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A FIRST COURSE IN EDUCATION

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A FIRST COURSE IN EDUCATION

by

WARD G. REEDER
Professor of Education
Ohio State University

REVISED EDITION

NEW YORK
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1943

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To

MARY ANN, MAX, and LOUISE

My children, with whom I have participated
in the great adventure of education

PREFACE

During recent years most colleges and universities which have been engaged in the preparation of teachers and other educational employees have regularly offered and required an introductory course in education. From its beginning the course has been designed to serve two purposes: first, to give students an overview of the aims, organization, and procedures of education—in brief, to provide as systematic a view as possible of the whole field of education; second, to give students rather complete information regarding the opportunities and the requirements in education as a profession with the hope that they will be better qualified to decide whether they desire to enter the profession, and if they decide to enter it, to select the special phase of it which they will enter.

This book has been written primarily as a textbook for students in this introductory or first course in education. Other potential readers who have been kept in mind in preparing the book are the following: students in other departments or colleges who wish an overview of the field of education, but who are not specializing in the field; school employees in service who desire a new orientation in education, or who wish to bring their professional knowledge up to date; and laymen such as members of school boards and of parent-teacher associations who are interested in becoming better acquainted with the educational enterprise and process.

In preparing the book the author has been guided by the purposes of *orientation* and *guidance* mentioned above. In selecting the topics to be discussed and in deciding upon the emphasis to be given each topic he has attempted to steer between the two extremes which confront every author of an introductory book: first, of discussing too few topics and

those so briefly that a broad and intelligible introduction is not given, and second, of discussing too many topics and those so exhaustively that further courses wastefully duplicate the introductory course. In other words, he has tried to avoid shallowness of treatment, but he has not aimed at exhaustiveness of treatment of any topic. His desire has been to give a "bird's-eye view" of the educational enterprise and process with the belief that if the prospective educational employee acquires such a view he will be more competent (1) to proceed to later courses such as history of education, psychology, and methods of teaching, and (2) to begin his systematic observation of educational procedures.

His frame of reference has been that science and philosophy must work together in the solution of all educational problems. He has tried to portray the high points of modern educational practice and to help the student to evaluate this practice in terms of a defensible philosophy of education. He has tried to encourage and help the student to start developing a defensible philosophy of education and to begin acquiring tools and methods which will help him to attack educational problems scientifically.

Since the course, "Introduction to Education," usually comprises one quarter or one semester, the book has been especially designed for a course of such length. By means, however, of the Selected References and Questions for Discussion which appear at the close of each chapter the book can be adapted to courses of longer duration. The book has been organized into six parts with several related chapters under each part. The parts are captioned as follows: Part I, "Education and American Democracy"; Part II, "Organization and Administration of the Schools"; Part III, "The Pupils and the Educative Process"; Part IV, "The Materials of Instruction"; Part V, "Education as a Profession"; and Part VI, "Methods of Studying Educational Problems."

In the preparation of the book the author wishes to acknowledge the assistance which he has received from many sources. He acknowledges first the stimulation and other help given him when he was enrolled as a student in one of

the early courses in "Introduction to Education." The year was 1918; the institution was the University of Chicago; and the instructor of the course was Professor Charles H. Judd. Dr. Judd emphasized the need for attacking educational problems with data secured by means of objective techniques, and this emphasis could hardly fail to color the views and the future work of his students.

The author is also indebted to several of his present colleagues with whom he formerly collaborated in teaching in the Ohio State University a course entitled "Introduction to Education." Of these colleagues he is especially indebted to Professor Boyd H. Bode with whom he collaborated longest. Dr. Bode emphasized the need for a defensible philosophy of education as a guide to educational effort, and his exposition of what he regarded as such a philosophy unquestionably colored the views of the author. Other colleagues with whom the author occasionally collaborated in teaching the course, and from whom many helpful suggestions were received, are Professors H. Gordon Hullfish and W. H. Stone. Special gratitude is expressed to Professor Hullfish who read the manuscript and made numerous suggestions for its improvement. Professor M. R. Hinson of Florida State College for Women and Professor C. O. Mathews of Ohio Wesleyan University also gave many excellent suggestions for improving the manuscript.

The author recognizes that his largest debt is due his thousands of students who have enrolled in this course. These students have been the proverbial "dogs upon which the poison has been tried."

At the request of many users of the first edition of this book, the author has prepared a workbook to accompany the present edition of the text. This workbook is entitled *Outlines and Exercises for A First Course in Education,* and the publisher is The Macmillan Company.

WARD G. REEDER

COLUMBUS, OHIO
May, 1943

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PART I

EDUCATION AND AMERICAN DEMOCRACY

Chapter I

AMERICA'S HISTORIC FAITH IN EDUCATION

DEFINITION, IMPORTANCE, AND AGENCIES OF EDUCATION

Definition of education. In any discussion a common understanding is facilitated by beginning with a definition of the topic or problem which is being discussed. Since this book is a treatise on education, it should take its departure from a definition of *education*. A definition of *education* seems to be in place in spite of the fact that the universal and everyday use of the term may have made us accustomed to believe that its meaning is clear. What, then, is education?

Many well-known definitions of education are extant, but when they are stripped of their verbiage and stated in the American language they are seen to mean essentially the same. They universally regard education as synonymous with learning or acquired experience. In this book that meaning of education will be accepted. That person has been educated, at least to a certain degree, who has secured experience of any sort—intellectual, emotional, or physical. Since every waking moment of a person's life gives experience, it is obvious that education constantly proceeds from birth to death.

In one sense, education may be regarded as a *product*—a product of experience, and it is impossible for a person to have an experience without securing an accretion—good or bad—to his education. In another sense, education may be regarded as a *process*—a process through which and by which the experience of the race, that is, knowledge, skills, and attitudes, are transmitted to the members of the com-

munity.) Probably the most widely quoted definition of education is that of John Dewey, one of the most renowned educators of all time. Dewey defines education as follows:

> . . . education is a constant reorganizing or reconstructing of experience. It has all the time an immediate end, and so far as activity is educative, it reaches that end—the direct transformation of the quality of experience. Infancy, youth, adult life,—all stand on the same educative level in the sense that what is really *learned* at any and every stage of experience constitutes the value of that experience, and in the sense that it is the chief business of life at every point to make living thus contribute to an enrichment of its own perceptive meaning.
>
> We thus reach a technical definition of education: It is that reconstruction or reorganization of experience which adds to the meaning of experience, and which increases ability to direct the course of subsequent experience.[1]

Importance of education. Every person is born into the world with a *biological heritage* which may be excellent, average, or inferior. Whatever its quality, this heritage contains the basis or the starting point for education. Unless, however, the *social heritage*—language, customs, discoveries, inventions, literature, art, and other knowledge—is combined with the biological heritage, the individual must remain as an uncivilized or uneducated being and incompetent to adjust himself to man's world. Unless he came into contact with the heritage of the race, the newborn infant would not advance beyond the stage of mere animal. Without education the individual could not realize his potentialities, and society could not progress. Education is the dynamo as well as the governor of civilization. According to Edward L. Thorndike and Arthur I. Gates, the failure of a society to provide education for its members would probably result in conditions such as the following:

> If all human beings save newborn infants vanished to another planet, and if by miracle the babies were kept alive for a score of years, preserving whatever knowledge and skill came from natural inner growth, and lacking only the influence of the educational activities of other men, they would, at the age of twenty-one, resemble a horde of animals. They would get a precarious living from fruits,

[1] John Dewey, *Democracy and Education,* Macmillan, 1928, pp. 89–90. By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

berries, and small animals, would easily become victims of malaria, yellow fever, smallpox, and plague, and would know little more of language, mechanical arts, or provision of the future than the monkeys. They would be distinguishable from other mammalian species chiefly by a much greater variety of bodily movements, especially of the hands, mouth parts, and face, a much quicker rate of learning, and a very much keener satisfaction in mental life for its own sake. But even under the simple conditions of a primitive environment, the life of the jungle, the learning of a life time would be limited largely to the simplest type of food getting and protective skills with scarcely any real understanding of themselves or the natural world in which they lived.

If these infants grew up in a deserted modern city, they would advance little if any further without education. They would be engaged in the search of food, mates, and organic comforts like other animals. They would use the books, tools, engines, and other innumerable products of civilization as toys somewhat more intelligently than would apes, but they would not learn to read the books, to bake bread, repair tools, or make of engines more than spectacles for amusement, wonder, and fear.[1]

Agencies of education. Contrary to common belief, education, that is, the transmission of the social heritage, is not provided by the school alone. During the centuries before the school was established the transmission of the social heritage was accomplished by other institutions and agencies. Moreover, the work of the school has always been supplemented by other institutions and agencies. Before the founding of the school the main conveyors of education were the home, the tribe, the church, and apprenticeship, and it must be admitted that for those times these institutions discharged their functions well. They discharged them well primarily because they kept in mind, and tried to meet, social and individual needs; they prepared the children for life by illuminating the realities of life as the children were experiencing them and as they would probably experience them in adult life. Because it was closer to the people, perhaps the simple school of those days met the needs of the people even better than the more complex school of today meets the needs of the present generation.

[1] Edward L. Thorndike and Arthur I. Gates, *Elementary Principles of Education,* Macmillan, 1929, pp. 7–8. By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

Even when they were in a state of savagery, the people always underwent the process of education, and they underwent the process many centuries before the school as we know it today was established. The most powerful urge and ambition of man have always been the desire to rear

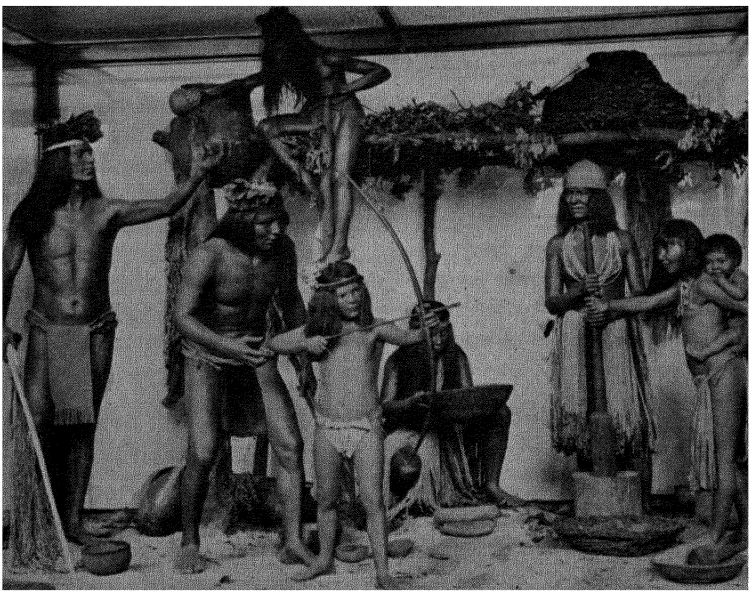

FIG. 1. Education before schools began. Education in those early days was provided largely by the home, as will be seen in this illustration. (Courtesy of the Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D. C.)

children who could make their way in the world. Man early saw the need for the education of his children and took steps to provide this education. The seed of the modern school, therefore, was planted and cultivated by earliest man. In those earlier times the younger members of the community learned the necessary skills, attitudes, and knowledge by participating in the activities of the adult members of the community. For example, the Indian boy was taught by his father how to start a fire, how to grow maize in the forest, how to hunt wild game, how to protect himself from his enemies and the elements, how to cooperate with the members of his family and his tribe, and how to

perform other duties necessary for participation in a primitive life. In the same manner the Indian girl was taught by her mother those activities which would enable her to meet the needs of the times.

With the advent of the industrial revolution and the rapid development of science, life grew much more complex, and the need for education mounted. The social heritage soon became too large and society soon grew too complex for parents to provide the proper quality and quantity of education for their children. Parents gradually came to see that they did not have the time nor the specialized knowledge to organize and to present all of the necessary experiences for their children. When these problems and handicaps were recognized by parents, schools were established, and teachers were employed to provide some of the training which had formerly been given by the parents.

During the more recent years the influence of the home and the church as educational and custodial institutions has seriously waned, and this waning has caused a still larger responsibility to be delegated to the school. Moreover, child labor has been largely prohibited; employment opportunities for youth have decreased; and millions of children now come to school because they have nothing else to do. As the years have rolled by, more and more of the responsibilities of parents for the training of their children have been delegated to the school, and the end of that process of delegation is not yet in sight, because as science and technology advance education becomes all the more necessary for securing happiness and for the control of civilization itself. Not only do the parents send their children to school, but they are more and more bringing themselves to school for refresher courses, for vocational training, and for various other types of adult education offered during evenings.

Although the influence of the school has constantly increased, it is apparent that the twentieth-century person does not secure his education wholly from the school. On the contrary, it is seen that most education comes from the

"school of life"—from the home, the church, the radio, the press, the library, the cinema, work and play, travel, and all environment—rather than from the school. The school will probably never supplant these institutions and agencies, but will always be supplemented by them; this is devoutly to be hoped, because there would be real dangers in a com-

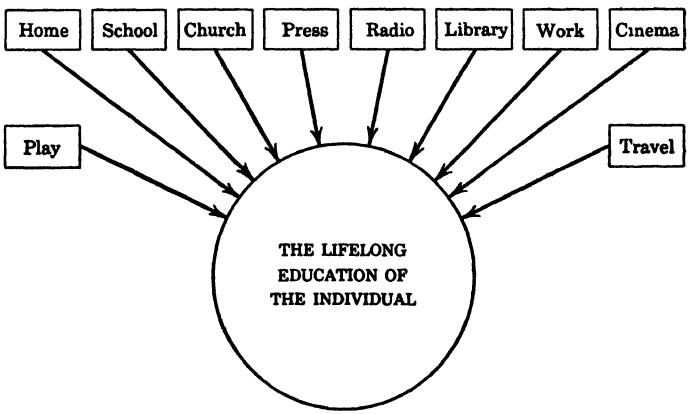

FIG. 2. The chief agencies which now contribute to the education of the individual.

plete centralization in one institution or agency of the responsibility for providing education. The eight, twelve, sixteen, or other number of years during which the school has the pupil under its tutelage is a short span compared with the number of years which the pupil spends in the "school of life." In general, and at best, the span of the school is only long enough to give the pupil the tools for acquiring skills, attitudes, and knowledge, and to instill in him an abiding desire to use those tools. Equipped with *these tools and this desire* the pupil is better qualified to continue his education throughout life. Every person is being educated all the time and in whatever environment he may be. Education continues as long as the individual lives, and it continues whether the individual is conscious of the process or not; it often continues in spite of the individual and in spite of the fact that some of it is worthless and sometimes vicious.

EVIDENCES OF AMERICA'S FAITH IN EDUCATION

America's faith in education has been called by a European visitor the "national religion of America." This faith appeared almost simultaneously with the first settlements in the early part of the seventeenth century, and it has grown more and more firm as the years have rolled by. It has endured wars, business depressions, and other upheavals; it has surmounted every handicap and has always moved to greater heights. It has been buttressed by two beliefs: (1) that the welfare, progress, and perpetuity of society are determined largely by the education of the people, and (2) that the individual can best realize his potentialities in happiness and accomplishment through education. Every parent has shared with Enoch Arden ". . . the noble wish to save all earnings to the uttermost and give his child a better bringing-up than his has been."

This faith has been evidenced in ways too numerous to mention. It was evidenced by the first settlers in the almost immediate establishment of schools—schools at first private, but shortly afterward public. From the beginning, it has been evidenced by the enactment of thousands of educational laws—laws usually of state-wide application and always calculated to extend and to improve the schools of the state and to assure universal school attendance. It has been notably evidenced, especially during recent decades, by the large increases in school attendance and school expenditures. Some of the more important of these evidences of the historic faith of the American people in education will be elaborated upon in the following pages.

The early beginning of schools. The faith of our people in education was first evidenced by the early date at which schools were established. Schools were established almost immediately after settlements were made. In fact, the availability of schools has always played a prominent part in the promotion of new settlements. According to Reverend Timothy Flint, who was a frontier missionary from 1815 to 1840, "A minister—a church—a school—are words to flourish in an advertisement to sell lots." The

first institution to be founded was, of course, the home; immediately after the home came the church; then came the school, almost concurrently with the church. Not only was this the order of the establishment of these institutions by our first settlers but the same order of establishment continued when settlers pushed westward during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. The attitude of the early settlers toward education is seen from the following quotation (original spelling) from an early New England pamphlet entitled "New England's First Fruits," which was printed in London in 1643:

> After God had carried us safe to New England
> And wee had builded our houses
> Provided necessaries for our livelihood
> Reard convenient places for Gods worship
> And setled the civill government
> One of the next things we longed for
> And looked after was to advance learning
> And perpetuate it to posterity
> Dreading to leave an illiterate ministry
> To the churches when our present ministers
> Shall lie in the Dust.

The first schools in the United States were established upon the initiative of the people of local communities and without any suggestion or requirement on the part of the colonial legislatures; in this early period the people could have schools or not have them, as they chose. As a first proof of the early faith of the American people in education, it can be mentioned that *private* schools were established almost from the time of the first settlement. Moreover, there is evidence that certain communities in Massachusetts had established *truly public* schools as early as 1635,[1] and Harvard College (originally a *public* institution) was founded by the General Court of Massachusetts in 1636 by the granting of £400 "towards a schoale or college" in the colony. The first public schools were established, therefore, only fifteen years after the landing of the Pilgrims, and only twenty-eight years after the founding of

[1] M. W. Jernegan, "The Beginnings of Public Education in New England," *School Review*, Vol. 23 (June, 1915), pp. 361–380.

Jamestown, Virginia, the first permanent English settlement in America.

Compulsory-education laws. Although the faith in education of our early settlers was widespread, it was by no means universal; it varied from community to community and from colony to colony; it was strongest in the New England colonies. Our forefathers, especially in New England, soon saw that to leave the option of securing an education to the children and their parents was resulting in many children growing up in ignorance; they therefore took steps to prevent such situations from occurring. In 1642, the Massachusetts colonial legislature enacted the first compulsory-education law in America; in fact, it was the first compulsory-education law in the English-speaking world. Although the law was rather poorly enforced, it was colony-wide in operation and applied to rich and poor alike. The law provided that "the selectmen in every town [1] shall have power to take account of all parents and masters as to their children's education and employment. . . . They [the selectmen] are to see that the children can read and understand the principles of religion and the capital laws of the country. . . ."

It should be noted that the Massachusetts law of 1642 did not require the establishment of a school, the employment of a teacher, or attendance on the part of pupils; in that law the provision for education was left entirely to the home. Legislation for the establishment of schools and for compulsory attendance of all pupils came later as we shall presently see.

Compulsory-school laws. It was soon found that the law of 1642 was difficult to enforce because it failed to provide any means of instruction. It was soon discovered that many parents were educationally incompetent and financially unable to provide their children with even the rudiments of learning which the law stipulated; many parents could not

[1] A *town* usually included a small village and the surrounding rural territory. It has always been typically a New England governmental unit. It is generally similar to the township or county of other sections of the United States. The selectmen were chosen by the people to administer the government of the town.

teach their children to read because they themselves could not read, and many lacked the financial means to employ a tutor who would provide the instruction. In 1647, therefore, the Massachusetts colonial legislature enacted a law designed to correct the deficiencies just indicated. This law has been dubbed the "Old Deluder Satan Act." It has also been called the "mother of all school laws." It required all towns having fifty or more families to provide an elementary school, and towns having one hundred or more families to provide a secondary school [1] in addition to the elementary school. Because it is one of the most momentous educational acts ever passed in any country, the law of 1647 is quoted (original spelling) herewith *in extenso:*

It being one chiefe project of that ould deluder, Sathan, to keepe men from the knowledge of the Scriptures, as in former times by keeping them in an unknowne tongue, so in these latter times by perswading from the use of tongues that so at least the true sence and meaning of the originall might be clouded by false glosses of saint seeming deceivers, that learning may not be buried in the grave of our fathers in the church and commonwealth, the Lord assisting our endeavors.

It is therefore ordered, that every township in this jurisdiction, after the Lord hath increased it to the number of fifty householders, shall then forthwith appoint one within their towne to teach all such children as shall resort to him to write and reade, whose wages shall be paid either by the parents or masters of such children, or by the inhabitants in generall, by way of supply, as the major part of those that order the prudentials of the towne shall appoint; provided, those that send their children be not oppressed by paying much more than they can have them taught for in other townes; and it is further ordered, that where any towne shall increase to the number of one hundred families or householders they shall set up a gramer schoole, the master thereof being able to instruct youth so farr as they may be fited for the university; provided, that if any towne neglect the performance hereof above one yeare, that every such towne shall pay 5s to the next schoole till they shall perform this order.

Although they appear trite when they are compared with present school laws, the Massachusetts laws of 1642 and

[1] As is seen in the quotation from the law, this school was called the *grammar school;* it was succeeded by the *academy,* which was succeeded by the *high school.*

1647 embodied the underlying principles of the American school system; the laws embodied those principles but were poorly enforced. They were the foundation of all succeeding laws, not only in Massachusetts, but in other states as well; they were the genesis of all school laws. In brief, they affirmed, at least by inference, that education was so essential to the well-being and progress of society that it could not be left entirely to the whims of the individual, nor entirely to the desires of the people of the community. In them the principle of state obligation and state sovereignty in education was born, and thereafter parents were to know that where education was concerned the children belonged to the state as well as to the parents. On one hand, the laws established the principle that for its progress and protection the state had the right and the obligation to decide the *kind and the amount of education* which should be demanded of each individual and of each community; on the other hand, they affirmed the principle that schools could be financed by *universal and compulsory taxation.* These principles have never been questioned by any major court in the land. They are part of the tradition of America. They are the keystone of our schools.

School-improvement laws. Following the legislation for the establishment of schools came legislation looking toward the better financing, the improvement, and the extension of schools. The Massachusetts law of 1647 was silent regarding any standard which the schools should meet; it merely required the establishment of schools, and they could be excellent, mediocre, or inferior. Laws requiring school standards were, however, soon enacted. In fact, since 1647 there has been scarcely a colonial or a state legislature which has not enacted legislation designed to maintain, to improve, or to extend the work of the schools. At first such legislation has been usually only *permissive,* that is, the legislatures have empowered local boards of education to take a certain step or steps. Many of these laws have never advanced beyond the permissive stage; however, many of them have proved so beneficial that they have been changed from permissive to *mandatory* and have been given state-

wide application. Of course, old laws have often been repealed, and new and better ones enacted in their place.

Legislation designed to improve the schools has been enacted on practically every aspect of school organization and administration. As the years have passed, this legislation has prescribed minimum qualifications for teachers and other school employees; it has set hygienic and safety standards for school plants; it has prescribed a minimum length of school term; it has determined many—perhaps too many—of the subjects of instruction; it has provided for the transportation of pupils who live more than a certain distance from school and has prescribed standards for the means of transportation; it has established regulations governing the selection of textbooks; it has made provision for kindergartens, libraries, playgrounds, and other services and conveniences. It has prescribed hundreds of similar standards and has constantly raised the standards.[1]

And the end of such legislation is not yet in sight. In fact, the end of it can never be reached because the schools will always have many defects that need correcting. The schools can never be made perfect because social changes require a changed school system. It is the function of legislation to promote, permit, and require that constant change within the school system which is needed to meet the needs of a constantly changing society. It is the opportunity and the obligation of school employees and all other friends of the schools to sponsor desirable changes in school legislation.

Compulsory-attendance laws. The first compulsory-school-attendance law was not enacted until 1852, which was more than 200 years after the enactment of the first compulsory-education law (1642). Just as Massachusetts has been the leader in innumerable educational movements which have come to be accepted by every state, so she was the first state to enact a compulsory-school-attendance law.[2]

In view of the early faith of the American people in

[1] This legislation is revised and published periodically, usually under the title of "School Laws," by the state department of education.

[2] A list of the educational movements which Massachusetts started is available in the *Annual Report* of the Massachusetts Department of Education, 1929, Part I, pp. 34–45.

education, it is difficult to understand why compulsory-school-attendance laws came so tardily. As has been said, the first compulsory-attendance law did not come until more than 200 years after the establishment of schools, and not until 1918 did every American state enact a compulsory-attendance law. One explanation for the tardiness in enacting such legislation is the fact that the people long deemed that they were not able to finance universal education which compulsory-attendance laws always prescribe. Such laws were not feasible until the income and the wealth of the people were sufficient to finance the obligations which the laws entailed. Another explanation for the tardiness is the fact that the American people, like the people of all democracies, have historically been somewhat individualistic; they have not relished legislation which would interfere with their personal rights; their faith in *rugged individualism* and their desire for *social cooperation* have been difficult to conciliate. In practice, however, they have tended to conciliate such conflicts in favor of social cooperation; they have progressively spurned—perhaps too much—the view of Thomas Jefferson, namely, "That government is best which governs least."

The legislatures came gradually to see that for local communities to be required to establish and to support schools without all children being required to attend either a public or a private school was incongruous and wasteful. Compulsory-school-attendance laws were the outcome of this conclusion—a conclusion fathered by the belief that education was so necessary to the welfare of the individual and of society that it could not be left to the whims of the child and his parents. As has been previously stated, Massachusetts enacted the first compulsory-attendance law in 1852. Vermont followed in 1867. The next states to enact such legislation were Michigan, New Hampshire, and Washington, all in 1871. By 1910, forty-two states had enacted such laws, and by 1918 all of the forty-eight states had provided such laws.[1]

[1] For the dates of the enactment of the first compulsory-attendance law in each state, the reader may consult U. S. Bureau of Education, *Bulletin*, 1914,

As would be expected, the early compulsory-attendance laws were very flimsy compared with present laws. The laws of many of the states were permissive only, leaving to the local community the decision of whether compulsory school attendance should be adopted. Moreover, in all states the age span for compulsory attendance was much less than it is today, and the number of weeks of school each year which the pupil was required to attend was only a small portion of the total school term. For example, the Massachusetts law of 1852 applied only to children between the ages of eight and fourteen and required these children to attend school for at least twelve weeks during the school term; the law further stipulated that six of those twelve weeks should be continuous. Still more, little or no provision was made for enforcing the early laws; as a rule, provisions for school-attendance officials came much later than compulsory-attendance provisions.

The tendency, though, has been to make the compulsory-attendance laws more rigid, to establish machinery for the enforcement of the laws, and to enforce the laws more rigidly. Several states now require school attendance until the age of eighteen unless the child has met certain educational standards or can claim exemption under other provisions of the law. Whereas the earlier laws placed emphasis on *age* standards by requiring everyone to attend school until a specified age, the recent tendency has been to place emphasis on *educational* standards by requiring everyone, except the mentally or physically incompetent, to complete a specified grade in school. Moreover, the recent laws make fewer provisions for exemptions than did the earlier laws.

These compulsory-attendance laws have had far-reaching effects. The most obvious effect has been greatly to increase school enrollment and attendance. A second effect has been for a better type of education to be demanded, because it has been realized that to require children to attend school without providing them with the best education possible was not meeting their highest purposes and interests. In the third place, it soon came to be realized that public

provision would have to be made for furnishing indigent children with textbooks, clothing, and other necessities of life, if they were to be expected to attend school the same as other children. In the fourth place and finally, it is

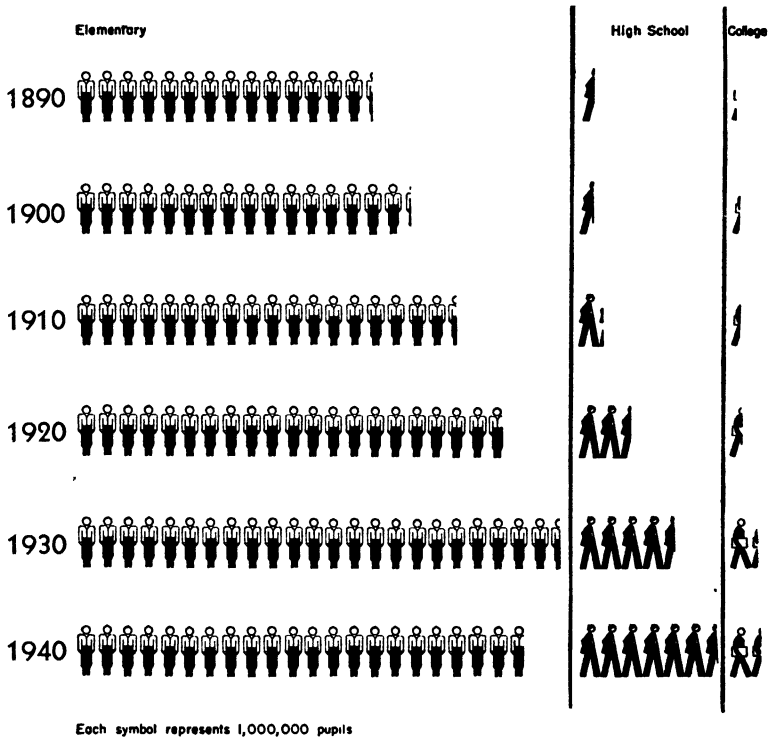

FIG. 3. The shift in distribution of school enrollments in the United States. (From *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association, Vol. 19, p. 227.)

gradually coming to be realized that to provide a school and to require the pupil to attend that school without insisting that the pupil be in the best physical condition possible to receive the instruction which the school provides is incongruous and wasteful; health supervision has been the outcome of this observation, and in consequence, as Chapter XII will show, it is being introduced into more and more school systems. Making all of these provisions has, of course, required larger school expenditures, as we shall presently see.

The increase in school enrollment. The people's estimate of the need for or the worth of any product or service is determined by the extent to which they use that product or service; hence, the people's estimate of the need for or the worth of education may be measured by the amount of school enrollment. What, then, has been the trend of school enrollment? In brief, the data show a phenomenal increase. If we go back only a few decades,[1] it is observed that since 1870 the total population of the United States has increased approximately three and one-quarter fold, whereas the enrollment in the public elementary and secondary schools has increased almost four fold. In 1870, only 57 per cent of the children five to seventeen years of age inclusive were enrolled in the public schools, whereas at present approximately 85 per cent are enrolled.

The increase in school enrollment has been particularly large during recent decades. Large increases have been noted especially in the kindergarten, in the secondary school, and in the college. The enrollment in public and private kindergartens increased from 31,227 in 1890 to approximately 700,000 at present; the enrollment in public and private elementary schools and kindergartens increased from 14,181,415 in 1890 to approximately 21,000,000 today; the enrollment in public and private secondary schools went from 357,813 in 1890 to approximately 7,000,000 today; and the enrollment in public and private colleges and normal schools leaped from 156,756 in 1890 to approximately 1,500,000 today.

There was an increase of approximately 13 per cent in elementary-school enrollment each decade from 1890 to 1930. Since 1930, however—probably because of the decline in the national birth rate—there has been a decrease of approximately 10 per cent in elementary-school enrollment. The percentage increase in enrollment in the sec-

[1] Educational statistics, especially on a nation-wide basis, before 1870 are meager and somewhat untrustworthy; hence, most studies of trends of educational development in the United States do not start before 1870. Statistics, by states, on almost every phase of education may be secured from the statistical reports of the U. S. Office of Education; these statistics are collected and published every two years.

ondary schools has been much larger than that in the elementary schools. The number of pupils in the secondary schools approximately doubled from 1890 to 1900, increased approximately 60 per cent from 1900 to 1910, and approximately doubled each decade from 1910 to 1930; the increase since 1930 has been slower, and in 1941 a decrease was shown for the first time. Likewise, college enrollment showed gigantic increases; the increase here has been approximately 50 per cent for each of the decades following 1890; of course, decreases were shown during World War I and World War II.

It is estimated that in the United States today there are 3,500,000 living college graduates, and 12,000,000 living high-school graduates who have not continued their education into and through college. There are approximately 30 college graduates out of every 1,000 persons twenty-one years of age and over; approximately 120 more persons out of each 1,000 have a high-school diploma but not a college diploma; thus, a total of 150 persons out of each 1,000 persons twenty-one years of age and over have advanced through high school or beyond. The majority of the people of the United States have obtained some high-school education. For the first time in history, the United States Census, in 1940, secured data on the amount of schooling of all persons 25 years old and over, in each state.[1]

These huge increases in school enrollment did not come by chance. They were planned for, and sometimes they were fought for. They represent a growing faith of the American people in education. Our people have increasingly attended school because of their belief that education, more than any other factor, tends to make people equal in opportunity; they have believed that through the proper kind and amount of education the individual may best realize his potentialities for himself and for society.

A second factor which has operated to increase school enrollment has been the enactment of compulsory-school-attendance laws in every state, and the tendency to make

[1] A summary of these data, by states, may be found in the *Journal of the National Education Association,* Vol. 31 (October, 1942), p. 206.

those laws more rigid. Likewise, many states have enacted child-labor laws which have directed thousands of children into school instead of into the mines, factories, shops, and other places of labor. Unquestionably, by far the majority of the American people today would attend school of their own free will and accord; there is, however, a small fringe which would probably not attend school in the absence of compulsory-attendance laws. It has always been observed that when a state enacted a compulsory-attendance law, or when it made its attendance law more rigid, school attendance increased somewhat. A somewhat similar effect has followed the enactment of child-labor legislation. Periods of unemployment bring more pupils to school, especially in the upper grades.

What is the outlook for further increases in school enrollment? Any future increases will probably not be as large as past increases; in fact, there is much evidence to indicate that henceforth we shall see decreases instead of increases. Decreases have already been observed in the elementary school, and they will soon be seen in the secondary school.[1] These decreases can be explained by the declining birth rate, which means that there will not be as many children to educate. In the United States there are today approximately two million fewer children below the age of five than there were in 1930. In 1913 the national birth rate was 25.8 per 1,000 inhabitants, whereas it is approximately 18 per 1,000 today; the recent downward trend appears to have been arrested, at least temporarily. In 1870 the number of children five to seventeen years of age, inclusive, was 31.3 per cent of the total population; the corresponding per cent for today is approximately 24. Because of the declining birth rate and the increasing length of life, we are rapidly becoming a nation of older people. As the problem of providing schools decreases, the problem of furnishing old-age pensions increases.

