions that the teachers of Europe must face. Theirs is a heavy load to carry for while they are readjusting their teaching programs to the development of democracy, tolerance, and peace, they are also carrying on in the role of social workers who anticipate the needs of their pupils and seek ways of meeting them. They must care not only for the cultural development of their wards, but they must be quick to detect any signs of defective eyes, teeth, gums, or skin diseases that spread so readily where inadequate diet has been the rule for so many years, if these are not detected in the homes. They must be wary too of any sign of epidemic or contagious diseases to guard against the spread of the flu, of diphtheria, scarlet fever, typhus, dysentery, and even tuberculosis. Deaths from scarlet fever increased 25 percent this last year and there are higher mortality rates for the other children's diseases.

However, this does not mean that provisions have not been made for special care for children. All who have come from concentration camps are given special food rations. They could not survive otherwise, but the insufficiency of food in Europe makes the regular rations extremely inadequate, especially in fats, milk, eggs, meat, in proteins generally. Each child

receives a half liter of milk a day while an adult receives one liter in sixteen days, but butter and fats seem infinitesimal to anyone who has lived in America even during the strictest rationing. The only foods of which there is a sufficiency are potatoes and bread and they, too, are rationed. I can still see in my mind's eye the children in street cars, on the streets, munching a piece of dry bread or a roll, always hungry. I remember the shock that I had when I gave a child of four a five-cent bar of chocolate and the child with real curiosity unwrapped it and looked at me questioningly and said, "It's black. I don't want it." It took urging to make him taste it and his surprise equaled my shock when he found it sweet-tasting. I remember, too, my giving an orange to a little girl of five who threw it on the ground and thought it was a ball. She had never seen an orange before. In the cities fruits and vegetables, except for carrots, onions, and the root vegetables, are very scarce even at the height of the seasons for lack of communications and the ration of meat allows for only one very small serving of meat a week per person. I cannot forget the gray pallid faces of my friends and their very quiet children in Europe.

I cannot but take this opportunity of expressing the gratitude of the people of Czechoslovakia for every one of the rich gifts of food, clothing, and medicine that the people of the United States have sent so generously, and I ask that you convey these thanks to the communities from which you come, for some of these gifts have been made possible by contributions of people in each of your communities through the National War Fund.

There are many other projects for which Czechoslovaks are truly grateful, among them the collecting of textbooks for schools and other books and publications for public libraries in Czechoslovakia being made by various schools, the Masaryk Institute, and the American friends of Czechoslovakia to make up partially the loss of those that were burnt in such quantities and with such heedlessness in the first weeks of German occupation. I think it very significant that in spite of the general hunger for food, not one person asked me to send parcels of food—but many begged me to send books and magazines—even news magazines of the years from 1939-45.

The American Information Service opened up a small reading room and picture service in Prague in October. In this reading room about the size of a small store there were between eight hundred and a thousand people daily waiting patiently in queues to get in to see American magazines, such as *Life*, *Time*, the *Saturday Evening Post*; and there were requests from all over the country for the loan of pictures on life in America for exhibits in schools, in community centers, and so on. In November the store next door was added to the reading room space and in addition to this, the Ambassador of the United States to Czechoslovakia, Mr. Steinhardt, went to Pardubice to open formally a branch of the American Information Service in that city.

At any meeting—large or small—of teachers or scout leaders, in the course of questions after a talk on America or America's war effort, the question was always put to me, "Does America care at all about us?" "Are

they interested in how we come out after this war?" "We want so much to have them care." I always answered in the affirmative. I believe this war's developments definitely proved it and plans for the United Nations Organization provide for the future cooperation between all the nations. Certainly, during the twenty years of the Republic of Czechoslovakia, from 1918 to 1938, Czechoslovakia and all her people generally felt that they were not only democratic Czechoslovaks but that they were part of the larger body that were called Europeans and they were proud to be considered citizens of the world. They have not changed.

There will doubtless be many differences of opinion as to which of the various projects of reconstruction are most urgent and which should take priority over others, but there can be no disagreement about the primary importance of training future world citizens. Without this there can be no bright future for any nation. It is the concern and obligation of individuals in all walks of life, but the greatest share must be borne by those whose influence is greatest. Next to his immediate family, it is the teacher who does most to mold not only the mind but the character and personality of a child. If this is so great a responsibility in normal times, think of the magnitude of this task under conditions I have described to you. In thousands of instances the teacher will not have the parent's help, because so many children have been orphaned—143,000 in Czechoslovakia alone.

Traditionally, we have thought of the teacher as a person whose main concern was to transmit the knowledge that society has inherited and while he will continue this important function he will have to add many others, functions which require special training, great patience, and perseverance. The teacher will be called upon to learn a great deal about the physical and emotional needs of children, the needs of a democratic country, of the world united for the preservation of peace and the betterment of mankind. If the teacher can succeed in instilling in these youthful minds devotion to the ideals of democracy and peace, it will be a truly great contribution to a better world.

We cannot, however, expect teachers who have been forced into a terrible isolation by the dark forces of evil and thereby shut off from the inspiration and progress that come from a free interchange of ideas, to achieve this alone. They have survived torture, humiliation, and even degradation. They have been forced to renounce their profession in order to live; and while they have courageously resumed their work, they need encouragement in the tremendous task they have undertaken. We all have a share in this responsibility. The teachers of Czechoslovakia and of every other small or medium-sized country in the world must feel that their colleagues in more powerful and more fortunate lands are working with them and aiming at a common goal. In this a real beginning was made at the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization set up in London in November and at the International Students Conference held in Prague on November 17 when students of fifty-seven nations met to discuss plans for the part students can have in keeping world peace. The UNESCO Conference decided on the establishment of the organiza-

tion headquarters in Paris defining its aims to remove illiteracy and misunderstanding among nations, defining the duty of each nation to spread culture and to educate girls and boys for justice and peace in a spirit of mutual assistance and concern, and to arrange for fuller exchange of ideas through the mediums of books, scholars, and teachers. The organization is to promote collaboration among nations, the spreading of new developments in the educational field, scientific research, and the study of problems relating to peace and the ideal of equality in opportunities for education.

It is a program all the details of which are yet to be worked out, but it is one which deserves the fullest cooperation of the educators of every democratic nation and educational association such as yours to find the common denominators for preserving peace with justice by establishing common standards for education, adopting textbooks that teach truth in history and science, that build trust through knowledge, and provide complete freedom and access to all knowledge to all people. It is a difficult undertaking—how difficult I do not have to tell you.

Ideas spread without regard for boundaries. Raising the cultural standard and building knowledge, faith, and trust among nations weary with war will take more patience, hard work, devotion, and sacrifice than we all thought we would need when the war was over. Our war is not over. Our war is against war, lies, prejudice, and hate. Our weapons are schools and knowledge, books, films, the radio, the press, exchange students and professors and, through all of them, understanding among all nations of the world for peace that alone holds the bright promise for the future. Let's use them well, truly conquer war, and build a lasting peace.

THIS SHRINKING WORLD

JOHN H. FURBAY, DIRECTOR OF AIR WORLD EDUCATION, TWA

Address at Kansas City Conference

The arrival of the air age is likely to change social patterns as radically as did the advent of the industrial revolution. The age-old barriers of land, mountains, and oceans have been removed and whole areas of the earth which were once isolated are now on the main highways of aerial transportation. Air extends everywhere. There are no boundaries, shores, or bottlenecks that can be controlled by the nations which happen to be in possession of them. Air is the one medium providing possible communication and transportation between every nation.

At the same time the air age has brought a speed of transportation which has so reduced distances that it is no longer meaningful to speak in terms of geographical distances, but rather in terms of time required to go from one place to another.

The distance between New York and Boston was much greater in terms of travel time in the days of George Washington than the distance is today from New York to Bombay. All the nations of the world are

closer than were the thirteen colonies in 1776. This means that peoples who once lived their lives in comparative isolation from other peoples must now learn to get along with other groups who are now only a few hours distant.

There are other factors which will contribute to bringing the peoples of the world together. Time has been mentioned. Another is the reduced costs. Since the airline fares have dropped below first-class rail and steamship tickets, whole masses of our population who once could not afford to travel in planes will now be able to do so. The remarkable safety records of the airlines have practically removed all fear of air travel from the minds of most people. In addition, several millions of our youth have had actual air experience during the recent war. The net result is that we are an air-minded people, and that we possess the physical equipment to carry us almost overnight to any desired point of the earth—the farthest point away from any of us being only sixty hours, with a likely reduction to forty in the near future. World tours are now being organized which will make it possible for a person with a two-weeks' vacation to go around the world and spend eleven of his fourteen days on the ground.

All this brings us to the point: Are we ready to face the social obligations of this mass travel? Has technology advanced too far ahead of our social consciousness for safety to civilization? Can the races, religions, and varied cultures of the world be thrown into intimate contact without creating frictions and antagonisms out of which may grow hatreds and wars of the future? This question can be answered only by the educators who mold the minds of our children. We must prepare them for participation in this world community.

It is said that Americans are among the most provincial people, that we regard ourselves as superior to other nationalities, that we look down upon races with shades of skin color darker than our own, that we have a particular phobia regarding "foreigners."

If this is true, we might examine the causes of these things. Provincialism naturally grows in a country which is so large that there is little contact with other countries, and it has little opportunity to exist in a small nation which must depend upon contacts with other nations for survival. The average American of past generations has not been outside the United States, has never found it necessary to speak or understand any foreign language, and has not had an opportunity to meet foreigners other than laborers brought here to do tasks Americans themselves did not care to do. All this adds up to the provincialism of which we are accused.

Mass travel on the part of Americans is certain for the future. The problem which faces every student of social science is "How can we neutralize the attitudes of intolerance and prejudice, and create travelers who will not offend these neighbors who have now been brought so close to us by the air age?" One of the first steps is to rid ourselves of the notion that Americans are superior in all respects, and to take stock of the aspects in which other peoples may be superior to us. Another is to recognize that the standards by which we judge progress and superiority are not the

standards used by others. To boast of our advancement in terms of the number of bathtubs per thousand population, or the number of automobiles or radios or telephones, would leave most other countries cold. They do not judge a nation by these mechanical achievements in which we have excelled. Many prefer to judge on spiritual planes, asking what music, poetry, and art a nation has given that has been adopted by the world.

Another problem facing educators in this matter is the idea that we should "teach tolerance." This is probably the worst thing we could set out to do. "Tolerance" implies putting up with something that is inferior but not labeled as such. We "tolerate" things which are below us. What we need to replace tolerance is something positive, such as a genuine appreciation of other peoples, their history, contributions to world culture, and their philosophies of life. It is only when we come to appreciate others that we automatically lose our prejudices regarding them; and, in turn, we are likely to erase from their minds prejudices they hold regarding us.

The time has ended when assembly speakers and commencement orators can honestly tell boys and girls that we are the "chosen people." We can instil a healthy Americanism and a pride in our nation and its achievements without trying to rate all others as inferior. It would be much better to teach our children that we have excelled in scientific fields, and that the world looks to us for technological leadership; but that we have much to learn in the realms of the fine arts, social integration, and everyday living. Many nations whose scientific developments have not ascended to the heights of our own can teach us many valuable things about "living." While we regard some parts of the world as unsanitary, they may be regarding us as without souls.

If the air age is to bring to mankind a better understanding and appreciation of one another, we must begin now to develop those attitudes of mind that will make informed, appreciative travelers of our citizens. We will have opportunities to visit our world neighbors and to live among them. Let's learn from them and let them learn from us. Let's teach appreciation rather than tolerance, and let's not forget that *we* are the foreigners while we are abroad.

PROBLEMS OF THE PROFESSIONAL PERSONNEL

ERNEST O. MELBY, DEAN, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, NEW YORK UNIVERSITY,
NEW YORK, N. Y

Address at New York Conference

Education is facing the supreme test of its history. Even the very survival of civilization itself may be dependent upon the success of our educational efforts. Scientists and social leaders seem agreed that unless we can through education build a genuine human brotherhood, civilization is doomed. Such an educational task calls for the ultimate in effective, consecrated personnel. Yet the very disturbing fact is that the problems of

the professional personnel have never been greater, at least in recent decades. There is a marked shortage of competent teachers and administrators. Facilities for the preparation of such personnel are inadequate. Salaries and conditions of employment are such that fewer and fewer of the ablest students in our colleges and universities are entering the teaching profession. In fact, in some areas young people have all but stopped entering the profession of education, while those who do enter are of poorer and poorer ability. In brief, at a time when we need more teachers we have fewer, we lack facilities to prepare them, and the status of the profession is such that young people do not wish to enter it.

For years levels of the teacher preparation in the United States have been disgracefully low. This means that a large number of teachers actually at work in schools are inadequately prepared. If, for example, all the teachers who lack bachelor's degrees were to be dropped, a large proportion of our schoolrooms would be left without teachers. Here we are taking no account of all those with degrees who for one reason or another are incompetent teachers.

But perhaps our greatest shortage of teachers arises from the fact that we have never had enough teachers to give each American school pupil the help he needs to make the greatest educational progress. Were we to staff educational institutions adequately in terms of the educational needs of children, we would need twice as many teachers as we have today. There are, in addition, acute needs for nursery schools and kindergartens. Were such services to become standard throughout the country, thousands of additional teachers would be required.