It is only in the secondary schools and in the colleges and universities that much increase in enrollment in the

[1] A small decrease in secondary-school enrollment occurred in 1941 and 1942, owing probably to the effects of World War II.

future may be expected. Increases in those levels will probably continue for a few years because of the tendency to regulate or to prohibit child labor and to raise the upper

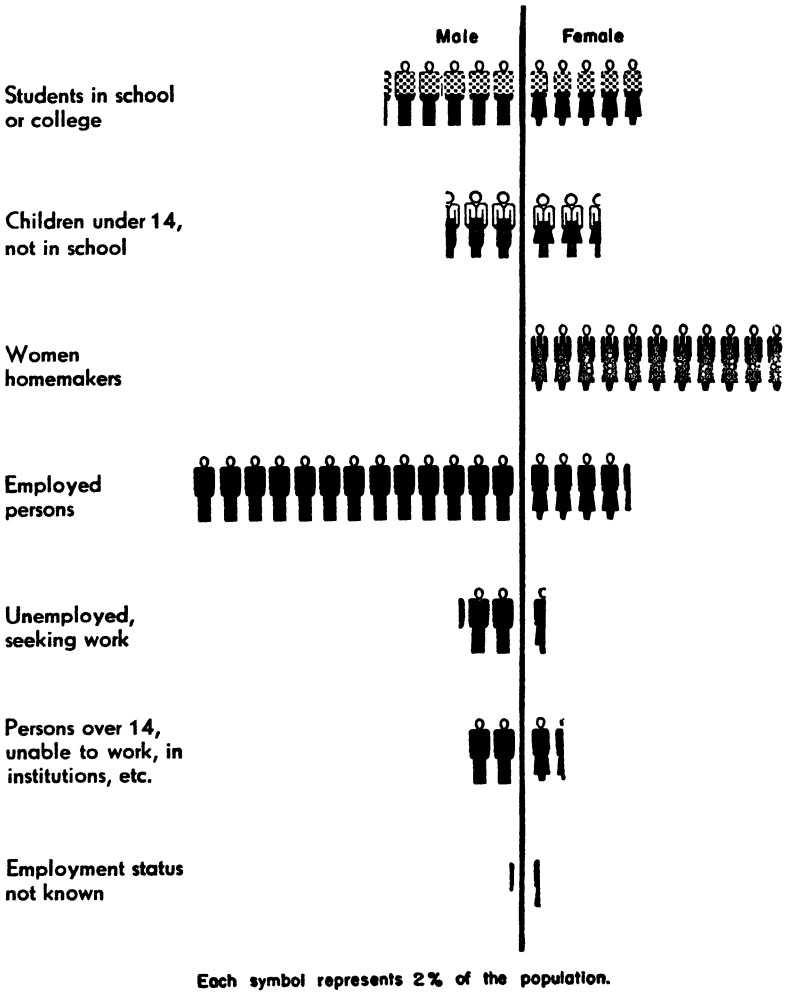

FIG. 4. Every fifth American is in school or college. (From *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association, Vol. 19, p. 226.)

age limit of the compulsory-attendance laws, and because of the ever-growing desire of the people for more education. Even in those levels the saturation point in enrollment is being rapidly approached; this is particularly true of

secondary-school enrollment. Many school systems have already reached this point, and in the future will not be compelled to meet the problems caused by rapidly mounting enrollments. Of course, the surface of adult education in evening classes has hardly been scratched, and future years will likely see a tremendous development in this area.

The increase in the length of the school term. The historic tendency to increase the length of the school term is another evidence of the increasing faith of our people in education. Since 1870, every decade, with the exception of the business-depression decade of 1870–1880, has seen an increase in the average length of the school term; from an average length of term of 132.2 days in 1870 there has been a gradual increase to approximately 172 days at present. Approximately one half of the states now require a school term of at least 180 days in every community.

The increase in school expenditures.[1] In no other way is the faith in education of our people better revealed than by their willingness to be taxed larger and larger amounts for education. When the people have been convinced that more money was needed by the schools, they have somehow found the money. They have not only provided the wherewithal for improving the existing program but have furnished additional money for extending the scope of the program. They have made certain that all persons who desired an education could have it either at public or at private expense, and the tendency has been to provide it at *public* expense. If they have occasionally regarded schools as expensive, they have always deemed ignorance to be much more expensive.

From the beginning, expenditures for schools in the United States have increased at a rapid rate, and since 1920 the rate of increase has been almost phenomenal. Whereas since 1870 the total population of the nation has increased approximately three and one quarter fold and school enrollment has increased approximately four fold, total expenditures for schools have increased more than thirty fold. The total expenditures for public elementary and secondary

[1] A detailed discussion of these increases is found in Chapter VI.

schools have gone from $63,397,000 in 1870 to approximately $2,400,000,000 today. On a per capita of population basis the expenditures have gone from $1.64 in 1870 to more than $17 today; on a per pupil in average daily-attendance basis the expenditures have increased from $15.25 in 1870 to approximately $100 today. Moreover, in terms of its wealth the nation has tended to finance its schools on an increasingly better scale; in 1870, $2.89 was expended for public elementary and secondary schools per $1,000 of wealth, whereas today approximately $12 per $1,000 of wealth is so expended.

Another view of the increasing expenditures for schools may be secured by observing the increase in the value of school property. The value of all property of the public elementary and secondary schools increased from $130,383,000 in 1870 to approximately $7,000,000,000 today. On the basis of the value of school property per pupil enrolled, there has been an increase from $19 in 1870 to approximately $300 today.

Private interest in education. Private interest in education has always been encouraged in the United States, and a large portion of the educational function of the nation has always been performed by private auspices. Of the approximately 31,000,000 pupils enrolled in all schools and colleges, approximately 3,500,000 are found in private schools and colleges, and of the approximately $3,500,000,000 expended by all types of schools and colleges and for all purposes, approximately $550,000,000 is expended by the private schools and colleges.

Consonant with the policy of encouraging private interest in education—a policy which began in 1638 with John Harvard's gift of approximately £780 and his library of 260 books to Harvard University—billions of dollars have been given by private individuals to education. As a rule, this money has been given to the private schools and colleges, but during recent years a tendency to make gifts to the public schools and colleges has been observed.[1] At pres-

[1] For a recent national survey of gifts to the public schools, see William R. Odell, *Gifts to the Public Schools*, Odell, 1932.

ent, the public and private schools and colleges possess endowments amounting to more than $2,000,000,000, and many millions are being added each year; owing, however, to higher taxes, large profits and big fortunes are gradually decreasing, and gifts to schools are also decreasing in amount. Student fees in private schools and colleges amount to more than $150,000,000 annually.

Perhaps, as has so often been said, we have been too much a nation of "dollar chasers," but if we have possessed too much of that trait, we have also been noted for our philanthropy. No doubt the philosophy of Andrew Carnegie, the world's greatest endower of libraries, has dominated many of our persons of wealth; Carnegie once said:

> This, then, is held to be the duty of the man of wealth; to set an example of modest, unostentatious living, shunning display or extravagance; to provide moderately for the legitimate wants of those dependent upon him; and, after doing so, to consider all surplus revenues which come to him simply as trust funds, which he is called upon to administer, and strictly bound as a matter of duty to administer in the manner which, in his judgment, is best calculated to provide the most beneficial results for the community.[1]

Private interest in education has also been shown by the creation of scores of private educational foundations and boards. Many of these agencies have endowments of millions of dollars, and the income from the endowments is used for the stimulation and the improvement of education. Among the larger and better known of these foundations and boards are the following:[2] Anna T. Jeanes Fund, Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Commonwealth Fund, General Education Board, John F. Slater Fund, Julius Rosenwald Fund, Milbank Memorial Fund, Payne Fund, Phelps-Stokes Fund, Rockefeller Foundation, and Russell Sage Foundation.

As further evidence of private interest in education, there should also be mentioned the church educational boards, the

[1] From *ibid.*, p. v. By permission of William R. Odell, publisher.

[2] A complete list of such foundations and boards, together with the names of their officers, may be secured from the *Educational Directory* which is published annually by the U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

international educational associations and foundations, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, the American Library Association, the state library associations, the standardizing and accrediting organizations (Association of American Universities, American Association of Junior Colleges, New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Western Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, American Association of Teachers Colleges, and Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools). In addition to the organizations just mentioned, there are hundreds of local, regional, state, and national educational, civic, and learned societies and associations; among the more important of these are the National Education Association, the Progressive Education Association, the American Federation of Teachers, the American Psychological Association, the state education associations, and the American Association for the Advancement of Science.[1]

Statements of leaders on the importance of education. That an institution is largely the lengthened shadow of an individual can be observed everywhere. What an industry is, what a school system is, what a government is—in brief, what any institution is—is largely determined by the leaders in thought and action, and especially by the leaders who have administrative responsibility. Great leaders are not satisfied merely to mantain the *status quo;* they cherish ideals for improving the *status quo,* and they vigorously attempt to reach those ideals. Great leaders have always been known as reformers.

From the time of the founding of the republic there has been scarcely a President of the United States or a governor of a state who has failed to make at least one statement on the importance of education. Similar statements have been made by myriad other leaders in our national life. All of

[1] For a complete list of these hundreds of educational organizations, the interested reader may consult the annual *Educational Directory* of the U. S. Office of Education.

these readers have regarded an educated citizenry as a *necessity* in a democracy. We shall quote first from a few of the Presidents.[1]

As early as 1787, Thomas Jefferson, who was later (1801–1809) to become our third President, said:

> Above all things, I hope the education of the common people will be attended to, convinced that on this good sense we may rely with the most security for the preservation of a due degree of liberty.

James Madison, our fourth President (1809–1817), had the following to say:

> A satisfactory plan for primary education is certainly a vital desideratum in our republic.
>
> A popular government without popular information or the means of acquiring it is but a prologue to a farce or a tragedy, or perhaps both. Knowledge will forever govern ignorance; and a people who mean to be their own governors must arm themselves with the power which knowledge gives.

Abraham Lincoln, our sixteenth President (1861–1865), attended school only a few weeks and experienced, as have few other persons, the difficulties of climbing up from poverty and ignorance. He was always a warm friend of education. His earliest as well as one of his most forceful pronouncements on education appeared in a letter in the *Sangamon* (Illinois) *Journal,* of March 15, 1832, at which time he was a candidate for the Illinois General Assembly. The letter follows:

> To the People of Sangamo(n) County:
>
> Fellow Citizens: Having become a candidate for the honorable office of one of your Representatives in the next General Assembly of this State, in accordance with an established custom and the principles of true republicanism, it becomes my duty to make known to you, the people whom I propose to represent—my sentiments with regard to local affairs. . . .
>
> Upon the subject of education, not presuming to dictate any plan or system respecting it, I can only say that I view it as the most important subject which we as a people can be engaged in. That every

[1] A more complete collection of such quotations is found in *Expressions on Education by Builders of American Democracy,* U. S. Office of Education, *Bulletin,* 1940, No. 10, pp. 1–90.

man may receive at least a moderate education, and thereby be enabled to read the histories of his own and other countries, by which he may duly appreciate the value of our free institutions, appears to be an object of vital importance, even on this account alone, to say nothing of the advantages and satisfaction to be derived from all being able to read the Scriptures and other works, both of a religious and moral nature, for themselves. For my part, I desire to see the time when education, and by its means, morality, sobriety, enterprise, and industry, shall become much more general than at present, and should be gratified to have it in my power to contribute something to the advancement of any measure which might have a tendency to accelerate the happy period.

A. LINCOLN

As Chapters III and VI will show in detail, in this country providing for education has always been a state and territorial function rather than a federal prerogative. In consequence, the governors of our states and territories have had a very real responsibility for seeing that provision was made for education. With few exceptions [1] the governors have been ardent supporters of education. This attitude could be shown by hundreds of quotations from their addresses and writings, but a few quotations will suffice.

De Witt Clinton, who was for nine years (1817–1823 and 1825–1828) Governor of New York, in 1826 made, in a message as governor, the following statement in defense of the schools established in that state:

The first duty of government, and the surest evidence of good government, is the encouragement of education. A general diffusion of knowledge is a precursor and protector of republican institutions, and in it we must confide as the conservative power that will watch over our liberties and guard them against fraud, intrigue, corruption, and violence. I consider the system of our common schools as the palladium of our freedom, for no reasonable apprehension can be entertained of its subversion as long as the great body of the people are enlightened by education.

[1] Probably the most famous exception was William Berkeley, who was governor of colonial Virginia from 1641 to 1652 and again from 1660 to 1676. In 1671 Governor Berkeley said, "But I thank God there are no free schools and printing, and I hope we shall not have them these hundred years, for learning has brought disobedience and heresy and sects into this world and printing has divulged them and libels against the best government. God keep us from Both."

Although he attended and has always been friendly toward parochial schools, former Governor Alfred E. Smith of New York, who was the candidate of the Democratic Party for President in 1928, has also always been friendly toward the public schools. In a recent statement, he said:

Whatever may be the exigencies, whatever may be the reasons for drastic reductions in appropriations, one thing must not happen. There must be no curtailment of educational facilities. The school systems for the education of our children in every state must be kept up to 100 per cent efficiency. A state can afford to lose time on the construction of a road, a bridge, or a building and by speeding up construction at a later time possibly catch up, but education must be continuous.

Statements as cogent as those which have just been quoted from presidents and governors have been made by thousands of other leaders in the political, economic, educational, social, and religious life of the nation. Space will permit quotations from but a few of these leaders.

In 1835, a proposal was made in the Pennsylvania legislature to repeal the Free School Law of 1834, and Thaddeus Stevens, then a member of the legislature, defended that law in the following words:

If an elective Republic is to endure for any length of time, every elector must have sufficient information not only to accumulate wealth and take care of his pecuniary concerns, but to direct wisely the legislature, the ambassadors, and the Executive of the Nation—for some part of all these things, some agency in approving or disapproving of them, falls to every freeman. If, then, the permanency of our Government depends upon such knowledge, it is the duty of Government to see that the means of information be diffused to every citizen. This is a sufficient answer to those who deem education a private and not a public duty—who argue that they are willing to educate their own children but not their neighbor's children.

In an address delivered at Madison, Indiana, in 1837, Daniel Webster, eminent statesman and lawyer, said:

Education, to accomplish the ends of good government, should be universally diffused. Open the doors of the schoolhouses to all the children in the land. Let no man have the excuse of poverty for not

educating his offspring. Place the means of education within his reach, and if he remain in ignorance, be it his own reproach. . . . On the diffusion of education among the people rests the preservation and perpetuation of our free institutions.

Thousands of articles and editorials on the importance of education have been published in the newspapers and the magazines. Because of the universal interest in it, education has always been one of the most popular subjects to editorialize upon. These articles and editorials have appeared especially during crises such as wars and serious business depressions. Although practically all of these literary contributions have praised the efficiency with which the schools were being managed and have "preached" the importance of education, some of them have been adversely critical of the purposes, procedures, and accomplishments of the schools. Many of them have been responsible for improvements in the schools.

Statements of organizations on the importance of education. Certain organizations have always been known as warm supporters of education. This, of course, has always been true of organizations of school officials and employees. It has usually been true also of labor organizations. During recent years it has become increasingly true of dozens of other organizations such as the American Legion, the General Federation of Women's Clubs, the National League of Women Voters, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, and the service clubs such as Rotary and Kiwanis. At countless times and in innumerable ways these organizations have affirmed their faith in the importance of education, and they have done much to implement that faith. They are always ready to help the schools.

Statements of law on the importance of education. The laws of a country, especially of a democracy such as ours, evince the crystallization of the sentiments of the people on public issues and problems. Attention has already been called to the fact that laws on education came almost immediately after the first settlements were made. As early as 1642 and 1647, Massachusetts enacted statutes requiring certain educational standards of every individual and

every community. Since those dates, every state has enacted hundreds of statutes calculated to secure progressively higher educational standards. These statutes may be regarded as evidence of the early and ever-growing faith of the people in education.

By the close of the eighteenth century the sentiment for education had become so general that the states and territories began to make pronouncements on the importance, scope, and financing of education in their fundamental laws, that is, their constitutions. The people were impelled to write their sentiments on education into their constitutions because they could then be more certain that the sentiments would not be forgotten or violated by ephemeral legislatures. North Carolina and Pennsylvania made such pronouncements in 1776; Vermont and Georgia, in 1777; and Massachusetts, in 1780. Of these pronouncements that of the Massachusetts constitution was unquestionably the strongest; it directed "the legislatures and magistrates" to encourage education in all types of schools, including the "university at Cambridge" (Harvard). The complete pronouncement of Massachusetts is quoted herewith:

> Wisdom and knowledge, as well as virtue, diffused generally among the body of the people, being necessary for the preservation of their rights and liberties; and as these depend on spreading the opportunities and advantages of education in the various parts of the country, and among the different orders of the people, it shall be the duty of the legislatures and magistrates, in all future periods of this Commonwealth, to cherish the interests of literature and the sciences, and all seminaries of them; especially the university at Cambridge, public schools, and grammar schools in the towns; to encourage private societies and public institutions, by rewards and immunities, for the promotion of agriculture, arts, sciences, commerce, trades, manufactures, and a natural history of the country; to countenance and inculcate the principles of humanity and frugality, benevolence, public and private charity, industry and frugality, honesty and punctuality in their dealings; sincerity, good humor, and all social affections and generous sentiments among the people.

The Massachusetts pronouncement was soon imitated by other states when they came to frame new constitutions or to amend their old ones. For example, the similarity be-

tween the treatment of education in the Ordinance of 1787 [1] and the Massachusetts pronouncement of 1780 lends credence to the theory of imitation. In providing for the government of the territory lying north of the Ohio River, that is, the Northwest Territory, Congress affirmed that "Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged" in the states to be formed from this territory.

After the opening of the nineteenth century, pronouncements on education came to be rapidly written into the state and territorial constitutions, and by the middle of that century they were universal. Moreover, the tendency has been to make these pronouncements stronger as new constitutions have been adopted or old ones amended. The present constitutions almost always affirm the importance of education, and they mandate the legislatures to make provision for the establishment and the financial support of a system of public schools extending from the elementary school through the university. The pronouncements of the Ohio Constitution may be regarded as typical and are quoted herewith:

Article I, Section 7. . . . Religion, morality, and knowledge, however, being essential to good government, it shall be the duty of the general assembly to pass suitable laws to protect every religious denomination in the peaceable enjoyment of its mode of public worship, and to encourage schools and the means of instruction.

Article VI, Section 1. The principal of all funds, arising from the sale, or other disposition of lands, or other property, granted or entrusted to this state for educational or religious purposes shall forever be preserved inviolate, and undiminished; and, the income arising therefrom, shall be faithfully applied to the specific objects of the original grants, or appropriations.

Article VI, Section 2. The general assembly shall make such provisions, by taxation, or otherwise, as, with the income arising from the school trust fund, will secure a thorough and efficient system of common schools throughout the state; but no religious or other sect, or sects, shall ever have any exclusive right to, or control of, any part of the school funds of this state.

[1] This was the ordinance for the government of the Northwest Territory, including today the states of Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Michigan, Wisconsin, and that part of Minnesota which is east of the Mississippi River.

In the last analysis the courts make the laws. As former Chief Justice Hughes of the United States Supreme Court once said, "our courts are super legislatures." Legislative bodies *enact* statutes, but the courts *interpret* those statutes and have the power to declare any statute to be unconstitutional. In hundreds of decisions the courts have affirmed the importance of education; moreover, they have usually given a liberal interpretation to the statutes as they affect the powers and the duties of school officials. As a rule, school officials have been permitted by the courts to take any steps for the improvement of education, which, of course, the statutes or constitution of the state did not specifically prohibit.

One of the most famous of the court decisions is that of the supreme court of Michigan on the so-called *Kalamazoo case*. This decision was so trenchant and on such a fundamental aspect of education that it has influenced subsequent court decisions and the development of education down to the present time. Briefly, the decision affirmed that a board of education and the people were not limited in their determination of what the scope of education should be. The case grew out of a decision in 1872 of the board of education of the city of Kalamazoo to establish a high school and to employ a superintendent of schools. A citizen by the name of Stuart brought suit to prevent the collection of taxes for the purposes mentioned, because he claimed that the power of the board to establish "common schools" did not include the power to establish high schools. The case was carried to the Supreme Court of the state, and Chief Justice Thomas M. Cooley wrote in 1874 the decision of the court. The concluding paragraphs of the decision were as follows:

If these facts do not demonstrate clearly and conclusively a general state policy, beginning in 1817 and continuing until after the adoption of the present state constitution, in the direction of free schools in which education, and at their option the elements of classical education, might be brought within the reach of all the children of the State, then, as it seems to us, nothing can demonstrate it. We might follow the subject further and show that the subsequent legislation has all concurred with this policy, but it would be a waste of time

and labor. We content ourselves with the statement that neither in our state policy, in our constitution, nor in our laws, do we find the primary school districts restricted in the branches of knowledge which their officers may cause to be taught, or the grade of instruction that may be given, if their voters consent in regular form to bear the expense and raise the taxes for the purpose.

Having reached this conclusion, we shall spend no time upon the objection that the district in question had no authority to appoint a superintendent of schools, and that the duties of the superintendency should be performed by the district board. We think the power to make the appointment was incident to the full control which by law the board had over the schools of the district, and that the board and the people of the district have been wisely left by the legislature to follow their own judgment in the premises.[1]

As has already been stated, there have been hundreds of court pronouncements on the importance of education. The following, from the Supreme Court of Tennessee, may be regarded as typical:

We are of the opinion that the legislature, under the constitutional provision, may as well establish a uniform system of schools and a uniform administration of them, as it may establish a uniform system of criminal laws and of courts to execute them. The object of the criminal law is, by punishment, to deter others from the commission of crimes, and thus preserve the peace, morals, good order, and well-being of society; and the object of the public-school system is to prevent crime by educating the people, and thus, by providing and securing a higher state of intelligence and morals, conserve the peace, good order, and well-being of society. The prevention of crime, and preservation of good order and peace, is the highest exercise of the police power of the state, whether done by punishing offenders or educating the children.

BATTLES OVER THE SCHOOLS

A list of the battles. The preceding discussion has essayed to give evidences of the early and the continuing faith in education of the people of the United States. Although this faith has always triumphed, it has had to undergo many major battles and much guerilla warfare. As in all social movements, it has often had to combat conservatism, radi-

[1] Charles E. Stuart, *et al. vs.* School District No. 1 of the Village of Kalamazoo, 30 Michigan, p. 69.

calism, penuriousness, selfishness, and similar opposition. And many of its forward-looking beliefs, which later came to be universally adopted, were held in the beginning by only a small minority—often by only "a minority of one." The major battles which have been, or are being, fought over the support, the control, and the extension of the schools may be described as follows:

1. The battle for compulsory education, compulsory schools, and compulsory school attendance. (This battle has been fought and largely won; however, there is still much controversy, especially in a few states, over the extension of compulsory school attendance.)
2. The battle for tax support of schools and for schools that were entirely free. (This battle has been won, although there is still much controversy over the amount of tax support which should be given and over the type of tax to be used.)
3. The battle for state control and supervision of the schools. (The principle of state control and supervision has been generally accepted, but there is still much controversy over the amount and the type of control and supervision which the state should exercise.)
4. The battle to eliminate sectarianism. (The teaching of sectarianism in the public schools and the use of public funds for the support of private and sectarian schools are everywhere prohibited by state constitutions; however, a few states have recently made provisions for free textbooks and free transportation for pupils in private and sectarian schools.)
5. The battle to extend the school system, and especially to make it include secondary schools, colleges, and universities. (This battle has been generally won, although many school districts have not yet made provision for secondary-school advantages; moreover, provisions for junior colleges are still very meager.)
6. The battle for a reasonable amount of state aid for the elementary and secondary schools. (This is probably the major battle of today; it has been won in most of the states, but is still being fought in a few of the states.)
7. The battle for federal aid of elementary and secondary schools. (This battle has been in progress for approximately two decades, but as yet no regular federal subsidies are given.)
8. The battle for a program of vocational education. (Since 1917, the federal government has subsidized vocational departments in the public schools; vocational education should, however, be much further developed.)

Argumentative weapons used. Cubberley has given an interesting description of the battle for public tax-supported

schools. He has listed the opposing forces in the battle, the sectors on which the battle was fought, and the arguments which the opposing forces employed.[1] Because of their historical interest, and especially because many of the arguments are still being used, we are reproducing them (arguments) herewith:

I. *Arguments for public tax-supported schools.*

1. That education tends to prevent pauperism and crime.
2. That education tends to reduce poverty and distress.
3. That education increases production, and eliminates wrong ideas as to the distribution of wealth.
4. That a common state school, equally open to all, would prevent that class differentiation so dangerous in a Republic.
5. That the old church and private school education had proved utterly inadequate to meet the needs of a changed society.
6. That a system of religious schools is impossible in such a mixed nation as our own.
7. That the pauper-school idea is against the best interests of society, inimical to public welfare, and a constant offense to the poor, many of whom will not send their children because of the stigma attached to such schools.
8. That education as to one's civic duties is a necessity for the intelligent exercise of suffrage, and for the preservation of republican institutions.
9. That the increase of foreign immigration (which became quite noticeable after 1825, and attained large proportions after 1845) is a menace to our free institutions, and that these new elements can be best assimilated in a system of publicly supported and publicly directed common schools.
10. That the free and general education of all children at public expense is the natural right of all children in a Republic.
11. That the social, moral, political, and industrial benefits to be derived from the general education of all compensate many times over for its cost.
12. That a state which has the right to hang has the right to educate.
13. That the taking over of education by the State is not based on considerations of economy, but is the exercise of the State's inherent right to self-preservation and improvement.
14. That only a system of state-controlled schools can be free to teach whatever the welfare of the State may demand.

[1] For this description, see Ellwood P. Cubberley, *Public Education in the United States,* Houghton Mifflin, 1934, Chs. V, VI, and VII.

II. *Arguments against public tax-supported schools.*

1. Impractical, visionary, and "too advanced" legislation.
2. Will make education too common, and will educate people out of their proper position in society.
3. Would not benefit the masses, who are already as well cared for as they deserve.
4. Would tend to break down long-established and very desirable social barriers.
5. Would injure private and parochial schools in which much money has been put and "vested rights" established.
6. Fear of the churches that state schools might injure their church progress and welfare.
7. Fear of the non-English speaking classes that state schools might supplant instruction in their languages.
8. The "conscientious objector" claimed that the State had no right to interfere between a parent and his child in the matter of education.
9. That those having no children to be educated should not be taxed for schools.
10. That taking a man's property to educate his neighbor's child is no more defensible than taking a man's plow to plow his neighbor's field.
11. That the State may be justified in taxing to defend the liberties of the people, but not to support their benevolences.
12. That the industrious would be taxed to educate the indolent.
13. That taxes would be so increased that no state could long meet such a lavish drain on its resources.
14. That there was priestcraft in the scheme, the purpose being first to establish a State School, and then a State Church.[1]

CONTRASTS WITH OTHER COUNTRIES

The historic faith in education of the American people has been responsible for their developing the best school system in the world. In no other country is so large a percentage of the population enrolled in school, and in no other country are the educational offerings equal to ours.[2] Although it has been rapidly increasing, the faith in educa-

[1] *Ibid.*, pp. 165–166. By permission of Houghton Mifflin Company, publishers.

[2] Whereas approximately 70 per cent of the American youth of secondary-school age are enrolled in a secondary school, in such highly developed countries as England, France, and Germany, only 15 to 20 per cent are enrolled in a secondary school.

tion in no foreign country is yet nearly as strong as in this country. Among the explanations for America's greater faith in education compared with foreign countries are the following:

1. Our early settlers were better educated than the average person of those times, and it was only natural for them to desire excellent educational advantages for their children.
2. Our form of government has always been democratic as contrasted with monarchial and totalitarian forms of government found in many foreign countries. In a democracy the people are sovereign, hence education is more necessary in a democracy.
3. Our people have been blessed with an abundance of natural resources and have fared well in an economic way, and this has made possible the financing of a rapidly expanding school program.

American schools truly public. Whereas the schools of most foreign countries are *caste* schools, the schools of the United States are *truly public* and are for all classes—rich and poor alike. In the United States any boy or girl who has completed the secondary school then may enter and complete the college, and finally may enter and pursue graduate work in the university; what is of even greater moment, any boy or girl may have these advantages without any expenditure for tuition except the small amount in the college and university. Our educational opportunity, which is provided for every boy and girl alike, has been described as "the educational ladder"; any boy or girl who has the intellectual ability may step on its first rung and climb to the top. Of course, some of our states provide greater equality of educational opportunity than others.

In the schools of most foreign countries, on the contrary, there are two systems of schools, and they differ widely in purpose and in scope. One system is for the common people, and the other is for the aristocracy. In brief, whereas America has only one "educational ladder," most foreign countries have *two* "educational ladders." One of these two ladders is "short" and is available only to the common people; the other is longer and more expensively constructed and can be used only by the aristocracy.

American secondary and higher education free. Whereas in foreign countries only elementary-school education is

free, in this country all levels of education—elementary, secondary, and higher—are free.[1] The United States has the only secondary schools and the only colleges and univer-

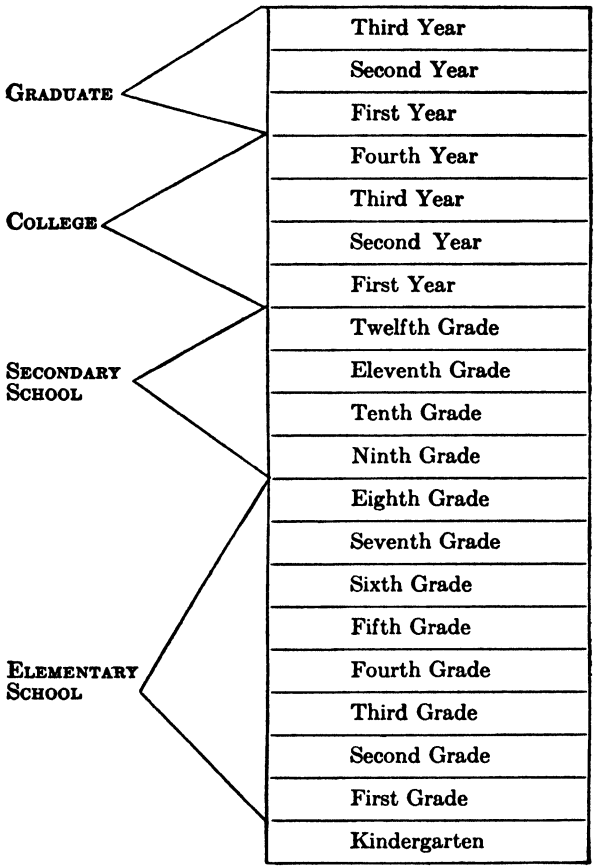

FIG. 5. The "educational ladder" in the schools of the United States. (As Chapter IV will show, certain changes in the divisions of this ladder are in the process of making.)

sities that are entirely or chiefly free. The theory which guides our practice of making secondary and higher education free is that the welfare and progress of the nation

[1] Of course, free textbooks and other educational supplies are not always provided, and some tuition is usually required in the colleges and universities. Moreover, students differ greatly in their ability to furnish their living expenses and many other necessary expenses.

can be best assured by raising the educational level of the whole population. The theory underlying foreign practice

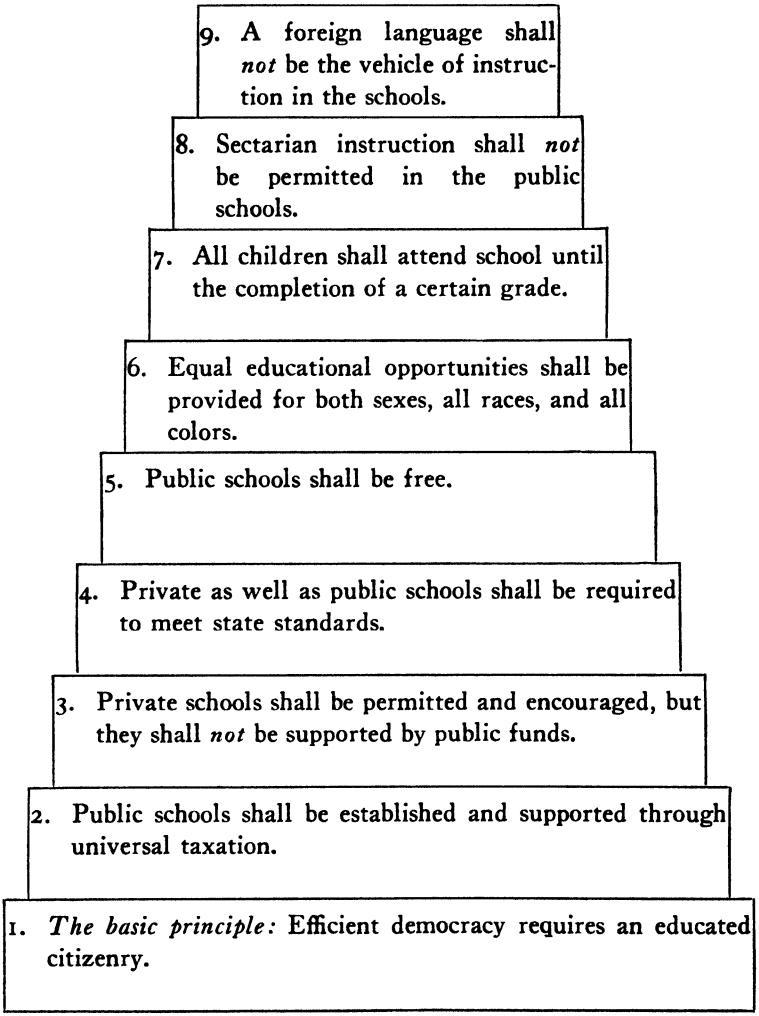

FIG. 6. The fundamental principles of the school system of the United States. All of these principles have been crystallized into the laws of every, or practically every, state.

is that to make secondary and higher education free is wasteful, because under such a plan many persons avail themselves of free secondary and higher education who cannot profit from it. In other words, the foreign systems

of secondary and higher education are calculated to select and to train leaders, whereas our system is designed to raise the educational level of the whole population in the expectation that leaders will emerge. To make more certain that poor boys of large promise reach the proper educational level—and secondary and higher education is usually available in foreign countries only to the boys—most foreign countries now provide scholarships for such boys.

American education for both sexes. In the United States, higher education is available on the same basis to girls as to boys. The enrollment of girls in the colleges and universities of the United States now amounts to approximately 700,000, whereas the enrollment of boys is approximately 800,000. The belief has gradually come to be accepted in this country that girls have as much right to and need for higher education as boys, and that through the education of both, the welfare and progress of society can be made more certain. All of this is in strange contrast with foreign practice which usually frowns upon higher education for girls. It should be mentioned, though, that during recent years more and more foreign countries have increased the opportunities of girls for higher education.

IN RETROSPECT AND IN PROSPECT

In retrospect. In this chapter the historic faith in education of the American people has been noted, and the unfolding of that faith in the phenomenal growth of the school system has been glimpsed. In every sense the story of this growth constitutes one of the wonder stories of American history; in fact, it constitutes one of the wonder stories of all times and of all lands because no other country has ever attempted to provide universal education to the extent which the United States is providing it.

From small beginnings, formal education, as provided by the schools, has developed until it has become one of the nation's largest enterprises, public or private. It represents a capital investment in plant of more than $10,000,000,000, and only six industries—manufacturing, agriculture, rail-

roads, oil, electricity, and lumber—have larger capital investments. It is managed by more than a million teachers and tens of thousands of other employees such as school administrators, supervisors, attendance officials, nurses, librarians, janitors, and bus drivers. In only seven occupa-

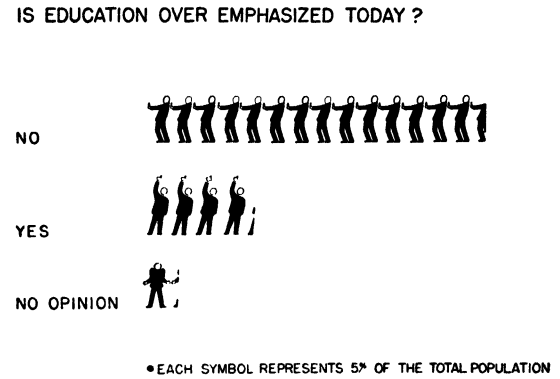

FIG. 7. Vote of a random sampling of the people of the United States on whether education is overemphasized today. (From *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association, Vol. 18, p. 194.)

tions—agriculture, construction, manufacturing, transportation, trade and distribution, service industries, and textiles—are more persons employed. But greater than all these facts is the fact that approximately 31,000,000 pupils are enrolled in all public and private schools and colleges. In brief, almost one fourth of the American people now spend the majority of their waking hours in school, either as pupils or as employees. And millions of adults also attend school on one or more evenings each week.