The present influx of veterans in our colleges is but a vanguard to permanently rising numbers of students on the college level. Here the shortage of competent personnel is so critical as to reach crisis proportions. Our graduate schools have been virtually inactive for five years. In the meantime we have lost staff members by death, retirement, and transfer to other lines of work. There is, moreover, an increasing number of quasi-educational agencies which absorb many of our most able college teachers and administrators. These agencies can pay better salaries than educational institutions and are siphoning a considerable part of our best leadership in higher education. As matters now stand, it is absolutely impossible to secure the staff needed for our colleges and universities in the next five years.

It is easy to blame the war for the plight of the teaching profession. To do so, however, is to oversimplify a very complex problem. The fact is, the teaching profession has been losing its appeal to youth ever since the first world war. In 1928 and 1929 there was a shortage of teachers. The coming of the depression forced considerable numbers into educational work. The state of Montana, in which I spent the last four years, supplies an example. In 1928 teachers colleges in that state enrolled 700 students; the depression had increased this figure to 950 by 1936 from which point it fell to 67 students in 1944-45. Half of the drop had occurred before the war began. Generally speaking, the ablest students in our universities do not want to enter teaching. It would appear there are only two ways

to get an adequate supply of teachers. One is to raise salaries and the other is to have a depression. In effect, both remedies are the same, for a depression raises salaries for teachers relatively.

In the salary area, educational administration has much to answer for. Too often administrators have rested on their oars, fearful of taking a definite stand for better salaries. In some cases administrators have been a drag on salary increases—if only because they have failed to be vigorous in presenting the need for salary adjustments. Generally speaking, however, I believe that salary conditions in elementary and secondary schools are relatively better than in universities and teachers colleges. One reason is that local boards of education are more responsive and intelligent than state legislatures. Another is that city school administration is more highly developed and efficient than college and university administration. This lag in universities and colleges is very deadly, since it is these institutions that must furnish much of our leadership.

Beyond the factor of low salaries, however, we must find a more dynamic cause for the low estate of the teaching profession. I believe it is to be found in the absence of a real dynamic in our enterprise. We have not yet made education a vital force in the lives of children and youth. Our leadership lacks inspiration and our personnel practices do not commend themselves to the more enterprising and dynamic members of American youth. I therefore believe a four-point program must be carried out if the teaching profession is to be in condition to meet its responsibilities.

First of all, salaries must be substantially raised. Rising costs of living and higher incomes in other professions are placing education at a greater and greater disadvantage in competition for talent. As matters now stand no profession which does not hold out earnings of at least \$5000 per year in full professional maturity for the average practitioner can expect to attract anything but mediocre talent. We need a new concept of what constitutes an adequate salary. In universities, for example, we should start instructors at \$4000 and make \$10,000 the normal expectancy for competent leaders in their professional fields. Equally high expectancies should be open to teachers in elementary and high schools for comparable professional excellence.

Teachers-college staff members should be of the very highest personal and professional caliber. As such, their salaries should compare favorably with those in our best universities. In the aggregate, we can safely say that no minor adjustment in salary will serve our purpose of making the profession attractive to our ablest young people. On an average, the salaries should be double their present levels, assuming highest level of preparation.

In the second place, we must rethink our programs of teacher education. Present practices with regard to so-called practice teaching and internship are woefully inadequate in teachers colleges and universities. We need programs in this area that are comparable in quality and intensive character to those prevailing in medical education. Teaching is at least as complex a profession as medicine. In fact, it is more dependent on many subtle psychological and personal qualities and capacities. These can be

developed only through actual practice. No teacher-education institution should certify that a prospective teacher is qualified until it has satisfied itself that the individual functions effectively in an actual learning situation. Certainly teacher-education institutions cannot so certify their graduates unless they have ample opportunities for practice and for its observation. If you tell me that such a program is beyond the financial resources of our present teacher-education institutions, I must merely reply that the resources must be found for such a program. I see no reason why teacher education should not cost just as much as medical education if it is done on an acceptable basis. We need to meet these problems head-on—develop the programs and make determined efforts to secure the necessary resources and facilities. Whenever teachers are required to have five, six, or seven years of intensive preparation, we shall have gone a long way toward establishing the profession on a sound basis and commending it to the brightest and richest personalities among our young people.

As to my third point, years of experience in various types of teaching and administrative work lead me to the conclusion that one of the basic weaknesses of the educational profession is the outmoded administrative machinery under which it is now attempting to function. Most of our administrative patterns were borrowed from industry in a period when both our educational philosophy and our knowledge of human relationships were far below what they now are. If you take the trouble to interview a considerable number of teachers with regard to their attitudes toward the administrative situations in which they are working, you will discover that in a large proportion of the cases they feel disillusioned, frustrated, and hampered by the existing machinery. In our large cities, particularly, the situation has become well-nigh unworkable.

In medicine and in hospital management the aim has been to give the individual medical practitioner the greatest possible freedom and in addition to multiply his various faculties by providing him with specialized services available at his beck and call. In education we seem to have moved in opposite directions. As time goes on we seem to move more and more of the important decisions further and further away from the place where the child is living and learning. In medical practice the important decisions are made by the practicing physician in closest relationship to the individual patient. In education we tend to make them in offices of boards of education, miles away from the individual children. Such administrative practices are making a trade of teaching when it ought to be a profession. They are mechanizing the educational process and robbing teachers of the opportunity of utilizing their professional knowledge and skill. I am convinced that we shall never make the teaching profession appeal to young people until we give a greater creative power to educational leadership in administration than is the case at the present time. Too often in our administrative work we have emphasized the managerial and controlling aspects without stressing the creative potentialities which this field of work should develop. Too often administrators are chosen because of their managerial abilities and their inspirational qualities are overlooked. Today we have

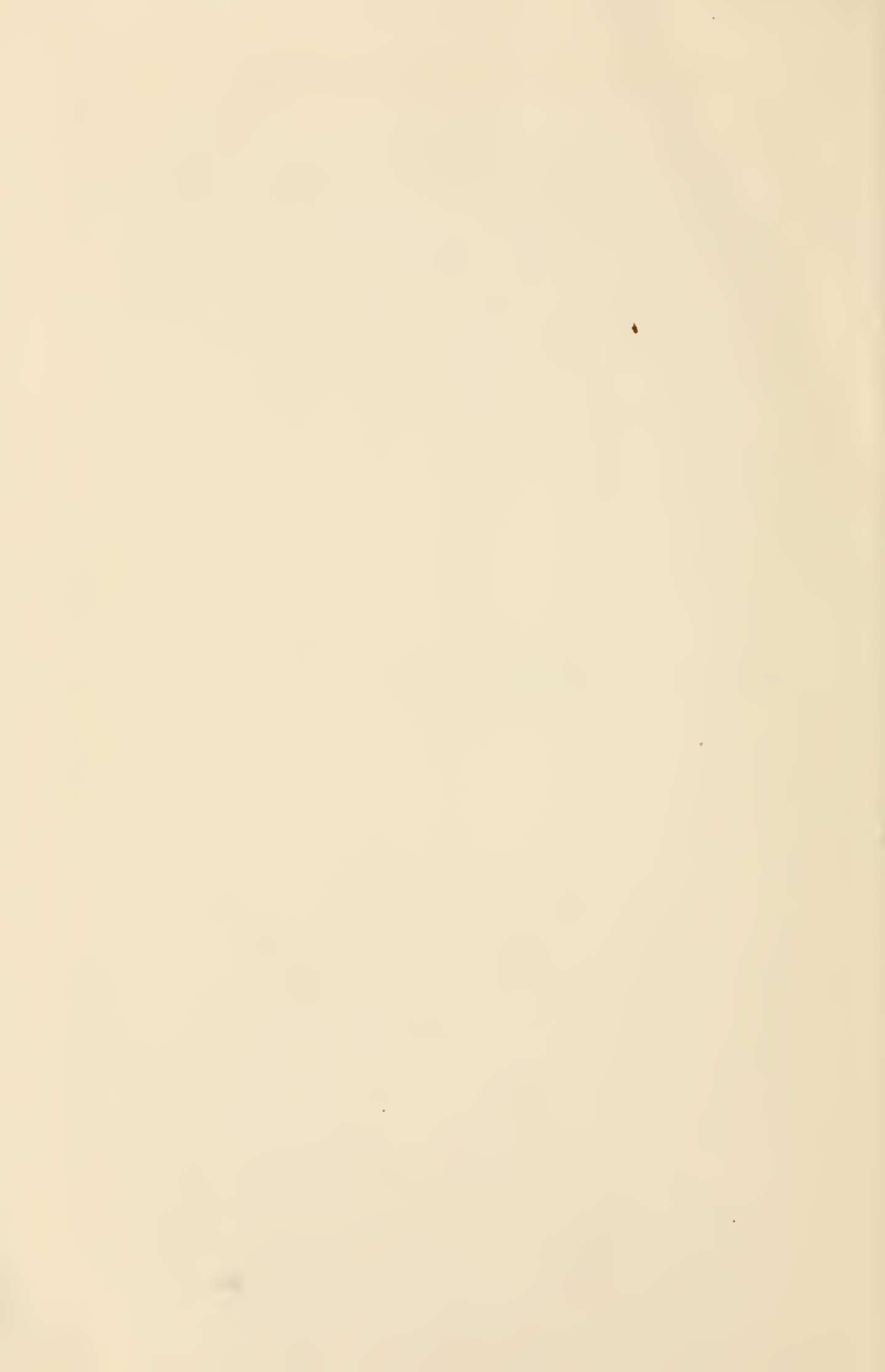
great need of school administrators and leaders in every educational field who have the vision and personal magnetism to inspire their co-workers with the potentiality of our work in the present world situation.

But the fourth and perhaps the most important need of all in establishing the educational profession on a more attractive basis is that of giving education a real mission in the lives of our people and in the preservation of our democratic values. Generally speaking, I do not believe that the average American youth feels that education has a very vital relationship to the things in which he is really interested. He sees it as a mechanical process of inculcating certain stereotypes and certain more or less mechanical skills. He does not see the teaching process as an inspirational dynamic in the lives of our people, and I think that until our young people see education in this light, we shall have difficulty securing the ablest leaders among them, even though we increase the salaries, modify our teacher-education facilities, and give our schools a more inspirational administration. All over the world, people are seeking some kind of spiritual dynamic to which they can give their lives. Actually there is a spiritual hunger that is very widespread today. Oftentimes the materialism and selfishness that is evident is but a defense mechanism in a situation where talent and hopes and aspirations go begging for opportunity for expression. Today we think of education as meeting the needs of all of our people from nursery school throughout the entire span of life. This means providing educational opportunities literally for 140,000,000 people in our country. When you bear in mind the fact these 140,000,000 people are all different, that each has creative powers and potentialities, it is difficult to see how any enterprise could be more thrilling and dynamic than that of education. The difficulty of it is that we have rarely seen the task in these terms. Once we interpret our tradition of human brotherhood and democracy in vital terms, and translate this conception into the realities of a creative education and a creative community life, we shall have a program for the educational profession and the profession so vitalized that it will commend itself to the best creative spirits in our society.

All the work that we do in establishing the educational profession on a sounder basis must be done in the perspective of the educational goals and purposes that we seek. A mere manipulation of such factors as salaries, tenure, and other aspects of teacher welfare will in and of itself have little meaning. Only when these administrative and personnel practices are developed in terms of creative philosophies of education and human relationships will they be effective. We need bold and creative thinking in these areas and only through such bold and creative thinking can we save the educational profession for the magnificent opportunities that lie ahead for it in the atomic age.

Part II

Official Records



ANNUAL REPORT OF THE EXECUTIVE SECRETARY

To the President, Executive Committee, and Members:

In accordance with the provisions of the constitution adopted at the New Orleans convention in 1937, the annual report of the activities of the American Association of School Administrators is presented herewith. It covers the period from January 1, 1945, to December 31, 1945.

SOMETHING ABOUT THE CANCELED CONFERENCES

Late in November 1944 the Executive Committee met in Washington and made plans for a series of regional conferences to be held during February and March 1945. Programs were prepared for meetings at Birmingham, Chicago, Denver, and New York.

The general theme selected for all the conferences was *Education for an Expanding Environment*. All the programs were developed in accordance with one general pattern which was adapted in each case to the needs and interests of the area concerned.

Exhibits were planned in Chicago at the Stevens Hotel and in New York at Hotel Pennsylvania. The Business Division of the National Education Association, which is in charge of the exhibits, later reported that applications for space exceeded the number of booths available.

On Friday, January 5, we received an official release from the Office of War Information announcing that Director of War Mobilization and Reconversion James F. Byrnes, with the approval of the President, had appointed a committee to pass upon applications for the holding of group meetings to be attended by more than fifty persons and to determine if these meetings were in the war interest. The committee was given power to act not only on requests from the public, but also on requests from the civilian government agencies. The order stated that all conventions to be attended by more than fifty persons and scheduled to be held after February 1, 1945, were to be canceled unless approved by this committee.

The officers of the American Association of School Administrators immediately began to canvass the situation. Many members were consulted by telephone and telegraph and in person. Contact was made with the convention boards at Birmingham, Chicago, Denver, and New York where our conferences were to be held. Shortly thereafter, Secretary Perkins J. Prewitt of the Convention Division of the Birmingham Chamber of Commerce wired as follows:

Southern hospitality is proverbial but we believe the time has come for such civic agencies as ours to take a stand and uphold Government in every way possible without waiting for positive directive. For months our hotels have been curtailing guest room reservations in favor of service and war personnel and the voluntary compliance with this additional request will be of further benefit along this line and at same time help to lighten transportation load which we understand is the chief objective.