This rapid growth of the schools could hardly have happened without many "growing pains"; it could scarcely have taken place without many errors and inefficiencies. In extenuation of these shortcomings it should be remembered that school officials have been compelled to work with lightninglike speed to provide a school plant, school employees, and other facilities which would serve the increasing hordes of pupils. School officials have faced a practical situation—"a condition, not a theory." Although they

have failed to do many things and have made many mistakes, the really surprising phenomenon is that they have been able to accomplish as much as they have. They are more deserving of praise than of condemnation.

What have the schools accomplished to justify the faith of the people in them? To what extent have they con-

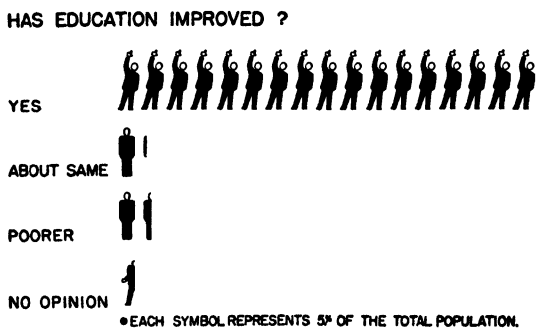

FIG. 8. Vote of a random sampling of the people of the United States on whether education has improved. (From *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association, Vol. 18, p. 195.)

tributed to the realization of the fundamental ideal of the people, namely, the improvement of individual and social well-being? This question is always pertinent, but it is difficult to answer because of the impossibility of separating the influence of the school from the influence of other educational forces such as the home, the church, the theater, the radio, the newspaper, the library, and social and other contacts. Certain it is that much progress has been made in improving individual and social well-being, and it is reasonable to infer that the schools have been a vital force in stimulating this progress. This progress can be discerned even through the clouds of economic stress, internal turmoil, and international conflict. These clouds would be much more black without the excellent work which the schools have done; moreover, the clouds can only be banished through *better* work of the schools and the other agencies of education. Some of the changes which the schools have helped to bring in American life are the following:

1. Since 1900, the death rate per inhabitant has decreased approximately one third and life expectancy has increased approximately one fifth.

2. Illiteracy is now only one third as frequent as it was in 1900. (Although great progress has been made in the elimination of illiteracy and in increasing the amount of education, the 1940 United States Census reports that of each 100 persons 25 years old and over in the United States, four have had no formal schooling, while 10 others have had only four years or less of formal schooling.)

3. Our total national wealth has increased more than four fold since 1900.

4. The per inhabitant circulation of library books has increased several fold since 1900.

5. The average worker now produces and consumes much more than his parents and grandparents. Moreover, his standard of living is much higher, and he has much more time for leisure. Education has enabled him to produce machines which now do most of his work. (Of course, the development of machines has caused large dislocations in the demand for labor, and in slack times for industry and agriculture millions of workers are unemployed; the problem of unemployment, therefore, has become especially large for the government, the individual, the schools, and all social agencies.)

In prospect. As we survey the past and peer into the future, no evidence is seen that the historic faith of the American people in education is likely to diminish. On the contrary, there is much evidence that education will continue to be regarded as the bulwark of an efficient democracy, as the best guarantee of a progressing society, and as an open-sesame to the individual for the realization of his potentialities. The people will probably continue to demand better, more free, and more equal schools and to increase, if necessary, their financial support for such schools. Before increasing their financial support, however, the people will increasingly exhibit a "show me" attitude, especially because of the increasingly higher taxes for old-age pensions, relief, wars, defense, and other functions of government; paying for World War II will place a terrific strain upon the public purse for many years and make funds for all other public purposes more difficult to secure. Better schools will have to be fought for in the future as in the past. And better schools will be needed to help meet the problems caused by the tragedies of World War II.

To meet the demand for better schools should be easier, in certain regards, in the future than it has been, because, as has been previously noted, the tide of day-school enrollment will probably fall rather than rise. The period of rapid expansion in school plant, in employees, and in other facilities has probably run its course. School officials and employees will henceforth be able to spend more time on improving the *quality* of education than they have in the past; they can be more concerned with offering the best education rather than with merely caring for the ever-increasing hordes of pupils; they can emphasize "quality production" rather than "quantity output." They can become more interested in the improvement of aims, of subject matter, and of methods; they can have more time to study the needs of each pupil and of the community; they can become more concerned with the selection of better qualified teachers and other employees and with providing a better plant; they can develop the adult-education program of the school. In brief, they can now become engrossed with the task of improving every feature of the school. This is their obligation as well as their opportunity. If this obligation is fully met, our nation will be transformed, and for the first time in history a nation will be thoroughly civilized and be able not only to meet its own problems but to help other nations meet theirs.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Is education more necessary in a democratic form of government than in a totalitarian form? Why or why not?

2. Do you believe that America's faith in education has been based too much on an economic and materialistic basis rather than on a social basis? Why or why not? Are the public schools supported primarily to advance the interests of the individual or of those of society? Explain.

3. What effect has the tendency to decrease the length of the working day had on the people's faith in education and on the type of education to be provided? Discuss also the effect of other social and economic changes upon education.

4. Do persons who have attended private schools have as much faith in public education as they should have? Discuss. What attitude should the state take toward private schools? Should such

schools be abolished, should they be permitted to exist provided they meet certain state standards, or should they be permitted to operate without any state regulations? Why or why not?

5. Account for certain communities and certain states having less faith in education than other communities and states.

6. How do you explain the fact that labor organizations have always been warm supporters of public schools? What other groups and organizations are also warm supporters of public schools? What groups and organizations are lukewarm toward public schools? Account for the lukewarmness.

7. Do you discern any evidence that the American people are drifting away from their historic faith in free, public schools? Discuss.

8. Should compulsory-school-attendance laws be made more rigid than they are today? Why or why not? What should be the effect on unemployment and economic conditions of raising the upper limits of the compulsory-school-attendance laws?

9. What is the outlook for further increases in school enrollment in the elementary school, in the secondary school, and in the college and university? Do you predict that adult evening classes will continue their rapid development? Why?

10. What advantages, if any, are there in comparing our schools with those of foreign countries? When our practices are different from those of other countries, does that prove that our practices are wrong? Explain. Discuss pro and con our policy and the policy of foreign countries with reference to (*a*) caste schools versus truly public schools, (*b*) making secondary and higher education free, and (*c*) providing higher education for girls as well as for boys.

11. Do you anticipate that our schools and those of foreign countries will become more similar or more dissimilar? Why?

12. Does education accomplish the following things: decrease crime, secure more competent public officials, raise the standard of living of the people, make the people more productive in economics and in art, and make the people more happy?

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NOTE: Since this book aims to present not only facts but conflicting points of view, all of the lists of Selected References have been selected with that fundamental aim in mind. The annotation, or brief description, which follows each reference, indicates the general content of the reference and the point of view from which the reference is written. The attempt has been made to select the best and the most recent references on each topic, but no attempt has been made to give a complete bibliography on any topic.

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Chapter II

THE PHILOSOPHY AND AIMS OF DEMOCRACY'S SCHOOLS [1]

AMERICA'S PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION

Although it was not thus labeled, the preceding chapter on "America's Historic Faith in Education" was essentially a discussion of America's philosophy of education or of what the American philosophy of life meant for education. The heart of that philosophy was seen to be an abiding faith in education—a faith that education is necessary for the realization of the potentialities of the individual and for the stability and progress of society. Posited upon and as evidences of that faith were seen to be several universal, and many other almost universal, educational practices. The most worthy and frequently found of these practices is that of providing at public expense an education from the kindergarten through the university for everyone who is capable and desirous of receiving it.

America unquestionably has a philosophy of education, which is usually called the *democratic philosophy of education.* There are, however, as we shall see later, innumerable ways of interpreting what the democratic philosophy is. America's philosophy of education does not have the "oneness" possessed by that of most foreign countries, even when the countries profess to follow the democratic philosophy the same as America. This difference in philosophy of education is accounted for by the difference in the relation of the school system to general government. In practically all foreign countries there is a national school system,

[1] Many college instructors, especially of first-year students, have reported to the author that they prefer to have their students read this chapter in connection with Part VI of the book rather than here.

and there is only *one* recognized philosophy of education, that formulated by the government functionaries in charge of the educational program. In the United States, on the contrary, education has always been a function of the states and the territories rather than a function of the federal government. Since each state and territory are autonomous in education, and since each has delegated to the separate school districts a large amount of freedom in determining the educational program, much experimentation with various brands of the democratic philosophy has been conducted.

Since the nature and the importance of educational philosophy do not seem to be sufficiently realized by most educational employees and by the general public, it will be the purpose of this chapter to direct attention to those matters and especially to the heart of a philosophy of education, namely, the fundamental aims of education. The chapter will first defend the thesis that a prime requisite for every educational employee is a good philosophy. Before defending this thesis, though, it seems desirable to define a few terms. What is the nature of philosophy? Is philosophy, as many persons apparently believe, something of interest to only a few "long-haired pedants"? Is it a mysterious something beyond the ken of ordinary mortals? Does it have any practical value?

THE NATURE AND IMPORTANCE OF PHILOSOPHY

The nature of philosophy. Philosophy, at least in a rudimentary form, is one of the oldest as well as one of the most universal activities of man. It originated as soon as man started to reflect about his status to the end that he might secure greater security and happiness. Of course, man took this action early in his evolution; he took it as soon as he started to think and to plan. Adam, the first man, took it, and we may therefore call him the world's first philosopher, and by the same token Eve, the first woman, was the world's second philosopher. Adam and Eve possessed a philosophy, although it was very frag-

mentary and elementary and was soon adjudged by the angels to be askew and unholy.

There have always been various views of the purpose, the content, and the method of philosophy. And there have always been innumerable and conflicting philosophies. Just as Adam's philosophy was in conflict with that of Eve, at least until Eve won the conflict, so at all succeeding periods of history, there have been conflicting philosophies—conflicting in purpose, in content, and in method. These conflicting philosophies have often caused schisms in society; they have been responsible for religious crusades; they have led to wars, as witness World War II. William H. Burton has given the following thumbnail sketch of the evolution of these various views of philosophy from the earliest times to the present:

Purposes: (*a*) To discover knowledge; (*b*) to discover the essential nature of things; (*c*) to discover and present an explanation of the universe in terms of one or more unifying principles; (*d*) to present a guide to conduct; (*e*) to solve problems of immediate import in terms of facts and values; (*f*) to evaluate and interpret the assumptions and findings of science.

Content: (*a*) Speculative knowledge about things, men, and the universe; (*b*) a system of *a priori* principles explaining the universe; (*c*) a system of *a priori* principles supplying ethical guides; (*d*) a system of values, dealing with goodness, truth, and beauty; (*e*) a system of empirically derived principles explaining the universe, or offering a guide to conduct.

Methods: (*a*) Speculation, intuition, imagination; (*b*) formal logic based on *a priori* principles; (*c*) reflective thought in best modern sense of problem-solving and functional logic.[1]

What are the views of the nature of philosophy today? We shall distinguish between and briefly discuss two common views, although there are many others. One fairly large group of present-day philosophers regards philosophy as having essentially the same function, content, and method as metaphysics. This view is held, for example, by J. E. Leighton who says that "Every special science, and special form of practical activity interprets the facts of

[1] William H. Burton, *Introduction to Education,* Appleton-Century, 1934, p. 157. By permission of D. Appleton-Century Company, publishers.

experience from some limited and one-sided or abstract point of view. Metaphysics aims to correct these abstractions." [1] He says further that "Inasmuch as the special sciences, such as physics, biology, psychology, and sociology, set out from unexamined dogmatic assumptions and issue, severally, in various uncoordinate results which require synthesis, in order to yield a consistent world view, to metaphysics belongs the two-fold task of critically examining the primary assumptions of the sciences and of synthesizing their conclusions into a harmonious whole." [2]

In other words, according to the view just stated, the purpose of philosophy is to conceive a systematic view of all things. According to that view, philosophy may be defined as the "science which synthesizes all sciences." It assumes, as Ralph Waldo Emerson said, that the philosopher "takes up into himself all arts, sciences, all knowables, as his food," and assimilates them through the process known as thinking. This view of the purpose, content, and method of philosophy has been summarized in an interesting and clear manner by B. A. G. Fuller:

> To put it all in terms of the detective agency, the sciences are like the individual detectives following up and reporting upon that particular aspect of the case to which each has been assigned, whereas philosophy is like the chief who gathers all their reports together, reflects upon them, tries to harmonize them where they conflict, and to supplement them by reasonable conjecture where they fail to connect or are unable to follow the clue further into the unknown. Thus it constructs, using their reports as its data, a theory regarding the true inwardness of the case which seems to it to throw some light, at least upon the central mystery.[3]

During recent years, however, the concept that philosophy is "a systematic view of all things" or "a theory of ultimate and absolute reality" has suffered an eclipse, and the more realistic and practical concept that philosophy is a "system of values" has largely supplanted it. The former

[1] J. E. Leighton, *Man and the Cosmos,* Appleton-Century, 1922, p. 3. By permission of D. Appleton-Century Company, publishers.

[2] *Ibid.,* p. 2. By permission of D. Appleton-Century Company, publishers.

[3] B. A. G. Fuller, *History of Greek Philosophy,* Holt, 1923, p. 17. By permission of Henry Holt and Company, publishers.

concept has suffered an eclipse, because of the growing recognition that human activities are far too numerous and complex for a single individual to secure a systematic and integrated view of them. On the impossibility of any modern mortal acquiring a universality of knowledge, if, indeed, such acquisition were ever possible, M. C. Otto says:

> It is recognized by the plain man and by the specialist that universality of knowledge is no longer attainable by any mind. One scarcely reads a book in any special field which does not state this fact or imply it. A chemist, physicist, biologist, mathematician, who should announce that he has mastered the essentials of his field would be thought to have lost his balance. Everywhere it is admitted that the obstacles in the way of arriving at the essentials of knowledge in even a limited field and by those best qualified through training and experience to do so, are practically insuperable. If philosophers rush in where experts fear to tread what reception can they expect for the "total vision" with which they come out?[1]

Although this latter concept, namely, that philosophy is a "system of values," does not gainsay the necessity for systematic knowledge of as many fields of human activity as possible, it has ceased chasing the will-o'wisp of the impossible. It no longer regards a philosopher as a person who knows everything, or who has "all the answers." It takes its cue from a definition of philosophy by William James (1842–1910), one of America's most eminent philosophers. James defined philosophy as "our more or less dumb sense of what life honestly and deeply means." According to John Dewey, who is everywhere recognized as one of the outstanding philosophers of all time, philosophy essays to answer the question: "What does our knowledge demand of us?" Science gives us knowledge about our world, but, according to Dewey, "when we ask what sort of permanent disposition or action toward the world the scientific disclosures exact of us, we are raising a philosophic question."[2] For example, science produces a poison gas,

[1] M. C. Otto, Things and Ideals: *Essays in Educational Philosophy,* Holt, 1924, pp. 8–9. By permission of Henry Holt and Company, publishers.

[2] John Dewey, *Democracy and Education,* Macmillan, 1928, p. 379. By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

but philosophy tells us whether to use that lethal weapon to destroy human beings or to increase their happiness through using it to destroy insects and rodents.

In this treatise the view of James and Dewey is accepted, that is, philosophy is regarded as *a way of interpreting life —as a system of values for the solution of life's problems.* When this view is accepted, philosophy is seen to be a relatively simple, common-sense, and practical sort of thing, rather than a formidable and abstract thing stated, as it often is, in confusing verbiage. Moreover, it is seen to be a possession to a certain degree and in a certain form, of every normal person, because every such person has a way of interpreting life—has, according to James, a "more or less dumb sense of what life honestly and deeply means."

Although a philosophy of some kind and of a certain degree of depth is possessed by all normal persons, it must be admitted that most persons do not have a very conscious, related, logical, and deep philosophy. Democracy and Americanism, for example, have a strong emotional appeal to all of us, but investigations show that most of us have difficulty in defining these terms. The outlook of most persons upon life is hazy, haphazard, inconsistent, and without depth. Too often this outlook takes its departure from a foundation of superstition, prejudice, rumor, general ignorance, and selfishness. The tree of philosophy of most persons consists chiefly of undeveloped leaves and branches and lacks adequate roots. But, whatever the stage of development and the degree of wholesomeness of his philosophy, every normal person possesses a philosophy, and as we shall see later, his philosophy possesses him because it is the mainspring and the governor of his actions.

The discussion thus far has been concerned with *general philosophy,* and no reference has been made to a *philosophy of education.* Since the teacher is concerned with preparing human beings to take their proper place in a changing society, the philosophy which determines the nature of that preparation will have essentially the same purpose, content, and method as general philosophy. Its purpose will be to conceive a system of values which will guide the educative

process; its content will be educational problems faced by society and the individual; and its method will be reflective thinking concerning these problems and values.

The philosophy of education of any teacher must stem from his general philosophy of life. Like general philosophy it must take account of the problems which people now face and which they will likely face in the future. It must conceive an educational program which will prepare pupils to recognize their problems and to solve them. It must have a well-developed concept of the characteristics of the "good life" and of the means by which such a life may be attained. It must conceive the most desirable aims of education, and with the aid of science it must indicate the best means by which those aims may be accomplished.

It was stated above that a philosophy of education deals with educational problems. Likewise, the science of education deals with educational problems. Philosophy of education unites with science of education to solve those problems. Science contributes facts bearing on the definition and solution of the problem and philosophy evaluates those facts according to a system of values. There is always an infinite number of educational problems, and philosophy must have a place in the solution of all of them; it has, of course, a larger place in the solution of certain ones than of others. John Dewey mentions the following problems as among those which must be solved partly, largely, or entirely by philosophy:

1. . . . Is it the duty of the schools to give indoctrination in the economic and political, including nationalistic principles that are current in contemporary society? Should criticism of the existing social order be permitted? If so, in what ways? . . .

2. . . . Do students go forth from the school without adequate consciousness of the problems and issues they will have to face? As far as it is true, can this state of affairs be remedied without a realization of responsibility for social planning on the part of the teaching body and administrators? . . .

3. . . .

4. . . . Is the work of administrators too far removed from that of teachers? . . . How much of present administrative procedures is based upon distrust of the intellectual capacities of classroom teachers? . . .

5. Can the power of independent and critical thinking, said to be an objective, be attained when the field of thought is restricted by exclusion of whatever relates to controverted social questions? . . .

6. . . . Can such questions as the relation of capital and labor, the history and aims of labor organizations, causes and extent of unemployment . . ., etc., be considered in the school room? . . .

7. . . .

8. How far is the working purpose of present school work to prepare the individual for personal success? How far are competitive incentives relied upon? How far are these factors compatible with the professed objective of democratic cooperation?

9. How far can and should the schools deal with such questions as arise from racial color and class contact and prejudice? . . .

10. . . . Does the teaching of patriotism tend toward antagonism toward other people? . . .[1]

Relation between science and philosophy. When the student reflects upon the questions just quoted from Dewey, he will see that the final answer to them can only be found in terms of his system of educational values, that is, in terms of his philosophy of education. They cannot be answered by snap judgment, but only by "stubborn thinking" and the use of all facts which the student can command. In other words, the student must make use of the facts of science in formulating his philosophy of education.

In spite of the warm discussions of doctrinaires, there is no conflict between honest science and altruistic philosophy. The purpose of both is the same, namely, *to find the truth and to secure greater security and happiness for mankind.* In seeking to accomplish that purpose they make use of somewhat similar content and method. Without the facts which science provides, a philosophy would be purely speculative, and without the evaluations which philosophy provides for the facts of science, those facts might be used, or not used, to decrease the happiness of man.

Difficult though such knowledge is to secure, the teacher who would develop a sound philosophy must have wide knowledge of the world and of human activities. Without this knowledge he is not likely to see problems clearly nor to possess the facts which contribute to the solution of the

[1] ...ilities of the Teaching Profession," *Scho...* 1930), pp. 190–191.

problems. Moreover, the teacher needs knowledge of the past as well as of the present because many practices can be understood and evaluated only in their historical setting. The foundations of new institutions must be built, at least in part, from the materials of old institutions. The teacher who would develop a sound philosophy of education must, therefore, know much about history, especially history of education. George Burton Adams says of the relation between the old and the new:

> . . . It is necessary here, and in all institutional history, to distinguish very carefully between two sets of causes or antecedents. First, there is the general cause, or the prevailing condition of things in the society of the time, which renders a new institution necessary; and, second, there is the old institution, on which the prevailing cause seizes, and which it transforms into a new one. Both these are always present. No institution ever starts into life wholly new. Every new institution has its foundation far in the past in some earlier one. The prevailing necessity transforms it into a new institution, but the character of the new creation is as much conditioned by the character of the old as it is by the new necessity which it is made to meet. The sneer which is sometimes heard against that sort of investigation which seeks the foundations of a new institution in those which have preceded it, as merely antiquarian, is proof only of a very narrow conception of history.[1]

In brief, any attempt to philosophize without sufficient knowledge is unscholarly, if not dishonest. When they are not guided by knowledge, so-called "philosophers" are often nothing more than quacks or mountebanks; they build their castles of philosophy upon the sands of guesses and snap judgment rather than upon the rock of certainty. When he lacks sufficient knowledge to guide him, the great philosopher will not philosophize; if he formulates a conclusion which is not supported by sufficient knowledge, he will state it as only tentative; if he has a doubt, he will not propose or recommend. The knowledge which the science of education gives the educator is so important that Chapter XXIII will be entirely devoted to it.

Knowledge alone, though, does not make a philosopher.

[1] George Burton Adams, *Civilization during the Middle Ages,* Scribner's, 1914, p. 190. By permission of Charles Scribner's Sons, publishers.

Coupled with knowledge must be the ability and the disposition to appraise the value of the knowledge in the solution of man's problems. This ability and this disposition are the qualities which distinguish the philosopher from the scientist. The philosopher reflects upon the meaning of knowledge and does not cease in that effort. The scientist is primarily concerned with the discovery and the organization of knowledge, whereas the philosopher is concerned primarily with evaluating the use to which knowledge is put or might be put. Science and philosophy are so closely related that the great scientist is almost sure to be somewhat of a philosopher, and the great philosopher is as certain to be somewhat of a scientist.

Importance of a proper philosophy. In a previous paragraph it was stated that every normal person has a philosophy of some kind and of a certain degree of depth. Moreover, it was stated that a person's philosophy is the most important characteristic of him, because it serves as the mainspring and the governor of his life; it constitutes his innermost thoughts, and "as a man thinketh in his heart, so is he." Since a proper philosophy of life is the most important possession of an individual, every individual should strive to obtain such a philosophy. The most important task of the teacher is to help his pupils to start developing a good philosophy of life.

Because of the importance of his work, the teacher especially needs a proper philosophy of life and of the educative process. If the teacher does not have a good philosophy of life, his pupils are not likely to be helped to acquire one. Good philosophy would conceive the type of society which is needed and the type of individual which is needed in that society; moreover, it would conceive the function and processes of education as an agency for achieving that type of society and individual. By providing a frame of reference for evaluating aims, materials, and methods, it would energize and guide the efforts of the teacher to provide the best type of educational program for his pupils; it would direct and control his educational strategy. Thus equipped, the teacher would likely find his work the great adventure rather

than a series of chores to be perfunctorily and mechanically performed.

Many teachers fail to accomplish all that they might, because they are not equipped with a proper educational philosophy. In fact, many of those who fail do not possess a conscious educational philosophy of any sort, proper or im-

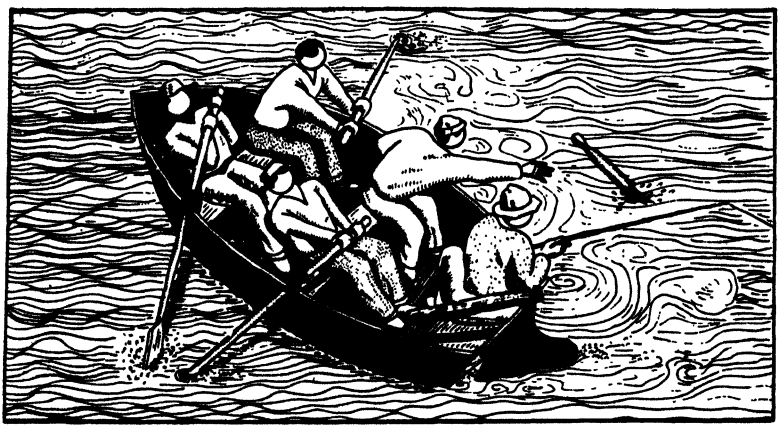

FIG. 9. The results of the lack of an educational philosophy in school affairs. (From Luther Gulick and Rudolph Modley, *The New York Primer*, Regents Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York, 1940.) School officials, school employees, parents, and the general public are all in the same boat, and all seem to lack a sense of direction and a coordinated effort.

proper. They are content to be mere technicians; they do not question *why* they do what they do; they are oblivious to purposes and values. They have never paid the price required for acquiring a philosophy; that price, according to William James, is "an unusually stubborn effort to think consistently." They are satisfied to worship slogans and to ride hobbies without considering their meaning and value —without appraising them according to a fundamental philosophy of education. They are content to drift, and to be blown by the winds of uncritical tradition or by the zephyrs of questionable "isms." Their good ship, "education," does not have a sense of direction, or if it does have a direction, it is the wrong direction. Such teachers fail to arrive at a desirable destination, or if they do arrive,

it is only after great travail and effort and at too large an expense to the public, parents, and pupils.

A desirable educational philosophy can be acquired only by conscious, assiduous, and profound effort; there is no royal road to it. As has already been stated, its chief requisites are wide knowledge of man's activities, and clear and profound thinking concerning the use to be made of that knowledge. The individual cannot acquire these qualifications in a day, a week, a month, or a year; they are the products largely of sound professional training, of wide-awake educational experience, and of never-ending reflection on the problems of life and on the aims and procedures of education.

The student who aspires to a successful career as an educational employee should start early to formulate an educational philosophy. Most institutions for the preparation of teachers aid him in making this start through offering such a course as "Philosophy of Education" or "Principles of Education." Moreover, since all teacher-preparing courses are designed to provide knowledge of the schools and of the educative process, they should also be of great help to the student in formulating his educational philosophy. Unfortunately, though, these courses—whether in philosophy of education or other subject matter—do not always exhibit a conscious educational philosophy, or what is more frequent and more unfortunate, they present only *one* educational philosophy and insist upon the student adopting it. And strange to say, the teachers of these courses often plead for one philosophy but practice another; for example, they inveigh against indoctrination,[1] but they practice indoctrination; they plead for a school which permits the pupil to think, but they seldom give the pupil that opportunity; they argue for a pupil-centered school, but they run a subject-centered school; they preach democracy, but they practice autocracy.

Among the first discoveries which even the casual student of philosophy makes is that there is not one philosophy but

[1] By *indoctrination* is meant the attempt to teach for acceptance only one view concerning controversial issues.

many, and that each usually deems that it contains the last word of wisdom. There are several brands even of the democratic philosophy. The student is invited to examine these philosophies—past and present, but especially present —to ascertain their characteristics, and especially to obtain any worth-while suggestions which they may contain for *his own* philosophy. As he proceeds with this examination, he will find that many philosophies are not based on sufficient knowledge of either the present or the past, that others do not interpret knowledge accurately, and that others are selfish and destructive. He will discover that one philosophy emphasizes the importance of the group and neglects the individual, whereas another emphasizes the sacredness of the individual and neglects the group; another philosophy favors universal education at public expense, whereas another favors the education of only a few leaders at public expense; still another philosophy has as its core the postulate that the school should indoctrinate the pupils with certain views, whereas another accepts the postulate that the school should not indoctrinate the pupils with a particular view but rather should permit them to select their own views.

Since philosophy is fundamentally a belief, a view, or an opinion of what man should do and should not do, and as such cannot be omnipotent, the prospective educational employee should not have any particular brand of philosophy foisted upon him.[1] The tenets of philosophy are controversial and should be treated as such. With the hope and the expectation that the prospective educational employee will be better prepared to develop a desirable democratic educational philosophy of his own, he should be given the opportunity of becoming acquainted with the tenets of various educational philosophies. For all of his studies he should arm himself against the "witchery of words." He

[1] Since the purpose of the schools of our nation is to prepare for cooperative democratic living, the foundation and the framework of the philosophy of school employees should be thoroughly democratic. School employees have the responsibility of indoctrinating their pupils in the spirit and method of democracy, and persons who do not have a firm faith in democratic principles should never be placed or retained on the pay roll of any school.

should not swallow any philosophy "hook, line, and sinker." His attitude toward philosophy should always be examining and critical. Moreover, he should realize that his educational philosophy can never be complete, but that it must change and expand as he obtains further educational and social experience and insight. As new knowledge of the nature of the individual is acquired, as society changes, and as concepts of the nature of the good life change, the educator's philosophy of education must also change.

Criteria for evaluating a philosophy of education. Since philosophy rests finally upon opinion, it is clear that there can be as many philosophies as there are persons who have opinions. Every person, of course, selects what he likes, prefers, or values. A system of philosophy can, therefore, be defended only on basis of opinion. Its merit can be measured only in terms of certain criteria, and in the last analysis criteria rest upon opinions. Counts affirms that a defensible philosophy of education should conform to at least the following five requirements, though he is aware of the subjective nature of these criteria:

> 1. It should be systematically empirical in its foundations . . . it should be derived from experience . . . it should comprehend and bring into a synthesis, not only science and metaphysics, but ethics and aesthetics as well. . . .
>
> 2. It should be comprehensive in its outlook. It must not only derive its substance from the whole range of human experience, but it must also face squarely and with some sense of proportion all the problems of education. . . .
>
> 3. It should be consistent in its several departments. . . .
>
> 4. It should be practicable in its provisions. . . . An educational philosophy for twentieth century America must take into account the existing conditions of life and civilization. . . . Whatever may be its ultimate goals it must articulate with the world as it is.
>
> 5. It should be satisfying to its adherents . . . unless it fits experience as the glove fits the hand, it will be acceptable to no individual or group.[1]

Can there be a preferred philosophy? Although the present writer favors the democratic philosophy, it is obvious

[1] George S. Counts, "Criteria for Judging a Philosophy of Education," *School and Society*, Vol. 30 (July 27, 1929), pp. 103–107.

that no philosophy can be given a preferred status except on basis of opinion. In a democracy, the people are, of course, the final judges of the merit of any educational philosophy which the school employee possesses. If the philosophy of the employee brings the people happiness in the finest sense, they will approve it; if it does not bring them that happiness, they will disapprove it. From the beginning, the American people have placed their faith in the democratic philosophy, and they expect all their employees to operate in the democratic framework.

THE DEMOCRATIC PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION

This chapter has already indicated that America possesses a philosophy of education and that it is usually called the democratic philosophy. It was stated, though, that there are various interpretations of what the democratic philosophy is; in other words, there are various philosophies which are labeled "democratic," and the educator should be on his guard lest he be misled by labels. These differences in interpretations are characterized primarily by different beliefs regarding the relation between the individual and the social order and those different beliefs will presently be evaluated. William H. Burton gives the following summary of what he considers to be the fundamentals of the democratic philosophy:

> Thus we see that democracy is not equalitarianism, nor majority rule, nor blind conformity, nor ruthless individualism, nor paternalistic guarantee of individual happiness. What, then, is it? . . . Democracy is participatory group life, enjoyed by free individuals possessing maximum opportunities for participation. Its chief characteristic *in regard to individuals* is, in current happy phrase, "respect for personality." *In regard to the group* its chief characteristic is the flexible and evolutionary nature of group institutions. Free participation in cooperative group life under evolutionary institutions and with respect between individuals are the earmarks of democracy. . . .
>
> The keynote is integration. And what is integration? In simplest terms it means unity and absence of conflict. Society will be integrated in that individuals are imbued with the same ideals and concepts of the good life, are motivated by desire for the common good, are contributing each his special ability or skill, are respected therefor.

Society thus is not an aggregation or collection of individuals, it is not merely the sum of its parts. It is a unified functioning organism by means of which individuals achieve commonly conceived ends through participatory contributions.[1]

Dewey has unquestionably been the most eminent and prolific exponent of the democratic philosophy. All of his numerous literary contributions breathe the spirit of this philosophy, but one of them—*Democracy and Education*—is entirely devoted to its exposition. A paragraph from that noted work which summarizes Dewey's conception of the democratic philosophy is quoted herewith:

> Since education is a social process, and there are many kinds of societies, a criterion for educational criticism and construction implies a *particular* social ideal. The two points selected by which to measure the worth of a form of social life are the extent to which the interests of the group are shared by all its members and the fullness and freedom with which it interacts with other groups. An undesirable society, in other words, is one which internally and externally sets up barriers to free intercourse and communication of experience. A society which makes provision for participation in its good of all its members on equal terms and which secures flexible readjustment of its institutions through interaction of the different forms of associated life is in so far democratic. Such a society must have a type of education which gives individuals a personal interest in social relationships and control, and the habits of mind which secure social changes without introducing disorder.[2]

In brief, Dewey's writings constantly plead for a type of education which will be appropriate for the development of a democratic society. According to him, such a society would provide for *free and full participation of all its members in the determination and pursuance of common interests;* its essence would be a willingness to "share" in planning. According to this view, therefore, democracy is more than a theory and a practice of government. It is a *way of life* and applies to school affairs, church matters, home affairs, economic matters, and all other aspects of life as well as to government. At another place Dewey

[1] Burton, *op. cit.*, pp. 179–180. By permission of D. Appleton-Century Company, publishers.

[2] Dewey, *op. cit.*, p. 115. By permission of The Macmillan Company

says that the democratic criterion for education implies "the ideal of a continuous reconstruction or reorganizing of experience, of such a nature as to increase its recognized meaning or social content, and as to increase the capacity of individuals to act as guardians of this reorganization." [1]

The quotations from Burton and Dewey demonstrate the difficulty of summarizing a philosophy in a few sentences. In such a summary there is certain to be misunderstanding as to what the author means. Even when it is described in detail, as can be done in a whole book, the philosophy of a person is likely to be somewhat vague and platitudinous. Too many philosophers "talk to the gods rather than to man." In the foregoing quotations, for example, what does Burton mean by the "common good"? And what does Dewey mean by "continuous reconstruction of experience"? To find the author's definitions of these terms the reader would need to consult the complete text in which the terms are found, and even there he would probably encounter vagueness. Many of the long-winded arguments over the relative merits of various educational philosophies or practices are occasioned by different interpretations of the same terms. After many heads have been cracked and the smoke of battle has cleared, the protagonists often discover that they have been arguing fiercely for the same thing.

The group versus the individual pattern. The most perplexing problem of educational theory has always been *the determination of the best relation between society and the individual.* Specifically stated, the problem is: Shall educational aims, materials, and methods be determined by the demands of society or by the demands of the individual? Or, if neither of these extremes is desirable, what is the optimum position between them? This problem has always confronted educational agencies. It was perennial even before the establishment of the school, when all education was given by the family, the tribe, apprenticeship, the church, and other agencies. During recent years the problem has been particularly urgent, because, as General Smuts, an eminent English statesman, has recently said, "Human-

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 376. By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

ity has struck its tents and is once more on the march." There is scarcely a nation today which is not questioning old values—political, economic, social, and educational—and trying to establish others which will give the people of the nation greater security and happiness. In this ubiquitous questioning of old values America has an opportunity to assume world leadership by applying the philosophy of democracy [1] to her relations with other nations and with all groups and individuals within her jurisdiction; this opportunity constitutes her "rendezvous with destiny."

As is true in every other endeavor, it is the extreme or the radically different philosophy which most often attracts attention. The commonly occurring happening does not make news, nor does a middle-of-the-road philosophy call attention to itself. The importance of the individual has been stressed by various political and educational theorists to the disparagement of society; likewise, the importance of society has been stressed by other political and educational theorists to the disparagement of the individual. Rousseau (1712–1778) went as far in the former direction as Plato (428–348 B.C.) went in the latter, although as we shall see later the views of neither, when taken *in toto*, were as extreme as they are usually believed to be. This book presents the view that the welfare of both society and the individual must be kept in mind in the formulation of any political, social, economic, or educational program. The next few pages will first present the case for society, then the case for the individual; the case for an interaction of both will finally be presented.

Education for the group. The case for keeping in mind the group, that is, society, as the important element in education, was stated more than two thousand years ago by Plato in his *Laws:* "Education is, in fact, the drawing and leading of children to the rule which has been pronounced right by the voice of the law, and approved as truly right by the concordant experience of the best and oldest men." At another place in the same work Plato affirms that, "He

[1] This philosophy is embodied in the Golden Rule: "And as ye would that men should do to you, do ye also to them likewise." (Luke, 6:31.)

[i.e., the lawgiver] need only tax his invention to discover what convictions would be most beneficial to a city, and then contrive all manner of devices to ensure that the whole of such community shall treat the topic in one single and self-same lifelong tone, alike in song, in story and in discourse." In Plato's utopian society, laws, policies, and procedures were to be determined not democratically but by "the best and oldest men." Plato did not indicate, though, how the "best" men were to be selected. According to his view, education would begin only after an ideal state (called "Utopia" by Plato) had been erected, and its purpose would be to preserve that state. That ideal state would, of course, be erected by "the best and oldest men," and the public at large would have no voice in the procedure.

Education for the individual. Until the time of Rousseau the interests of the individual were entirely subordinated to those of the group; the philosophy of Plato was everywhere accepted. It was this practice of making the welfare of the group the only political and educational end which Rousseau inveighed against and which gained for him the sobriquet of "firebrand of the French Revolution." "Liberty, Equality, Fraternity" became the slogan of his followers both in France and in the American colonies. Rousseau wanted to make the welfare of the individual the end. He affirmed that society is a deformer and that the good life comes only when the individual has complete *liberty*. He believed that education could best be received "according to nature" and without risking contamination of the individual by an ogreish society. A paragraph from his *Émile* gives the heart of his philosophy: "The only man who does his own will is he who has no need, in order to do it, to put the arms of another to it as well as his own; whence it follows that the first of all good things is not authority, but liberty. The man truly free wants only what he can have and does what pleases himself. There you have my fundamental maxim."

Rousseau's doctrine of the all-pervading importance of the individual encountered severe resistance from the long-established order which glorified the group and neglected

the individual. Practically all governments of his time were totalitarian, and democracy was hardly a name. It was argued by the proponents of the old order that society was not sufficiently stable to permit the individual to go his own way; group safety required rigid conformity, and nonconformists risked exile, death, or other severe punishment. Any political, economic, religious, or other heresy was regarded as inimical to the welfare of the group, hence could not be tolerated.

Another factor which delayed for several centuries the acceptance of any theory of the importance of the individual was the long prevalent theory of human nature. Man was assumed to be a "bundle of instincts," and it was believed that these inherent abilities would naturally "unfold" and bring to fruition a civilized man. Moreover, it was assumed that these inherent abilities were similar in nature and amount in all individuals. The theory of individual differences had not yet been promulgated.

During recent decades, however, experimental psychology has shown the shortcomings of the theory of instincts as a sole or as a major basis of education. It has shown that individuals are not similar in their inborn nature but are widely different; since the nature and the extent of these differences are discussed in detail in Chapter VII of this book, they need not be discussed at this point. These discoveries, suffice it to say, have been responsible for ushering in a new order in education—an order which is posited on the welfare of the individual as well as that of the group.

Education for both. Since neither the group nor the individual is supreme, education cannot have as its aim the glorification of the group alone nor of the individual alone. It must glorify both, because they are "brothers" and neither is "king." Without a stable society, the individual would not likely find happiness, if even safety. Without individuals who were free to think and to "create," society would not likely make progress. Both Plato and Rousseau realized the necessity for a certain amount of interaction between the group and the individual, although Plato's sympathies were with the group and those of Rousseau

were with the individual. An English educator has recently given the following appraisal of the views of these two great personages:

> But neither Plato nor Rousseau is as one-sided as so sharp an antithesis would suggest, an antithesis better suited to the conflicts of doctrinaire partisans than to the rounded thought of moral philosophers. It is less easy to set these two creative thinkers of the educational tradition of the West in strong opposition when one takes the thought of each in its entirety. There are differences of emphasis, no doubt, due partly to differences of temperament and circumstances. But if we take the thought of each as a whole and extract as well as we can the central meaning it is the identities rather than the differences which strike us. The totalitarian can and does find much in Rousseau, particularly in the doctrine of the Sovereignty of the General Will, which gives plausible support to his own position. And the democrat, especially if he have Fabian inclinations, can derive much comfort from many a passage in the *Laws*. Simply to dub Plato absolutist and Rousseau individualist is to under-estimate what is central and essential in the thought of both.[1]

As usual, therefore, when controversial issues are being debated, the complete views of the extremists may be disregarded and values sought in each extreme on which a working program can be built. Good practice always seeks to conciliate the poles of theory, though the exigencies of the situation may cause it to veer farther toward one pole than another. No government nor any political or educational philosophy today places supreme emphasis upon the group or the individual to the exclusion of the other. Biases, though, toward one or the other are everywhere evident, if we examine the governments of the nations of the world and the educational systems of those nations. It seems fair to say that the governments and school systems of the totalitarian nations magnify the importance of the group, whereas the governments and school systems of the democratic nations magnify the importance of the individual.

On this issue the sympathies of the present writer are with the theory of the democratic state rather than with that of the totalitarian state; he is more of a Rousseauist than a Platonist. The criticism which he makes of the

[1] F. Clarke, "The Conflict of Philosophies," *The Year Book of Education*, Evans Brothers, Ltd., 1936, pp. 254–255.

totalitarian state and of the educational system which it fosters, and which in turn fosters it, is that it makes the production of "the type" the all-important goal; "growth beyond the type" is not provided for, or is not adequately provided for. It cannot be gainsaid that education must—and inevitably will—produce the type, but it must also, if society is to advance, provide for growth beyond the type; it must permit large freedom of personality. The democratic philosophy, which implies *free and full participation of all members of the group in the determination and pursuance of common interests,* holds the best promise of accomplishing these aims. The British publication just referred to advocates the democratic philosophy for the schools of England. The views of the publication are also applicable to the schools of the United States and for that reason, they are quoted herewith:

> Freedom of Personality to achieve itself, we should maintain is not only a necessary postulate of a democratic society, which rests on the faith that the whole is incomplete and impoverished unless it can count upon the free contribution of each member. It is even more—it is the *raison d'être* of democratic society itself. That, if anything, is the meaning of Equality, the faith that human personality is so valuable as to be beyond valuing, and is to be regarded with the same reverence wherever it is found. With such a tradition as that of England behind us, we shall have to concede freely that Personality, so far as its substance is concerned, is dependent upon the social medium. To that extent, society is authoritative in the making of it. But, in the last resort, the society exists for the sake of the personality, not the personality for the sake of society. A civil society exists and perpetuates itself in the making of fresh generations of personalities in its own type, not for its own ends or to fix a type for all time, but in the discharge of its supreme function in the making of men. In Rousseau's terms, it is not by a preordained and final social pattern that we produce our Emiles; it is the needs of the full growth of an Emile that must determine the structure and adaptations of our social forms.[1]

If society and the individual are to interact for the welfare of each, neither can remain static. Each must maintain sufficient flexibility to permit adjustments to inevitable changes. Without this flexibility there is sure to be stagnation, conflict, and perhaps a breakdown. Besides serving as

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 262.

an agency for conserving and bringing to the individual the heritage of the past, education must be the means of adding something to that heritage. In brief, education must serve as an agency of progress; it must prepare the individual to be competent and willing to take part in the continuous reconstruction of the patterns of living in order that he and the remainder of the social group may find greater happiness. The fundamental aim of education in a democracy is, therefore, *the preparation of each individual to participate in the continuous reconstruction, improvement, and enrichment of the patterns of individual and group living.*

Although it is the obligation of school employees in a democracy to operate in the framework of the democratic aim just stated, it is not their function to set the "patterns of individual and group living." Their function is to help the pupil to discover any gaps, conflicts, and inefficiencies in the various patterns and to give him the sort of preparation which will enable him to interpret and to reconstruct patterns. This procedure does not *prescribe* for the pupil the elements of the good life nor the characteristics of the ideal social order; it brings different views of the good life into perspective in the hope that the pupil will emerge with a wholesome view of his own. It is posited on the belief that the ideal social order is one which best serves the common interests and purposes of man, but it does not prescribe what those interests and purposes shall be; it permits each individual to have a voice in determining them. We may label this the *democratic* procedure.

According to the democratic procedure, the school has a twofold function. In the first place, it must make provision whereby the cultural heritage becomes readily accessible and whereby the discovery and development of individual capacity are properly promoted. In the second place, it must make provision whereby the individual is made competent and willing to examine and to appraise the goals and procedures of the social order. This obligation must be met if the individual is to be prepared to engage in the "continuous reconstruction of experience." It must also be met if the school is to function as the chief formal agency which

society maintains for promoting its continuous improvement.

The democratic procedure is here favored in spite of its difficulty and the many problems which it brings. The democratic tree has thorns as well as fruit! Its chief thorn is man's egoism, that is, his inclination to forget his social responsibility and to aggrandize himself. This thorn cannot be eradicated in a day, but there is faith that man will somehow and sometime eradicate it. There is the further faith that the chief instrument for its eradication will be education—education of a greater amount and of a better type. In the final analysis, therefore, the decision to adopt the democratic philosophy rather than the autocratic philosophy is posited upon faith in the capacity and desire of the individual to make wise decisions—wise in relation to the interests and purposes of society as well as to his own.

Since its establishment in 1936 by the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, the Educational Policies Commission has given a large amount of thought to ways and means of making democratic education function. In one of its most recent publications it lists the following hallmarks of democratic education:

1. Democratic education has as its central purpose the welfare of all the people.
2. Democratic education serves each individual with justice, seeking to provide equal educational opportunity for all, regardless of intelligence, race, religion, social status, economic condition, or vocational plans.
3. Democratic education respects the basic civil liberties in practice and clarifies their meaning through study.
4. Democratic education is concerned for the maintenance of those economic, political, and social conditions which are necessary for the enjoyment of liberty.
5. Democratic education guarantees to all members of the community the right to share in determining the purposes and policies of education.
6. Democratic education uses democratic methods, in classroom, administration, and student activities.
7. Democratic education makes efficient use of personnel; teaching respect for competence in positions of responsibility.

8. Democratic education teaches through experience that every privilege entails a corresponding duty, every authority a responsibility, every responsibility an accounting to the group which granted the privilege or authority.

9. Democratic education demonstrates that far-reaching changes of both policies and procedures can be carried out in orderly and peaceful fashion, when the decisions to make the changes have been reached by democratic means.

10. Democratic education liberates and uses the intelligence of all.

11. Democratic education equips citizens with the materials of knowledge needed for democratic efficiency.

12. Democratic education promotes loyalty to democracy by stressing positive understanding and appreciation and by summoning youth to service in a great cause.[1]

EDUCATIONAL AIMS

Nature of an aim. The aims of a teacher constitute the heart of his philosophy. Without a philosophy the teacher could not have aims, and without aims he could not have a workable philosophy. The aims of a teacher are his frame of reference or the foundation of his "general scheme of values" regarding education. They are the things which the teacher expects to accomplish; they are the contemplated termini of his teaching methods and instructional materials. Other terms which are usually used to mean the same as *aims* are the following: *objectives, goals,* and *purposes.*

One group of educators today is concerned only or primarily with finding aims in the educative process itself. According to Dewey, who has been the chief spokesman of this group, "the aim of education is to enable individuals to continue their education—or that the object and reward of learning is continued capacity for growth."[2] This group of educators is opposed to the aim of *preparation* because it tends "to omit existing powers, and find the aim in some remote accomplishment or responsibility."[3] It regards an

[1] Educational Policies Commission, *Learning the Ways of Democracy: A Case Book in Civic Education,* National Education Association, 1940, pp. 35–38. By permission of the National Education Association, publishers.

[2] Dewey, *op. cit.,* p. 117. By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

[3] *Ibid.,* p. 126. By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

aim as a means, a method, a spirit. It accepts the principle of *general* aims, but rebels at *specific* aims, especially if they are set up outside the educative process.

This group of educators tries to distinguish between aims and ends. It permits a philosophy of education to have aims but not ends. As was earlier stated, it sees an aim as a means —a means to an end. It regards an "end" as final, as something set up from without the educative process, and it fears the strictures which finality implies. Dewey says:

> The philosophy of education neither originates nor settles ends. It occupies an intermediate and instrumental or regulative place. Ends actually reached, consequences that actually accrue, are surveyed, and their values estimated in the light of a general scheme of values.[1]

Another group of educators, on the contrary, is concerned with seeking aims only or primarily outside the educative process. The members of this group accept *preparation* as an aim of education. They believe that the aim of the first group—"to enable individuals to continue their education" —is too vague and impractical. They seek, therefore, for more specific aims, and they look for these, at least in part, in an analysis of existing society (pupil and adult). Their unstated general objective, according to the interpretation of the Deweyists and in the language of Dewey, "appears to be that education should prepare, by means of blue prints of society and the individual, students to fit efficiently into present life." [2]

As is usually the case, the educational statesman may here avoid adopting *in toto* the extreme views of doctrinaires and seek merit in the views of both extremes. Education must find its aims both within and without the educative process. It must keep in mind the interests and the abilities of the pupil as well as the cultural heritage which will contact the mind of the pupil and *prepare* him to share in cooperative democratic living both now and when he becomes an adult.

[1] John Dewey, *The Sources of a Science of Education,* Liveright, 1929, p. 56. By permission of H. Liveright, publishers.

[2] John Dewey, "The Duties and Responsibilities of the Teaching Profession," *School and Society,* Vol. 32 (August 9, 1930), p. 189.

For anyone to claim that education is not preparation is merely to play on words. Education prepares for something, and that something is better living (in childhood and adulthood) as well as further education. In spite of his avowed aversion to the aim of preparation, Dewey doesn't, in this matter, "practice what he preaches," because he states aims which may be regarded as preparation. In the following statement of aims, the aim of preparation is implied both on the psychological and the social side:

> On the psychological or individual side, the aim is to secure a progressive development of capacities, having due regard to individual differences, and including a physical basis of vigorous health, refined esthetic taste and power to make a worth-while use of leisure, ability to think independently and critically, together with command of the tools and processes that give access to the accumulated products of past cultures. On the social side, this personal development is to be such as will give desire and power to share in cooperative democratic living, including political citizenship, vocational efficiency and effective social good will. . . .[1]

Importance of aims. The schools have always been criticized more or less for not having a concept of what they are trying to do, or for attempting to do the wrong things; in other words, they have been criticized for not possessing aims, or for possessing undesirable aims. That this criticism is often valid is demonstrated by the fact that when school officials and employees are requested to state the aims of the school, they frequently give evidence of not having devoted much thought to the matter. Instead of having ready and clear replies they often exhibit vagueness, hesitation, and bewilderment. They do not seem to know what they want, and not knowing what they want they cannot act most intelligently.

When the schools are not guided by aims, they are likely to exhibit the happy-go-lucky sentiment of the old saying, "We don't know where we're going, but we're on our way." Without aims neither an individual nor an institution can realize his or its potentialities. Aims give foresight and suggest planning, all of which are necessary if the greatest

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 188–189.

progress is to be made. Desirable aims would be helpful to the following groups:

In the first place, such aims would assist school officials in organizing, equipping, and administering the school. If they were guided by such aims, school officials would be better prepared to select teachers and other employees to assist in accomplishing the aims. Moreover, the best kinds and amounts of school buildings, sites, libraries, textbooks, and other equipment and materials would be secured which would contribute to the realization of those aims. In brief, good schools require officials with enlightened aims.

In the second place, desirable aims would be helpful to parents and to the general public because they would more surely know what the schools were trying to do and could, therefore, appraise the efforts and accomplishments of the schools in terms of those aims. Moreover, parents and the general public would have the opportunity of criticizing these school aims and of suggesting other and better ones. At present, it must be admitted that the concept of parents and of the general public of what the schools are trying to do is extremely vague. This condition exists not only because most school officials and employees possess a hazy concept of purposes, but also because they have not taken the time to acquaint parents and the general public with their aims where these are well defined. What is needed, of course, if one adopts the democratic ideal, is a democratic plan for the formulation of aims—a plan in which school officials and employees, parents, pupils, and the general public participate.

In the third place, desirable aims would give direction and zest to the work of school employees and especially to the largest group of such employees, namely, the teachers. If all teachers had similar or fairly similar aims, especially general aims, which had been formulated democratically, they would be better qualified to work cooperatively toward their accomplishment. Similarity in specific aims would not permit the teacher to meet the needs of the individual members of his class, and is, therefore, to be frowned upon; in other words, the more specific aims should be made by the

individual teacher on basis of the interests, abilities, and social needs of the pupil.

In the fourth place, desirable aims would assist in giving direction and zest to the work of the pupils. If the aims of the school were made known to the pupils, these precious charges would know for what the school was striving and would be more likely to cooperate in trying to accomplish the aims.

Criteria for aims. For a teacher merely to possess aims is not sufficient; of greater importance is that the aims be *desirable*. In other words, the teacher must make certain that what he purposes to accomplish corresponds with what should be accomplished. Undesirable aims would be worse than none, especially if they were possessed by school officials and teachers who were otherwise intelligent and vigorous, because such officials and employees would more likely accomplish the aims. As Mark Hopkins, a great teacher of the preceding generation, once said, "If the ends chosen be folly, the more sagacious the choice of means, the more will the man be a fool." And the harm done by undesirable aims often cannot be undone; if it can be undone, it is only at great expense to the school, the pupil, the parents, and the public. Unlike physicians, teachers do not "bury their mistakes"; the results of their mistakes are handed down from generation to generation and are apt to live forever. What, then, are the characteristics of desirable educational aims?

In the first place, educational aims should be *inclusive and well balanced*. On the psychological and individual side, the aims should keep in mind the interests and the needs of the individual to be educated to the end that a "progressive development of capacities" will be secured. On the social side, the aims should keep in mind the development of the individual to the end that he will have the "desire and power to share in cooperative democratic living."

Education is a process of growth and its aim is to enable the individual to continue that growth. Education should facilitate that growth in all phases of the individual's "capacities" and in all phases of "cooperative democratic

living." If all capacities are not developed, or if certain phases of cooperative democratic living are neglected, there is danger of lopsided development both in the individual and in society; there is danger that growth will be hindered rather than facilitated and that the pupil will not be able to share in cooperative democratic living.

The teacher must, therefore, guard against worshiping one aim of education to the neglect or exclusion of other aims. There are many desirable aims of education, and the more of such aims the teacher has the better prepared he will be, because, as Dewey says, one statement of aims will emphasize what another omits or slurs over, and "what a plurality of hypotheses does for the scientific investigator, a plurality of stated aims may do for the instructor." [1] On the handicap of narrow aims, Boyd H. Bode says:

> The fact that there are so many "ultimate" aims justifies a feeling of misgiving and suspicion. Generally speaking, all these aims are worthy and desirable; it is only when any one is set up as the supreme aim that it becomes objectionable. The reason is that an aim which is accepted as supreme or all-inclusive tends to place an undesirable restriction on growth, by turning it too exclusively in one direction. In some cases, indeed, this restriction is deliberately made a part of the aim. There are, for example, many communities in this country that are eager to transmit to their children the language, the traditions, the ideals, the creeds, in brief, the general outlook upon life, which the founders of these communities brought with them as immigrants from Europe. The educational system is accordingly organized with this end in view; and to prevent these distinctive traits from becoming immersed and lost, the disposition is sometimes fostered in the community to fence itself off from all unnecessary contact with the outside world. An education of this sort may be fairly extensive and yet disagreeably lop-sided. An individual thus trained is in America but not of it; he is unable to share in the national life around about him because of his educational deformity.[2]

In the second place, educational aims must be *flexible;* that is, they must be capable of change to meet unforeseen conditions. A good aim, according to Dewey, "surveys the present state of experience of pupils, and forming a tentative

[1] Dewey, *Democracy and Education,* p. 129.

[2] Boyd H. Bode, *Fundamentals of Education,* Macmillan, 1921, pp. 9–10. By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

plan of treatment, keeps the plan constantly in view and yet modifies it as conditions develop." [1] In other words, an aim should be suggestive, experimental, and tentative; it should not be final.

As additional information on the interests and the abilities of the child is secured and as the needs of society change, the aims of education must be accordingly modified. This means that the aims of education must be frequently examined and revised. They must be constantly growing as they are tested in action; they should lead to the development of other and better aims; they should embody the sentiment of James Russell Lowell's couplet:

> New occasions teach new duties;
> Time makes ancient good uncouth.
> They must upward then and onward
> Who should keep abreast of truth.

The criterion of flexibility cannot be met when aims, especially detailed ones, are handed down to teachers by school officials or by the community with the expectation that teachers shall impose them upon the children. Aims thus handed down place a stricture upon the intelligence of the teacher because they do not permit the teacher to use his own judgment in making the best contact between the pupil's mind and subject matter. The result of aims thus imposed is that pupils are constantly confused by the conflict between their own aims and those handed down by superior authorities for their acceptance.

In the third place, whether they be general or more specific aims, all educational aims should be *clearly conceived and clearly stated.* Many statements of aims, especially of general aims, do not meet the criterion of clarity; on the contrary, many of them are vague platitudes stated in what a wag has dubbed the language of pedagogues, that is "pedaguese." For example, without the explanations which Herbert Spencer has fortunately provided, his statement of the general aim of education as "preparation for complete living" would not meet the criterion of clarity; it would be too vague and abstract.

[1] Dewey, *op. cit.*, p. 123.

Some definite statements of aims. It was indicated above that the ultimate aim of education may be stated in various ways. Somewhat after Dewey, we have stated the ultimate aim to be the preparation of the individual to participate in the continuous reconstruction, improvement, and enrichment of individual and group living. Like all ultimate aims this aim is admittedly general; perhaps it is more of a method or a spirit than an aim.

The primary function of an ultimate aim is to stimulate, to inspire, to guide, and to serve as a general control. An ultimate aim is necessary as the spearhead of the teacher's efforts, but it needs to be interpreted in terms of more definite and immediate aims if it is to avoid becoming a mere generality. If, as our ultimate aim implies, individuals should be prepared "to participate in the continuous reconstruction, improvement, and enrichment of individual and group living," it would seem that serious thought should be directed to the qualifications which the individual should have and the characteristics which society should have in order that the greatest happiness may be secured by each member of the group. Happiness can never be obtained if we do not have a concept of its characteristics; individual and group living cannot be improved and enriched unless we have a concept of the characteristics of desirable individual and group living. In other words, the *ultimate* aim of education must be broken down into more *immediate and specific* aims.

During recent years the emphasis in statements of more immediate and specific aims has been upon individual efficiency and happiness, these aims to be secured, however, in a democratic frame of reference and with the welfare of society in mind as well as that of the individual. Unquestionably the most widely known and influential statement of educational aims during these years is that promulgated in 1918 by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education,[1] which was appointed by the National Education Association. Although this statement of aims was designed

[1] "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education," U. S. Bureau of Education, *Bulletin*, 1918, No. 35.

especially for the secondary schools, it has become widely accepted for other levels of education as well. The commission affirmed the seven cardinal objectives of secondary education to be:

1. Good health
2. Command of fundamental processes
3. Worthy home-membership
4. Vocational efficiency
5. Civic efficiency
6. Worthy use of leisure
7. Ethical character.

The foregoing aims have been found to be serviceable by hundreds of thousands of teachers and have been patterned after by all succeeding statements of aims. In the meantime, though, teachers have been seeking an answer to a prior question; that question concerns the nature of the socio-economic order in which the individual will find greatest happiness and efficiency. To attempt to secure an answer to this question the National Education Association adopted in July, 1931, the following resolution:

Whereas, The widespread economic disturbance thru which the United States, in common with the other nations of the world, is passing, is evidence of serious social-economic maladjustment; and

Whereas, The education of the people of a democracy determines its methods of dealing with those problems, therefore be it

Resolved, That the Board of Directors of the National Education Association recommends to the President of the Association the appointment of a committee of not more than ten to propose to the Association desirable social-economic goals of America and that said committee indicate the materials and methods which the schools of the nation should use to attain these goals.[1]

Appointed to serve on this committee were John Dewey, Leon C. Marshall, Robert C. Moore, Edward A. Ross, and Fred J. Kelley, Chairman; all were distinguished educators. In December, 1933, the committee issued a report which set

[1] "Social-Economic Goals of America," p. 2. Reprint by the National Education Association. By permission of the National Education Association, publishers. (In its volume entitled *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy* the Educational Policies Commission has patterned its purposes after the goals quoted below, hence they will not be reproduced here.)

forth "the social-economic goals of America in terms of the things we regard as the most desirable for (and presumably as most desired by) the individual American." This report suggested ten goals and briefly discussed the meaning and importance of each. Those goals might well be called the *aims of education.* Because the statement of such goals is much needed and is entirely in accord with the democratic ideal, it is quoted *in extenso* herewith:

1. HEREDITARY STRENGTH

The development of rich personalities depends first of all upon the innate strengths and capacities of the individuals. Whether experiences which are socially desirable produce personal satisfactions is often at base a biological question—a question of the level upon which motives make an effective appeal. Furthermore, proposals for social betterment are often limited in practice by the level of innate capacities of those among whom the proposal is to operate. The development, therefore, of individuals capable of the deepest enjoyments, and the building of a culture designed to enrich the personalities of great numbers of individuals are alike conditioned by the biological endowment of the people. . . .

2. PHYSICAL SECURITY

To be born with superior innate capacities is but half the picture; to have these capacities conserved and developed is the other half. A strong hereditary base can be ruined by poor medical attention at or before birth, poor nourishment, improper home care, contaminated milk, a speeding automobile, a gangster's bullet, or any one of a thousand other conditions largely outside the control of the individual. . . .

3. PARTICIPATION IN AN EVOLVING CULTURE

Every new born babe is an intricate bundle of latent potentialities, each ready to develop when touched by the sunlight of experience which culture provides. It follows, then, that if a rich and integrated personality is to be attained, the individual must be able to participate effectively in the cultural life that surrounds him. Society must assure to each individual the fullest possible opportunity to come into fruitful contact with culture. . . .

a. Skills, technics, and knowledges.—Every individual must have command of those skills, technics, and knowledges that will enable

him, to the limit of his innate capacities, to use and enjoy the culture of the group. Basic to all others are the arts of communication—language, spoken and written, numbers, music, drawing, and the like—with provisions for facilitating intimate and far-flung contacts with men, goods, and ideas. To this end agencies used in accomplishing these far-flung contacts, such as the radio, the newspaper, the cinema, should be trustworthy, not used for purposes subversive of social living. . . .

b. Values, standards, and outlooks.—There are values, standards, and outlooks that reflect the experience of the race and—*most important*—regulate the attention of the individual, determine his choices, organize his activities, and shape his personality. The basis of human motivation is found just here—what is right, what is wrong; what is good, what is bad. Responsiveness to motives which harmonize self-interests with social interests will grow by virtue of better appreciation of the values, standards, and outlooks which actuate human conduct. . . .

4. AN ACTIVE, FLEXIBLE PERSONALITY

Participation in our cultural resources should promote personalities who are active, not passive and inert; who are motivated by intelligently chosen purposes, not by unguided impulse from within or casual pressure from without; who are not set and rigid but who re-adapt flexibly to social change and to the consequences of their own prior conduct; who express their individual differences, but who do it in ways that are cooperative and socially contributory, not self-centered and egotistic.

In view of the social maladjustments that work against these ends economic and social goals must be consciously pursued that will foster:

a. Personal initiative.—At present multitudes are engaged in mechanical and monotonous pursuits that thwart the exercise of initiative. They engage chiefly in carrying out plans made by others with no original activity on their own part. . . . The resulting enfeeblement of personality extends its influence into political life and threatens the success of democratic institutions. Opportunities should be multiplied to share actively in the formation of industrial and social plans and to accept personal active responsibility for their realization.

b. Discriminating judgment and choice.—Integrated personality and a coherent social order can be maintained under present conditions only as individuals are trained to think clearly and to the point, and to act in accordance with the outcome of their thinking. This demands that all individuals shall seek for the facts concerned, weigh evidence honestly, and resist prejudice and class interest. . . .

c. Flexibility of thought and conduct.—Our society is characterized by rapid pace and constant change, while generally speaking our minds have been attuned to expect that things will remain practically unchanged. The consequence is great friction, with undue disintegration and disorganization. . . . The situation demands more than merely curative measures. Only individuals habituated to adjust to changes and to integrate them into their own personality can meet the necessities of the situation. Society must recognize the difference between stability and the preservation of what has been. They must see that change is normal. Personalities must be habituated in flexibility.

d. Individual differences.—Traits that are distinctive and unique are not only the sources of one's own keenest satisfactions, but also the ultimate source of all fruitful social change. Present social conditions too often suppress these qualities in the many by enforcing regimentation and conformity, while in the few they are stimulated into one-sided egoistic activity at variance with the needs and rights of others.

e. Cooperativeness.—As a rule, the extent to which people resort to mutual voluntary cooperation is far below the point of maximum advantage. Continually people fail to cooperate when they would greatly benefit by so doing, and abandon cooperative efforts because of petty bickerings, suspicions, jealousy, and bossism. The young should be so educated that as adults they will readily resort to democratic cooperation. In home, classroom, workshop, and on playground, the young should become habituated to smooth, effective, and enjoyable teamwork until cooperation becomes "second nature."

5. SUITABLE OCCUPATION

A congenial life work is a first requisite of a rich personality. Society can help in three distinct ways to make this possible.

a. Guidance.—Society should provide counsel as to what vocations youths should fit themselves for, taking into account the gifts, aptitudes, and tastes of the individual as well as the prospects of the various callings.

b. Training.—With appropriate regard to what guidance efforts reveal, society should make available to all youths, according to individual liking and social need, the chief skills and technics which underlie current reputable modes of obtaining a living.

c. Placement and advancement.—The individual worker today is in many cases so far removed from the control of his own occupational fate that society has a stake in connecting him with a fitting job and in seeing to it that progress in his occupation results normally from efficient work.

6. ECONOMIC SECURITY

. . . How utterly devastating to personality, and how completely destructive of most of the things we cherish, is a breakdown of our national (and international) economic machinery! . . . Even the many aspects of our ugly plight which seem not to be the result of selfish manipulation point to the need for greatly increased economic planning in the public interest. . . .

7. MENTAL SECURITY

"What, indeed, may we believe?" Individual personality and public welfare depend upon a satisfactory answer to that question.

Above our heads, giant profit-seeking concerns fight for the privilege of writing on our minds something that will help them make money. Truth-seeking and truth-telling organizations abound, but they cannot offer as much for an opportunity to enlighten the people as Mammon will pay for an opportunity to fool them. . . .

. . . Just as society has brought pure drinking water to the houses and the highways, so it ought to bring pure truth within our reach at every point and on every matter where non-social agencies are interested in hoodwinking us.

8. EQUALITY OF OPPORTUNITY

Our nation had its birth in a struggle for equality as opposed to special privilege. Its birthcry, the Declaration of Independence, began with the statement: "We hold these truths to be self-evident —that all men are created equal: that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness."

In the light of modern knowledge of individual differences, we do not construe this to mean equality of powers and abilities or of other innate or acquired personal traits. But equality as a social principle means equality of rights and opportunities therefore no special privileges; it means the equal chance to attain to one's fullest possible development; it means accepting duties, responsibilities, and service in proportion to abilities; it means compensation in proportion to services rendered; and it means the general diffusion among the people of the knowledge, the ethics, the idealism, and the spirit which as nearly as possible shall make this equality actual and effective. . . .

Education is a function of the state, and certainly the state ought to render its services and extend its benefits equally to all children.

But everywhere we find inequalities in the services and benefits of the public schools. . . . The bitter fruits of this inequality of opportunity endure thruout the lives of the generation affected.

Equality of opportunity, the birthright of every American, should involve for each individual the opportunity to live a healthy, happy, satisfying life, to have a comfortable, sanitary home, to have useful employment that yields a comfortable living for self and dependents, to be surrounded by the beauty and truth that are inspiring and elevating rather than by the ugliness and deceptions that are discouraging and degrading, to enjoy the same rights under the law as are enjoyed by those more powerful or more favored by fortune, and to have the benefits of such educational facilities and other means of proper development as will enable the individual to become the happiest, most efficient, and most useful member of society possible with his natural endowments.

9. FREEDOM

. . . Self-expression is the source of our keenest satisfactions, and freedom is basic to self-expression.

How to preserve the fullest possible measure of freedom at a time when social living is necessarily surrounding each of us with a network of prohibitions which the welfare of our neighbors imposes upon us, is a very real problem. The deep sense of satisfaction experienced in making one's own decisions, fundamental as it is in preserving self-respect, should be kept in mind by society as it endeavors to assure to every person the widest sphere of freedom compatible with the equal freedom of others and with certain paramount public interests such as safety, health, decency, and quiet. Pains should be taken to assure to all at least freedom of choice of mate, of occupation, of movement, of place of residence, of manner of life, and of industrial, political, religious, and cultural affiliations.

The greatest stress, however, should be laid on what may be termed the *agitative liberties, i.e.,* freedom of speech, of the press, of the screen, of broadcasting, of assembling, of demonstrating, of organizing. . . .

10. FAIR PLAY

By fair play as a social virtue, we mean not only the justice defined by the courts but also the good sportsmanship that should be practised by the individuals constituting our society in all their relations with one another. . . .

Fair play is simply the Golden Rule boiled down to two words. It is the practise by the individual of his duty as a member of society

to act in conformity with the highest good of all other members of society. It rests upon mutual respect for the rights of others and must depend for its attainment upon good will more than upon law. . . .

According to the report of this committee, education "must take the lead in spreading among the people an understanding of their national social-economic goals, and in creating an active public opinion for their support. This involves not only the educational system devised for the

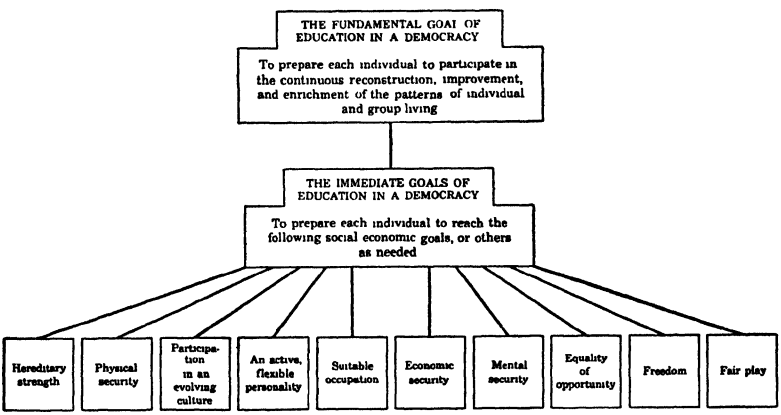

FIG. 10. The goals of education in a democracy. The immediate goals are based upon the "Social-Economic Goals of America," which were formulated by a committee appointed by the National Education Association.

young, but continued education for adults as well." The committee concludes that the schools cannot progress intelligently with this task unless education is universal "(1) in its extent and application, (2) in its materials and methods, and (3) in its aims and spirit."