Similar word was received from Superintendent Charles E. Greene of Denver. President Engelhardt personally canvassed the situation with the hotels and convention board in New York City.

On Thursday, January 11, we were advised that all organizations planning to hold conventions or conferences after February 1 were to fill out an application form prepared by the War Committee on Conventions. Accordingly, forms were filled out for each of the four AASA conferences. In order more clearly to indicate the policy to be pursued, Secretary Richard H. Clare of the War Committee on Conventions stated that he would be glad to meet with representatives of our Association.

At five o'clock on Saturday afternoon, January 13, a delegation of four had a conference with Mr. Clare at the Office of Defense Transportation. Those who called on Mr. Clare were Executive Secretary S. D. Shankland of the AASA; Executive Secretary Willard E. Givens and Business Manager H. A. Allan of the NEA; and Superintendent E. L. Ackley, Secretary of the New York Council of School Superintendents. Mr. Clare stated that adverse action on most applications was probable.

Following this conference the gist of the discussion was communicated to the members of the Executive Committee. Each one made a hasty survey of the sentiment in his own locality and the consensus of opinion was in favor of cancellation. This decision was strengthened by the fact that our programs had gradually disintegrated as one speaker after another requested to be excused. A form letter written by President Engelhardt, announcing the cancellation, was mimeographed and mailed to all members as soon thereafter as possible. A copy was sent to the War Committee on Conventions.

In a letter dated January 20, 1945, Mr. Clare wrote to Mr. Shankland: "I was pleased to have your letter advising that the regional conferences of the American Association of School Administrators have been canceled. Your patriotic and cooperative action is greatly appreciated by this Committee."

THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

Article IV of the constitution provides that the Executive Committee shall consist of seven members. The president and the first and second vicepresidents are members *ex officio* and are elected annually. Four members chosen by election hold office for terms of four years.

A special meeting of the Executive Committee was held at the William Penn Hotel, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, on Saturday, February 24, 1945. Members and officers present were: N. L. Engelhardt, New York, N. Y., president; Worth McClure, University City, Missouri, first vicepresident; W. Frank Warren, Durham, North Carolina, second vicepresident; Charles H. Lake, Cleveland, Ohio; W. Howard Pillsbury, Schenectady, New York; Henry H. Hill, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania; and Secretary S. D. Shankland.

The minutes of the meeting held at Washington, D. C., November 25, 1944, together with the minutes of the joint meeting of the executive committees of the American Association of School Administrators and of the National Education Association held at the same time and place, were read and approved.

Methods of providing substitute activities in place of the canceled regional conferences were discussed at length. It was reported that about twenty of the speakers listed to address the regional conferences had agreed to furnish manuscript copies of their speeches for printing in the OFFICIAL REPORT. In addition, it was proposed to include in the OFFICIAL REPORT a summary of the proceedings of the conference on veterans' education held at Washington, February 26, 27, and 28.

It was voted to encourage numerous local discussion groups. Under the directive of War Mobilization Director James F. Byrnes, local groups were not limited in size, provided the attendance of persons beyond commuting distance was less than fifty. About twenty discussion topics, based on recent publications of this Association and closely related educational organizations, were selected and ordered printed in the next issue of *The School Administrator*.

The Executive Secretary recommended that Miss Virginia H. Stephenson be appointed chief of the Educational Research Service with classification II-B effective February 1, 1945, vice Mrs. Maxine Lindemood resigned. On motion of Mr. McClure, seconded by Mr. Lake, the recommendation was adopted.

The Executive Secretary reported that the annual election had been held according to the constitution and bylaws and that the tellers had certified to the election of Charles H. Lake, Superintendent of Schools, Cleveland, Ohio, to the office of president for the year beginning March 15, 1945.

Attention was called to the fact that the terms of office of the second vicepresident and one member of the Executive Committee will expire on March 15, 1945.

On motion of Mr. McClure, seconded by Mr. Lake, it was voted to elect Superintendent W. Frank Warren of Durham, North Carolina, as second vicepresident for the term expiring March 15, 1946.

On motion of Mr. Hill, seconded by Mr. McClure, it was voted to elect Superintendent Hobart M. Corning of Omaha, Nebraska, as a member of the Executive Committee for a four-year term expiring March 15, 1949.

The annual meeting of the Executive Committee was held at the William Penn Hotel, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, Saturday and Sunday, May 5 and 6, 1945. Members and officers present were: Charles H. Lake, Cleveland, Ohio, president; N. L. Engelhardt, New York, N. Y., first vicepresident; W. Frank Warren, Durham, North Carolina, second vicepresident; W. Howard Pillsbury, Schenectady, New York; John L. Bracken, Clayton, Missouri; Henry H. Hill, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania; Hobart M. Corning, Omaha, Nebraska; and Secretary S. D. Shankland.

The minutes of the meeting held at Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, February 24, 1945, were read and approved.

President Lake summarized activities by various groups seeking to promote interracial goodwill and better human relationships. He suggested that the time might come when this Association should call a conference of those actively pioneering in this field. Possibly a study of basic human relationships should be chosen as the subject of a yearbook.

The annual report of the Executive Secretary was presented in writing. It included the budget for the calendar year 1945. On motion of Mr. Pillsbury, seconded by Mr. Hill, the report was received and the budget, as proposed, was adopted. The budget was summarized as follows:

Balance January 1, 1945.....	\$13,280.20
Estimated receipts for 1945.....	42,430.00
Total to account for, 1945.....	\$55,710.20
Less estimated expenditures for 1945.....	51,575.00
Probable balance December 31, 1945.....	\$ 4,135.20

On motion of Mr. Engelhardt, seconded by Mr. Pillsbury, it was voted to continue affiliation with the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education of the American Council on Education. President Lake nominated Superintendent Willard E. Goslin of Minneapolis, Minnesota, for the three-year term as delegate to the representative body and Superintendent Henry H. Hill of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, for the one-year term as ex officio representative. These nominations were approved.

The Committee recessed during a Blue Network broadcast on veterans' education sponsored by the American Association of School Administrators. It consisted of a series of interviews with convalescent veterans at St. Alban's Naval Hospital, Long Island, followed by a five-minute address by President Charles H. Lake.

It was voted to send letters to the broadcasting companies expressing appreciation for the excellent series of programs which were broadcast at the time of the death of President Roosevelt. Mr. Shankland was authorized to draft and send appropriate letters.

Attention was called to the significant contributions made by the committees who prepared special reports on various topics of concern to school administrators. Mr. Engelhardt was asked to draft appropriate letters of thanks to the chairmen of such special committees as have completed their reports.

A survey made by this Association in the fall of 1944 indicated that minimum building requirements in the immediate future will cost approximately two billion dollars. Several bills have been introduced in Congress authorizing appropriations for such construction. Since this is a matter of immediate concern to superintendents of schools, President Lake appointed a committee consisting of N. L. Engelhardt, Chairman; Emerson H. Landis; and James L. Hanley to keep in touch with the progress of this legislation in Washington.

The Committee on Education of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States recently engaged in research to ascertain whether there is direct relationship between economic status and the educational level of the people of our country. A presentation of the results of the study was recently published in a booklet profusely illustrated with charts and a brief

text emphasizing salient points. On motion of Mr. Pillsbury, seconded by Mr. Bracken, it was voted to publish an article in *The School Administrator* with a view to pushing the sale of this booklet.

The Executive Committee met again at the William Penn Hotel, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, Saturday and Sunday, September 22 and 23, 1945. Members present were: Charles H. Lake, Cleveland, Ohio, president; N. L. Engelhardt, New York, N. Y., first vicepresident; W. Frank Warren, Durham, North Carolina, second vicepresident; W. Howard Pillsbury, Schenectady, New York; John L. Bracken, Clayton, Missouri; Henry H. Hill, Nashville, Tennessee; and Hobart M. Corning, Omaha, Nebraska. Others present were S. D. Shankland, Executive Secretary, and Mrs. Gladys Harlow West, Chief Clerk, of the American Association of School Administrators.

The minutes of the meeting held at Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, May 5 and 6, 1945, were read and, on motion of Mr. Pillsbury, seconded by Mr. Warren, were approved.

The question of carrying on a study in the field of intergroup relations was again discussed. President Lake reported that he had had an offer of \$5000 from the National Conference of Christians and Jews for the purpose. Extended discussion followed. On motion of Mr. Engelhardt, seconded by Mr. Pillsbury, it was voted to accept the \$5000 with the thought in mind that the Association might work toward a special commission to survey the field of intergroup relations, to determine the problems, and to offer suggestions for their solution. It was further voted that, preliminary to the appointment of such a commission, a three-day meeting of a small group of representative people be called to determine the need for the study and to consider the most desirable methods of carrying it on. The motion included the agreement that this study on intergroup education should be abandoned if the exploratory meeting proved that it was ill-advised.

On motion of Mr. Corning, seconded by Mr. Engelhardt, it was voted to choose as the subject for the 1948 yearbook "The Expanding Scope of American Education," chapters to deal with such subjects as outdoor education, nursery education, community centers, athletics, atypical children, and conservation of resources.

The Executive Secretary reported that negotiations for holding regional conferences of the Association were under way with four cities as follows:

Kansas City	February 20-22, 1946
Atlanta	February 25-27, 1946
New York	March 4-7, 1946
Chicago	March 12-14, 1946

Considerable time was spent in discussing details of the program for the conferences. President Lake proposed "The Unfinished Task" as the theme for all conferences, with subtopics as follows: Education Looks Ahead, Conserving Human Resources, Education for Community Living, Immediate Administrative Problems.

The Executive Committee met in the offices of the Association, National Education Association Administration Building, Washington, D. C., Saturday, December 1, 1945. Officers and members present were: Charles H. Lake, Cleveland, Ohio, president; N. L. Engelhardt, New York, N. Y., first vicepresident; W. Frank Warren, Durham, North Carolina, second vicepresident; W. Howard Pillsbury, Schenectady, New York; John L. Bracken, Clayton, Missouri; Henry H. Hill, Nashville, Tennessee; Hobart M. Corning, Omaha, Nebraska; and S. D. Shankland, Executive Secretary.

The minutes of the meeting of the Executive Committee held in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, September 22-23, 1945, were read and approved.

President Lake gave an outline of program plans for the regional conferences to be held early in 1946 in Kansas City, Atlanta, New York, and Chicago.

Mr. Shankland reported that he planned to retire August 31, 1946. On motion of Mr. Engelhardt, seconded by Mr. Warren, Pastpresident Worth McClure, Superintendent of Schools, University City, Missouri, was elected to the office of Executive Secretary of the American Association of School Administrators effective at the time of Mr. Shankland's retirement.

On motion of Mr. Engelhardt, seconded by Mr. Pillsbury, it was voted to elect George E. Roudebush, Superintendent of Schools, Columbus, Ohio, as a member of the Executive Committee for a four-year term ending March 15, 1950, to fill the vacancy occasioned by the expiration of the term of Mr. Pillsbury.

On motion of Mr. Hill, seconded by Mr. Bracken, it was voted to reelect W. Frank Warren, Superintendent of Schools, Durham, North Carolina, as second vicepresident for the year beginning March 15, 1946.

A joint meeting of the executive committees of the American Association of School Administrators and of the National Education Association was held in the Board of Directors room of the NEA Administration Building, Washington, D. C., at 10:00 A.M., Sunday, December 2, 1945. National Education Association Executive Committee members present were: F. L. Schlagle, Kansas City, Kansas, president; Mrs. Edith B. Jovnes, Norfolk, Virginia, junior pastpresident; Mrs. Mary D. Barnes, Elizabeth, New Jersey, first vicepresident; Edgar G. Doudna, Madison, Wisconsin, vice-chairman, Board of Trustees, proxy for Joseph H. Saunders, chairman, who was ill; B. F. Stanton, Alliance, Ohio, treasurer; Leonard L. Bowman, Santa Barbara, California; Glenn E. Snow, St. George, Utah; Emily A. Tarbell, Syracuse, New York; and L. V. Phillips, Indianapolis, Indiana. American Association of School Administrators Executive Committee members were: Charles H. Lake, Cleveland, Ohio, president; N. L. Engelhardt, New York, N. Y., first vicepresident; W. Frank Warren, Durham, North Carolina, second vicepresident; W. Howard Pillsbury, Schenectady, New York; John L. Bracken, Clayton, Missouri; Henry H. Hill, Nashville, Tennessee; and Hobart M. Corning, Omaha, Nebraska. The executive secretaries of the two organizations, Willard E. Givens, NEA, and S. D. Shankland, AASA, were also present.

The purpose of the meeting was to elect three new members for a four-

year term beginning January 1, 1946, to fill the vacancies occasioned by the expiration of the terms of office of: James B. Conant, president, Harvard University; Edmund E. Day, president, Cornell University; and A. J. Stoddard, superintendent of schools, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

On motion of Mr. Hill, seconded by Mr. Snow, it was voted to exclude present members of the two executive committees from consideration. A list of names compiled from recommendations of past and present members of the Commission was submitted. The names on the list were considered one by one, with the result that the following were elected: O. C. Carmichael, president, Vanderbilt University, and president-elect, The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, New York, New York; Paul R. Mort, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University; and James M. Spinning, superintendent of schools, Rochester, New York.

THE FINANCES

The Department closed the year 1945 with a balance in the regular fund of \$7,276.86. The balance one year ago was \$13,280.20. Two years ago it was \$9,011.04. The principal source of revenue is the annual membership fee of five dollars. The Department enrolled 1,263 members in 1922; 4,013 in 1931; 3,110 in 1933, which was a depression year; 4,814 in 1942; and only 3,680 in 1943, when the St. Louis convention was canceled. In 1944, with the introduction of regional conferences, the membership rose to 5,644. The membership distribution by states for the last six years is shown in Table 1.

The income from the exhibits at the winter meeting has been another considerable source of revenue, which has been used in large part to pay convention expenses. This item was entirely eliminated due to the cancellation of the convention in 1943 and of the regional conferences in 1945.

By agreement with the National Education Association, the net income from the exhibits at the winter meetings is divided equally between the Department and the parent Association, each organization thus deriving funds for convention expenses. The active work of organizing and managing the exhibits is done by the Business Division of the National Education Association. The amounts which the Department has derived from this source during recent years are as follows:

1938—Atlantic City.....	\$19,441.51
1939—Cleveland.....	20,293.10
1940—St. Louis.....	18,900.98
1941—Atlantic City.....	22,666.62
1942—San Francisco.....	13,349.96
1943—(No meeting)	
1944—Regional Conferences.....	10,991.17
1945—(No meeting)	

The statement of receipts and expenditures which follows covers the calendar year 1945. It includes some preliminary expenses for the 1946

regional conferences and all items of general expense. All bills were paid at the end of the year. Receipts for 1944 amounted to \$58,883.01 and in 1945 to only \$44,558.69. In spite of rigid economy, the operating balance is now \$6,003.34 less than it was a year ago. A detailed statement regarding the Permanent Educational Research Fund is given elsewhere in this report.

REGULAR RECEIPTS DURING CALENDAR YEAR 1945

Annual dues, 3,980 members, for year 1945.....	\$19,900.00
Annual dues, 436 members, for year 1946.....	2,180 00
Interest—Permanent Research Fund	1,190.56
Yearbooks sold.....	5,554 53
Educational Research Service.....	14,710.00
Other income.....	1,023.60
Total receipts.....	\$44,553.69
Balance January 1, 1945.....	13,200.20
Grand total.....	\$57,838.89

REGULAR EXPENDITURES DURING CALENDAR YEAR 1945

Salaries, administrative unit.....	\$8,943.93
Printing 9M Twenty-third Yearbooks.....	7,528.55
Printing 5½M Official Reports.....	2,476.36
Printing Research Bulletins, 4 issues.....	611.05
Other printing.....	2,816.42
Postage, express, and stationery.....	4,604.14
Mimeographing, multigraphing, typing, etc.....	1,387.49
Telephone and telegraph.....	180.43
President's expense.....	58.65
Secretary's expense.....	501.05
Executive Committee expense.....	2,240.81
Audit Committee.....	179.29
Board of Tellers.....	243.93
1946 Yearbook Commission expense.....	2,653.19
1947 Yearbook Commission expense.....	2,100.86
Bad debts and worthless checks.....	117.70
Educational Research Service, salaries.....	7,229.80
Educational Research Service, miscellaneous.....	3,957.91
Retirement fund.....	452.80
Supplies and equipment.....	177.67
Educational Policies Commission.....	2,000.00
American Council on Education.....	100.00
Total general expense.....	\$50,562.03
Balance December 31, 1945.....	7,276.86
Grand total.....	\$57,838.89

PERMANENT EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH FUND

At the Boston convention in 1928, it was voted to appoint a committee to make plans for creating a permanent fund that should yield an annual income sufficient to finance important studies in education on a nationwide basis. Money was plentiful in those days and the committee set its goal at \$1,000,000. Just as the campaign was getting under way, the depression caused its postponement. Conditions since then have not warranted resumption of a money-raising campaign.

Meanwhile the fund is growing slowly, due to the generosity of a number of interested members. Some of them took out ten-year endowment insurance policies payable to the Association in the amount of \$250 each; others took out \$100 life memberships or raised substantial sums as direct contributions. The last of the insurance policies matured in 1941. Receipts from life memberships during 1945 amounted to \$239.00. The total is now \$32,443.55.

In the beginning the average annual income rate from investment was slightly over 5 percent. Since then the return on securities has gradually gone down. At present U. S. Treasury Bonds, Series G, pay $2\frac{1}{2}$ percent interest.

The Board of Trustees of the National Education Association reports assets in the investment account to the credit of the Permanent Educational Research Fund on December 31, 1945, as follows:

	<i>Par Value</i>	<i>Book Value</i>
U. S. Treasury $2\frac{7}{8}\%$ Bonds due 1955-60.....	\$ 150.00	\$ 150.00
U. S. Treasury Savings Bonds due 1946.....	3,000.00	2,250.00
U. S. Treasury $2\frac{3}{4}\%$ Bonds due 1956-59.....	3,000.00	3,092.28
U. S. Treasury $2\frac{1}{2}\%$ Defense Bonds, Series G, due December, 1953.....	6,000.00	6,000.00
U. S. Treasury $2\frac{1}{2}\%$ Defense Bonds, Series G, due November, 1954.....	500.00	500.00
U. S. War Savings $2\frac{1}{2}\%$ Bonds, Series G, due September, 1955.....	400.00	400.00
U. S. Savings Bond $2\frac{1}{2}\%$, Series G, due April, 1957.....	500.00	500.00
U. S. Savings Bond, Series F, due May, 1957.....	100.00	74.00
South Carolina Highway Certificates of Indebted- ness, $4\frac{3}{4}\%$, due 1946.....	2,000.00	2,077.28
Newport News City Street Improvement and Sewerage Construction Bonds, $5\frac{1}{2}\%$, due 1950..	11,000.00	11,285.00
Portsmouth, Virginia, Waterworks Bonds, 5%, due 1948.....	3,000.00	3,160.51
Port of New York Authority, 3% Bonds due 1976..	2,000.00	2,017.50
City of New York Corporate Stock, 3% due 1980..	500.00	498.75
Cash on hand.....		438.23
Total... ..		\$32,443.55

TABLE 1.—MEMBERSHIP BY STATES FOR THE YEARS
1940-1945 AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL
ADMINISTRATORS

Formerly the Department of Superintendence

State	1940 St. Louis	1941 Atlantic City	1942 San Francisco	1943 No con- vention	1944 Regional meetings	1945 No con- vention
Alabama.....	66	61	50	48	85	80
Arizona.....	24	23	28	34	38	33
Arkansas.....	45	36	29	27	37	47
California.....	150	153	1,214	254	244	246
Colorado.....	59	60	62	57	73	65
Connecticut.....	71	92	67	57	94	75
Delaware.....	19	25	18	17	26	21
District of Columbia.....	71	66	67	65	73	63
Florida.....	17	21	20	24	30	26
Georgia.....	63	63	49	45	150	78
Idaho.....	8	10	12	13	27	20
Illinois.....	352	331	273	270	483	321
Indiana.....	114	101	96	95	140	115
Iowa.....	107	82	86	79	128	90
Kansas.....	115	95	82	76	180	113
Kentucky.....	56	49	39	35	52	44
Louisiana.....	47	43	37	36	38	39
Maine.....	22	23	20	17	28	26
Maryland.....	69	76	60	55	77	61
Massachusetts.....	161	174	138	150	202	180
Michigan.....	223	231	175	175	334	249
Minnesota.....	110	99	93	88	120	104
Mississippi.....	44	40	37	34	43	37
Missouri.....	184	140	128	119	223	169
Montana.....	13	15	20	22	22	19
Nebraska.....	57	48	45	41	52	50
Nevada.....	3	4	4	4	4	4
New Hampshire.....	30	37	25	25	39	30
New Jersey.....	234	287	212	206	276	237
New Mexico.....	29	18	23	19	21	18
New York.....	379	417	319	319	414	365
North Carolina.....	60	63	55	50	89	72
North Dakota.....	15	16	18	15	20	15
Ohio.....	261	251	187	175	253	226
Oklahoma.....	60	55	45	41	72	53
Oregon.....	25	29	38	27	53	40
Pennsylvania.....	334	401	279	274	391	319
Rhode Island.....	38	42	32	29	40	37
South Carolina.....	36	37	30	29	71	51
South Dakota.....	24	15	18	14	22	21
Tennessee.....	43	44	28	30	55	48
Texas.....	244	227	229	191	275	230
Utah.....	25	24	31	23	30	25
Vermont.....	26	24	22	21	28	51
Virginia.....	61	75	56	51	76	72
Washington.....	27	28	35	34	141	84
West Virginia.....	47	46	40	36	53	50
Wisconsin.....	131	129	106	102	184	139
Wyoming.....	14	13	13	11	14	15
Alaska.....	3	1		1	3	2
Argentina.....				1		1
Bahamas.....	1	1	1			
Canada.....	11	11	11	11	14	11
Canal Zone.....	1	2				
Guam.....			1			
Hawaii.....	2	1	3	3	3	3
India.....	1					
Iraq.....		1				
Mexico.....	1		1	1	1	1
Philippine Islands.....	2	6	2			
Puerto Rico.....	4	8	5	4	3	2
Total.....	4,439	4,470	4,814	3,680	5,644	4,593

NOTE: The count includes 4,408 members who paid dues for the year 1945, 12 honorary members, 171 life or twenty-five-year members, and 2 six-year members.

THE AUDIT COMMITTEE

The books and accounts of the American Association of School Administrators are audited twice each year. In June, certified public accountants make a complete examination of the finances of the National Education Association, including all its departments. The constitution of the American Association of School Administrators also requires that a committee of three members of the Department shall audit the accounts at the close of each fiscal year. The constitution further provides that its fiscal year shall correspond with the calendar year.

The report of the Audit Committee for the year ended December 31, 1945, appears elsewhere in this volume. The members of the Committee are Superintendent Evan E. Jones, Port Chester, New York, *chairman*; Superintendent C. Herman Grose, Erie, Pennsylvania; and Superintendent John J. Young, Rocky River, Ohio.

PUBLICATIONS

The cancellation of the 1945 regional conferences deprived our members of the usual personal contacts with their associates but it gave added significance to the publications which members receive. The 1945 OFFICIAL REPORT, a volume of 286 pages, was published and delivered to members in April. It was entitled *Something About the Canceled Conferences*. Its dismal title reflected something of world conditions in the spring of 1945. In Part I were printed eighteen addresses prepared in advance for the canceled conferences. Part II included committee reports on surplus war materials, educational needs of youth, radio education, resource education, and training of teachers and supervisors in service. A comprehensive report of a working conference on educational programs for veterans followed in Part III. This section of the report was reprinted in pamphlet form and widely distributed. Finally came the official records of the American Association of School Administrators for the year 1944.

Paths to Better Schools, the 1945 Yearbook, was distributed to members in February. It reviewed the lessons of the war period, and pointed out a number of ways in which the defects and failures of the past may be remedied. Its approach was realistic and it abounded with practical and helpful ideas. The keynote emphasized throughout the volume was the need for cooperative planning by educators and laymen to make the schools as effective as the American people want them to be.

The 1946 Yearbook was prepared in response to a long-standing and insistent demand for a comprehensive study of the status, activities, and relationships of boards of education. The commission to which the task was assigned included four outstanding schoolboard members, four superintendents of schools, one assistant superintendent of schools, and one director of a school of education. This volume, entitled *School Boards in Action*, outlined many of the functions of schoolboards and suggested procedures based upon long years of experience. The volume of orders indicates something of its practical value to schoolboard members and superintendents of schools.

TABLE 2.—YEARBOOKS OF THE DEPARTMENT

Year	Title	Number copies printed	Cash sales of all yearbooks for the year
1923	The Status of the Superintendent.....	3,200	\$ 142.45
1924	The Elementary School Curriculum.....	4,500	1,364.13
1925	Research in Constructing the Elementary School Curriculum...	11,000	4,707.65
1926	The Nation at Work on the Public School Curriculum.....	16,000	8,467.94
1927	The Junior High School Curriculum.....	11,000	8,844.57
1928	The Development of the High School Curriculum.....	10,000	9,830.58
1929	The Articulation of the Units of American Education.....	11,000	7,842.51
1930	The Superintendent Surveys Supervision.....	11,348	10,603.43
1931	Five Unifying Factors in American Education.....	11,572	8,375.87
1932	Character Education.....	12,000	10,053.94
1933	Educational Leadership.....	8,000	4,922.85
1934	Critical Problems in School Administration.....	7,000	5,021.13
1935	Social Change and Education.....	9,000	7,844.99
1936	The Social Studies Curriculum.....	14,000	9,128.17
1937	Improvement of Education: Its Interpretation for Democracy..	9,000	6,965.99
1938	Youth Education Today.....	11,000	6,789.56
1939	Schools in Small Communities.....	9,000	5,483.96
1940	Safety Education.....	11,000	8,894.92
1941	Education for Family Life.....	9,000	7,411.29
1942	Health in Schools.....	12,000	9,563.43
1943	Schools and Manpower—Today and Tomorrow.....	9,500	5,816.95
1944	Reprint of 1942 Yearbook.....	2,000	
1944	Morale for a Free World.....	8,000	5,359.19
1945	Paths to Better Schools.....	9,000	5,554.53
1946	School Boards in Action.....	12,000	

The members of the Association's Advisory Council were asked to name the topic which they considered of greatest interest and value for the 1947 Yearbook. The majority voted for *The Postwar Curriculum*. This choice was approved by the Executive Committee. The members of the Commission appointed by President N. L. Engelhardt to prepare this Yearbook are: Claude V. Courter, superintendent of schools, Cincinnati, Ohio, chairman; Herbert B. Bruner, superintendent of schools, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma; Harold F. Clark, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.; Stephen M. Corey, professor of educational psychology, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois; C. Leslie Cushman, associate superintendent of schools, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; Clyde A. Erwin, state superintendent of public instruction, Raleigh, North Carolina; Robert J. Havighurst, professor of education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois; C. Frederick Pertsch, assistant superintendent of schools, New York, New York; Grant Rahn, principal, Shorewood High School, Shorewood, Milwaukee, Wisconsin; and Benjamin C. Willis, superintendent of schools, Hagerstown, Maryland.