From certain quarters criticisms of this report have come on the ground that it implies that the social-economic goals are to be taught as final values, like the multiplication table. These critics fear that pupils will be indoctrinated in them to the exclusion of other, and possibly better, goals; they fear a crystallization of patterns rather than the realization of the ultimate aim of education, namely, the ability and the desire to reconstruct and to improve patterns. It seems,

however, that the report has taken every reasonable step to guard against crystallization of patterns. It merely calls attention to what it regards as desirable patterns for present-day democracy. Throughout the report the democratic philosophy seems to obtain and the stated goals are in accord with the following democratic ideal which the committee adopts:

> . . . In interpreting this faith and purpose for the life of today we reaffirm as our most cherished ideal the opportunity for all our people to develop free, cooperative, rich lives, to stand confidently on their own feet, to judge clearly and effectively by means of their own trained intelligence, to act vigorously as occasion requires, to enjoy the highest values that modern life now offers to the most privileged, to engage joyously in the free exchanges of a shared life. This ideal determines the nation's social and economic goals.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Discuss the relative contributions of science and of philosophy to civilization of the past and present. Does each exist as the handmaid of the other, and could one reach full fruition without the other? Explain.
2. Are the fruits of science always good? Are the fruits of philosophy always good? Explain and illustrate.
3. What evidences of lack of democracy do you see in the functioning of our life today?
4. Ignorance and selfishness are usually regarded as the greatest enemies of democracy. To what extent have the schools been successful in thwarting these enemies?
5. Since there are so many philosophies of education in vogue at all times, can the educator have any assurance that his philosophy is the best? Why or why not? Should persons who are not loyal to democratic principles be employed in the schools? Why or why not?
6. What are a few of the chief tenets of certain eminent educational philosophers, such as Rousseau, Pestalozzi, and Dewey? Do these tenets reconcile with your own? Explain.
7. What are your views with reference to the following questions, all of which have caused, or are now causing, much controversy? Do the views which you hold on these matters square with your democratic philosophy of education? Explain.
   a. Universal education and the universal establishment of public schools
   b. Universal taxation for public schools

c. Compulsory school attendance
d. Free education for everyone on every school level
e. Separation of church and the public school
f. Equality of educational opportunity
g. Indoctrination versus letting the pupil decide for himself
h. Freedom versus discipline

8. Do you agree with Bode (see the quotation on page 77 of this book) that educational aims may be a handicap instead of a help? Why or why not? How may the possible handicaps of educational aims be avoided?

9. As a teacher, supervisor, or administrator, how would you proceed to formulate aims for your department, school, or school system? To what extent would you confer with other school employees, school officials, pupils, and the general public in formulating your aims?

10. What advantages, if any, would there be in each state formulating a set of educational goals or aims such as the educational leaders of Michigan have recently formulated and adopted? What dangers, if any, would you see in such a plan?

11. From reading the "Social-Economic Goals of America," reproduced in part on pages 81 to 86 of this book, do you see any real danger of indoctrination and crystallization of patterns? Explain.

12. Discuss the following questions which accompany the Michigan set of educational goals and which are calculated to encourage discussion of the goals:[1]

a. Should teachers be obligated to teach that democracy is, or can be made, the best type of government?
b. Does the school devote sufficient time to instruction in social, economic, and political problems of American life?
c. Are there additional qualities of character that should be emphasized in training pupils for a democratic society? Why?
d. Is there a type of discipline that trains the child to direct himself rather than to be dependent on the autocracy of forced obedience?
e. Do children need special training in cooperation?
f. What are some of the activities of a school that afford training in cooperation?
g. Is it better to emphasize that the social world grows, changes, and improves, rather than to teach that "whatever is, is right" in the community or state?
h. Is it possible to have classroom activities that will enable children to discover truths for themselves?
i. Why do some people believe that it would be sufficient to make

[1] Taken from the *Ninety-Second Annual Report* of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, pp. 13–15.

the following goal the sole purpose of the elementary school: to develop the effective use of the fundamental knowledge and skills required by all?

j. How thorough a mastery of the fundamental skills should be required of all pupils?

k. How much vocational training should be provided in the elementary school? In the junior high school? In the senior high school?

l. Is it likely to be too costly to provide health training for all?

m. How valuable to American civilization are specialized services such as those of the physician, the engineer, the metallurgist, and the scientist?

n. How many persons should be trained for specialized services and how should these persons be selected for training?

o. Is it proper to use public funds for "training on the enrichment of adult life"?

p. How would emphasis on training for the enrichment of adult life tend to decrease crime and unhappiness?

q. Should society re-educate the workers thrown out of employment because of technological changes?

r. Are you convinced that democratic educational training decreases the danger of costly revolutions or dictatorships?

s. Since your experience in school, has the school changed as much as the social and economic conditions have?

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PART II

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE SCHOOLS

Chapter III

GENERAL POLICIES OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

PURPOSE OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

Necessity for administration. The schools must be properly administered if the public and the pupils are not to be cheated. They cannot run themselves any more than a private business can run itself. School administration exists to make the schools more efficient. Its purpose is to see that 100 cents' worth of education is secured from each dollar expended. It must always be a slave to the pupil's welfare.

There are hundreds of details pertaining to the administration of a school system, and for looking after these details someone must be responsible; unless someone is responsible—and he well qualified for the responsibility—there is likely to be maladjustment and friction, all of which results in waste. School policies must be formulated, the policies must be placed into operation, and a check must be made to ascertain how efficiently the policies are operating. Teachers, principals, janitors, bus drivers, and other employees must be appointed, paid, supervised, promoted, and a few of them demoted or dismissed. Buildings, equipment, and supplies must be provided. The boundaries for individual schools must be established. A pupil transportation system must be organized, especially in the rural districts. The children must be enrolled in school and kept there; they must be properly classified, instructed, and promoted. Provision must be made for textbooks, libraries, and other instructional materials. To attend to all these matters requires a large amount of time and effort, and what is more important, properly to attend to them requires special prep-

aration in school administration. Albeit necessary, common sense, which someone has dubbed "the most uncommon thing in the world," will not suffice for the efficient administration of a school or a school system.

Democracy in school administration. In the early days there was little or no democracy in school administration. School employees were mere cogs in a machine. They had no part in school administration. Although that autocratic policy is still followed in many school systems, in the more progressive school systems democracy in administration is practiced. In these systems employees are being given a voice in school administration; their opinions are welcomed and sought. More significant still, much of the work of administering the school or school system is being placed in the hands of employees who perform this work as individuals or as members of committees. The employees serve on special committees, such as those for teachers' meetings, extraclass activities, the curriculum, pupil guidance, public and professional relations, school supplies and equipment, and the school library.

School employees of today, therefore, must have a quantum of knowledge of school administration. They must know something of how the schools are organized and administered if they are to cooperate properly with school officials and are to make suggestions looking toward the improvement of school administration. A large part of the work of modern classroom teachers consists of school administration.

GENERAL POLICIES OF SCHOOL CONTROL

American versus foreign policies. In no other country do the schools belong to the people as much in the United States, and in no other country is the administration of the schools as close to the people. Whereas in other countries education is a governmental affair concerning which the people do not have much voice, in the United States the people control the schools through such means as the election of school officials and the voting of revenues. The ad-

ministration of the school systems of most foreign countries is more highly centralized than in the United States. In most of those countries education is a division of the central government, is financed largely or wholly by the central government, and is directed by a minister of education or a secretary of education; moreover, there is complete or large uniformity in education in the various communities of those countries. From the point of view of organization, financial support, and administration, therefore, the school systems of most foreign countries may be called *national.*

In the United States there is a separate school system for *each state and each territory;* thus, there are forty-eight state school systems and eight territorial school systems. Each of these school systems is sovereign and controls its own destiny. With the exception of the territorial school systems, there is no federal control as there is in most foreign countries, nor is there federal financial support for general education as there is in most foreign countries. There is no "American system of education" in the sense that there is an English, a French, a Japanese, or a Danish system of education.

Our state and territorial systems of education are, however, more similar than dissimilar. Although they differ in detail, they are somewhat similar in their fundamentals. They have, for example, somewhat similar forms of organization, somewhat similar means of financial support, and somewhat similar curriculums. And unquestionably the domination of a common ideal, namely, *that every individual shall have a certain quantum of education, and may have any amount of education at public expense "from the gutter through the university,"* has been the chief factor in causing similarity in our school systems. Guided by this common ideal, our school systems have become increasingly similar through the long-time operation of experimentation and imitation. This experimentation and imitation have worked somewhat as follows: a certain state has adopted a given policy, has demonstrated the merit of the policy, and before many years have elapsed other states—perhaps all of them —have adopted the same policy. It is this common educa-

tional ideal and this similarity in the more fundamental elements of the American state and territorial school systems which residents of foreign countries and our own citizens have in mind when they speak of the "American system of education," of the "school system of the United States," or when they call this system a *national* system.

Explanations for our policy. There has never been any federal control of schools in the United States. Education was not mentioned in either the Articles of Confederation adopted in 1783 or in the Constitution of the United States adopted in 1787. Apparently these frameworks of government assumed, at least by silence, that the responsibility for education was to be left entirely to the respective states. Moreover, the Tenth Amendment to the United States Constitution, which amendment was ratified in 1791, affirmed that "the powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people."[1] What are the explanations for the failure of our forefathers to make provision for federal organization, financial support, and control of education? The following explanations may be given:

1. The thirteen original colonies which joined hands to form the United States had begun colonial systems of education long before the adoption of the federal Constitution. Moreover, these colonial systems represented various educational traditions and beliefs which the several colonies were interested in maintaining, and which they were afraid they could not maintain under federal control of education.

2. There were many urgent problems of the new federal government without undertaking those of education. Besides, because society was then less complex than today, education was less necessary; moreover, the home and the church were then much more potent factors in education than today, and their efforts made a formal educational agency, such as the school, less necessary.

3. Our forefathers were skeptical of making a central govern-

[1] In view of this amendment, it is questionable whether, without a change in the Constitution, the federal government could legally assume any control of education in the states. Proponents of state and local control argue, however, that it could, through financial subsidies and the control which follows such subsidies, superimpose a federal system of education upon the state systems.

ment too strong. They desired to maintain the proper balance of power between the federal government and the state governments. They preferred strong state governments to a strong federal government. There was not much feeling of nationalism in those days.

Comparative merits of state and national control. Although education in the United States has historically been under the control of the states and of the local communities, and although there appears to have been general satisfaction with such control, arguments are frequently presented for federal control.[1] For federal control such as most foreign countries have, many persons argue that such control would beget greater efficiency for the schools. They affirm that in state and local control school funds are frequently wasted both through the adoption of poor policies and through the inefficient administration of excellent policies; they maintain that much of this waste would be eliminated through federal control. They also point out that under federal control educational opportunities and school tax burdens would be equalized among the various states, whereas large inequalities in such opportunities and burdens result from state and local control.

The arguments just stated for federal control of the schools are attacked, however, by the proponents of state and local control. Those proponents affirm that state and local control enables the states and local communities to meet their individual needs, whereas federal control might result in a national uniformity which would neglect the needs of the various states and of the various communities within the states. They argue, too, that state and local control more readily permits educational experimentation, the results of which may become immediately known to, and be adopted by, other states and other communities.

Federal interest in education. Although education was not mentioned in the Articles of Confederation or in the Constitution of the United States, and although there has never been federal control of education within the states, the federal government has always been interested in education. As was indicated in Chapter I, the Presidents of the United States have universally expressed their faith and

their interest in education. For example, George Washington, our first President (1789–1797), said in his Farewell Address on September 17, 1796:

> Promote, then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened.

Thomas Jefferson, our third President (1801–1809), recognized the importance of education as few other persons did. More than any other person of his generation he was responsible for translating and adapting the gospel of the French Revolutionists—the gospel of liberty, equality, and fraternity—to American conditions. Jefferson had abiding faith in democracy, and he saw that efficient democracy could not be achieved by an ignorant citizenry. Education was seen by him to be the ferment which was necessary to make democracy work. The faith of Jefferson in education is seen in the following quotation from him:

> If a nation expects to be ignorant and free in a state of civilization it expects what never was and will be. The functions of every government have propensities to command at will the liberty and property of their constituents. There is no safe deposit for these but with the people themselves; nor can they be safe with them without information.

It is not with sympathetic sentiments and kind words alone that the federal government has shown its interest in education. That interest has been shown in at least two material ways. In the first place, the federal government has granted millions of acres of land and hundreds of millions of dollars to the states for the support of education;[1] information regarding these land and money grants will be presented in Chapter VI of this book. In the second place, the interest of the federal government in education has been demonstrated through the creation of many bureaus, offices, and other agencies which are wholly or partly educational.

[1] This policy was begun as early as 1785, when lot 16 in each "Congressional Township" in the Northwest Territory was set aside for the support of schools.

In certain fields, though, the responsibility of the federal government for education is primary and well defined and has been assumed by the federal government. According to the Report of the National Advisory Committee on Education there are six fields of educational activity which are outside the jurisdictions of the states. These six fields are:

1. The education of persons resident on special federal areas, such as government reservations and federal districts, lying outside the legal jurisdiction of the state and other regional governments.
2. The education of the American Indians and other indigenous peoples within the national jurisdiction.
3. The education of the peoples of the Territories and outlying possessions.
4. The training of persons in the service of the national government.
5. Scientific research and the collection and diffusion of information regarding education.
6. The intellectual and educational cooperation of the United States with other nations.[1]

The chief educational agency of the federal government is the *United States Office of Education.* In 1866, the National Association of State and City School Superintendents (now known as the American Association of School Administrators) went on record as favoring the establishment of a federal bureau of education. This organization was supported in its request by many other organizations and by many private citizens. A bill providing for such a department was introduced in Congress by James A. Garfield, and was enacted into law on March 2, 1867. It read as follows:

Be it enacted, by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled. That there shall be established, at the city of Washington, a department of education, for the purpose of collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems, and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and

[1] *Federal Relations to Education:* Part I, *Committee Findings and Recommendations,* pp. 9–10.

otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country.—39th Congress, 2d Session—1867. (14 Stat. L., p. 434.)

In 1869, The Department of Education, which was created by the law of 1867, was replaced by the Office of Education and made a division of the Department of the Interior. In 1870, the office was renamed the Bureau of Education, and this title was retained until 1929 when the title of Office of Education was restored. In 1939, the Office of Education was transferred from the Department of the Interior to the newly created Federal Security Agency. The ranking official of the office has always held the title of Commissioner of Education. Although the Commissioner has always been appointed by the President on a semipolitical basis, practically all of them have been outstanding educators. Practically all of the regular employees of the office are under the civil-service laws of the United States government.[1] The employees compare favorably in quality with the employees of the best universities. They are regarded as experts in their fields.

The duties of the office as outlined in the statutes of 1867 creating the office have been closely followed. The general duty has been to stimulate the development of education, not to control or administer it. The main work of the office has been to collect and to disseminate information on education. The office diffuses such information through (1) its many publications consisting of reports of special studies, of the biennial survey of education, of a magazine called *School Life,* and of other works; (2) conferences of educational and lay leaders, these conferences being called by the Commissioner of Education or by members of his staff; (3) correspondence; and (4) addresses by the Commissioner of Education and his staff members. The statistical reports of the office are recognized as the best reports on education in the world, in spite of the fact that the office does not have the legal power to require state and local officials to provide the information on which the reports

[1] The divisions of the U. S. Office of Education and the names of the persons in charge of these divisions may be found in the *Educational Directory,* which is published annually by the U. S. Office of Education.

are based. During recent years the office has conducted, at the request of local and state governing boards, many surveys or constructive investigations of local and state educational systems and of colleges and universities. It has also been given the duty of supervising the distribution and expenditure of funds for vocational education and other purposes.

A large part of the service of the office is provided gratis and any of it may be procured at actual cost. Any of the publications may be procured at actual cost from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. For the use of its staff and of any citizen, the office maintains the most complete library on education in the world. Among its numerous services the library staff has prepared bibliographies on many educational topics and will upon request, so far as its time and its resources permit, prepare other bibliographies; such service is available to any school emyloyee or other citizen, usually free of charge.

In addition to the Office of Education, which is the chief educational agency of the United States government, there are numerous other federal agencies which perform educational services. In fact, every department of government (War, Navy, Agriculture, etc.) may be said to be partly educational. Every department has as its reason for existing the giving of service, and one large phase of that service is the providing of information to any citizen who may request it.

Many of our citizens believe that the federal government has not shown sufficient interest and participation in education. Further interest and participation for the federal government has been advocated from time to time along three lines: (1) a federal Department of Education with a Secretary of Education coordinate with the other federal departments such as the Department of State, the Department of War, and the Department of Agriculture; (2) federal aid to general education, as is now given to certain phases of special education, such as vocational (agriculture, home economics, and trades) and distribu-

tive[1] education; and (3) the establishment of a national university.

Each of these proposals has had numerous advocates, and many sessions of Congress have seen bills introduced looking toward placing the proposals into legislation. The proposal for a national university has been made since the days of George Washington, who made provision in his will for such an institution.[2] This recommendation has been repeated by many succeeding presidents, but no action has been taken and is not likely to be taken because of the recent development of many great state and private universities.

Although many earlier proposals had been made for a Department of Education and for a federal subsidy for general education, these two proposals became particularly insistent about the time of the close of World War I (1914–1918). Albeit its results were not always good, that world cataclysm gave one of the greatest stimuli which education has ever received. On the credit side of the educational ledger the war demonstrated that education enabled our soldiers to make greater progress than they could have made without education; for example, it was found [illegible] far the majority of the men who won officers' commissions in the training camps were college graduates. On the other side of the ledger, the war recorded the fact that one fourth of the soldiers—and they, it should be noted, were the flower of American manhood, between the ages of twenty and thirty—who responded to the draft were unable to read an English newspaper and to write a letter. The draft also showed that approximately 29 per cent of the men examined could not be accepted for general military service because of physical incompetency. Moreover, it was found that the men who came from certain states, especially the states which had not developed efficient school systems, had

[1] *Distributive education* means education for retail selling and other distributive occupations.

[2] In his will, Washington gave fifty shares in the Potomac Company, worth then about $25,000, toward the endowment of such an institution, provided Congress should "incline to extend a fostering hand toward it." The Potomac Company has long since been bankrupt. (For a brief account of the history of these proposals, the interested reader is referred to Paul Monroe's *Cyclopedia of Education,* Vol. IV, Macmillan, 1918, pp. 385–386.)

a much larger percentage of illiteracy and physical disability than the men who came from other states.[1] These were disconcerting facts and stood out as a criticism of some of our state school systems. Then it was that education came to be more and more looked upon as not a state problem alone, but as a problem in which the federal government must participate if the perpetuity and progress of the nation were to be assured.

Since 1918, practically every session of Congress has seen a bill introduced for the establishment of a federal Department of Education with a Secretary of Education in the President's cabinet. Most of these bills have also provided for a large subsidy to the states for general education in the elementary and secondary schools. As yet, none of these bills has been enacted into law.

The advocates of these proposals believe that education does not have sufficient prestige at present in the federal government. They point out that in the federal government education does not have a higher rank than such activities as the dairy industry, the plant industry, and entomology. They affirm that a Department of Education headed by a Secretary of Education would make education more articulate. They insist that education vitally affects the welfare and progress of the whole nation, and that, in consequence, the federal government should take a larger interest in it. Contrariwise, the opponents of such legislation point out the danger of bureaucracy and autocracy in any federal control of education. They fear an encroachment upon the American ideals of personal liberty and individuality—that a federal department of education and a federal subsidy for education would tend to remove the control of the schools from the hands of the people and to place it in the hands of federal officials who would be in a position to *regiment* the education and the lives of the people. They fear also that placing a Secretary of Education in the President's cabinet would throw education into the maelstrom of "politics" on a national scale.

[1] Similar conditions have been found in World War II. Illiteracy, though, is much less common than in World War I.

STATE VERSUS LOCAL CONTROL OF EDUCATION

Evolution of state control. One of the outstanding changing conceptions of the people of the United States regarding education has been concerning the relative place of the state and of the local community in education. In the early days the local communities were in complete control of education, and the colonial and state constitutions and statutes were silent on education. In those days the local communities could provide schools or not provide them, as they chose, or if they provided schools, they could provide any kind—efficient or inefficient.

To the credit of the faith of the American people in education, it is worth repeating that many communities provided truly public schools before there were state laws requiring their establishment. Schools were often started as soon as the settlers had established their homes. In Massachusetts, for example, the first permanent settlement was made in 1620, and schools which were truly public were established by certain communities as early as 1635.

Notwithstanding the avid and widespread interest of the early settlers in education, it was soon found that leaving to each community the decision of whether schools should be established resulted in many communities not establishing them. In consequence, the state legislatures deemed it necessary or advisable to enact legislation for the establishment, the organization, and the support of schools. As was pointed out in Chapter I, Massachusetts, as early as 1647, enacted a law which required each community having fifty or more families to establish an elementary school, and each community having one hundred or more families to establish a grammar school in addition to an elementary school. It was noted, too, that even before the law of 1647, Massachusetts had enacted in 1642 a law which required parents to see that their children learned to read.

The Massachusetts laws of 1642 and 1647 were the genesis of state control of education. Since that time hundreds of other laws have been enacted in each of the forty-eight states to provide for the establishment, the organization, the supervision, the control, and the support of

schools; in fact, there is today scarcely a feature of the organization and administration of schools upon which the state laws are silent. Moreover, all of the present state constitutions have a pronouncement on the importance of education and on the responsibility of the state for providing schools.

Education as a state function.[1] From the earliest days the conviction has been growing that the state must be responsible for seeing that its citizens have a certain kind and amount of education. That the state has this responsibility is shown by the state constitutions, the hundreds of school statutes in each state, and the scores of decisions of local, state, and federal courts. The assumption of educational control by the state did not come by chance. State control has come because of the early and ever-growing belief that education is the buttress of a democratic government and that because of its necessity it cannot be left to the whims of any individual, of any church, of any community, or of any other group.

It is true that in the administration of the schools the state has *delegated* most administrative functions to counties, cities, towns, villages, townships, and other local school districts. These powers and duties have been delegated by the state legislatures which are the supreme lawmaking bodies in state government. If a state wishes to increase or to decrease the powers and duties which it has delegated to local school officials, it may do so through changing its laws. Local school officials and employees are, therefore, merely agents of the state for carrying out the educational dictates of the state; if they are also responsible to the people of the local community, it is only because the state has delegated to the people of the local community a certain amount of the responsibility for education.

Desirable limitations of state control. From the beginning the tendency has been for the state to assume larger control of education. In brief, as the years have passed, local communities have given back to state government

[1] Sometimes the state has delegated to private schools and to parents the function of providing education. The function of providing education is not exclusively a state function, as we shall see later.

more and more of the control of education. Perhaps it would be more accurate to say that such responsibility has been *taken from* local communities by state government because local communities have not given up willingly their educational prerogatives. States have more and more taken back the educational responsibility because the local communities could not or would not assume the responsibility satisfactorily. Much as it has been opposed, the inevitable drift has been toward *centralization* of school control. As would be expected, there is a larger amount of state control in the older states, that is, the eastern states, than in the newer states of the other sections of the United States.

What are desirable limits of state control? On one hand, there are many persons who believe that state control has already gone far enough in the typical state; in fact, some believe that it has gone *too far*. These persons maintain that the state control now exercised in certain states is tending to stifle community interest and initiative, to standardize

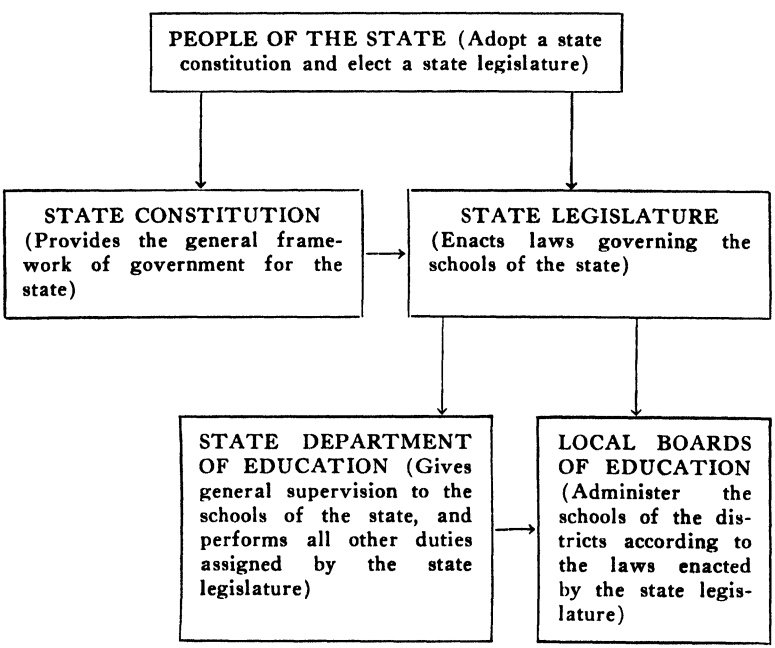


FIG. 11. The flow of authority for the control and administration of schools in each state of the United States.

education, and to ignore in many ways the needs of local communities. They fear that through its power to control education, and especially through its power to determine what shall be taught, the state is likely to try to regiment its citizens by indoctrinating them with only one point of view, namely, the view of those in power. These persons worship the "God of individuality."

On the other hand, there are many persons who believe that state control in the typical state has not gone far enough. These persons contend that schools will be more efficient when the state legislatures have enacted more stringent laws which determine most educational standards, policies, and procedures of local communities. These persons worship the "God of social cooperation."

The problem is, therefore, that of reconciling the two American ideals of (1) individuality and (2) social cooperation. That has always been our problem. It is the eternal problem of democratic governments.

Probably the best type of control—and this is the ideal toward which practice seems to be striving—would be for the state to establish *minimum standards,* especially in the more fundamental aspects of an educational program, which every community in the state would be expected to meet. When the minimum standards have been established, prudence would probably dictate that the local community be permitted to exercise its initiative in experimenting and in exceeding those standards. In any event, since education is so important for the individual and for society, the state should make sure that no pupil, because of his residence, poverty, or other vicissitude of fortune, is denied his educational heritage.

STATE CONTROL OF PRIVATE EFFORT IN EDUCATION [1]

Evolution of private effort. The first schools established in the United States were private schools, and in many of the colonial and state governments for several decades

[1] As used here, the term *private schools* also includes parochial schools; most private schools are parochial.

private-school enrollment exceeded public-school enrollment. Since the universal establishment of public schools and their improvement, the percentage of the total population enrolled in public schools has been increasing, and the percentage enrolled in private schools has been decreasing. This tendency has been noticed particularly during the last five or six decades, and especially in the secondary schools and the colleges. It is observed that the percentage of all elementary-school pupils enrolled in private schools has decreased from 11.7 in 1890 to less than 10 today. The percentage of all secondary-school pupils enrolled in private schools has decreased from 31.9 in 1890 to approximately 5 today, and the percentage of all college students enrolled in private institutions has decreased from 84.4 in 1890 to approximately 45 today. Private schools have been decreasing largely because of the difficulty of financing them.

What are the motives which have impelled millions of parents to send their children to private schools where they usually must pay tuition at the same time that they must pay taxes to support the public schools? Two motives stand out: First, there has been the belief on the part of many parents that the private school is better than the public school—at least that it can meet better the needs of their children; second, there has been the desire, especially in the case of the parochial schools, to give the children instruction in religion, which could not be given legally in a public school.

Amount of state control of private effort. With few exceptions the historic policy of the state legislatures has been to encourage private effort in education. Private schools, which were not run for profit, have always been exempt from taxation the same as public schools. Seldom has legislation been enacted which would discourage private schools; neither has there been an undue amount of state control of such schools. In the early days, not only was there an entire absence of state supervision and control of private schools, but such schools were frequently supported largely by public moneys. Shortly after the opening of the nineteenth century, however, the policy of giving public funds for the support of

private schools began to be regarded as unsound, and it was not long until the legislatures of practically all the states enacted statutes prohibiting the use of public funds for such purpose. Moreover, as new constitutions were adopted or as old constitutions were amended, most of the states wrote into their constitutions a section which prohibited the use of public moneys for the support of private schools.[1] Typical of these pronouncements is that of the present constitution of Ohio (Article VI, Section 2) which says:

> The general assembly shall make such provisions, by taxation, or otherwise, as, with the income arising from the school trust fund, will secure a thorough and efficient system of common schools throughout the state; but no religious or other sect, or sects, shall ever have any exclusive right to, or control of, any part of the school funds of this state.

Coincident with the enactment of legislation prohibiting the use of public funds for the financing of private schools came legislation which established certain state inspection of private schools. At present, such inspection extends from almost nothing in a few states to a large amount in other states. Certain states require the same minimum standards of private schools as are required of public schools; other states have little or no state control for private schools, except to check up the attendance of children in these schools. The tendency, however, in both theory and practice is to require private schools to meet the same minimum standards which are demanded of public schools.

Although they are easily in the minority, many of our fellow citizens believe that for the state merely to *standardize* private schools does not go far enough. They would *abolish* such schools because of their belief that they are snobbish and do not provide equality of opportunity. In brief, they believe that all children, especially in the elementary school, should be required to attend the public schools. This feeling, a few years ago (1922), became sufficiently

[1] A few states have recently enacted laws which provide textbooks and transportation for private-school pupils the same as for public-school pupils. The courts have usually declared such aid legal because it is given to the pupils and not to the school.

strong in one state (Oregon) to secure the enactment of a law which would have abolished all private schools for children below the age of sixteen. This law, however, was declared unconstitutional by the United States Supreme Court in 1925; part of that famous decision reads as follows:

> The fundamental theory of liberty upon which all governments in the Union repose excludes any general power of the State to standardize its children by forcing them to accept instruction from public teachers only. The child is not the mere creature of the State; those who nurture him and direct his destiny have the right coupled with the high duty to recognize and prepare him for additional duties.

STATE ORGANIZATION FOR THE CONTROL OF EDUCATION

Earlier in this chapter, it was stated that education has from almost the earliest days been regarded as a *state* function; this is demonstrated by state statutes, state constitutions, and decisions of the courts. It was not until 1784, however, that any state established a personnel and an organization for the general supervision and control of education. This first legislation was enacted by the state of New York when it created the so-called "University" with its Board of Regents, and gave this institution and its governing board jurisdiction over the colleges and academies of the state. In 1787, the law of 1784 was revised, and the Board of Regents was given more definite powers pertaining to the colleges and the academies. The University of the State of New York which was created by the Act of 1784 was not, however, in the commonly accepted sense a university at all; it was rather a *state board of education.* This was the first state board in the nation.

Not only was New York the first state to establish a state board of education, but it was the first state to make provision for a *chief state school official.* In 1812, the legislature enacted a law which provided for the appointment of a State Superintendent of Common Schools. Gideon Hawley was appointed on January 14, 1813, to this office, and thus

became the first chief state school official in the United States. In fact, he was the first superintendent of schools, state or local, in the United States.

How are we to account for the long delay in establishing the offices of state board of education and chief state school official, which today are considered so necessary that the latter is found in every state and the former in practically every state? At least two retarding influences stand out. First, the early theory of individual and community rights met with popular approval. To our forefathers—practically all of whom were rugged individualists—any centralization of power and authority smacked of autocracy, and to autocracy they were unalterably opposed. Second, the idea of the association of the church and the state, especially in educational matters, was prevalent and was difficult to eradicate from the minds of the people. These two influences made for decentralization in school control and organization down to almost the middle of the nineteenth century and kept even the beginnings of state supervision from appearing until the opening of the nineteenth century. The offices had to wait, therefore, until unmistakable needs brought them into being.

The state board of education. The second state to establish a state board of education was Massachusetts in 1837, and one of the first acts of this board was to elect Horace Mann secretary. Since that date all states, with the exception of about half a dozen, have created such boards with general educational functions. The remaining states have state boards but with restricted function, such as administering the vocational-education laws or administering all or some of the state institutions of higher learning.

The function of the state boards varies from that of merely advising the chief state school official to large control of the educational system. The Board of Regents, which is the state board of education in the state of New York, has larger powers and duties than the board of any other state. The tendency has been to give the state board of education larger functions, and at present, in most states, it has general supervision over education in the state; this

function is exercised with the assistance of the chief state school official and his staff.

In most states there is still a two-headed state organization for education, consisting of a state board of education on the one hand, and a chief state school official on the other hand. The evils inherent in such a two-headed organization have been mitigated in most states by making the chief state school official an *ex officio* member and an *ex officio* officer of the state board; the tendency has been to make him the chief executive officer of the state board. Frequently, however, the state board of education is responsible to a different authority than the chief state school official, and this has often led to friction and duplication of effort.

The number of members on state boards of education now ranges from three to twelve, with seven being the model number. The members are selected in one of the following manners: appointment by the governor, appointment by the chief state school official, election by popular vote at a regular or a special election, *ex officio* membership, or by a combination of two or more of the plans just mentioned. In most states, the members are selected "at large," that is, to represent the whole state and not a particular section of the state. As a rule, no legal qualifications are prescribed for the members except residence within the state. In practically all of the states the members serve without pay. The term of office ranges from one year to twelve years; the modal term is six years.

The state department of education. Every state now has a state department of education, which is constituted of the chief state school official and his staff. The title which has been most frequently used in designating the chief state school official is Superintendent of Public Instruction. The next most frequently used title has been Commissioner of Education.[1] The term of office is now usually prescribed by law at either two or four years, but a few states prescribe an indefinite tenure.

[1] An up-to-date list of the occupants of this office, together with their official titles, can be found in *Educational Directory,* which is published annually by the U. S. Office of Education.

The office of chief state school official is potentially the most important educational office in a state, the presidency of the state university not excepted. The importance of the office is more fully realized when it is remembered that education is not only the most important business of the state, but by far the largest business of the state. The chief state school official has the responsibility of directing this large and important public enterprise.

The office should be the head and the heart of the school system of the state. It should encourage, supervise, and direct the development of the whole school system of the state from the kindergarten through the university. It should bring every worthy educational endeavor in the state within its vitalizing influence. These aims are not always accomplished because the legislation pertaining to the office is archaic in many respects. Like Topsy, the office in most states has "just growed."

The chief handicap under which the office labors results from the method of selecting the incumbent. Almost two thirds of the states still elect the chief state school official by popular vote, and practically all of these still elect him on a partisan ticket. The remaining states permit either the governor or the state board of education to select the chief state school official. Popular election of school superintendents may be criticized on the following bases: (1) it establishes residence restrictions for its candidates; (2) it results in a low and static salary; (3) it begets a short tenure for the holder of the office; (4) and worst of all, it subjects the selection of the person best qualified for the office to the vicissitudes of "politics." The chief state school official must be a technically trained expert in school administration, and the people should delegate the responsibility of selecting him to such a group of their representatives as the state board of education.

There are many other handicaps under which the office still labors. Most of these handicaps are the result of statutes and constitutions which were enacted or adopted years ago, and which have become petrified and difficult to change. This petrification of the forms of the office has

been especially the result of the state constitutions which, as a rule, not only mandate the legislature to create and maintain the office, but prescribe as well many of the important features of the office. Almost two thirds of the states now provide for the office in their state constitutions, and most of these constitutions prescribe certain of the features of the office. Thus, it happens that many features of the office have become petrified over a long period of years and have frequently been unable to give way expeditiously to new and better practices. The more modern state departments of education are found in the eastern states, which as a rule do not prescribe in their constitutions any of the features of the office, but have left entirely to the legislatures the establishing of such features.