Work is already under way on the 1948 Yearbook, which will deal with the *Expanding Scope of American Education*. The core committee recently appointed by President Charles H. Lake consists of Superintendent Herold C. Hunt, Kansas City, Missouri, chairman; Superintendent B. M. Grier, Athens, Georgia; President George A. Bowman, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio; Superintendent L. G. Derthick, Chattanooga, Tenn.; and Superintendent C. Herman Grose, Erie, Pa.

A completed yearbook represents more than two years' work on the part of commission members, who serve without pay. Their only reward is in

the satisfaction of work well done. The preparation of a yearbook is an exacting task, involving much research, collecting of facts, and editing of manuscripts. Ordinarily four commission meetings, each covering a period of three or four days, are held. After an outline has been worked out and chapter headings selected, each member assumes responsibility for preparing the first draft of a chapter in an area which he is especially qualified to discuss. Naturally, there is much overlapping and lack of unity. Discussion at succeeding meetings usually brings adjustment and agreement. We are especially indebted to Frank W. Hubbard, director of the Research Division of the National Education Association, for his able assistance. Much that is worthwhile in the yearbooks is due to his efforts.

The School Administrator, a concise news bulletin issued at frequent intervals, keeps members informed about Association activities. From time to time other mailings are made to members. In 1945 such items included American Education Week materials, and booklets entitled: *Civic Education for the Foreign-Born in the United States*; *The Elementary School Principalship—Planning the Future*; *How Superintendents Work Together*; *Plastics*; and *Now in Our Town—A Study in Adult Education*.

Four issues of the *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association were mailed to members during the year. The titles of these bulletins were:

1. Salaries of City-School Employees, 1944-45
2. Statistics of State and Local Teacher Retirement Systems, 1943-45
3. School Expenditures of War and Peace
4. The Teacher Looks at Personnel Administration.

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH SERVICE

Twenty-two years ago the Department of Superintendence and the Research Division of the National Education Association began a cooperative project which was called the Educational Research Service. The success of their joint efforts is reflected in the growth of the number of subscribers. Forty subscriptions were entered during the first year. After five years, there were 245 subscribers. The number grew to 319, 445, and 558 in ten, fifteen, and twenty years, respectively. Six hundred fifty-six subscribers were enrolled at the end of 1945, including 58 names which had been added during the year.

Until recently the Service has attracted large city school systems, colleges and universities, state departments of education, and other state and national agencies—while only a few of the smaller school systems have taken advantage of it. Of the newer subscribers many are smaller school systems. The Educational Research Service was originally established to meet their needs.

The annual subscription fee is \$25—an amount which does not make possible any profit and in a few cases does not cover the actual cost of the service rendered.

This clearinghouse of facts on school administration issues circulars presenting up-to-date information on topics of current importance. It pro-

vides for subscribers many educational publications as soon as they are off the press. Requests for assistance are given prompt attention. If necessary, memorandums and bibliographies are prepared to meet the needs of an individual subscriber. Published and unpublished reports are sent on loan. A file of questionnaire studies made by agencies and individuals throughout the country is kept for use in answering the various inquiries. Thus, through the Educational Research Service a subscriber draws upon nationwide experience in the solution of local problems.

Educational Research Service *Circulars* issued during 1945 were as follows:

1. Local School Services for Veterans
- 2, 5, 8, and 10. Education in Lay Magazines
3. Teachers' Salary Schedules in 79 School Systems in Cities over 100,000 in Population, 1944-45
4. Staffs and Salaries of State Departments of Education, 1943-44
6. Teachers' Salary Schedules in 171 School Systems in Cities 30,000 to 100,000 in Population, 1944-45
7. Certain Estimates of Quality and Accomplishment of State School Systems
9. Questionnaire Studies Completed—Bibliography No. 16, 1944-45.

Hundreds of letters from subscribers, requesting information on current administrative problems, were answered during the year. Some of the topics on which information was most frequently sought were: salaries of school employees; school costs and educational financing; construction, equipment, use, and maintenance of school buildings; boards of education; teacher supply and demand; teaching load; veterans education; curriculum; retirement and tenure; and record and report card forms.

TABLE 3.—EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH SERVICE SUBSCRIBERS AND INCOME FROM SUBSCRIPTIONS

Year	Number of subscribers	Cash receipts from subscribers
1	2	3
1924.....	40	\$ 525.00
1925.....	131	2,555.00
1926.....	177	3,325.00
1927.....	213	5,790.00
1928.....	245	6,225.00
1929.....	271	6,362.00
1930.....	323	8,112.50
1931.....	338	8,100.00
1932.....	324	7,443.75
1933.....	319	7,514.58
1934.....	346	8,496.75
1935.....	359	8,714.56
1936.....	369	9,254.17
1937.....	408	9,887.82
1938.....	445	10,800.44
1939.....	445	10,460.42
1940.....	468	11,662.50
1941.....	483	11,888.75
1942.....	489	11,968.75
1943.....	558	13,145.93
1944.....	598	13,973.75
1945.....	656	14,710.00

THE EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION

The Educational Policies Commission was organized in the fall of 1935 by joint action of the National Education Association and the Department of Superintendence. It was composed of twenty members selected by the Executive Committees solely on the basis of ability to contribute significantly to the solution of the problems confronting education in America. Appointments were for a five-year period ending December 31, 1940. Financing was possible by aid of a grant of \$250,000 from the General Education Board, payable in five annual instalments of \$50,000 each.

In December 1940 action was taken reorganizing the Educational Policies Commission for a four-year period beginning January 1, 1941. For the year 1941 a budget of \$35,000 was provided, apportioned as follows: \$13,000 from the National Education Association; \$2000 from the American Association of School Administrators; and \$20,000 from the General Education Board. The grants from the General Education Board have now been discontinued and at present the Commission is financed in large part by the National Education Association. The budget for the current year is \$50,000.

At a joint meeting of the Executive Committees of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators in November 1944 it was voted that the Educational Policies Commission should be considered a continuing commission. Provision was made for the election of approximately one-fourth of the members of the Commission each year and the term of service was fixed at four years.

During the past year the Educational Policies Commission has devoted its major attention to international affairs. At the invitation of the Department of State and by appointment of the National Education Association, Secretary William G. Carr served as a consultant to the United States delegation at the San Francisco conference. He was Deputy Director of the London conference of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. As the year drew to a close it was announced that four members of the Educational Policies Commission had accepted membership on the group appointed by the United States Government to go to Japan to prepare a report for General MacArthur on educational conditions in Japan.

On December 31 Superintendent A. J. Stoddard, President Edmund E. Day, and President James B. Conant completed their terms of service as members of the Commission. Superintendent Stoddard had served as chairman of the Commission from the beginning. The profession of education has profited profoundly by the contributions of these men to the work of the Educational Policies Commission.

Publications issued by the Educational Policies Commission during the year 1945 were as follows:

Source Book on Federal-State Relations in Education

Educational Services for Young Children

Health and Physical Fitness for All American Children and Youth

Policies for Education in American Democracy.

LOOKING AHEAD

There is reason to believe that the framework of American education will be altered materially within the next few years. It has been so after every great war. Some of the patterns of postwar education are beginning to emerge. Others can be seen only as through a glass darkly. It is the responsibility of those in places of leadership to make every effort to foresee the trend of future events. The programs of the 1946 regional conferences were prepared with a view to stimulating such thinking.

The addresses printed in this volume represent the considered judgment of many competent Americans, including leading educators, business and professional men, editors, and schoolboard members. It has occurred to me to select striking passages from these addresses and present them without any documentation or quotation marks as a summary for this report. The succeeding paragraphs are taken word for word from conference addresses. Anyone interested in knowing the names of the authors quoted can satisfy his curiosity by perusing again the preceding pages.

Thoughts on education today pretty much revolve around the problems: how to make better men, how to produce better understanding among men, and how to develop better living conditions for men.

We are entering a new era in history with all the problems which this involves. All of these problems whether national or international, political, social, or economic, depend for their solution on the development of sound understandings and attitudes by the American people. And this in turn is a matter of education. Never before in the history of the world have responsibilities of education been so great. The times demand that schools develop upward, downward, outward, and internally.

The thoughtful professional leadership of America and of the entire world is now fully conscious that all educational institutions are face to face with new problems—that as we go forward into this new and changing world of tomorrow our schools must be adjusted to changing needs and to changing demands.

At long last men everywhere are beginning to understand that they must learn to live in peace if they are to live at all. The use of nuclear fission as an instrument of destruction has definitely catapulted America from an isolated, self-centered, and self-sufficient nation sitting in complacent security behind her ocean barriers into a front-line position of responsibility for determining whether our universe shall become one world or no world at all.

If we go on as in the past, we will not have one world; we shall have a world of desert waste with most humans dead and the rest in caves. If we go on as in the past, we shall have depressions every few years; and probably our democracy will fall under the weights. If we go on as in the past, politics and economics geared to an agrarian age will be quite inadequate for the age of technology. We cannot win by looking to the past. Therefore, education must not look to the past.

You and I are in a big battle, the battle of our lives. Somehow or other, the United States, triumphant, is doomed to failure, unless the trend that

has gripped all triumphant nations before us is checked and reversed. "Pride goeth before destruction, and a haughty spirit before a fall." We do not want our country destroyed. We do not want America to fall. Therefore, all of us must give the rest of our lives, not only to prevent traditional conforming education, but to build schools, colleges, and other means of education to make America flexible, sensitive to change, and adaptive—truly a land of the free.

About a month ago a great soldier, General Dwight Eisenhower, received an honorary degree. In the course of his formal remarks on that occasion, the General turned to President Marsh of Boston University and said, "Why doesn't the educational world put my profession out of a job?" I do not know what reply, if any, President Marsh made to this remarkable challenge—for General Eisenhower regarded it as a challenge, and said so. That direct question is, however, the nub of the problem of world peace or World War III.

We must never forget that the United Nations Organization and its specialized organizations such as UNESCO are simply instruments. When people ask me whether I think that the United Nations will work and whether I think that the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization will work, I am tempted to ask them in reply whether they think that a spade will work. A spade is a tool; it works only if somebody works it.

During the past generation the world has offered demonstrations of the enormous power of education. Too often, however, these demonstrations have been given by the modern despotisms which prostituted this great social instrument to evil ends. It remains for the United States to demonstrate the unparalleled potentialities of education when it is rightly and fully used in a free industrial democracy.

Teachers must understand the world in which we live and try in every possible way to get this understanding across to children. Unless they themselves are aware of the changes that have taken place and realize the interdependence of the world technically and commercially, it is obvious that they will have little effect in creating this kind of climate.

The school must adopt a philosophy of recognizing its function in educating people to understand the problems of the society in which they live and to have some basis of preparation for the solution of these problems. Every age brings its own peculiar problems and responsibilities. Unless the school is to retire into a monastic kind of setting, it must concern itself with these problems and try to prepare pupils to meet the realities of the world in which they live.

During the war years children have been brought face to face with many economic problems through rationing, salvage campaigns, bond and stamp campaigns. There is critical need for conservation of our natural resources, and children need to know this and to understand how they can help. Just now we are being called upon for food to share with the hungry peoples of Europe. Children are asked to share books and toys and clothes with those children in countries where there is great need. So an increased and better

understanding of our social policy and the willingness to cooperate in matters for the common good will remain a major objective in the economic education of our youth.

When a nation does its best to give children good food, homes, and schools, and even shares with its less fortunate neighbors at a time when normal living is most difficult, that nation has a true sense of values and realizes that the greatest asset is the children.

We should have American history in our schools—plenty of it and well taught. But let it be honest history, with our mistakes as well as our victories and accomplishments. We have so much to be proud of that it is silly and stupid to assume that we must conceal some of the less pleasing chapters of history. If we build up a youngster's faith on a fairy story we invite a reaction when he learns that there is no Santa Claus. We didn't treat the Indians well; we broke treaties every time we wanted more of their land. Why not admit it? We waged a war of aggression against Mexico. Perhaps we won't judge other nations as harshly if we have taken a straight look in the mirror.

If you read the average American history textbook about the War of 1812 and then go up to Canada and read their account of the same events, you may find it difficult to persuade yourself that it was the same war. We concentrate on our little navy's achievements at sea—the "Constitution's" victory over the "Guerrière." If we find a reference to the Battle of Bladensburg, it is just a footnote in small type.

To recognize differences is not easy especially when the question of superimposed cultures is involved as it has been from the very discovery of America. The white man imposed his culture on the Indian in all the Americas. Wasn't the ruling idea as late as the Sixties and Seventies that "The only good Indian is a dead Indian"? Very early the black man was imported to till the soil and labor, and the white man imposed his culture upon him. Around the time of the Gold Rush the yellow man came and resisted the white man's culture. He threatened the standard of living and the workingman's job and therefore was excluded both from citizenship and our shores. About the same time, with the conquest of Mexican territories, the Anglo-Saxon culture was imposed on people of Spanish heritage. Such imposition does not make it easy for the one who imposes to regard the one imposed upon as his equal; and when, as in the South, the imposer is numerically in the minority the conservative force which holds groups to conformity operates at great strength.