To have the best leadership from the state department of education will require the most favorable conditions pertaining to the office of chief state school official, because that office makes the department largely what it is. These favorable conditions would be somewhat as follows: The chief state school official should be appointed by the state board of education without regard to his residence, his politics, or any other extraneous factor. He should be paid a salary commensurable to his ability and to the importance of his office, and such salary should be determined by the state board of education. The term of office should be indefinite, or of a sufficient number of years to make possible the development of a constructive educational program. Under the general control, supervision, and direction of the state board of education, the chief state school official should be the executive head of the state school system. For the prompt and efficient performance of its work, the office should be given an adequate and competent staff, and the members of this staff should be selected and paid wholly on the basis of their ability and their accomplishments. School officials and employees should urge the adoption of state laws which will obtain the practices just mentioned. They should labor ardently for such laws, because the schools can never give full service until they are managed by the most efficient leaders possible.

LOCAL ORGANIZATION FOR THE CONTROL OF EDUCATION

School administrative units. The state is the legal unit for the control of schools, although most of the actual administration of the schools has been delegated by the state to subdivisions of the state; these subdivisions are known as *school districts.* With the exception of a few decades at the beginning of the schools, the school districts have generally been entirely independent from other governmental activities. This separation was decided upon because of the belief that the schools should have protection from the changing fortunes of partisan politics which frequently obtains in the administration of other phases of government. For the reason just given this separation is favored by practically all professional educators, but the separation is vigorously opposed by practically all authorities in political science. A typical conclusion of the latter group is quoted herewith:

> . . . The existing separation between school government and other local government, however much it may have been justified in the past, now stands in the way of an adequate local governmental organization. To separate the function of education from other functions of government, to give school authorities and teachers a feeling of irresponsibility for the rest of the government, to permit school budgets to be made, school taxes to be levied, and school bonds to be issued, without reference to other governmental needs, is in the long run unwholesome for the educational system itself and for the political institutions of the country. Education will always be one of the important functions of government, but it will not fare the worse and probably will greatly benefit from being more closely articulated with all the other activities of state and local government.[1]

Within the United States there are now approximately 120,000 school districts, and these districts are governed by approximately 400,000 school-board members. There are numerous types of school districts; in fact, each state usually has several types. The districts vary in size from

[1] William Anderson, *The Units of Government in the United States,* Public Administration Service, 1934, p. 35. By permission of Public Administration Service, publishers.

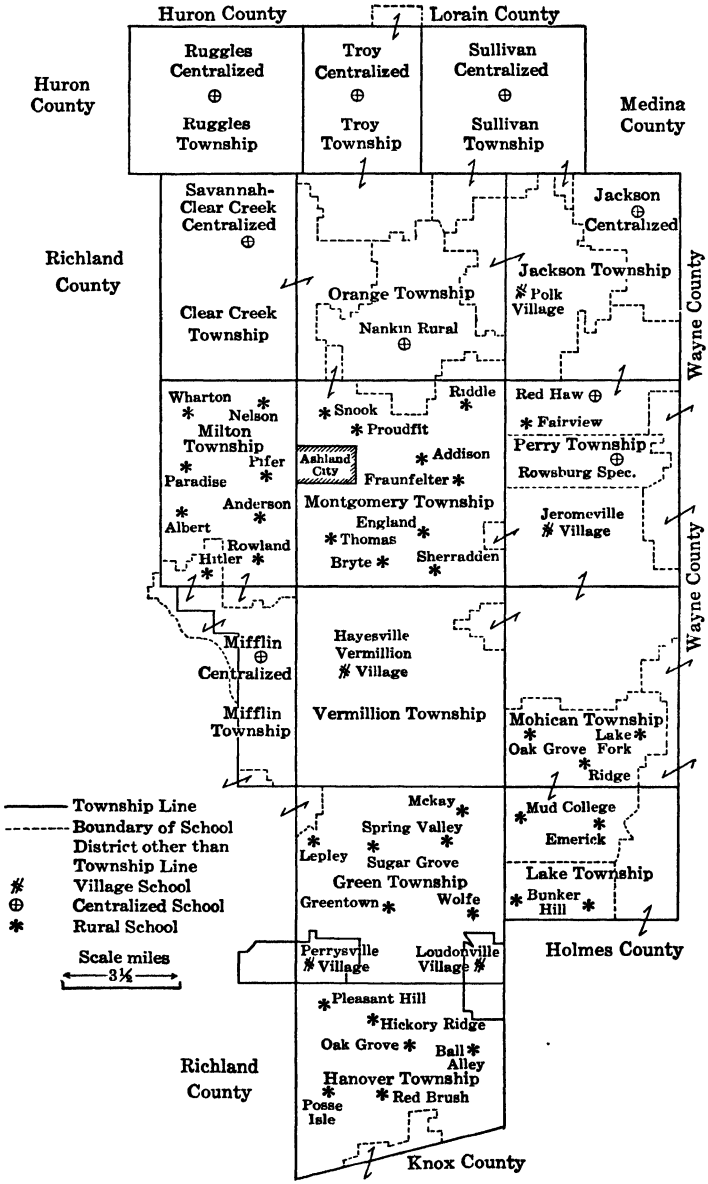


FIG. 12. School districts in a typical county (Ashland) in Ohio.

the small district, employing only one teacher, to the large city and county school systems, employing thousands of teachers. The districts are known by various names such as *county, city, common school, graded, town, township, consolidated, central, community, joint union graded, union high, township high,* and *county high.* The number of districts in a state ranges from 24 in Maryland to more than 10,000 in a few other states. In the New England states the *town* is usually the administrative unit; in the western states the *township,* or a modification of it, is usually the administrative unit; in the southern states the *county* is usually the administrative unit.

The tendency in both theory and practice is toward a larger unit for school administration, especially for the rural schools. Probably not more than 5,000 school districts are needed in the United States. Every year sees the demise of hundreds of small school districts through their consolidation or merger with other districts. Every year, moreover, sees powers and duties subtracted from small administrative units and given to a larger intermediate unit, which is usually called the *county.*

Forward-looking educators and laymen are agreed that the largest handicap to rural-school efficiency and progress today is the small units under which rural schools are organized and administered.. Moreover, they are agreed that these small units are a chief explanation for the lag in rural school administration compared with city school administration. In the early days, city schools were organized, financed, and administered by wards. It was early seen, however, that the whole city was a more practicable administrative unit than the city ward. Gradually it has come to be recognized that a larger unit for the administration of rural schools is more practicable than the one-teacher district, the township, or other small school district. Research and theory have not yet demonstrated what the size of the unit for the administration of rural schools should be, although the county is most frequently suggested as the most desirable unit. It is apparent though that because of the differences in topography, distance, quality of highways,

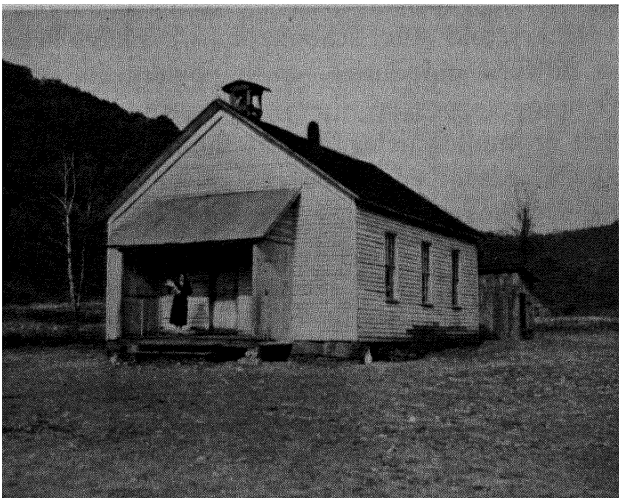
and population density the county may be too large in certain instances and too small in others. In general, the size of the administrative unit [1] should meet the following criteria: (1) the unit should be sufficiently large to permit the organization of a complete system of elementary and secondary schools on an efficient financial and pedagogical basis, and (2) the unit should be a "community" and should not be so large that the people will lose interest in the schools.

The board of education. The schools of each school district in the United States are governed by a person or group of persons known variously as the township trustee, the board of education, the school board, the school committee, or the board of school trustees. Such controlling boards represent the people of the school district in the administration of the schools, but since education is a state function, they represent the people of the whole state more than the people of the local district. The authority of the board comes from the legislature of the state rather than from the people of the local district.

The importance of the position of school-board member can hardly be overstated, because what the citizens of the next generation will be the schools of today will largely determine, and what the schools are, boards of education largely determine. It can be truly said that there is no more important and no more difficult public service than that performed by a member of the board of education, and because of its importance and its difficulty there is perhaps no public service which requires greater business and educational acumen, more patience and common sense, and greater devotion to a cause. Boards of education have under their direction not only the most important and the most technical public business, but also the largest public service.

An examination of the school laws of any state will show that boards of education have been given practically every

[1] The "administrative" (school district) unit should not be confused with the "attendance" (individual school) unit. An administrative unit may have more than one school.



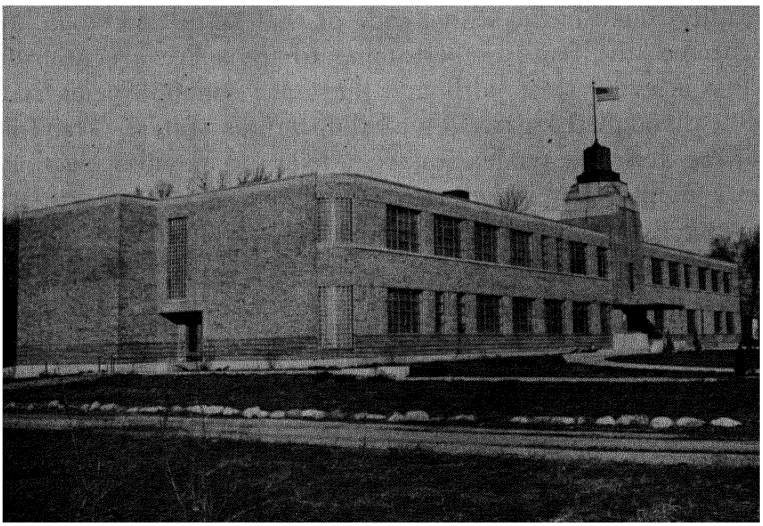


FIG. 13. Evolution from one-teacher schools to consolidated schools. Schools such as the one at the top are being rapidly abandoned for schools such as the one at the bottom.

power and duty pertaining to the administration of the schools, whereas superintendents, principals, business managers, teachers, and other school employees have been given but few powers and duties. Such powers and duties as school employees possess they have secured only because of explicit or implicit delegation by the board of education. Although boards of education possess practically all legal power, a wise board will delegate much to its professional experts such as those just mentioned. In fact, it will delegate all or practically all of its executive functions and will reserve to itself the formulation of policies and the inspection and appraisal of the work of the school system to see how efficiently the policies are operating; on the basis of such inspection and appraisal, policies will be amended or new policies substituted for old ones.

The limits set for this chapter will not permit much discussion of the features of the office of school-board member. Such information regarding any particular state may be readily found in the school code of that state. As would be expected, the features pertaining to the office are not the same in every state, although there are common veins running through the practices of the various states. The following desirable tendencies are noted: (1) popular election, on a nonpartisan ticket, of the holders of the office; (2) a longer term of office, for example, from three to five years; (3) a smaller number of members, for example, between five and nine; and (4) no salary, except perhaps a small per diem with a limitation on the number of days a year to ten or twelve.

The superintendent of schools. Since its beginning in Providence, Rhode Island, in 1836, the superintendency of schools has become almost universal. Every school system, except the very small ones, employs a superintendent. The school systems which do not employ local superintendents are almost always rural school systems, and these usually have the supervision of a county superintendent. With the exception of county superintendents, who are still elected on a political basis in many states, the tendency is to per-

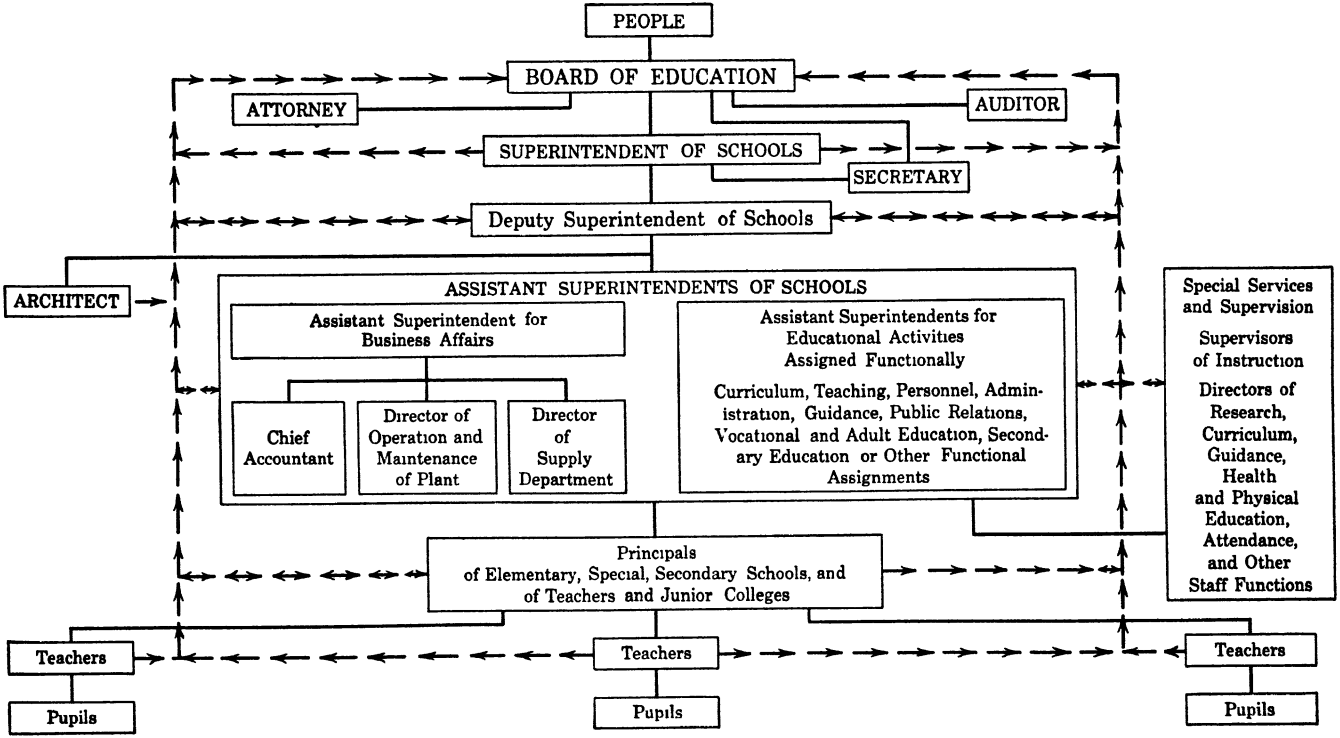


Fig. 14. The administrative organization and staff of a large city school system.

mit a school board to elect superintendents on basis of their administrative and technical competence.

The superintendent of schools is the most important educational officer, perhaps the most important public officer, in a community. He determines, more than any other person, the efficiency of the school system. If he is well qualified for his position, he will often be able to cause an efficient school system to emerge in spite of many handicaps; he will bring this result by his ability to educate the board of education, the school employees, and the public to his point of view. On the other hand, if he is not qualified, there is danger that the school system which he administers will mark time or even deteriorate. In brief, the superintendent of schools is the educational leader of the community; he makes the school system largely what it is. He recommends new policies and changes in policies to the board of education. Acting under the general direction of the board of education, he executes those policies or sees that other members of the employed personnel execute them. He attempts to coordinate all parts of the school system. He tries to eliminate all lost motion and all other waste. If he is efficient, he can save his salary many times, especially if his school system is of any considerable size. In the whole United States the school superintendency provides a career for several thousand persons and at the highest salaries in the profession of education.

Other local administrative personnel. In all, except the very small school systems, other administrative and supervisory employees are usually found. Attached to the office of the superintendent of schools, especially in the larger school systems, are such administrative and supervisory officers as the business manager of schools and his staff, and assistant superintendents in charge of various activities of the school system. In charge of each local school is usually found a principal. Other types of administrative and supervisory positions which are found in the large cities can be seen from an examination of Fig. 14. The opportunities for a career in these positions are discussed in Chapter XVII.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What are the functions of school administration? How may the classroom teacher cooperate in school administration? Mention some of the opportunities for waste in the administration of the schools.

2. Would you recommend for this country a national system of education such as most foreign countries have? Why or why not?

3. Would you favor a federal Department of Education with a Secretary of Education in the President's cabinet? Why or why not? Would you favor federal financial support for general educaton? Why or why not?

4. Would you favor the establishment of a national university to be supported by the federal government? Why or why not? If such a university were established, where should it be located? Why? Should it be a teaching university or one for research only? Explain. What are the advantages of Washington, D. C., as a center for research and other study?

5. How much state control of private schools do you believe there should be? Explain. How much control of such schools is there in your state today?

6. How do you account for the fact that there is much more state control of education in the eastern states than in other sections of the United States?

7. Should there be any differences between the amount of state control of education and the amount of state control of (*a*) public utilities, (*b*) highways, and (*c*) health? Explain.

8. Characterize the chief state school official and his staff of your state as to official title, method of selection, salary, term of office, and powers and duties. What changes, if any, would you recommend? Why?

9. What type of state board of education, if any, does your state have? Characterize it as to method of selection, number of members, term of office, salary, and powers and duties. What improvements, if any, are needed?

10. How do you account for the historic tendency to centralize educational functions? Point out some evidences of this tendency in your state.

11. What types of school districts are found in your state? How many of each type are there? Is the number becoming larger or smaller, and why? What changes in the number and types of districts would you recommend? Why?

12. What criteria should determine the size of school districts? Check the school districts of your state with these criteria and indicate any shortcomings which the districts have.

13. How do you account for the tenacity with which the older generation holds to the small district system for schools? Would the abolition of small districts tend to make the people lose interest in their schools? Explain.

14. Characterize the governing boards of school districts in your state as to such matters as method of selection, number of members, term of office, salary, and powers and duties. What changes, if any, would you suggest in the present statutes governing these matters? Why? To what extent do these boards determine the efficiency of the schools? Explain.

15. What do you regard as proper functions of school boards? What functions should they delegate to superintendents and other professionally prepared employees? Explain.

16. Account for the fact that state and county superintendents are still elected by popular vote in several states. What method of selection would you recommend? Why?

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Chapter IV

THE PARTS OF OUR SCHOOL SYSTEM

THE TRIPARTITE ORGANIZATION

A casual glance at the school system of the United States shows clearly that it is divided into three parts. Moreover, a backward glance over the more than three-century history of the system indicates that it has always possessed this same tripartite organization consisting of the elementary school, the secondary school, and the colleges and other institutions of higher learning. According to B. A. Hinsdale, these three divisions were indicated in practice as early as 1641.[1] Although certain changes have taken place from time to time in the organization, the general form of the organization remains essentially as it was in the beginning.

This tripartite organization of our school system was borrowed from European models which had been in operation for several centuries, and the details of the organization were much affected by the school practices of the particular country from which the colonists came. These foreign models were often aristocratic in character and sometimes were followed without considering whether they would meet the needs of the colonists who had somewhat different ideals and aspirations from those held by the countries from which they emigrated.

Development of elementary schools. Contrary to normal expectations, the elementary school was much slower to develop into an organized system than the secondary school and the college. In the early days preparation of pupils for the secondary school was usually given by parents or by tutors employed by them. In the beginning the ele-

[1] B. A. Hinsdale, *Horace Mann and the Common School Revival in the United States,* Scribner's, 1937, pp. 2–5.

mentary school was conceived, like its foreign model, as a parallel school for the masses, without any intention that they should enter the secondary school. Certain social forces, however, prevented its development in that form and turned it into the foundation part of a *single* school system rather than making it one of the parts of a dual system such as most European countries had, and still have.

Although the early settlers, especially in New England, showed a large interest in education, the rigors of frontier life long militated against the rapid development of a free, universal, tax-supported, and compulsory system of elementary education such as every state has today. These characteristics and many others, which are today everywhere associated with the schools, came by gradual evolution. The idea of free, universal, and tax-supported schools developed slowly and was not accepted in every state until about 1850. Outside of New England, the early schools were usually either church supported or charity supported, and hundreds of communities, especially in the middle and southern colonies, did not have *public* schools.

Moreover, the elementary school in those early days was very simple compared with the same school today. Like the practice of foreign countries, religion was the chief subject of instruction. Religion was accompanied at first by reading, and later by writing, arithmetic, and spelling. These subjects constituted the only subjects of instruction in most elementary schools until the opening of the nineteenth century.

In the early days, too, it is worth noting that the elementary school was not organized into grades as today. The present grading system originated about 1790 and was probably copied from the Prussian *Volksschule* of eight grades. By 1870, the eight-grade elementary school had been generally accepted in all American communities and thus remained until the junior high-school movement came upon the scene about the opening of the twentieth century.

With the coming of universal suffrage and the advent of the industrial revolution, there arose shortly after the opening of the nineteenth century the need for a greater amount

and a better type of education than before. Following that date, too, the *religious* motive began to be supplanted by the *democracy* motive as the driving force for the establishment of schools. Stimulated by such educational leaders as Horace Mann and Henry Barnard, the people began to instruct their legislators and school officials to give them universal, free, and tax-supported schools. By 1825, several

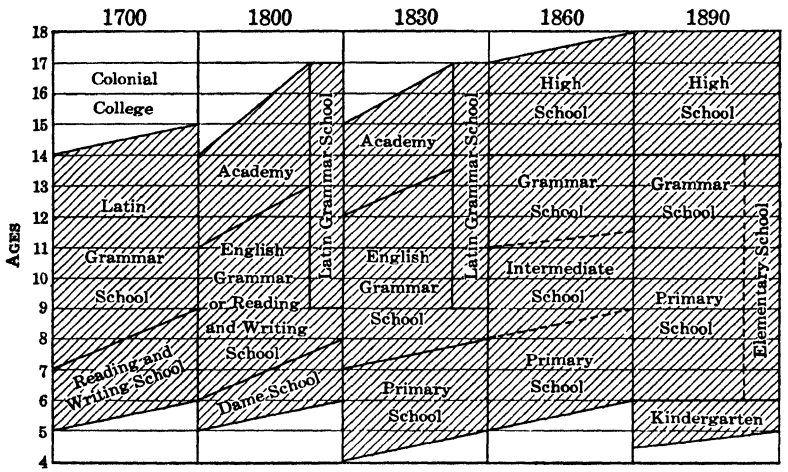

FIG. 15. Evolution of the American school system from 1700 to 1890, (From Ellwood P. Cubberley, *Public Education in The United States.* Houghton Mifflin, rev. ed., 1934, p. 140.) The evolution of the system from 1900 to the present is shown in Fig. 19.

states had made a beginning toward establishing a tax-supported system of elementary schools, and from these beginnings the movement spread into every state and territory during the next few decades. Moreover, new subjects were added to the curriculum, better methods of teaching were adopted, and scores of other improvements in the schools were effected.

Thus, the elementary school has evolved until today it is the most cherished, and probably the most efficient, part of the school system. In every community of every state it is a free, public, and tax-supported institution. It is open to all the people; in fact, attendance in it, or in an equivalent school, is compulsory for all children during a certain number of years, the number of years varying in different

states. It essays to give a foundation in education to everyone. In giving this foundation, it should be guided by two fundamental principles, according to the Commission on the Articulation of the Units of American Education of the Department of Superintendence. The first fundamental principle is *"to pass on from each generation to the next whatever worthy benefits the civilization of the past has brought to the public welfare."* [1] The second fundamental principle affirms that *"through the methods and processes by which this heritage of the past is transmitted from generation to generation, formal education must do its best to secure in the individual the development of all those latent and wholesome powers that are essential to the master ability of using that which civilization has transmitted for the promotion of the public welfare."* [2] In the light of the two foregoing principles the committee suggests the following tentative objectives for the elementary school:

Any proper respect for the rights of the child and the welfare of the community dictates that during this elementary school period education shall:

1. Advance the child, although by no means perfect him, in his ability to read, write, and speak correctly the English language, and to know and to use intelligently the elementary processes of arithmetic. . . .

2. Advance the child in his ability to know and to observe the laws of physical and mental health and well-being and to appreciate the meaning of life and of nature. . . .

3. Advance the child in his ability to know and to appreciate the geography and history of his own community, state, and nation, and of the world at large; to sense his share in the social, civic, and industrial order of such a democracy as ours, and to meet to the full the obligations which such knowledge and appreciation should engender, to the end that justice, sympathy, and loyalty may characterize his personal and community life. . . .

4. Advance the child in his ability to share intelligently and appreciatively in the fine and the useful arts through the pursuit of music, drawing, and literature; of manual training and the house-

[1] *The Articulation of the Units of American Education, Seventh Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, 1929, p. 82. By permission of the National Education Association, publishers.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 84. By permission of the National Education Association, publishers.

hold arts as they are related to the three great universal needs of food, clothing, and shelter. . . .[1]

Development of secondary schools. As is implied in its name, the secondary school is a "second" school which follows an elementary or a "first" school. Secondary education in the United States has passed through the following three stages: First, the *Latin grammar school;* second, the *academy;* and, third, the *high school.* Those three stages of development will be briefly discussed in the following pages.

1. THE LATIN GRAMMAR SCHOOL

The first secondary school in the United States was founded in 1635 in Boston, and it was known as the Boston Latin Grammar School. Similar schools were soon established in other towns of Massachusetts, and in 1647 the General Court (legislature) of Massachusetts enacted a law which required such a school in every town having 100 families or more. From Massachusetts Latin grammar schools spread into all of the colonies, although they had their chief development in New England. They were the dominant type of secondary school until about 1775.

As the name implies, Latin was the chief subject of instruction in the Latin grammar school. The chief purpose of the school was to prepare its pupils for college. Boys only were admitted, because the usefulness of extending educational opportunities beyond the rudiments to girls was everywhere questioned in those days. The curriculum was narrowly classical, comprising in the early days only Latin and Greek. The following quotation from Elmer Ellsworth Brown describes the early curriculum:

> In the Latin school itself, the boys studied Latin from eight o'clock to eleven in the forenoon, and from one in the afternoon till dark. They began with Cheever's Latin Accidence, which was followed by Ward's Lilly's Latin Grammar. The reading consisted of Aesop, with a translation; Eutropius, also with a translation; Corderius, Ovid's *Metamorphoses,* Vergil's *Georgics* and *Aeneid,* Caesar and Cicero. Of these, Caesar and the *Georgics* seem to have been less

[1] *Ibid.,* pp. 84–85. By permission of the National Education Association, publishers.

commonly used in grammar schools than the other works mentioned. In the sixth year of the course, the boy was half through Vergil. The master permitted the reading of such translations of Vergil as Trappe's and Dryden's. Composition was begun, apparently, at about the same time with the reading of Aesop or of Eutropius, and Clarke's *Introduction to Writing Latin* was the first textbook used. Near the end of the course, Horace was read, and Latin verses were composed with the help of the *Gradus ad Parnassum*.[1]

During the later years of its existence the Latin grammar school began to introduce nonclassical and more practical subjects into its curriculum; among these subjects were arithmetic, geometry, trigonometry, algebra, geography, bookkeeping, English grammar, English composition, and navigation. These subjects, though, according to R. F. Seybolt, were more often found in the "English grammar school" than in the Latin grammar school. Seybolt says that it is erroneously believed that the Latin grammar school was the only type of grammar school; there was another, namely, the "English grammar school."[2] The latter type of school was established much later than the Latin grammar school. Its curriculum was not always determined by college entrance requirements as was the case in the Latin grammar school. The English grammar school was much more democratic in purpose than the Latin grammar school and thus was a transition between the Latin grammar school and the academy.

Until about 1800, pupils entered the Latin grammar school at the age of seven or eight, provided they had learned to read; until then, also, the course was seven years long. About 1800, the entrance age became ten and the course was shortened to four years. Admission to the Latin grammar school did not presuppose the completion of the primary school; it required only the ability to read.

In spite of the fact that it was not intended as a school for the masses, but only as a school for the select few who wished to prepare for college, the Latin grammar school

[1] Elmer Ellsworth Brown, *The Making of Our Middle Schools*, Longmans, 1903, pp. 131–132. By permission of Longmans, Green and Company, publishers.

[2] R. F. Seybolt, *Source Studies in American Colonial Education*. University of Illinois *Bulletin*, Vol. XXIII, No. 4, p. 99.

was frequently supported, at least in part, by general taxation. Other sources of revenue, especially in the early days, were annual gifts, permanent endowments, and tuition.

By 1700, much criticism of the Latin grammar school had begun to appear, and by 1760 this type of secondary education was definitely on the wane. The school was criticized because it served only a small percentage of the population and provided an aristocratic curriculum. It was not in harmony with the growing spirit of democracy which insisted that the needs of the masses be met as well as those of the upper classes. By 1800, most Latin grammar schools had been supplanted by the more democratic academies. Their influence, though, lingered, and even in the high schools of today the thousands of classical and college-preparatory courses are one of their legacies.

2. THE ACADEMY

Since the Latin grammar school would not, could not, or at least did not, adapt itself to changing social needs, it died. The institution which grew up to take its place was the academy, and this latter institution dominated American secondary education for approximately one hundred years. The academy was the dominant secondary school from about 1775 to about 1875.

Like the Latin grammar school, the academy developed first in Europe, then was imported into America. Although there are conflicting claims regarding the first academy in the United States, most authorities agree that Franklin's Academy[1] at Philadelphia was the first. Benjamin Franklin, the founder of this academy, sketched the plan for such an institution as early as 1743, but not until 1749 did he begin to make definite plans for its establishment. In that year he published his "Proposals Relating to the Education of Youth in Pennsylvania." In 1751, his academy began instruction with three departments—the Latin school, the English school, and the Mathematical school. In his "Proposals" for this school, Franklin said:

[1] This academy later developed into the University of Pennsylvania.

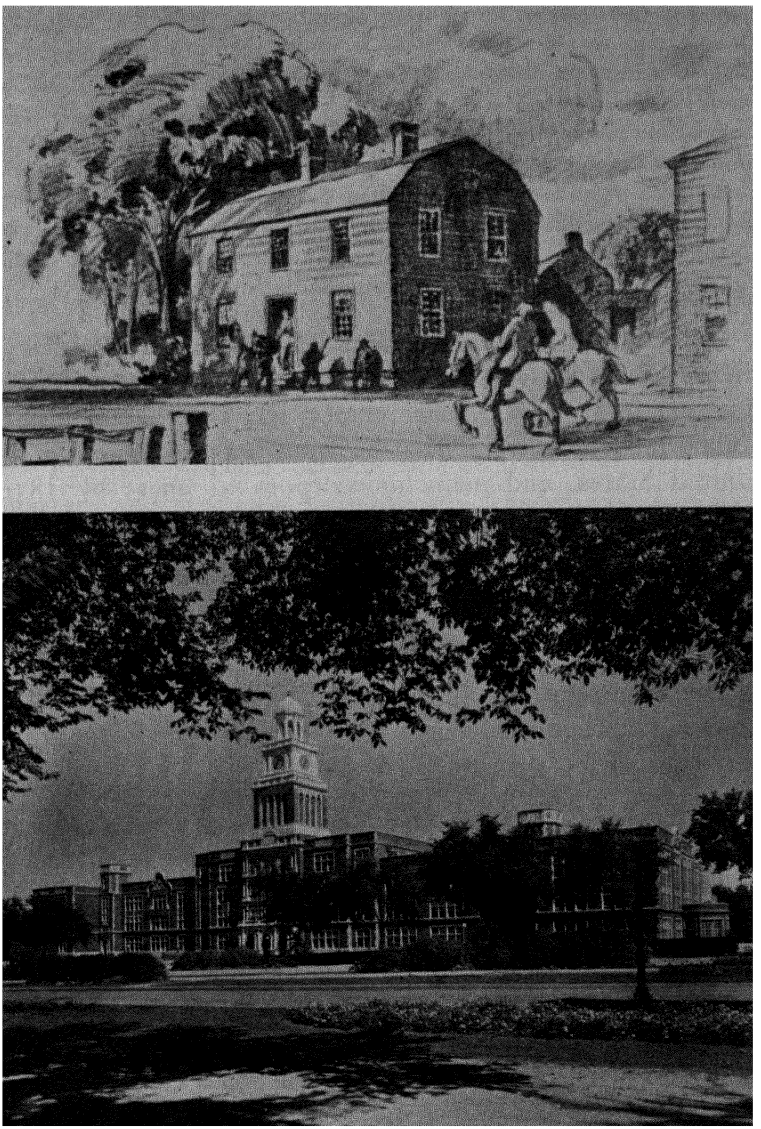

FIG. 16. The first secondary school—Boston Latin School, founded in 1635—compared with a modern high school—East High School, Denver, Colorado.

As to their studies, it would be well if they could be taught *everything* that is useful, and *everything* that is ornamental. But art is long and their time is short. It is therefore proposed, that they learn those things that are likely to be *most useful* and *most ornamental;* regard being had to the several professions for which they are intended. All interested for divinity, should be taught the Latin and Greek; for physic, the Latin, Greek, and French; for law, the Latin and French; merchants, the French, German, and Spanish; and, though all should not be compelled to learn Latin, Greek, or the modern foreign languages, yet none that have an ardent desire to learn them should be refused; their English, arithmetick and other studies absolutely necessary, being at the same time not neglected.

Following the establishment of Franklin's Academy,[1] the academy movement spread rapidly into other communities in every state then extant. By 1830, according to Cubberley, there were 950 incorporated academies in the United States, and many unincorporated ones; by 1850, when the movement toward their establishment reached its peak, there were "1,007 academies in New England, 1,636 in the Middle Atlantic States, 2,640 in the Southern States, 753 in the Upper Mississippi Valley States, and a total reported for the entire United States of 6,085, with 12,260 teachers employed and 263,096 pupils enrolled."[2] The academy had the following advantages over the Latin grammar school:

1. It provided secondary education for girls as well as boys. At first, separate schools for the two sexes were provided, but in time coeducation came to be common.
2. It established *practical* courses having value aside from mere preparation for college; thus, it made useful education available to larger numbers of students and helped to popularize secondary education.
3. Although religious exercises were a part of the daily routine of the academy, these exercises were less sectarian than in the Latin grammar school.
4. It built upon, instead of running parallel to, the elementary-school courses.

[1] It should be pointed out that Franklin did not personally operate the academy but delegated that to others.

[2] Ellwood P. Cubberley, ***Public Education in the United States,*** Houghton Mifflin, rev. ed., 1934, p. 247. By permission of Houghton Mifflin Company, publishers.

The chief criticism of the academies pertained to their support and control. They were essentially private schools, although public funds were frequently used for their support. In the main, they were dependent upon donations, endowments, and student fees for their support. Since children of the poor found it difficult to pay tuition fees, demand was soon made for a public, tax-supported institution to provide secondary education. The high school was established in answer to this demand.

3. THE HIGH SCHOOL

The first high school in the United States was established at Boston in 1821. Until 1824, the Boston school was called the English Classical School; it was then moved to new quarters and given the name of the English High School. The name *high school* seems to be Scotch in origin, having been suggested by the description of the High School at Edinburgh, by Professor Griscorn, in an article in the *North American Review,* in January, 1824. This first high school was for boys only, but in 1826 Boston also opened a similar high school for girls. The latter school, though, was abolished in 1828, because it had become so popular that the expense of maintaining it could not be met.

The course of study in the Boston school was three years long and the boys admitted were required to be twelve years of age and to "be well acquainted with reading, writing, English grammar in all its branches, and arithmetic as far as simple proportion." The course of study was patterned [1] after that of the typical academy of the day, but was not college preparatory in any sense; it was designed to give the child an education "that shall fit him for active life, and shall serve as a foundation for eminence in his profession, whether mercantile or mechanical." In its aims and procedures the school was entirely indigenous, there being no foreign influence to which these matters can be traced. The course of study was practical and was built upon the course

[1] The chief exception to this was that no other language than English was taught in the Boston school.

of study of the elementary school instead of paralleling it as was the practice of the Latin grammar school and the academy.

The real beginning of the high-school movement in the United States began with the enactment of the Massachusetts law of 1827, a law reminiscent of the Massachusetts law of 1647 which required the establishment of a *grammar school* in every town having at least 100 families. Like the law of 1647, the law of 1827 deeply influenced subsequent legislation in other states as well as Massachusetts. This law required the establishment of a *high school* in every town having at least 500 families, and it fixed a heavy penalty for failure to comply with the law. In 1835, the law was amended to permit smaller towns to provide a high school. A few of the main provisions of the law of 1827 are quoted herewith:

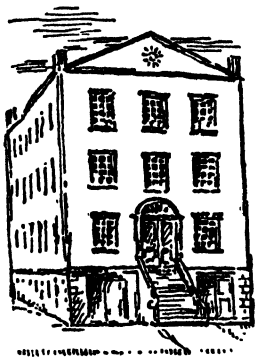

FIG. 17. The first high school in the United States, established in Boston, Massachusetts, in 1821.

And every city, town, or district, containing five hundred families or householders, shall be provided with such teacher or teachers for such term of time as shall be equivalent to twenty-four months, for one school in each year, and shall also be provided with a master of good morals, competent to instruct, in addition to the branches of learning aforesaid, the history of the United States, bookkeeping by single entry, geometry, surveying, and algebra; and shall employ such master to instruct a school, in such city, town, or district, for the benefit of all the inhabitants thereof, at least ten months in each year, exclusive of vacations, in such convenient place, or alternately at such places in such city, town, or district, as the said inhabitants, at their meeting in March, or April, annually shall determine, and in every city, or town, containing four thousand inhabitants, such master shall be competent in addition to all the foregoing branches, to instruct the Latin and Greek Languages, History, rhetoric, and logic.

The growth of the high school was slow, even in its Massachusetts home. By 1840, only two dozen high schools

had been established in Massachusetts, and only about the same number in the other states, chiefly New England states. The growth was slow primarily because objections were raised to their support through public funds. Another factor retarding their development was the academy which was already established as a "people's college," and its friends objected to seeing it displaced. The more universal establishment of the high school must wait until the people could see the need for such an institution and until they were able and willing to finance it through universal taxation.

Following 1827, the date of the Massachusetts law requiring the establishment of high schools, the next important date in the development of high schools was 1874. This date marked the decision of the Supreme Court of Michigan on the now famous *Kalamazoo case*. In that decision the Court affirmed the right of school districts to use public funds for the support of secondary schools, "if their voters consent in regular form to bear the expense and raise the taxes for the purpose." [1] Until this decision, the legality of using public funds for secondary schools was questioned; with the decision, however, a precedent was set which has since been followed by the courts of all other states.

Following the Kalamazoo decision and the economic adjustments which were necessary after the Civil War (1861–1865) the growth of the high school was unusually rapid. In 1870, there were about 165 high schools; in 1880, 800; in 1890, 2,526; in 1900, 6,005; in 1910, 10,213; in 1920, 14,326; and at present approximately 30,000.[2] The enrollment in these schools now comprises approximately 7,000,000 boys and girls, and it has approximately doubled each decade since 1890; moreover, more than one half of the children of high-school age are enrolled.

In every state the high school is today an accepted part of

[1] Charles E. Stuart, *et al.* vs. School District No. 1 of the Village of Kalamazoo, 30 Michigan, p. 69.

[2] Most high schools have less than 100 pupils, and such an enrollment usually results either in a high per pupil cost or an inferior educational program. Since many of these small schools are located from one to five miles of other schools, they should be merged to make larger schools. In practically every state, except those of the South, the number of high schools should be decreased for reasons of financial economy and pedagogical efficiency.

the school system and it is supported through universal taxation the same as the elementary school. Practically every state requires every school district either to provide a high school for the pupils of the district or to pay the tuition of the pupils to another district; moreover, many states require or permit, at public expense, the transportation of all high-school pupils who live more than a certain distance (usually from two to four miles) from school. According to Thomas H. Briggs, the special functions of the high school are:

1. To continue by definite program, though in a diminishing degree, the integration of students. This should be on an increasingly intellectual level until the desired common knowledge, appreciations, ideals, attitudes, and abilities are firmly fixed. . . .

2. To satisfy the important immediate and probable future needs of the students insofar as adolescent maturity permits, guiding the behavior of youth in the light of increasingly remote, but always clearly perceived and appreciated, social and personal values. . . .

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

4. To explore higher and increasingly specialized levels of interests, aptitudes, and capacities, looking toward the direction of students into avenues of study or of work for which they have manifested peculiar fitness. . . .

5. To systematize knowledge acquired previously or in course, to show the significance back of this knowledge and especially of laws and principles, with understanding of wider ranges of application than would otherwise be perceived. . . .

6. To establish and develop in all major fields of knowledge, not merely in a few protected subjects, interests which are numerous, varied, and as deep as possible, and to direct some of these by means of differentiated courses to ends most worthwhile for each individual, the hope being that they will lead on to a continued education both in higher institutions and outside of any formal school. . . .

7. To guide students, on the basis of exploratory and revealing courses and of other information gathered from personnel studies, as wisely as possible into advanced study or vocations in which they are likely to be most successful and happy. . . .

8. To begin and gradually to increase differentiated education on the evidence of interests, aptitudes, and capacities demonstrated in earlier years. . . .

9. To use in all courses as largely as possible methods that demand independent thought, involve the elementary principles of research, and provide intelligent and somewhat self-directed practice, individual and cooperate, in the appropriate desirable activities of the educated person. . . .

10. To retain each student until the law of diminishing returns begins to operate or until he is ready for more independent study in a higher institution, and when it is manifest that he cannot or will not materially profit by further study of what can be offered to direct him as wisely as possible into some other school or into the work for which he seems most fit. . . .[1]

Development of higher institutions. The early colleges of the United States were patterned after those of Europe, especially of England. And just as the colleges of Europe arose to serve a particular purpose of the people, so did those of America. Our first colleges were established for the preparation of ministers, were usually under the control of a particular church, and were expected to propagate the faith of that church. The first college was Harvard, established in 1636, because of "dreading to leave an illiterate ministry to the churches when our present ministry shall lie in the dust." At the close of the colonial period nine colleges had been established and all of these, excepting Franklin's Academy which later developed into the University of Pennsylvania, were sectarian. These first nine colleges, with the dates of their establishment, and the church and colony founding them, were:

Harvard College	1636	Mass.	Puritan
William and Mary	1693	Vir.	Anglican
Yale College	1701	Conn.	Congregational
Princeton	1746	N. J.	Presbyterian
Academy and College	1751–55	Penn.	Nonsectarian
King's College (Columbia)	1754	N. Y.	Anglican
Brown	1764	R. I.	Baptist
Rutgers	1766	N. J.	Reformed Dutch
Dartmouth	1769	N. H.	Congregational

[1] *Seventh Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, pp. 196–207.

The enrollment in all the colonial colleges was small, and the services and facilities were limited. During the first fifty years of its history, Harvard seldom enrolled more than twenty students, and the president usually did all the teaching; the curriculum was classical and required three years for its completion, until 1654 when a four-year curriculum was established. The emphasis in all of the colleges was upon Hebrew, Greek, Latin, and the Bible, although some attention was given to arithmetic, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, natural science, oratory, general history, ethics, and philosophy.

By 1800, approximately fifteen additional colleges (all private and usually denominational) had been established, but these like the first nine mentioned above were small and struggling institutions. Enrollments were sparse, the faculty was small and poorly prepared, the plant was meager, and the curriculum was limited. Cubberley has estimated that all of the two dozen colleges then existing did not have more than 100 faculty members, not more than 2,000 students, and property worth not more than $1,000,000.[1] Moreover, none of the early colleges admitted women, it then being generally regarded as a waste of money to provide women with a college education.

A beginning for the college education of women was not made until 1821, when Emma Hart Willard established the Troy Female Seminary at Troy, New York. The next college for women was the Hartford Female Seminary, founded at Hartford, Connecticut, in 1828, by Catherine Esther Beecher. There was no attempt at coeducation on the college level until 1833 when Oberlin College, at Oberlin, Ohio, opened its doors to women as well as to men. From these beginnings the movement toward providing college education for women as well as for men has grown by leaps and bounds, and most colleges and universities, especially those which are public, are coeducational; the South is the only section which still follows the male-female pattern to any considerable extent. The public and private colleges

[1] Cubberley, *op. cit.*, p. 269.

now enroll approximately 1,500,000 students, and of these, approximately 700,000 are women.

Following the opening of the nineteenth century, the growth of colleges and universities was rapid; they greatly increased in numbers, in enrollment, and in efficiency. This rapid growth was occasioned by various factors, among the more important of which were the rapidly increasing wealth of the nation, the development of new professions, and an awakening public consciousness regarding the value of higher education. This period has seen the establishment of public supported colleges in every state, of many public-supported municipal colleges, and of several hundred private and denominational colleges. There are now in the United States approximately 900 private and approximately 300 public universities, colleges, and professional schools; in addition to these, there are approximately 250 public and approximately 30 private teachers' colleges and normal schools. The public institutions enroll a total of approximately 800,000 students, and the private institutions enroll approximately 700,000.

Until about 1870, practically all college work was conducted under private and denominational auspices. Following that date, public colleges steadily increased in numbers, enrollment, and influence. The private and denominational colleges had begun to be criticized for their aristocratic and sectarian tendencies, and the demand grew for a public-supported and public-controlled institution of collegiate grade which would meet the needs of a larger number of people in various walks of life. The *state university* developed in answer to this demand.

The big impetus to the establishment of state universities was given by the federal government through its land grants to the states.[1] The first of these land grants for higher education was made in 1787 to The Ohio Company, a New

[1] Another large impetus to the establishment of state universities was given by the famous decision of the U. S. Supreme Court on the Dartmouth College case in 1819. This decision made it impossible for the state to take over (without consent) private colleges and to transform them into public institutions.

England organization in which Manassah Cutler was the moving spirit. By the terms of this grant The Ohio Company was sold approximately 1,500,000 acres of land in south-central Ohio, and in the grant two "Congressional Townships" (46,080 acres) were given "for the purposes of a university." [1] The second of such grants was made in 1788 when 311,682 acres of land near Cincinnati were sold to John Symmes and his associates. By the terms of this grant, it was provided that one Congressional Township (23,040 acres) was to be used "for the purpose of establishing an academy in the district." The first of these grants formed the endowment from which Ohio University, at Athens, was established in 1809; from the second grant Miami University, at Oxford, was established in 1824. Ohio University was the first state university in the new West, though the University of North Carolina which had been founded in 1789 had begun to give instruction in 1795 but was not under full control of the state until 1821. The provisions of these two land grants for institutions of higher learning in Ohio were continued when other states carved out of the public domain were admitted to the Union; at least two Congressional Townships were given to each of those states for a "seminary of learning," and these grants formed the basis of the state universities which were established in all the new states.

A second type of land grant by the federal government also gave a tremendous impetus to higher education. This was provided by the *Morrill Act* of 1862 which gave each state 30,000 acres of land for each senator and congressman from that state to endow colleges for the teaching of agriculture, mechanic arts, and military science. Every state accepted this gift and soon established a college or colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts.[2] Eighteen states added the gift to the endowment of their existing state universities;

[1] Both The Ohio Company and the Symmes grants also provided that section 16 in each congressional township should be reserved for common schools and that section 29 should be reserved for religion. A congressional township is illustrated in Fig. 26, p. 195.

[2] Money grants for each of these colleges were begun in 1887 and have been continued annually in increasing amount to the present time.

three gave it to already existing private institutions; and the remainder established new schools.

The state universities have grown in public esteem until several of them now enroll more than ten thousand students annually and have annual budgets of four or five million dollars. Designed primarily to serve the people of the state most of them draw their students primarily from the state in which they are located; many of them, though, have become so renowned, especially in certain fields of learning, that students come to them from all over the United States and from many foreign countries. All of them have tended to increase their curriculum offerings to meet the needs of specialization; this has usually led to the creation of several colleges or schools within the university. A typical state university, especially in the larger states, now includes all or most of the following colleges or schools:[1] liberal arts, engineering, agriculture, education, graduate, commerce, law, medicine, pharmacy, dentistry, veterinary medicine, fine arts, the extension division, and the summer-session division.

EXTENSIONS OF THE ORGANIZATION

The preceding section pointed out that the American school system has been tripartite from the beginning and that it grew up in a more or less haphazard fashion without much consideration being given to articulation. During recent years, however, attempts have been made to secure greater unity in the system; a few of the more significant of these attempts will be described in the following paragraphs.

Downward extension. The downward extension of the elementary division of the school system began with the *kindergarten.* The kindergarten had been founded by Frederick Wilhelm Froebel in Germany about 1840 as an attempt to secure more self-activity in the training of little children. From Germany the kindergarten idea was carried to the United States by certain well-educated German immigrants who came here to make their homes following the

[1] Other colleges or schools less frequently found are: journalism, mining, forestry, household arts, science, architecture, and nursing.

unsuccessful German revolution of 1848. Among these immigrants was Mrs. Carl Schurz, who had been a pupil of Froebel. She opened the first kindergarten in the United States at her home in Watertown, Wisconsin, in 1855; German was used as the vernacular in this kindergarten. So far as is known, the first English-speaking kindergarten was opened at Boston, in 1860, by Miss Elizabeth Peabody. In 1873, Superintendent William T. Harris of St. Louis opened

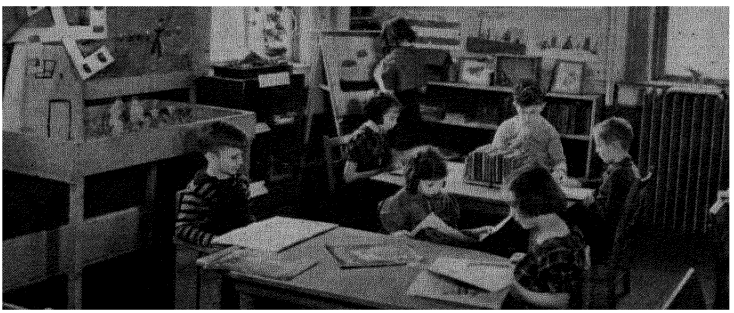

FIG. 18. An old schoolroom which has been transformed into an attractive place for learning.

in the schools of that city the first *public* school kindergarten in the United States.

From these beginnings the kindergarten spread all over the United States, especially in the larger cities. In the early days most kindergartens were private, but gradually they were accepted as a part of the public school system and were given legal sanction through permissive or mandatory laws enacted by the state legislatures. At present, approximately 700,000 children are enrolled in the public and the private kindergartens of the United States; of these, approximately 600,000 are in public kindergartens, and approximately 100,000 are in private kindergartens.

Started by Froebel to give children an opportunity for self-activity—an opportunity which they did not have in the formal and subject-matter-centered elementary schools—the kindergarten has largely been conducted without relation to the elementary school. During recent years, how-

ever, attempts have been made by kindergarten and primary teachers to bridge the gap which formerly existed between the kindergarten and the first grade. In the best schools this gap is being closed by using in the first grade many materials and methods of the kindergarten and by using in the kindergarten many materials and methods of the first grade.

A more recent downward extension of the elementary school is the *nursery school.* The typical nursery school admits children at the age of two, three, or four and keeps them until the age of five when they are enrolled in the kindergarten.[1] Although the number of nursery schools has increased, and although the tendency has been toward recognizing the importance of the preschool years, the conclusion is not warranted that public education is in the process of being extended below the kindergarten. Nursery schools increased greatly during World War II to provide for the care of children when parents were working.

Most nursery schools have been organized primarily as laboratory schools for the study of the preschool child. They have been organized primarily in connection with colleges and universities, and at the present time are not regarded as an integral part of the public school system. The reason most frequently given for the establishment of these schools is the education of young children; a close second reason is the education of parents, especially in child care. Other reasons given are the preparation of teachers and research workers in preschool education and the care of children during the daytime when parents are at work. The nursery school, like the kindergarten, aims with respect to child education to give motor and sensory control, to provide for social adjustment, to develop interest drives, and to provide for physical development. Of course, the nursery-school pupils are younger and more like "little animals" than the kindergarten pupils; in consequence, they need more emphasis upon motor and sensory control and upon social adjustment than their kindergarten brothers and sisters.

[1] A few kindergartens admit children at four years of age, but most of them require five years of age for admission.

Upward extension. Although a few collegiate institutions early offered opportunities for securing the master's degree, *graduate study* and research in the modern sense did not begin until after the Civil War. By 1870, graduate work in the colleges and universities began to be stimulated by a number of important influences. Chief among these influences was the rapid development of (1) public colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts, and (2) public and private universities, especially under the leadership of Johns Hopkins University which was established in 1876.

Before 1875, most students who desired to do graduate work of a research character were required to go to European universities. After that date most of the larger American universities established graduate courses leading to advanced degrees and the trek abroad for graduate work began to wane. At the present time our facilities for graduate work are, in most fields of learning, at least as excellent as can be found in any universities of the world. Moreover, the graduate enrollment in our universities has increased phenomenally, from less than 200 students in 1870 to more than 100,000 today.

In addition to the extension of the school system by means of the addition of the *graduate school,* some of the *professional schools,* such as law and medicine, can also be regarded as upward extensions of the college inasmuch as they require for graduation more than the traditional four-year course. In fact, the tendency at present is toward extending the course in several professional schools to make it comprise five, six, or seven years rather than the traditional four-year course; medicine, for example, is usually a seven-year course.

INTERNAL CHANGES IN THE ORGANIZATION

Owing to profound changes in a rapidly evolving society many requirements for adjustment have been placed upon the tripartite organization of the American school system. In consequence, many changes within the elementary, the

secondary, and the higher units have been made, and these changes have been especially made to secure a better articulation between the three units. The need for changes in the original tripartite structure was first recognized at the secondary level, and the adjustments which were made at that level were forerunners of sweeping changes in the elementary and the higher levels.

Changes between the elementary and the secondary school. Since the early part of the present century large changes have been taking place between the elementary and the secondary divisions of the school system. These changes have usually been characterized by (1) a shortened elementary school and (2) a lengthened secondary school. They have also been characterized by large changes in the curriculum, especially on the secondary-school level. Such changes were advocated as early as 1888 by President Charles W. Eliot of Harvard, and in 1893 the Committee of Ten recommended the reorganization of elementary- and secondary-school education into two periods of six years each. The Committee of Ten made the following statement which has tremendously affected school practice:

> In the opinion of the committee several subjects now reserved for the high schools, such as algebra, geometry, natural science, and foreign languages, should be begun earlier than now, and therefore within the schools classified as elementary; or as an alternative, the secondary-school period should be made to begin two years earlier than at present, leaving six years instead of eight for the elementary-school period. Under the present organization elementary subjects and elementary methods are, in the judgment of the committee, kept in use too long.[1]

Under the stimulus of such suggestions and recommendations as have just been mentioned, several cities shortened the elementary-school course to six years and lengthened the secondary-school course to six years; usually, though, the secondary-school course was divided into two units—one known as the *junior high school,* usually comprising grades seven to nine, and the other as the *senior high school,*

[1] Quoted from Frank Forest Bunker, "Reorganization of the Public School System," U. S. Bureau of Education, *Bulletin,* 1916, No. 8, p. 49.

usually comprising grades ten to twelve. Many other variations in grouping came, of course, to be practiced. Developing slowly until 1910, reorganizations such as have just been indicated were made rapidly after that date. While most of the reorganizations are found in the cities, hundreds of them are found in the village and rural communities. The eight-four school organization is rapidly passing.

Of course, many schools which claim a reorganized school system have not really changed much beyond a shifting of one or two grades from the elementary school to the secondary school. Such schools are reorganized in name only. A school which is reorganized in fact as well as in name provides for its junior high-school pupils such conveniences as the following: differentiated courses with the introduction of electives; departmental teaching and promotion by subjects; a guidance program; flexibility of grouping and other adaptations to individual differences; and better articulation between the elementary school and the junior high school, on one hand, and between the junior high school and the senior high school, on the other hand.

Changes between the secondary school and the college. Just as the secondary school has been frequently extended on the lower end, so it is coming to be extended on the upper end to make it include the first year or two of the traditional four-year college course. This latter extension is usually called the *junior college*. In a recent survey the junior college is defined as follows:

> A junior college is an educational institution which supplies two years of training beyond the standard high school. Its curriculum thus corresponds to that of the first two years of an accredited college. As it exists today, a junior college may be either the first two years of a fully organized university, where the course is divided into two units of two years each, or it may be a separate institution. In the latter case it will in all probability be an upward extension of a high school, an independent institution offering two years of collegiate training, or a normal school whose work is closely articulated with the state university.[1]

[1] John Addison Clement and Vivian Thomas Smith, "Public Junior College Legislation in the United States," University of Illinois Bureau of Educational Research, *Bulletin*, No. 51, p. 12.

Since its establishment in 1898 at Decatur, Illinois, the junior college has had a rapid growth. There are now approximately six hundred junior colleges in the United States. Approximately one half of them are publicly controlled. They are distributed over all the states, but are found most frequently in California, Iowa, and Texas. A recent survey states that the five objectives most frequently mentioned for the junior colleges are:

1. To provide terminal education for those who cannot or should not go on to higher levels of training; (*a*) to provide vocational or semi-professional courses; (*b*) to provide cultural training.
2. To take care of the needs of the adolescent student in this transition period, (*a*) by giving him individual attention, and (*b*) by offering training which will enable him to orient himself both with reference to vocations and with the whole body of knowledge.
3. To prepare students for the upper two years of college and for professional schools.
4. To enable students to remain at home longer.
5. To bring together in a single institution all secondary work, high school and early college—to complete secondary education.[1]

Other changes within the elementary and secondary schools. Within the elementary school, probably the greatest change in organization has been along the line of lateral extensions, such as the organization of special school facilities for numerous kinds of deviate pupils. Among the most frequent of these special facilities are those for the *mental deviates* (both bright and dull) and for *physical deviates* of various types (blind, deaf, crippled, cardiac, epileptic, and tuberculous).

Within the secondary school also, probably the greatest changes have been along the line of lateral extensions. For example, part-time continuation schools, vocational schools, evening schools, graduate courses, and correspondence-study courses have been organized. The establishment of vocational schools and classes has been especially rapid during recent years and will probably continue because of public insistence that education be made more practical. The need for skilled workmen for war factories during World

[1] *Seventh Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, pp. 302–303. By permission of the National Education Association, publishers.

War II has given vocational education a tremendous impetus.

In both the elementary and the secondary school the greatest developments have come in attempts to provide for individual differences through a changed curriculum, better grouping of pupils, and newer types of teaching procedures. These developments are so significant that Chapter XI of this book is devoted to them.

PROBABLE FUTURE TRENDS IN THE ORGANIZATION

This chapter has shown that although the schools of the United States assumed the form which they did largely through chance and imitation rather than design, the tendency has been to reorganize them consciously and deliberately to make them meet the changing needs of a democratic social order characterized by equality of opportunity for "all the children of all the people." Although our early school patterns were borrowed from European countries and were more suited to the needs of an autocracy or aristocracy than a democracy, our people have gone far toward developing a system adapted to a democracy.

Probably the reorganization of our school system has much farther to go. It can never be complete, because as social, industrial, economic, political, and other changes are made, changes in the school organization will also have to be made. Changes in the future will probably continue, as they have in the past, along three major fronts, namely, (1) better articulation of the various units of the school system, (2) better adaptation of subject matter, methods, and other phases of educational procedure to the needs of the individual and society; and (3) larger public support, supervision, and control of educational agencies.

The present tendency is toward the use of such a plan as is indicated on the right-hand side of Fig. 19. This plan provides for: (1) an elementary school of six years, this being preceded by a kindergarten; (2) a junior high school of three years; (3) a senior high school of three years; (4) a junior college of two years, this to be closely related to the

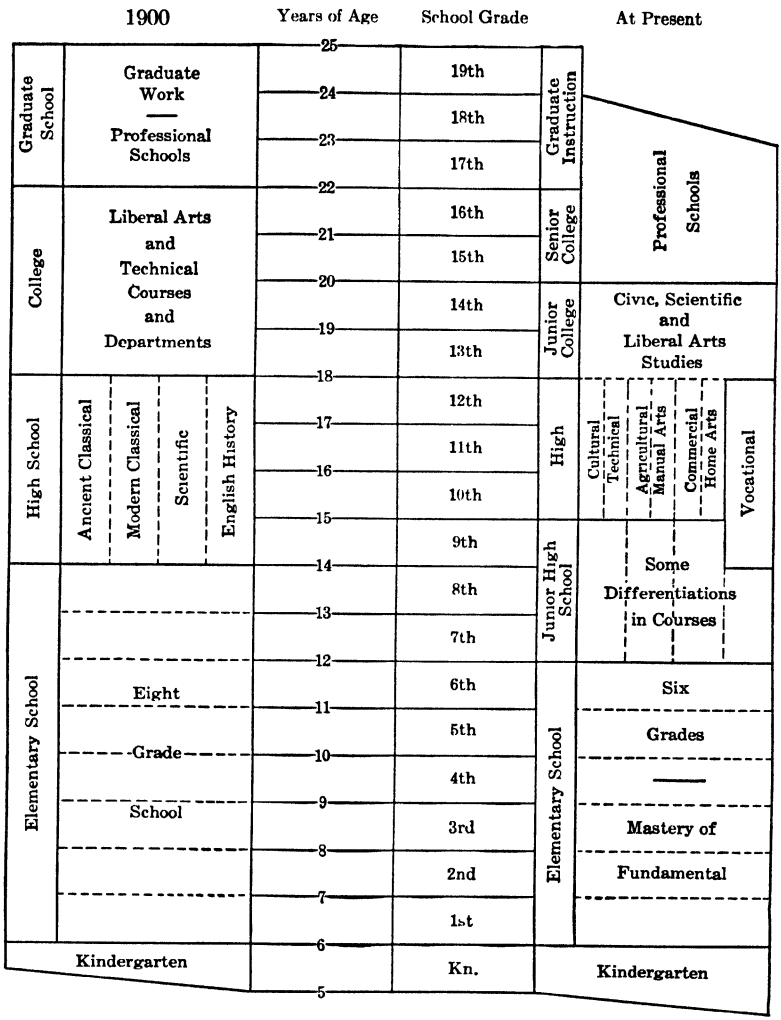

FIG. 19. The reorganization of American education. (Adapted from Ellwood P. Cubberley, *Public Education in the United States*, Houghton Mifflin, rev. ed., 1934, p. 559.)

high school; and (5) a university consisting of a large number of professional schools, beginning with the junior year, or so-called *senior* college.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What factors account for the large increase in high-school and college enrollments during recent decades?

2. What do you predict will be the trend in enrollment in the elementary school, the high school, and the college during the coming years? Give reasons for your prediction.

3. What changes, if any, in the organization of our school system do you predict will be made in the future? Why?

4. What advantages, if any, are there in having in one school building, as a few schools do, all grades from the kindergarten through the junior college? What disadvantages are there in such a plan?

5. Does the large amount of failure in the first year of each of the school levels prove the need for better articulation among these levels? What steps are now being taken to secure better articulation?

6. Do you believe, as many persons affirm, that the high schools and colleges are more aristocratic than democratic? Explain. Compare the democracy of the typical high school and college of today with that of earlier days.

7. What effect has tradition had upon the high-school curriculum? Is it possible to ignore this tradition in organizing a curriculum for a high school? Why or why not? Is tradition of any value? Explain.

8. With respect to pedagogical efficiency and financial economy, are there too many small high schools in your state? Explain. What should be done to correct the situation?

9. Do you believe it is good policy to offer at public expense to anyone who desires it, complete schooling from the kindergarten through the university? What advantages, if any, would there be in making secondary and higher education selective as do the foreign countries? What disadvantages would there be in such a policy?

10. Is there as much equality of educational opportunity on the college level as there is on the elementary and secondary levels? Give evidence. Do you believe there should be as much equality on the higher levels as on the lower? Why or why not?

11. Do you believe college education justifies its cost to the public? Cite evidence to support your belief.

12. What rules and regulations does your state have regarding the standards which elementary, secondary, and higher schools shall meet? Criticize these standards as to their general adequacy.

13. Do the colleges, through their entrance requirements, domi-

nate too much the high-school curriculum? Why or why not? What domination of the elementary-school curriculum is there on the part of the high school?

14. What factors should determine whether or not a community should start a junior college?

15. What is meant by *vocational education?* Do you believe it is good policy to spend public funds to provide vocational education? Why or why not?

16. Should we organize specialized high schools or cosmopolitan high schools which would give all or most types of secondary education under one roof?

17. What legal provision, if any, is made for kindergartens in your state? For junior colleges?

18. Do you believe the kindergarten should be required by law in every community and be supported by taxation the same as the elementary school and the high school? Why or why not?

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Chapter V

THE PLACE OF THE SCHOOL PLANT IN EDUCATION

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE SCHOOL PLANT

The school plant includes the school site, the school building, and the school equipment. These are the permanent or relatively permanent possessions of the school system, and the expenditures made to acquire them are known as *capital outlays*. Since the school plant, especially an excellent one, makes a large contribution to the educational welfare and progress of the pupils, since it is being more and more used as a community center, and since it is a potent, though silent, public-relations agency, any general view of the school must include an introductory acquaintance with this facility. A "well-qualified teacher at one end of a log and a pupil at the other end" do not make an efficient school. A "log" will no longer suffice as the altar of instruction; it must give way to a school plant which is adequate and modern in every way, and this plant must often accommodate several thousand pupils rather than one pupil. The school plant will be more rapidly improved when school employees and the general public are better informed on its place in education and on the criteria which it should meet.

THE TENDENCY TOWARD A BETTER SCHOOL PLANT

It is a far cry from yesterday's "little red schoolhouses" with their small sites and their meager and simple equipment to today's palatial school buildings with their commodious sites and their modern equipment. As a wag has said, most modern school buildings are "neither little nor

red." Whereas in the early days a knowledge of carpentry was believed to qualify a person to plan and to construct a school building, the modern school building is frequently the combined work of an educator, various types of engineers, an artist, a hygienist, and an economist. Although the developments in school housing have probably not been as rapid as the developments in many other phases of life, it cannot be gainsaid that large improvement has been made in all phases of the school plant. In the main, though with a slight tendency to lag, the development of the school plant has paralleled the development of the curriculum, of teaching procedures, and of other phases of the work of the school. As the purposes and procedures of the school have changed, the plant has had to be modified to meet the requirements created by these newer methods in the school. Like the Chambered Nautilus made immortal by Oliver Wendell Holmes, the school has been leaving its "low vaulted past" for "more stately mansions." Some of the ways in which the school plant has been improved, and some of the ways in which it needs still further improvement, will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

As regards the site. In spite of the abundance and the comparative cheapness of land in the early days, when we were primarily a rural people, the schools of those days were located on small sites—sites too small for playgrounds, school gardening, and proper landscaping. Moreover, the sites were frequently selected by haphazard techniques; hence they did not always meet exacting standards of quality. During recent years, however, the tendency has been toward the selection of sites which are more desirable both in size and in quality. In fact, many states have recently enacted laws which establish certain standards which school sites must meet, especially regarding size and environment. The following are the chief standards that a school building site, which is being selected today, should be required to meet:

1. Be located within easy, or feasible, walking distance of the pupils it is designed to serve; by designed to serve, is meant, not only the present population, but also the moving population. Often schools

are built for the immediate present only to be discovered that in a few years the majority of the pupils were located in other sections. In rural communities, of course, pupil transportation is often necessary and must not be forgotten when a site is being selected.

2. Be a natural community center, that is, close to churches, markets, lodges, etc.

3. Be located in an environment which would be wholesome for a school.

4. Possess proper size, shape, and topography.

5. Have a soil which is quick-drying and free from decaying organic matter and artificial construction.

6. Possess natural drainage, or the possibility of constructing an artificial drainage system at not too large cost.

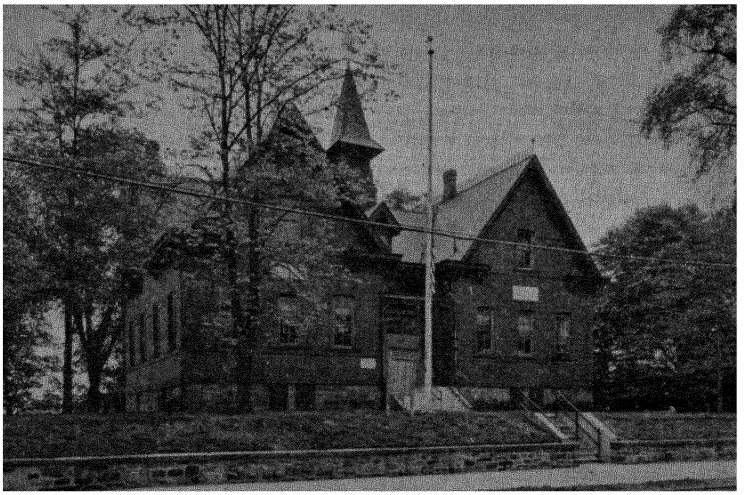
7. Have an ample supply of good water, especially drinking water.

8. Receive sunlight during the entire day.

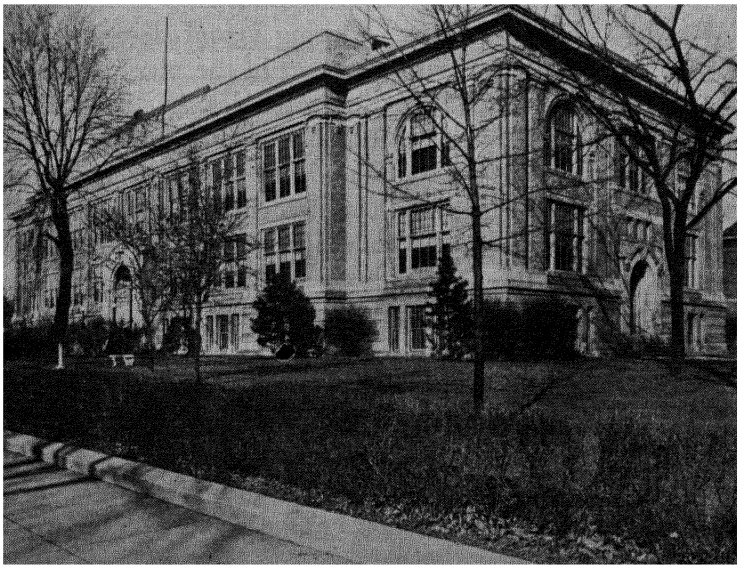
9. Be available at a reasonable cost.

It should be realized, of course, that no school site can be expected to meet perfectly each standard. School officials and employees, therefore, always have the task of weighing possible sites by means of the standards and of selecting the one which *best* meets the standards.