There will doubtless be many differences of opinion as to which of the various projects of reconstruction are most urgent and which should take priority over others, but there can be no disagreement about the primary importance of training future world citizens. Without this there can be no bright future for any nation. It is the concern and obligation of individuals in all walks of life, but the greatest share must be borne by those whose influence is greatest. Next to his immediate family, it is the teacher who does most to mold not only the mind but the character and personality of a child.

Better schools in America will only result as more adequate salaries are paid to educational workers. Teaching positions paying less than a living wage, as happens altogether too often in our nation, will not entice those who can carry the responsibility for tomorrow's program. Teachers are not missionaries nor should they be treated as such. They are entitled to family life, to a good home, to opportunity for further professional training, and to freedom from unnecessary economic strain.

Unless a larger proportion of the best young men and young women are attracted to our teaching profession and unless the public pays better salaries and gives greater recognition to the teaching profession, our enterprise of democracy is certain to fall far short of those goals which it might reasonably be expected to attain.

The teaching profession offers opportunities for service and real satisfaction to those who like people and can see the real contribution to civilization which a good teacher makes. But there is no reason save lethargy and misunderstanding of the serious situation America faces, why the wealthiest country in the world should not be willing to pay as much to the teacher who works with children as to the laborer who works with automobiles, unless we do really consider cars more important than children.

During the war the teaching profession has suffered a deterioration in the quality of the personnel coming into it. This is true, of course, of some other professions. The competitive standing of teaching has gone down rather than up. Wages in industry have increased 40 or 50 percent compared to 15 or 20 percent in our teaching profession. Again, the opportunities and attractions of industry and business have been increased tremendously for young women going out of high school and college. Even civil service which used to pay only slightly better than teaching is about to become a formidable rival. Since a profession is dependent for its attractiveness not only on conditions existing within its ranks but also on the conditions of other professions and businesses, we must improve our competitive position by paying better salaries, offering greater security or greater challenge, and whatever it is that attracts better individuals into a business or profession.

Prospective teachers need experiences in the managerial side of their craft in actual classroom situations. Attendance registers, records, reports, interviews with parents, technics of home-room control can be made less formidable for new teachers if such experiences are provided in the training period. Every superintendent has seen new teachers stalled by inability to cope with the pure mechanics of the job.

The public must never be permitted to make the tragic mistake of considering schools in terms of buildings, grounds, and equipment. Good teachers in a poor building that lacks good equipment will still make a good school but the rule cannot be reversed—poor teachers in a beautiful, perfectly equipped school plant will avail nothing.

Problems of teacher personnel will always be with us as we try to make better schools. As one is solved complexities increase and more difficulties arise. There can be no ease in Zion. With adequate salaries, reasonable enrolments, responsible freedom, and social recognition of teaching as a

profession, we may expect better schools, better teaching, and a better world. But the divine spark can be kindled only by a great purpose, which dreams of a great future for all of the people, and for the humblest of them a share in achievement and in service. Teaching which can do this is the highest of the arts. Without high purpose it can degenerate into the sorriest of trades. Whatever else we do to promote education through adequate schools, great teaching, artistic teaching, must always be the goal. And great teachers are great persons teaching.

The ideal learning situation exists when a child so admires his teacher that he wants more than anything else just to be like his teacher. There is perfect motivation.

School administration must be concerned also with the picture held in the public mind of what constitutes a good school, for it is increasingly clear that through the questions asked of teachers, administrative officers, and board members, questions flowing from the public conception of what a good school looks like, there is a continuous shaping of educational policy as determined not only through influence on the boards of education and administration but also through influence on school principals and teachers.

The machinery that makes an organization united in purpose is a means of communication. The lines of communication from the teacher to the leader and the board of education must be clear, and the lines down from the board of education and superintendent to the classroom must also be open. Each will draw inspiration from the other. This does not mean, of course, the transmission of minute details from one to the other. Gradually these are generalized as they reach the top and conversely they assume detailed form as they come to the teacher. It does not mean a complication of bulletins and reports. It does mean, however, a sharing of vision and purpose and faith. The vision is of a better world, better because men and women have developed integrity of mind and soul and respect for one another. The purpose is to bring fulfilment and growth and significance to the lives of American youth, and through them to the world.

The justification of a democracy does not lie in achieved perfection of social conditions but in the fact that it offers its people an opportunity to work toward conditions which they think are better than those in which they find themselves.

Each state should define an adequate program of education which should be provided for all children and youth regardless of residence or place of birth. Very few states thus far have attempted to define such a program. They may have defined some aspects of the program but usually what is defined is what leaders think the next step can be rather than what they consider an adequate program.

Every local school unit should be required annually to prepare a budget which meets certain standards prescribed by law and which is checked carefully by the state to assure that those standards are met.

There is also the question of whether the federal government will adopt the fiscal policies which are requisite to the adequate financing of education. During the period since the "New Deal" came into existence, education

has been the poor relation of the federal government. The national government has preempted much of the fiscal capacity of the states and localities. It has aided many other areas of public enterprise. Public education has not been aided except in dire necessity, and then on an emergency, piecemeal basis.

Full acceptance of the democratic philosophy of government implies that the wealth of the entire United States should be available for the education of the children wherever they may live. This can be accomplished only through the use of the federal taxing power. Equality of opportunity can become a reality throughout the United States by means of liberal federal support for public education.

The gasoline tax that supports our amazing network of roads, imposed upon the beneficiaries who most profitably use those good roads, has proved one of modern civilization's greatest boons. I commend to your study and to the study of your localities and your several states consideration of a similarly imposed tax for the building of good educational systems, to be paid for pro rata by the primary beneficiaries. I believe that such a program can likewise prove to be one of our modern civilization's most constructive movements.

Too much money has been wasted in school buildings because of the lack of planning. Too many buildings are unsafe and unhealthful and provide inadequate curriculum opportunities. Remedying these situations will require careful study of the present situation and the projection of long-range plans to insure that new plants meet the educational and health needs of our people.

Too often school buildings are planned without due regard to the ages of people that are to be served, the various kinds of educational offerings that are to be made available, and the particular pattern of school organization that is to prevail. Just as the variety of ages and the particular educational program have marked relationship to a school building, similarly these factors also affect greatly the pattern of organization in a local school system. In effect, therefore, the influence of the organization of a school system on the school plant cannot be considered validly until who is to be served and what is to be offered are also given due attention.

We must accept responsibility for directing the mighty force of education at the critical areas of educational need. So far we are ignoring the fact that the radio, the cinema, the audio reproducer, and soon television are the immediately available instruments for universalizing education. Through these media, millions may be provided with educational services who could not otherwise be served if we are to continue to rely upon ability to read and the utilization of the present machinery of education as the only usable tools of learning.

The pittances traditionally doled out to American schools for instructional materials such as textbooks, libraries, and auditory and visual aids stand in sharp contrast to the generous provision wisely made in connection with the recent training program in the military services. It is uneconomic, if not stupid, in an age when technology has made remarkable teaching

devices available, to give a teacher only the instructional materials used in the nineteenth century. If we operated on such a policy in other fields—warfare, business, agriculture, or medicine—we would soon become a second-rate nation.

In the salary area, educational administration has much to answer for. Too often administrators have rested on their oars, fearful of taking a definite stand for better salaries. In some cases administrators have been a drag on salary increases—if only because they have failed to be vigorous in presenting the need for salary adjustments. Generally speaking, however, I believe that salary conditions in elementary and secondary schools are relatively better than in universities and teachers colleges. One reason is that local boards of education are more responsive and intelligent than state legislatures. Another is that city school administration is more highly developed and efficient than college and university administration. This lag in universities and colleges is very deadly, since it is these institutions that must furnish much of our leadership.

In 1937-38 the National Resources Committee carried on what was undoubtedly the most extensive study of population trends that has been done in this country. The results of that study are incorporated in a publication entitled *The Problems of a Changing Population*. In that study there are included population estimates by five-year periods from 1935 through 1980, together with a distribution of those estimates according to age groups. According to these estimates the total population of the country will reach a peak of approximately 154,000,000 in 1980. However, during the period covered by the estimates it is expected that the proportion of the total population in the school-age group, that is five to nineteen, will decline from 28.4 percent in 1935 to 19.6 percent in 1980. Of this decline of nearly 9 percent in this age group, 6 percent of it is expected to occur by 1960. In the case of the sixty-five-and-over age group the percent is expected to increase from 5.8 in 1935 to 14.4 in 1980.

The national death rate has been cut from 17.2 in 1900 to approximately 10.6 today. From 1900 to 1940 life expectancy at birth was increased from fifty to sixty-five years. Infant mortality was reduced from 85 in each 1000 live births in 1920 to 40 in 1944. We have made remarkable progress in combating specific diseases. The death rate from typhoid and paratyphoid fevers and infant deaths from enteritis and diarrhea have dropped 92 percent. In diphtheria the development of antitoxins and effective educational campaigns concerning their use have resulted in a 97 percent decrease in deaths. Smallpox is so completely under control that only those children whose parents and communities are willing for them to contract the disease are in danger of its ravages.

The child needs to know a great deal about health. He needs to know how to develop good health for himself, how to avoid illness and accidents, and how to protect the health of others. He must understand the difference between adequate and inadequate diet, the effect of drugs and stimulants, and the value of vaccination and immunization.

A modern health program must be comprehensive. In an educational program it is more than the immunization against disease or proper care of teeth. A health program must provide for the protection of children, encourage the correction of defects, and create the right attitude towards health. As one of the first objectives of education health must necessarily permeate all phases of the educational program from physical plant to details of instruction. This is the main reason that it is a school responsibility. Schools can work in areas of child development where the work of health boards and private agencies would be limited.

The way to improve the educational level in this country is by education. That's your job and it's my job. It's a job of salesmanship. Over and over and over, we have got to tell the story that a high level of education means a high standard of living. Over and over and over, we must teach that prosperity and an informed, intelligent citizenry go hand in hand. Seven times seven times we must teach that education is good investment.

I think times have changed. I truly believe that there is more interest being shown in education by laymen today than ever before. We in business sense that. Business is learning and learning fast that education is good investment.

Businessmen are waking up to the fact that they cannot operate their businesses with illiterate or quasi illiterate people. They are realizing rapidly that the deficiency in the educational preparation of their employees is the degree by which their respective business ventures are handicapped.

We're learning that good education is good business. Ideally, I suppose, we should be interested in good education without regard to its value as an investment and without regard to the returns we get from it. But that isn't the American way. We Americans play everything to win. The secret of our success is our innate urge to approach everything from the practical standpoint. It's a good way, because it seems to create an ideology of idealism as it goes along.

Education knew, long before industry, the influence of the emotions on the behavior and attitudes of people. Human beings, mental hygiene has told us, have four basic emotional needs if they are to be properly adjusted. They are security, recognition, new experiences, and self-expression. All of us need them—workers, administrators, teachers, children.

To my mind, there is a great story in education—a succession of stories. I think education is dramatic. It has everything in it to make it so: struggle, pathos, triumph, competition, good humor, and interesting people. Just as business needs more customers, education needs more enthusiasts.

In the quarter century just ahead, new names and new faces, new ideas but old ideals, will chart the course of education. In this association of school administrators the opportunities for leadership were never greater.

Respectfully submitted,

SHERWOOD D. SHANKLAND,
Executive Secretary.

REPORT OF THE BOARD OF TELLERS

Washington, D. C., January 12, 1946

Results of the Final Preferential Ballot
for the Office of President
of the American Association of School Administrators
a Department of the National Education Association
of the United States

We hereby certify that the results of the final preferential ballot for the office of president of the American Association of School Administrators for the year beginning March 15, 1946, as provided in Article V, Section 1, of the Constitution, are as follows:

Nominee	First choice	Second choice	Third choice
	votes	votes	votes
	received	received	received
1. JOHN L. BRACKEN.....	324	423	439
2. HOBART M. CORNING.....	186	365	564
3. WILLARD E. GOSLIN.....	423	620	552
4. HENRY H. HILL.....	1114	411	309
5. HEROLD C. HUNT.....	422	650	605

The total number of ballots cast in this final election was 2501, of which 32 ballots were invalid.

By applying the formula for counting the ballots in accordance with the instructions of the Atlantic City convention in 1938, as recorded on page 189 of the *Official Report* of that convention, the totals are as follows:

HENRY H. HILL	
1114 first choice votes x 3.....	3342
411 second choice votes x 2.....	822
309 third choice votes x 1.....	309
Total	4473
JOHN L. BRACKEN	
324 first choice votes x 3.....	972
423 second choice votes x 2.....	846
439 third choice votes x 1.....	439
Total	2257
HOBART M. CORNING	
186 first choice votes x 3.....	558
365 second choice votes x 2.....	730
564 third choice votes x 1.....	564
Total	1852
WILLARD E. GOSLIN	
423 first choice votes x 3.....	1269
620 second choice votes x 2.....	1240
552 third choice votes x 1.....	552
Total	3061
HEROLD C. HUNT	
422 first choice votes x 3.....	1266
650 second choice votes x 2.....	1300
605 third choice votes x 1.....	605
Total	3171

In accordance with the above results, we hereby officially certify and announce the election of Henry H. Hill as president of the American Association of School Administrators for the year beginning March 15, 1946.

Respectfully submitted,

E. L. ACKLEY, *Chairman*
PAUL M. MUNRO
J. CHESTER SWANSON

REPORT OF THE AUDITING COMMITTEE

Washington, D. C., January 29, 1946

Dr. Charles H. Lake, President
American Association of School Administrators
Cleveland, Ohio

DEAR DR. LAKE:

The Auditing Committee of the American Association of School Administrators, a Department of the National Education Association of the United States, submits to you the following report.

The Committee has gone over all records in the office of the Department and has checked all vouchers and all canceled checks and has made a careful examination of all of the special accounts and funds of the Department. The audit includes all vouchers for expenses, records of bank deposits and withdrawals, and the accounts of the permanent funds of the American Association of School Administrators. A check of the records was made for the purpose of noting the receipts for membership. This Committee examined and checked on the books the list of securities certified by the Executive Secretary and the Business Manager of the National Education Association, a complete list of which is printed herewith.

GENERAL FUND

The distribution of receipts and expenditures was as follows:

Total receipts for 1945.....	\$44,558.69
Balance January 1, 1945.....	13,280.20
Grand total	\$57,838.89
Total expenditures	50,562.03
Balance on hand December 31, 1945.....	\$ 7,276.86

The balance on hand December 31, 1945, which is \$7,276.86, represents a decrease in the income of the Association amounting to \$6,003.34. In January, 1945, the regional conferences were canceled by government directive, thus entirely eliminating revenue from exhibits and reducing receipts from membership somewhat.

There is on deposit in a separate fund in the American Security and Trust Company the sum of \$625.00 appropriated by the National Conference of Christians & Jews, Inc. and earmarked for the work of a commission on intergroup education which has not yet been appointed.

PERMANENT FUND

Assets on hand January 1, 1945.....	\$32,204.55
Receipts—Life memberships	239.00
Assets as of December 31, 1945.....	\$32,443.55

The income from the permanent fund during the year was \$1,190.56, which was used, as is required, for educational research.

The Committee desires to express its appreciation for the cooperation and helpfulness of the Executive Secretary, of his office assistants, and the Assistant Treasurer and Business Manager of the National Education Association who made available all records and reports required for the audit.

Respectfully submitted,

EVAN E. JONES, *Chairman*

C. HERMAN GROSE

JOHN J. YOUNG

CERTIFICATE OF LIST OF SECURITIES

WASHINGTON, D. C., November 16, 1945

This is to certify that the undersigned, Willard E. Givens, Executive Secretary of the National Education Association, acting under the authority of Joseph H. Saunders, Chairman, Board of Trustees of the National Education Association, and H. A. Allan, Business Manager of the National Education Association, on November 16, 1945, examined and checked the securities of the Permanent Educational Research Fund of the American Association of School Administrators, a department of the National Education Association of the United States, in the safe deposit vaults of the American Security and Trust Company. Said securities, after detachment of currently due coupons, are as follows:

1 U. S. Treasury Bond, 27 $\frac{7}{8}$ %, due 1955-60, in the denomination of \$50.00 with coupons attached payable March 15, 1946, and semi-annually thereafter and bearing the following serial number: 80293-C	\$ 50.00
1 U. S. Treasury Bond, 27 $\frac{7}{8}$ %, due 1955-60, in the denomination of \$100.00 with coupons attached payable March 15, 1946, and semi-annually thereafter and bearing the following serial number: 179195-E	100.00
3 U. S. Treasury Bonds, 23 $\frac{3}{4}$ %, due 1956-59, each in the denomination of \$1,000.00 with coupons attached payable March 15, 1946, and semi-annually thereafter and bearing the following serial numbers: 23814-D; 22088-J; 10695-E	3,000.00
2 State of South Carolina Highway Certificates of Indebtedness, 43 $\frac{3}{4}$ %, due December 1, 1946, each in the denomination of \$1,000.00 and each with coupons attached payable June 1, 1946, and semi-annually thereafter and bearing the following serial numbers: 13874; 13875 ..	2,000.00
11 City of Newport News, Va., Street Improvement and Sewerage Construction Bonds, 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ %, due December 1, 1950, each in the denomination of \$1,000.00 and each with coupons attached payable June 1, 1946, and semi-annually thereafter and bearing the following serial numbers: 54; 55; 56; 57; 58; 132; 133; 134; 135; 136; 150	11,000.00
3 City of Portsmouth, Va. Waterworks Bonds, 5%, due December 1, 1948, each in the denomination of \$1,000.00 and each with coupons attached payable June 1, 1946, and semi-annually thereafter and bearing the following serial numbers: 1277; 1279; 1280	3,000.00

2	Port of New York Authority, 3%, due December 15, 1976, each in the denomination of \$1,000.00 and each with coupons attached payable June 15, 1946 and semi-annually thereafter and bearing the following serial numbers: 41540; 41541	\$ 2,000.00
1	City of New York Corporate Stock for transit unification, 3%, due June 1, 1980, in the denomination of \$500.00 with coupon attached payable June 1, 1946, and semi-annually thereafter and bearing the following serial number: D-2367	500.00
6	U. S. Treasury Defense Bonds, Series G, 2½%, due December 1953, each in the denomination of \$1,000.00, without coupons, bearing the following serial numbers: M-301030-G; M-301031-G; M-301032-G; M-301033-G; M-301034-G; M-301035-G	6,000.00
1	U. S. Treasury Defense Bond, Series G, 2½%, due November, 1954, in denomination of \$500.00, without coupons, bearing the following serial number: D-452124-G	500.00
4	U. S. War Savings Bonds, Series G, 2½%, due September, 1955, each in the denomination of \$100.00, without coupons, bearing the following serial numbers: C-1924840-G; C-1924841-G; C-1924842-G; C-1924843-G	400.00
1	U. S. Savings Bond, Series G, 2½%, due April, 1957, in denomination of \$500.00, without coupons, bearing the following serial number: D-1800332-G	500.00
1	U. S. Savings Bond, Series F, due May, 1957, in the denomination of \$100.00, accrual, bearing the following serial number: C-1389704-F..	100.00
6	U. S. Treasury Savings Bonds, Series B, due January 1, 1946, each in the denomination of \$500.00 without coupons, bearing the following serial numbers: D-115335-B; D-115336-B; D-115337-B; D-115338-B; D-115339-B; D-115340-B. (These bonds were withdrawn for collection as of due date of January 1, 1946.)	3,000.00

WILLARD E. GIVENS, *Executive Secretary, for Chairman, Board of Trustees (Joseph H. Saunders)*

H. A. ALLAN, *Business Manager*

National Education Association of the United States

RESOLUTIONS

Adopted by the New York Conference of the American Association of School Administrators, March 6, 1946

1. To make equality of educational opportunity in the United States a reality in our time instead of mere phrase, federal aid to the several states is an absolute essential.

2. Inasmuch as the United Nations Organization has chosen portions of the states of New York and Connecticut as a site for the United Nations Organization, thus honoring the people of the United States,

We extend a warm welcome to the United Nations Organization and offer it full cooperation in the achievement of the great human purposes which it proposes to serve;

3. Inasmuch as the United Nations Organization has recognized the international importance of education by the inclusion of a division devoted to education, science, and culture, which division is known as the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization;

We endorse the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization with all of its implications for a better world and pledge full participation in the program of intercultural education implied in its charter.

4. Inasmuch as it is becoming increasingly apparent that educational facilities beyond the high-school level are already inadequate to serve our young people; and as it is the responsibility of employers to give preference in employment to those who have served so well in the armed forces; and

As the opportunities for continued education or satisfactory employment of present students in our high schools will be extremely limited during the next few years, and

Since this situation constitutes a grave menace to the continued development of these young people;

We recommend that this Association shall give impetus and direction to a program designed to provide a wide range of educational services on a post-high-school level.

5. We wish to record with sincere appreciation our warm friendship and sincere esteem for Sherwood D. Shankland, executive secretary of our Association since 1921.

He has combined in his long career the desirable qualities of the statesman, the scholar, the diplomat, and the warm personal friend.

He is widely known in educational circles because of the length, the breadth, and the warmth of his service among us.

Our beloved S. D. retires from his important office August 31, 1946.

We do hereby incorporate these sincere remarks as a part of our resolutions and as official recognition of our lasting tribute to a great leader and a personal friend.

Committee on Resolutions

BURR J. MERRIAM, *Chairman*

Superintendent of Schools, Framingham, Massachusetts

E. S. BRINKLEY

Superintendent of Schools, Norfolk, Virginia

ABEL A. HANSON

Superintendent of Schools, Elizabeth, New Jersey

H. V. HOLLOWAY

State Superintendent, Dover, Delaware

LESTER N. NEULEN

Supervising Principal, Teaneck, New Jersey

WILLIAM J. SMALL

Superintendent of Schools, Niagara Falls, New York

Kansas City Conference Program

February 20-22, 1946

First General Session

Education Looks Ahead

Presiding, Herold C. Hunt, Superintendent of Schools, Kansas City, Mo.

INVOCATION

The Right Reverend Robert Nelson Spencer, Bishop of the Diocese of Western Missouri, Kansas City, Mo.

SALUTE TO THE FLAG

GREETINGS

The Honorable John B. Gage, Mayor of Kansas City
Butler Disman, President of the Kansas City Board of Education

THE EDUCATION OF THE CONQUEROR

William F. Russell, Dean, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

Second General Session

Open Meeting

Presiding, Charles H. Lake, Superintendent of Schools, Cleveland, Ohio;
President, American Association of School Administrators

MUSICAL PROGRAM—Kansas City Public Schools

DISCIPLINE FOR DEMOCRACY THROUGH THE SCHOOLS

Colonel T. V. Smith, AUS

Third General Session

Conserving Human Resources

Presiding, Charles H. Lake, President of the Association

THE MODERN HEALTH PROGRAM

W. W. Bauer, M. D., Director, Bureau of Health Education, American Medical Association, Chicago, Ill.

CONSERVING HUMAN RESOURCES

The Honorable Brooks Hays, Member of Congress from Arkansas

SHOWING OF BRITISH FILM—"A Start in Life"

SHOWING OF MARCH OF TIME FILM—"Life with Baby"

Fourth General Session

Education for Community Living

Presiding, F. L. Schlagle, Superintendent of Schools, Kansas City, Kansas;
President, National Education Association

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF PROFESSIONAL LEADERSHIP

John A. Sexson, Superintendent of Schools, Pasadena, Calif.

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF LAY LEADERSHIP

Elbert K. Fretwell, Chief Scout Executive, Boy Scouts of America, New York, N. Y.

SHOWING OF NEA DOCUMENTARY FILM—Remarks by President Schlagle

Fifth General Session

Immediate Administrative Problems

Presiding, W. T. White, Superintendent of Schools, Dallas, Texas

TOWARD BETTER SCHOOLS

N. L. Engelhardt, Associate Superintendent of Schools, New York, N. Y.

PERSONNEL PROBLEMS IN AMERICAN EDUCATION

Edgar G. Doudna, Secretary and Director of Teacher Training, State Board of Regents of Normal Schools, Madison, Wis.

WEDNESDAY

Feb. 20

2:00 P. M.

Music Hall

Municipal

Auditorium

WEDNESDAY

Feb. 20

8:00 P. M.

Arena

Municipal

Auditorium

THURSDAY

Feb. 21

9:30 A. M.

Music Hall

Municipal

Auditorium

THURSDAY

Feb. 21

8:00 P. M.

Music Hall

Municipal

Auditorium

FRIDAY

Feb. 22

2:15 P. M.

Music Hall

Municipal

Auditorium

Atlanta Conference Program

February 25-27, 1946

MONDAY

Feb. 25

2:30 P. M.

Dinkler Room
Ansley Hotel

First General Session

Education Looks Ahead

Presiding, Charles H. Lake, Superintendent of Schools, Cleveland, Ohio;
President, American Association of School Administrators

INVOCATION

Dr. Monroe F. Swilley, Jr., Pastor, Second-Ponce de Leon Baptist Church, Atlanta, Ga.

SALUTE TO THE FLAG

Jarvis Barnes, Supervisor of Statistics, Public Schools, Atlanta, Ga.

THE NEXT DECADE IN EDUCATION

W. Howard Pillsbury, Superintendent of Schools, Schenectady, N. Y.

THE MODERN HEALTH PROGRAM

W. W. Bauer, M. D., Director, Bureau of Health Education, American Medical Association, Chicago, Ill.

MONDAY

Feb. 25

8:00 P. M.

Dinkler Room
Ansley Hotel

Second General Session

Conserving Human Resources

Presiding, A. C. Flora, Superintendent of Schools, Columbia, S. C.

BRITAIN'S GREATEST ASSET—THE CHILDREN

Mabel Studebaker, Science Teacher, Gridley Junior High School, Erie, Pa.; Member, Educational Policies Commission

PRESENTATION OF HONORARY LIFE MEMBERSHIP TO WILLIS A. SUTTON, SUPERINTENDENT EMERITUS, ATLANTA PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Presentation Tribute—Sherwood D. Shankland, Executive Secretary, American Association of School Administrators

Response—Dr. Sutton

TUESDAY

Feb. 26

2:30 P. M.

Dinkler Room
Ansley Hotel

Third General Session

Education for Community Living

Presiding, W. Frank Warren, Superintendent of Schools, Durham, N. C.;
Second Vice-President, American Association of School Administrators

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF PROFESSIONAL LEADERSHIP

Charles H. Lake, Superintendent of Schools, Cleveland, Ohio; President of the Association

OPPORTUNITIES WHICH AWAIT THE SOUTH

Virginius Dabney, Editor, *Richmond Times-Dispatch*, Richmond, Va.

TUESDAY

Feb. 26

8:00 P. M.

Arena
Municipal
Auditorium

Fourth General Session

Open Meeting

Presiding, Miss Ira Jarrell, Superintendent of Schools, Atlanta, Ga.

THE ATLANTA YOUTH SYMPHONY ORCHESTRA—Henry Sopkin, Conductor CONSERVING HUMAN RESOURCES

The Honorable Brooks Hays, Member of Congress from Arkansas

WEDNESDAY

Feb. 27

2:30 P. M.

Dinkler Room
Ansley Hotel

Fifth General Session

Immediate Administrative Problems

Presiding, Charles H. Lake, President of the Association

PERSONNEL PROBLEMS IN AMERICAN EDUCATION

Henry H. Hill, President, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.

SUPPORT FOR BETTER SCHOOLS

John K. Norton, Director, Division of Organization and Administration of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

New York Conference Program

March 4-7, 1946

First General Session

The Aftermath of War

Presiding, W. Frank Warren, Superintendent of Schools, Durham, N. C.;
Second Vice-President, American Association of School Administrators

INVOCATION

Reverend Ralph W. Sockman, Minister, Christ Church, New York, N. Y.

SALUTE TO THE FLAG

C. Frederick Pertsch, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, New York, N. Y.

THE CONVENTION EXHIBIT

John J. Krill, President, Associated Exhibitors of the NEA

EDUCATION FOR WORLD CITIZENSHIP

William G. Carr, Secretary, Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

A WORLD IN CHAOS

Vera Micheles Dean, Author and Lecturer; Director, Research Department, Foreign Policy Association, New York, N. Y.

Second General Session

Conserving Human Resources

Presiding, John E. Wade, Superintendent of Schools, New York, N. Y.

THE MODERN HEALTH PROGRAM

John L. Bracken, Superintendent of Schools, Clayton, Mo.

LEADERSHIP OR ADMINISTRATION?

James L. Hanley, Superintendent of Schools, Providence, R. I.

Third General Session

Education Looks Ahead

Presiding, W. Frank Warren, Second Vice-President of the Association

DEVELOPING LAY LEADERSHIP

Paul R. Mort, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

TOWARD BETTER SCHOOLS

N. L. Engelhardt, Associate Superintendent of Schools, New York, N. Y.

Associated Exhibitors Program

AMERICAN EDUCATION AWARD—Statement of 1945 Presentation to Helen Keller

ENTERTAINMENT—Featuring stars of the radio

Fourth General Session

Major Administrative Issues

Presiding, Homer W. Anderson, Superintendent of Schools, Newton, Mass.

PROBLEMS OF THE PROFESSIONAL PERSONNEL

Ernest O. Melby, Dean, School of Education, New York University, New York, N. Y.

FINANCING EDUCATION FOR A NEW WORLD

Thomas C. Boushall, President, The Bank of Virginia, Richmond, Va.;
Chairman, Committee on Education, Chamber of Commerce of the U. S.

TUESDAY

March 5

9:30 A. M.

Promenade

Manhattan

Center

TUESDAY

March 5

8:00 P. M.

Promenade

Manhattan

Center

WEDNESDAY

March 6

9:30 A. M.

Promenade

Manhattan

Center

WEDNESDAY

March 6

8:00 P. M.

Grand

Ballroom

Manhattan

Center

THURSDAY

March 7

9:30 A. M.

Promenade

Manhattan

Center

Chicago Conference Program

March 12-14, 1946

TUESDAY

March 12

2:15 P. M.

Grand

Ballroom

Stevens Hotel

First General Session

Education Looks Ahead

Presiding, Charles H. Lake, Superintendent of Schools, Cleveland, Ohio;
President, American Association of School Administrators

INVOCATION

Dr. Preston Bradley, Pastor, The Peoples Church of Chicago

SALUTE TO THE FLAG

W. J. Hamilton, Superintendent of Schools, Oak Park, Ill.

THE CONVENTION EXHIBIT

John J. Krill, President, Associated Exhibitors of the NEA

THE EDUCATION OF THE CONQUEROR

William F. Russell, Dean, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

CAN WE EDUCATE FOR WORLD PEACE?

F. L. Schlagle, Superintendent of Schools, Kansas City, Kansas; President, National Education Association

TUESDAY

March 12

8:00 P. M.

Grand

Ballroom

Stevens Hotel

Second General Session

Conserving Human Resources

Presiding, Charles H. Lake, President of the Association

THE MODERN HEALTH PROGRAM

George E. Roudebush, Superintendent of Schools, Columbus, Ohio

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

Kenneth McFarland, Superintendent of Schools, Topeka, Kansas

WEDNESDAY

March 13

9:30 A. M.

Grand

Ballroom

Stevens Hotel

Third General Session

The Profession at Work—At Home and Abroad

Presiding, Hobart M. Corning, Superintendent of Schools, Washington, D. C.

BRITAIN INVESTS IN CHILDREN

E. W. Jacobsen, President, University of Louisville, Louisville, Ky.;
Member, Educational Policies Commission

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF PROFESSIONAL LEADERSHIP

Charles H. Lake, Superintendent of Schools, Cleveland, Ohio; President of the Association

WEDNESDAY

March 13

7:45 P. M.

Grand

Ballroom

Stevens Hotel

Associated Exhibitors Program

AMERICAN EDUCATION AWARD—Presentation of the Award for 1946 to Sherwood D. Shankland, Executive Secretary, American Association of School Administrators

ENTERTAINMENT—Featuring stars of the radio

THURSDAY

March 14

2:15 P. M.

Grand

Ballroom

Stevens Hotel

Fourth General Session

Education for Community Living

Presiding, Charles H. Lake, President of the Association

EDUCATION AND BUSINESS

Eric A. Johnston, President, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Washington, D. C.

SUPPORT FOR BETTER SCHOOLS

John K. Norton, Director, Division of Organization and Administration of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

The American Association of School Administrators
A Department of the National Education Association of the United States

Officers 1945-46

<i>President</i> , CHARLES H. LAKE	
Superintendent of Schools.....	Cleveland, Ohio
<i>First Vicepresident</i> , N. L. ENGELHARDT	
Associate Superintendent of Schools.....	New York, N. Y.
<i>Second Vicepresident</i> , W. FRANK WARREN	
Superintendent of Schools.....	Durham, N. C.
<i>Executive Secretary</i> , SHERWOOD D. SHANKLAND	
1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest.....	Washington 6, D. C.

Executive Committee

W. HOWARD PILLSBURY, Superintendent of Schools.....	Schenectady, N. Y.
JOHN L. BRACKEN, Superintendent of Schools.....	Clayton, Mo.
HENRY H. HILL, President, George Peabody College for Teachers.....	Nashville, Tenn.
HOBART M. CORNING, Superintendent of Schools.....	Washington, D. C.
The President, First and Second Vicepresidents, <i>ex officio</i> .	

Officers 1946-47

<i>President</i> , HENRY H. HILL	
President, George Peabody College for Teachers	Nashville, Tenn.
<i>First Vicepresident</i> , CHARLES H. LAKE	
Superintendent of Schools.....	Cleveland, Ohio
<i>Second Vicepresident</i> , W. FRANK WARREN	
Superintendent of Schools.....	Durham, N. C.
<i>Executive Secretary</i> , SHERWOOD D. SHANKLAND	
1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest.....	Washington, D. C.

Executive Committee

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(Term expires March 15, 1947)	
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INDEX

- Ackley, E. L., 256
 Aderhold, O. C., 174
 Administration, Leadership or (Hanley), 98
 Adult education (Pillsbury), 37
 Air-age education (Furbay), 223
 American Education Award—Manuscript of the 1945 Award presented Helen Keller, 46; Tribute to the recipient of the 1946 Award (Krill), 139; Manuscript of the 1946 Award, 141; Acceptance of the 1946 Award (Shankland), 140
 Auditing Committee, Report of the, 257
- Boushall, Thomas C., 47
 Bracken, John L., 53
 Brinkley, E. S., 260
 Britain's greatest asset—her children (Studebaker), 95
 Buildings, School—The need for school-building studies (Aderhold), 174; Some questions about school organization and the school plant (Fowlkes), 142
 Business, Education and (Boushall), 47; (Johnston), 81
- Carr, William G., 25
 Caswell, Hollis L., 204
 Certification in getting better teachers, The role of (Cooper), 200
 Committees, 266, 267
 Conqueror, Education of the (Russell), 17
 Cooper, Hermann, 200
- Doudna, Edgar G., 89
- Education and business (Boushall), 47; (Johnston), 81
 Education for national well-being (Keller), 63
 Education for world citizenship (Carr), 25
 Education of the conqueror (Russell), 17
 Education, The next decade in (Pillsbury), 36
 Elementary schools should teach, What the—Knowledge and interest in the natural and social world (English), 164; Self-expression and appreciation of the creative arts in the elementary schools (Moore), 166; Democratic group living and services (Parrott), 168; Articulation with the high school (Pullen), 162
 Engelhardt, N. L., 73
 English, Mildred, 164
- Europe are still at war, The teachers of (Papanek), 218
 Exhibit, The convention (Krill), 87
- Federal aid—How we can have federal support for education and avoid undesirable federal controls (Johns), 180; Desirable federal-state relations involving higher education (Taylor), 184
 Ferguson, Arthur W., 198
 Financing education for a new world (Boushall), 47
 Financing the schools—Criteria for allocating and spending the school dollar (Morphet), 211; Support for better schools (Norton), 130; Possible sources of state revenue for public schools (Smith), 215
 Fowlkes, John Guy, 142
 Furbay, John H., 223
- General education, The scope of (Lake), 7
 Grose, C. Herman, 258
 Guidance (Pillsbury), 44
- Hanley, James L., 98
 Hanson, Abel A., 260
 Health program, The modern (Bracken), 53; (Roudebush), 146
 Hill, Henry H., 121
 Holloway, H. V., 260
 Holy, T. C., 169
- International relations in education (Carr), 25
 Interracial problems at home, What the secondary schools shall teach in meeting intercultural and (Tonsor), 153
- Jacobson, Paul B., 156
 Johns, R. L., 180
 Johnston, Eric A., 81
 Jones, Evan E., 258
- Keller, Helen Adams, 46
 Keller, Oliver J., 63
 Krill, John J., 87, 139
- Lake, Charles H., 7
 Lay leadership, Developing (Mort), 106
 Leadership or administration (Hanley), 98
 Leadership, The responsibility of professional (Lake), 7; (Sexson), 113
 Life membership to Willis A. Sutton, Presentation of honorary (Shankland), 120

- McFarland, Kenneth, 137
 Melby, Ernest O., 225
 Merriam, Burr J., 260
 Moore, Lena, 166
 Morphet, Edgar L., 211
 Mort, Paul R., 106
 Munro, Paul M., 256
- Neulen, Lester N., 260
 Norton, John K., 130
 Nursery school, The (Pillsbury), 40
- Officers, 265
 Ostenberg, W. M., 189
- Papanek, Mrs. Betka, 218
 Parrott, Hattie, 168
 Personnel administration (McFarland), 137
 Personnel problems in American education (Doudna), 89; (Hill), 121
 Personnel, Problems of the professional (Melby), 225
 Pillsbury, W. Howard, 36
 Population—The proportion of families with children in public schools together with educational implications (Holy), 169
 Professional leadership, The responsibility of (Lake), 7; (Sexson), 113
 Programs of the conferences—Atlanta, 262; Chicago, 264; Kansas City, 261; New York, 263
 Public relations (Pillsbury), 42
 Pullen, Jr., Thomas G., 162
- Records, Official, 231
 Report of the Executive Secretary, Annual, 233
 Resolutions, 259
 Roudebush, George E., 146
 Russell, William F., 17
- Schools, Toward better (Engelhardt), 73
 Scientific aids to education (Caswell), 204
 Secondary schools—Developmental tasks and the curriculum (Jacobson), 156; What the secondary schools shall teach in meeting intercultural and inter-racial problems at home (Tonsor), 153; Work experience (Wickham), 159
- Secretary, Annual report of the Executive, 233
 Securities, Certificate of list of, 258
 Sexson, John A., 113
 Shankland, Sherwood D., 120, 140, 141
 Small, William J., 260
 Smith, Mark, 215
 Studebaker, Mabel, 95
 Support for better schools (Norton), 130
 Sutton, Willis A., Presentation of honorary life membership to (Shankland), 120
 Swanson, J. Chester, 256
- Taylor, William S., 184
 Teachers of Europe are still at war, The (Papanek), 218
 Teaching staff, The—The role of certification in getting better teachers (Cooper), 200; What a superintendent looks for in new teachers (Ferguson), 198; Personnel problems in American education (Hill), 121; Problems of the professional personnel (Melby), 225; Maintaining the teaching staff—Cures and contentment (Ostenberg), 189; The preparation of teachers to meet new problems (West), 194
 Tellers, Report of the Board of, 256
 Tonsor, Charles A., 153
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (Carr), 25
 United Nations Organization (Carr), 25; (Engelhardt), 73
- West, Roscoe L., 194
 Wickham, Terry, 159
 Work experience (Wickham), 159
 World citizenship, Education for (Carr), 25
- Young, John J., 258

School Boards in Action

Twenty-Fourth Yearbook, 1946

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