As regards the building. During recent decades, there has been a tremendous improvement in the planning, architecture, and construction of school buildings. Casual observation shows that the school building of today is often the largest, the most beautiful, and the most expensive building in the community; these characteristics are found especially in secondary-school buildings. From the beginning of schools, the tendency has been to make the school building more useful, more safe, more healthful, more enduring, more economical, and more beautiful. Perfection along these lines has not, however, been reached, because in many school buildings which have been and are being erected, there is much waste—waste resulting from many factors, but usually stemming from lack of foresight in planning. School buildings have frequently not been erected in the proper location, or they have been made too large, too small, or ill adapted to the needs of their community in some other way. The classrooms, in many instances, have not been adapted to the curriculum needs of the pupils. In many communities, also, the school buildings are architectural



Public School 15 erected in New York City in 1888



Washington Court House, Ohio, High School

FIG. 20. The old and the new in school buildings.

monstrosities, whereas they should be among the most beautiful buildings. Many school buildings do not meet the following test of architecture which John Ruskin gives in his *Seven Lamps of Architecture:* "Architecture is the art which so disposes and adorns the edifices raised by man for whatsoever uses, that the sight of them may contribute to his mental health, power, and pleasure."

In planning school buildings today, progressive school officials and architects are keeping in mind desirable objectives. They are keeping in mind especially the excellent objectives listed in the *Report of the Committee on School-House Planning* (pp. 14–19), of the National Education Association. Those objectives are quoted herewith in abbreviated form:

1. *Adaptation to educational needs.* The plan should conform to the schedule of rooms already adopted.

2. *Safety.* The corridors and stairways should permit the building to be vacated in three minutes even if one stairway is made useless by smoke.

3. *Healthfulness.* Every room should have abundant natural light.

The toilets should be distributed conveniently on each floor and should have windows opening directly to the open air.

There should be a sufficient number of bubblers for drinking purposes, so located that they will not block traffic.

Washbowls should be adequate in number.

To avoid damp, insanitary, or poorly ventilated rooms there should be no basement as this term is usually understood, with the possible exception of space for the heating plant. This plant should, when possible, be located entirely without the confines of the building.

In rural communities the one-story type is often desirable, as it is a reasonable guarantee of safety in case of fire.

To avoid excessive climbing of stairs the building should not contain more than three stories and a basement, except in congested cities where land is very expensive.

4. *Convenience.* The location of rooms with reference to one another should be carefully studied.

5. *Expansiveness.* The building should be so planned that it can be enlarged as much as may be needed without unnecessary cost and without cutting off natural light and ventilation of any of the existing rooms.

6. *Flexibility.* Since it is not possible to foresee all the requirements of the future, every school building should be so planned and

constructed that changes can be made if necessary in the lengths of the room.

7. *Aesthetic fitness.* The skill of the architect as a designer is shown by his ability to clothe the building with a pleasing exterior without doing violence to the interior.

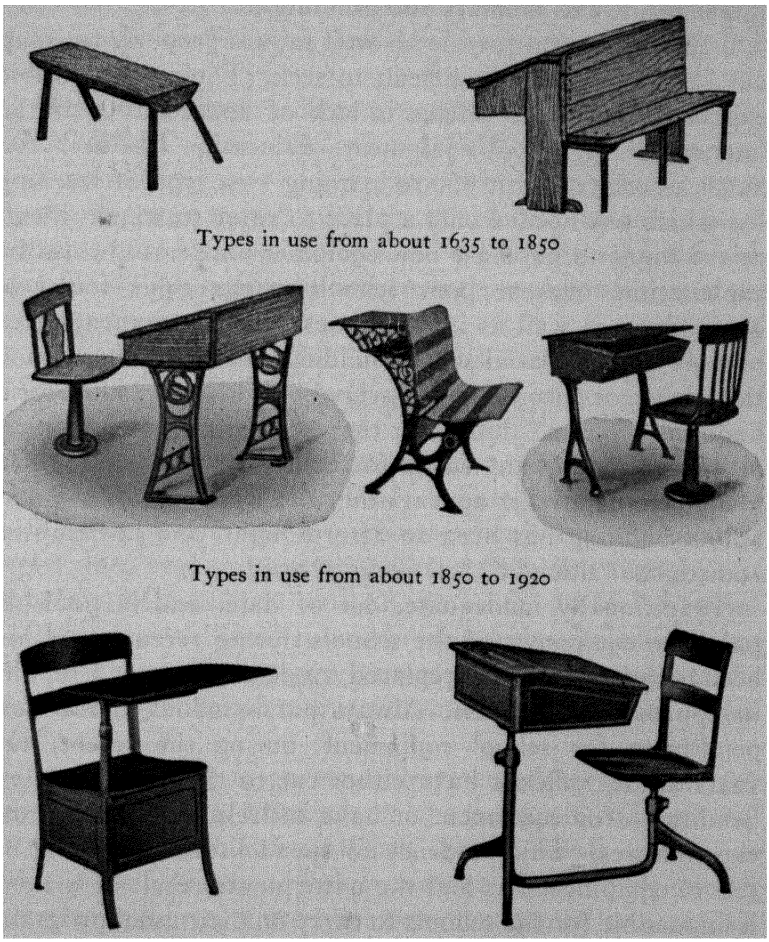
The interior should likewise produce attractive and pleasing effects. The decorations should be modest and cheerful.

8. *Economy.* Economy in the plan is secured by
   (*a*) Accurate determination of the size needed for each room.
   (*b*) Duplicate uses of rooms.
   (*c*) Elimination of waste areas.

As regards the equipment. Although there has been much improvement in the quality of school equipment, the improvement has not kept pace with the improvement in school buildings, nor has it kept pace with the improvement in other types of equipment. Compared with the furnishings of homes, with the equipment of private businesses, and with other phases of school progress, the equipment of thousands of schools is decidedly out of date. Much school equipment, in fact, must be classed as "antique," and it is probable that, as is the case with antique furniture, the less comfortable and less useful items have survived while the more comfortable and more useful items have been worn out. For their homes, offices, and private businesses the people are constantly purchasing new furnishings and new equipment calculated to afford larger comfort, greater utility, and more beauty, but school equipment has been permitted, like Tennyson's brook, to go on forever. In many instances the equipment of a school building is older than the building itself.

In thousands of classrooms the pupils must occupy the same uncomfortable and dilapidated seats, use the same out-of-date globes, read the same library books, gaze upon the same pictures and other wall decorations, and use other equipment which served their grandparents and parents. In hundreds of classrooms the equipment is limited to an ancient desk for each pupil and for the teacher; there are no library, no maps, no globes, no filing facilities, no wall pictures, no shades for the windows, and no radio. These sad conditions are found especially in the rural schools.

In thousands of schools and school systems the office equipment is insufficient and inefficient; the laboratory and shop equipment creaks from old age; the playground and gymnasium apparatus is inadequate and unsafe; the heat-



Two of the types being manufactured since about 1920

FIG. 21. The evolution of the classroom seat.

ing, ventilating, and lighting systems are ancient; the cleaning system consists of only a broom and an old-fashioned feather duster; the lavatory and toilet facilities are unsightly and unsanitary; and the vehicles used in pupil transportation are perhaps suitable for the hauling of live-

stock but not satisfactory for the transportation of human beings. To require pupils and teachers to use such equipment is as absurd as it would be to revert to the use of ox carts, wooden plows, scythes for cutting grain, flails for threshing it, and mortars for grinding it.

The explanation for the historic failure properly to equip our school buildings is difficult to seek. The most plausible explanation for the failure is lack of appreciation of the importance of school equipment. Education has been too much associated with "book learning"—a type of learning for which one needed only a place to sit or to stand. Insufficient funds to purchase new equipment are not always the explanation, because poor school equipment is found in good times as well as in bad times; poor equipment often obtains in the palatial school buildings of wealthy communities. It is not uncommon for school officials to spend several hundred thousand dollars in the erection of a building yet neglect to budget any funds for equipping the building. In many communities it appears that the equipping of the new school building has been an afterthought, and in many instances the "thought" has *never* arrived.

Traditionally inadequate, out of date, and in poor repair, the equipment of the schools during recent years has been permitted to go unreplaced, to deteriorate, and rapidly to approach uselessness. Always parsimonious in their expenditures for school equipment, during the recent lean years school officials have either cut to the bone their expenditures for equipment or have entirely eliminated those expenditures. This tendency to spend little or nothing on school equipment has had the unfortunate result of making it impossible for the schools to carry on their usual program. This is particularly unfortunate, because only a small expenditure for equipment would often make a large contribution to educational results. For example, only a few dollars spent on globes, on reference books, and on maps would improve pupil results in a geography class many times beyond the cost; in fact, investigation might show that a few dollars spent on equipment would enable the teacher to instruct a larger number of pupils, thus reducing the per pupil

cost. What has been said regarding geography could be said for any subject, department, or grade of the school. Pupils and teachers cannot accomplish most without proper tools any more than can the laborer or artisan; moreover, to require them to use some of the tools which they must now use is injurious to their health, safety, comfort, and happiness.

When they are in college preparing for their profession, school officials and employees should become acquainted with up-to-date types of equipment which the schools need; moreover, they should maintain this acquaintance throughout their professional careers. They have the further responsibility of trying to secure such equipment for their work.

EXPENDITURES FOR THE SCHOOL PLANT

Original cost. According to reports of the United States Office of Education, the land, buildings, and equipment used by the public and the private schools and colleges are now valued at more than ten billion dollars. In normal years approximately 20 per cent of the school budget is spent for new plants. Next to teachers' salaries, which account for approximately 50 per cent of the school budget, the largest school expenditure is for *capital outlays,* that is, for new plants.

In spite of the large expenditures made every year for new school plants, hundreds of thousands of children still attend school in buildings which are too small, unsafe, or unsatisfactory in some other manner. Thousands attend school in buildings which have been condemned as unsafe or unsanitary. Thousands of others are housed in portable structures, rented buildings, abandoned stores, churches, lodge halls, or other temporary quarters, and many attend school on a part-time basis, because of a shortage of building facilities. Hundreds of buildings now in use date back to the Civil War period. As would be expected, the worst school housing conditions are found in the poverty-stricken communities; they are found especially in several of the

southern states because those states do not have nearly as much wealth per capita as the northern ones.

Maintenance and operating cost. The original expenditure is not the only expenditure which must be made for the school plant. An expenditure for upkeep must be made annually. After the building is erected, it must be kept in repair, it must be operated, and it must be insured, and expenditures for those purposes must be made as long as the building is used. On the average, in the schools of the United States, approximately 10 per cent of the school budget is expended for the operation of the school plant, and approximately 4 per cent is expended for its maintenance. *Maintenance* is a term used in school financial accounting to include expenditures for repairs of school sites, buildings, or equipment. *Operation of plant* is a term used to include expenditures for janitorial service and plant supplies, such as fuel, electric current, and water.

USE OF THE SCHOOL PLANT

The care with which the school plant is used largely determines the depreciation and the life of the plant and the annual expenditures which must be made for maintenance and operation. School employees, and especially the teachers, are in a position to do much toward prolonging the life of the school plant, and toward reducing the annual expenditure necessary for maintenance and operation. Some of the more important steps which school employees can take toward making a better and more careful use of the school plant are discussed in the following paragraphs. Through such steps, they can often save their salaries.

Protection from misuse and vandalism. School plants wear out, decay, and become obsolescent the same as homes, office buildings, automobiles, refrigerators, and every other possession. Everything is constantly depreciating and is on an irresistible march to the junk pile; what nature gives, she takes away. Although the depreciation of the school plant can never be entirely prevented, it can be retarded. The amount and the kind of use which a plant receives are

the important factors in determining the amount of annual depreciation and the life of the plant.

Teachers are in a strategic position to see that the school plant is used carefully. They use the plant, but above all they have direct charge of the pupils, and have the responsibility of instilling in the pupils a respect for property. Instilling this respect will not only protect school property from damage but should carry over into life situations and protect all other forms of property, public and private, from damage. It is a sad commentary that school property is frequently not treated with proper respect by pupils. In many schools the desks and other furniture have been almost whittled away by pupils' knives; paper wads mar the walls of the classrooms and finger marks cover the walls; pencil, ink, and crayon marks are found everywhere; and window glass is frequently broken. These are only a few of the examples of misuse, and occasionally of downright vandalism, on the part of pupils and other persons who use the school plant.

Such depredations not only make the plant unsightly and less useful, but they shorten its life. Moreover, they result in the waste of a large amount of money—unquestionably millions of dollars annually in the school plants of the nation. This waste can be prevented.

If they are given a modicum of supervision by school officials and employees, pupils will cooperate in keeping the school plant in excellent repair and spick and span in every way; they are not vandals born and bred. The first step in securing proper treatment for the school plant is to place all parts of the plant in a respectable condition. By calling the attention of the principal or the superintendent to the need for repairs teachers may often be the means of securing improvements. Under ideal conditions these repairs would be made without the teachers being compelled to request them; in thousands of schools, of course, they are being made in the ideal manner indicated. The site should be landscaped; the classrooms, corridors, foyers, and other parts of the building should be decorated; the floors should be refinished; the furniture should be revarnished or stained;

broken window glass should be replaced; and broken furniture and other equipment should be repaired. When these and other repairs have been made, it is an easy matter to secure the cooperation of pupils in keeping the plant in a respectable condition. On the contrary, one mark on the walls may suggest another mark; one paper wad is likely to call for another. One act of seemingly condoned vandalism will suggest similar depredations upon not only school property but upon other property, public and private.

If anyone doubts whether pupils will cooperate with school officials and employees in keeping the school plant in excellent repair, let him visit a well-kept school plant, for example, that of Greenfield, Ohio. Although the Greenfield plant has been in operation more than two decades, it is difficult to find a mark, a scratch, or other evidence of misuse anywhere on it. What Greenfield has done toward keeping her school plant beautiful and in an excellent state of repairs, every community can do. The children of Greenfield are probably no more angelic than those of other communities.

Responsibility for cleanliness and tidiness. The teacher is also largely responsible for the cleanliness and tidiness of his classroom, shop, laboratory, studio, or other work place. Although it is not his responsibility to do the janitor's work, he must cooperate with the janitor in numerous ways. Above all, he must see that the pupils cooperate with the janitor in keeping the school plant clean and tidy. He should see that the pupils do not enter the building with unclean shoes, that they do not scatter waste paper about or otherwise litter the school building or the school grounds, and that they are not guilty of other misdemeanors or acts of carelessness which would make the school plant unclean, untidy, or which in some other manner would increase unnecessarily the work of the janitor. Giving pupils these lessons is a desirable part of training them for life, because if they learn habits of cleanliness and neatness in school, they are likely to carry the habits into their homes and all other life activities.

If the janitorial work is not being performed properly,

the teacher should try to secure a more efficient performance; to call the attention of the janitor to the deficiency will usually result in its correction. The typical janitor will not take offense if the teacher calls his attention to needed janitorial services, provided, of course, that tact and reasonableness are used by the teacher. In requesting extra janitorial services it should be kept in mind that the janitor is a human being, and that his whole-hearted cooperation cannot be secured if he is treated as a slave. In many instances it is better for the teacher to inform the principal of the unclean and untidy condition of his classroom, and to leave to the principal the responsibility of informing the janitor of the need for correcting those conditions. The rules of many schools and school systems require that teachers who desire any special services from the janitor shall make the request through the principal of the school.

Regular supervision of equipment. Many teachers, especially those of shop and laboratory courses, have several hundred or several thousand dollars' worth of equipment under their care, and all teachers have some equipment. Unless proper care is given this equipment, it may be damaged, misplaced, or lost. When pupils use equipment, they should be expected to use it carefully, and to return it to its proper place when they have finished using it. If cases are provided, the equipment should be found in them when it is not in use, and they should be locked. Likewise, when school is not in session, the doors to classrooms and buildings should be locked to prevent, or to lessen the danger of, theft and vandalism.

Protection against fire loss. Under the title of "Safety Education" a section of Chapter XII of this book discusses the huge loss of life and property which school property fires entail annually. The steps which teachers may take in preventing fires and in assuring safety to pupils in case of fire are also suggested there. In view of that discussion it will not be necessary to treat the problem at this point.

Capacity use of the school plant. The largest waste in the school plant is caused by the frequent failure to use the plant to capacity. Although hundreds of schools are over-

crowded, and although thousands of pupils are on part-time school rations or must attend school in temporary quarters, there are hundreds of school plants which are used at only a fraction of their capacity and which could accommodate many more pupils. Much of this waste is caused by poor planning of the building at the time of erection—by the failure to estimate accurately total school enrollment and the enrollments in the various classes. Much of it is also the result of haphazard scheduling of classes, especially in the secondary school where, of course, the elective system is more prevalent than in the elementary school.

But, whatever the cause of the failure to use the plant to capacity, there is an unquestioned waste the country over. When it is considered that the school plant of the nation has cost more than ten billion dollars, and when it is remembered that this plant is used only eight, nine, or ten months during the year, only five days during the week, only six, seven, or eight hours during the day, and that thousands of classrooms are not used to capacity during the school day, the huge waste in the unused school plant is brought forcibly to attention.

The largest waste in school plants is found in the use of the *special* rooms such as the auditorium, the gymnasium, the cafeteria, the shops, and the laboratories. In many schools these rooms are not used more than one or two periods per day. Modern school systems are taking two steps to eliminate this waste. First, in the erection of plants they are planning these special rooms in such a manner that they can be used for other classes; second, they are adopting new types of school programs, such as the platoon program, which has as a chief purpose to make capacity use of all parts of the plant throughout the school day.

Community use of the school plant. Within recent decades, there has been a well-defined movement toward making the school the center of community life. Thus today, the school buildings are being opened for the use of the general public during the evenings, and at other times when the work of the regular pupils will not be hindered. Every-

where today adult education is being emphasized, because it is realized that only a beginning in education can be secured in the eight, twelve, or sixteen years of the institutional school. During recent years the emphasis on adult education has been given a mighty stimulus because of the large amount of unemployment, especially in the years immediately preceding World War II; millions of the unemployed have tried to improve their education during their free time. Many states now give financial aid to communities for the establishment of adult evening schools and classes, and in the whole United States millions of adults are enrolled in these schools and classes.

In addition to being used as a meeting place for adult classes, the school plant is being used by a large number of associations, clubs, societies, and other organizations. Some of the organizations which make frequent use of the school plant are parent-teacher associations, mothers' clubs, Red Cross, community clubs, people's forums, social-service federations, welfare associations, health organizations, farm bureaus, farmers' institutes, granges, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, chambers of commerce, Americanization clubs, and lyceums. The modern school is trying in many ways to cooperate with community organizations, especially those interested in educational and welfare activities; this cooperation helps to vitalize the work of the day-school pupils and contributes also to the improvement of the whole community.

THE SCHOOL JANITOR AND HIS WORK

Importance of the school janitor. Contrary to common belief, the janitor is an important school employee, and a "strong back and a weak mind" will no longer suffice for his qualifications; indeed, those qualifications never sufficed. The modern school janitor must do much more than "build fires and sweep out." He has many important duties to perform—duties which are frequently not realized by teachers and other school employees. In a few cities, especially in Minneapolis, Minnesota, many of the school janitors and engineers are college graduates.

In the first place, the janitor, more than any other school employee, sets the housekeeping standards for the school. He keeps, or should keep, the building spick and span; he believes, or should believe, that "cleanliness is next to godliness." When pupils observe such ideals in the janitor, they are helped to develop such ideals themselves. The opposite type of ideals on the part of the janitor is apt to be demoralizing to the development of good habits and ideals on the part of pupils, and what is more unfortunate, such demoralizing habits and ideals are likely to carry over into the after-school life of the pupils and to remain with them as long as they live.

In the second place, the janitor uses and has custody of a physical plant which has cost a large amount of money. He makes building and equipment repairs, especially minor ones. He keeps the building securely locked when it is not in use, and he protects the site, building, and equipment from vandalism. A lazy or careless janitor could cause annually a loss of thousands of dollars to the school plant.

In the third place, the janitor uses annually hundreds of dollars' worth of supplies in cleaning, heating, lighting, and in other services in operating the building. It would be easily possible for a janitor, especially in a large building, to waste or to save his salary in the use of supplies.

In the fourth place, the janitor has more to do with the comfort, health, and safety of the occupants of the school building than any other school employee, with the possible exception of the principal. He sees that the building is adequately and uniformly heated and ventilated, that it is clean, that it is fumigated after an epidemic of contagious disease, and that the water supply is pure and ample. He makes certain that the fire escapes and the sidewalks are in good repair, and are cleared of snow and ice. He removes the fire hazards that often accumulate in the basement, under the stairways, and in other parts of the building. In brief, his activities make a direct contribution to the health and the safety of the occupants of the building.

In the fifth place, the janitor has an important moral, educational, and public-relations influence in the school and

in the community. He frequently associates with the pupils, particularly the boys, more than any other school employee. The pupils hobnob with him at recess and at other school intermissions; they go to him for advice on various problems. Unless the janitor is intelligent and has high character, his influence upon the pupils is not likely to be what it should be. The janitor is also in a position to do the school a large amount of good or harm in community relations. As a rule, he has lived in the community longer than any other school employee, and he knows more people than most school employees. What the janitor says about the school, a large percentage of the people of the community will accept as law and gospel. The janitor hears much, sees much, and often says much, regarding the school. He is one of the most influential public-relations agents of the school.

In unison with the growing appreciation of the importance of the school janitor has come an insistence that the holder of the position be better qualified. Good practice, however, still lags many years behind good theory, and the qualifications of the school janitors of the nation still leave much to be desired. Instead of being selected on a professional basis and having the conditions of their work determined on a professional basis, the janitors of many school systems are selected and promoted on the basis of "politics," or "the need for a job," of family relationship, or some other extraneous consideration. There is every reason for professionalizing this important position and for putting it on somewhat the same plane as that of the teacher.

Cooperating with the janitor. The janitor holds, therefore, an important position in the school organization, and school officials and employees have many opportunities to cooperate with him. It has already been pointed out that the other school employees, especially the teachers, are in a position to make his work easier by seeing that the pupils keep the plant as clean and as tidy as possible. It has already been remarked, too, that the janitor is a human being, and should be treated as such by the pupils, school

officials, and employees. To greet him regularly with a cordial "Good day" or a similar greeting is not only a mark of neighborliness but is bound to be reflected in a more cooperative spirit on his part. A janitor who is treated as a human being is more likely to cooperate in performing the many small services which teachers and other employees frequently find it necessary to request of janitors.

BEAUTIFICATION OF THE SCHOOL PLANT

The school plant should be beautiful, cozy, and homelike. Many school plants, however, resemble habitats of animals rather than abodes for human beings. If the typical father or mother were compelled to spend five or six hours a day in a home as forbidding as the typical school plant, something would be done about it. School officials and employees should engage in a campaign to make the school plant more like the best homes in landscaping, repairs, and decorations. The effort and the expense given to such attempt would not need to be large, but the results would be large indeed.

Teachers can do much toward the beautification of the school plant, particularly their own classrooms. They can call the attention of the principal, superintendent, and other supervisory and administrative officers to the bareness of the classrooms, and possibly secure thereby a small amount of money for beautification of the classrooms. Even though they may not receive cooperation from school officials, by their own efforts they can secure some growing plants, pictures, or other decorations for the classrooms. The parent-teacher association or other community agencies will often be able to help obtain these improvements.

The corridors, foyers, and classrooms of school buildings should be made veritable art galleries for paintings, pictures, statuary, and other works of art. In many buildings, however, there is not one specimen of art; the walls are not only barren of these speciments of culture and civilization, but worst of all, they are marred with finger marks, pencil marks, paper wads, and other symbols of carelessness and vandalism.

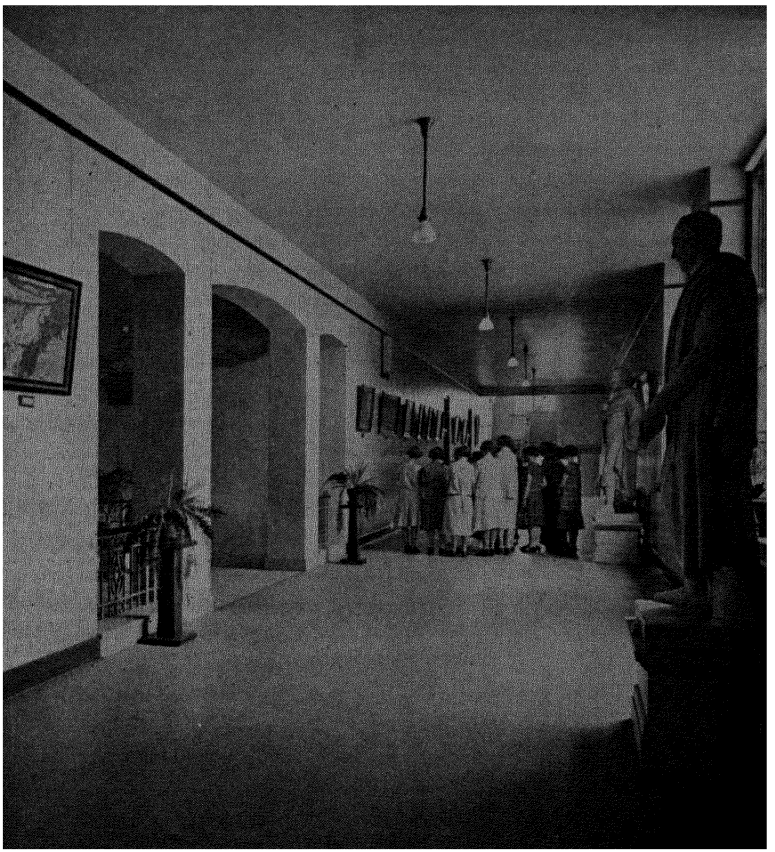


FIG. 22. View of the main corridor in the Greenfield, Ohio, High School. With their carefully selected art objects, paintings, and murals, the corridors serve as a "silent golden influence" as well as a means of circulation for the users of the building.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. How have the changing curriculum and new methods of teaching forced changes in schools plants? What effect, if any, do you predict that the radio will have?

2. Compared with the expenditures for other educational items, is too much money being expended on the school plant? Explain. Is the practice of spending much more for the secondary-school plant than for the elementary-school plant justified? Discuss.

3. What control does your state exercise over school-plant standards? Do you believe the control goes far enough? Explain.

4. Why is it easier to secure money for a new school plant than for an increase in employees' salaries or for other running expenses?

5. Should school buildings be paid for by bonding or from the proceeds of current taxes? Discuss pro and con.

6. Would you recommend that school buildings be erected for longer life or shorter life? Why?

7. What are some of the more common wastes which you have seen in the erection and use of school buildings?

8. To what extent, if any, should public money be expended for architectural beauty in school buildings? Explain.

9. Are you satisfied with the comfort and attractiveness of the typical classroom? If not, what suggestions would you make looking toward improvement? What can the teacher do to accomplish this end?

10. Outline a plan which you would use in teaching pupils respect for property and the desire to cooperate with school officials and employees in keeping the school plant as attractive as possible.

11. Account for the large amount of vandalism against school property. How may the teacher cooperate in reducing this destruction?

12. By what means may the teacher cooperate with the school janitor? Account for the friction so often found between janitors and teachers. How may this friction be avoided?

13. To what extent and under what conditions should the school building be used by the general community?

14. Should schools be run on a year-round basis in order that school plants could be used more? Why or why not? If school buildings were air conditioned, would there be as much objection to running the schools during the summer months?

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PESMAN, M. WALTER, "How Landscaped Grounds Satisfy Educational Needs," *Nation's Schools,* Vol. 7 (March, 1931), pp. 27–32.

Discusses the contribution of aesthetic surroundings to education; many illustrations are given.

REEDER, WARD G., *The Fundamentals of Public School Administration,* The Macmillan Co., New York, 1941, pp. 253–349.

The four chapters included in these pages discuss the planning, constructing, and financing of school buildings; the use of school buildings; the school janitor and his work; and maintenance and insurance of school property.

SEXTON, R. W., *Contemporary American Architecture; Schools,* Architectural Book Co., New York, 1939, 96 pp.

Profusely illustrated.

Report of the Committee on Schoolhouse Planning, National Education Association, Washington, D. C., 1925, 164 pp.

Discusses all phases of the planning.

"The Nation's School Building Needs," *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association, Vol. 13 (January, 1935), pp. 1–35.

Shows the age and condition of the nation's school buildings and suggests the need for a long-range building program.

The Planning and Construction of School Buildings, Part I of the Thirty-Third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Public School Publishing Co., 1934, Bloomington, Ill., 333 pp.

Discusses standards which school buildings should meet.

Chapter VI

COST AND SUPPORT OF THE SCHOOLS

The efficiency of the schools is determined largely by the amount of financial support given them and by the wisdom with which the money is expended. The size of classes, the adequacy of the school plant, the merit of the curriculum, the quality of textbooks and of all other instructional materials, the qualifications and salaries of school employees—in fact, all phases of the school program—are affected by the amount of money and by the efficiency with which the money is expanded. If there were no financial support, there would be no schools, or if the funds were inadequate or were unwisely expended, the schools would not realize their potentialities. For any complete perspective of the schools, therefore, a view must be taken of school finance. This chapter is designed to give that view, emphasizing outstanding movements and problems in school finance with the hope that the prospective school employee will be better qualified to evaluate the movements and to make his contribution toward the solution of the problems. School employees cannot justly claim that school finance is the responsibility of school officials and that they are not concerned with it. School employees must have a quantum of information on school finance because they are being required more and more to take part in the financial deliberations and practices of the school and to assume a responsibility in informing the public regarding these matters. When school employees have received that information, the schools will be more efficiently managed and will be better supported by the public, and school employees will receive higher salaries and have better working conditions in general.

CHANGING CONCEPTIONS OF SCHOOL SUPPORT

From private to public support. In evolving a plan for financing the schools, the conceptions of the public regarding school support have undergone many changes. Two of these changes are so significant that they will be briefly discussed herewith. The first change is that the public has gradually abandoned the belief that education is a private concern, which should be privately supported, and has adopted the belief that education is a public function and should be supported through universal taxation. Many years elapsed before the latter belief was widely accepted; as was logical, it was accepted first for the elementary school, then for the secondary school, and finally for the college and the university. The belief was not accepted without much controversy and conflict; in fact, the battle over the acceptance or the rejection of the idea of universal taxation for school support was one of the longest and one of the most severe of any battle in the history of American education. The battle, though, was long ago won in every American state and territory, and at present there is universal taxation for schools. Persons who do not have children in school are required to pay school taxes the same as persons who have children in school, and it has been many years since the argument has been heard that "it is as wrong to take my money to educate my neighbor's children as it would be to take my oxen to plow my neighbor's field." Taxes for schools and other public purposes have long been regarded as a part of every person's contribution to citizenship; moreover, the principle has been established that each person shall pay those taxes according to his financial resources. In this country the ideal has long been to give every pupil who desires it, and is competent to secure it, an education extending from the elementary school to and through the university. Our people have not only wanted free schools but have wanted these schools to be good enough for "all the children of all the people."

America's practice of universal taxation for school sup-

port from the elementary school through the secondary school and the college and the university is unusual among the nations of the world. Although in foreign countries public support of elementary schools is almost universal, in none of those countries is secondary education or college and university education financed entirely through public funds secured by universal taxation. In brief, the United States has the only truly *public* secondary schools and colleges and universities in the world. She has adopted this policy because of her belief that the welfare and progress of the nation and of each individual comprising it could best be assured through universal education. She has concluded that equality of economic, political, and social opportunity could best be secured for her citizens through equality in educational opportunity. She has regarded equality of educational opportunity as a birthright of every person. Foreign countries, on the contrary, have believed that after providing elementary education for everyone, secondary education and collegiate education at public expense should be provided for only a select few—those few to be chosen on the basis of prospective leadership. They have regarded as wasteful America's ideal of providing free secondary and collegiate education to everyone who desires it. They have apparently adopted the philosophy of Froude who says in *Short Studies on Great Subjects* that "Men are made by nature unequal," and that "it is vain, therefore, to treat them as if they were equal."

From local to state support. The second outstanding changing conception in the financing of the schools of the United States has been regarding the relative place of the local community and of the state in school support; perhaps it would be more accurate to say that this conception is in the *process* of changing, because it has not entirely changed. In the early days the state placed upon the local community the entire responsibility of financing the schools. In those days local financing of the schools did not result in an unequal burden, because we were an agricultural people, and wealth was not concentrated in the urban communities as it often is in the present industrial age. As state educational

standards were raised and as wealth became more and more concentrated in certain communities, inequalities in educational opportunities and in taxation burdens among various communities became pronounced. In an attempt to decrease or to eliminate these inequalities, the states soon began to give financial aid, especially to communities which lacked a sufficient tax base to support their schools. During recent years the belief that the state has the obligation of assisting all communities to maintain their schools up to the minimum standards established by the state has become almost universal. Every state now gives a certain amount of state aid for schools, and the tendency everywhere has been to increase that amount.

No objection can be raised to the practice of the state assisting local districts in meeting the educational standards which the state has prescribed; according to this practice all districts are taxed to help the poor districts. It would appear to be but elemental justice for the state to pursue such a policy. The state must, in fact, pursue such a policy for its own perpetuity and progress. It should be recognized, however, that in the giving of state aid to local districts two dangers are ever lurking and must be minimized.

In the first place, there is danger that local communities will be pauperized—that they will say, "There is slight excuse for our working to support our schools, because the state will look after them for us." There is danger that the state will help those who do not help themselves, as much as it helps those who do help themselves. When such danger is not thwarted, local communities tend to lose interest in their schools, because they do not have the responsibility of supporting them; in such circumstances, mediocrity throughout the state is placed at a premium. In the second place, the giving of state aid without establishing proper checks upon expenditures entails the danger of continuing, if not of increasing, the waste of school funds. Regarding waste, all that needs to be said is that it is bad enough to have local funds wasted, without pouring state funds into the same "rat hole." Waste of school funds is always re-

grettable, because the public is robbed thereby, and the pupils are cheated of some of their educational heritage.

Most states have not established sufficient safeguards against the two dangers just stated and especially against the second; in fact, the dangers have never been generally recognized by school employees and the general public. Too often the states give money to local communities without making sure that the money will be spent in an efficient manner; too often they implicitly trust local school officials and employees to spend these funds without much state inspection and supervision. Too often local communities insist upon obtaining state funds, but they strenuously object to any attempt of the state to supervise the expenditure of the funds; local communities want the money, and they usually want it without any strings.

Although the state cannot go too far in presenting regulations which local districts must meet, it is questioned whether the typical state has gone far enough in establishing those standards. On the one hand, the state should not go so far in its control and supervision as to stifle community initiative. On the other hand, since education is so important, and since the money of all of the people is being utilized more and more for the support of education, the state should make certain that its money is efficiently expended. In brief, a certain amount of state supervision and control is a necessary corollary of state aid. Indeed, a certain amount has always followed state aid.

It is reasonable to urge that the state see that small and unnecessary schools be closed and merged with other schools, that small and unnecessary school districts be abolished and joined with other school districts, that transportation routes be reorganized where reorganization will permit the elimination of one or more school buses. It is within the responsibility of the state to insist that pupil-teacher ratios be changed when they are too large or too small, that cooperative purchasing of supplies be required when it will eliminate waste, that the curriculum be revised to provide for individual development and social improvement. The state should demand that all graft be eliminated,

and that any other change be made which will obtain a better type, or a larger amount, of education for the money expended. The state has these responsibilities especially where the expenditure of state funds is concerned, and it cannot shirk them even where local funds are concerned. It cannot risk having the children of any community cheated.

THE MOUNTING SCHOOL EXPENDITURES

Total expenditures. With the exception of the few periods of severe economic depression, the expenditures for education have constantly mounted from the time of the founding of the first schools in the United States. As was stated in Chapter I, these increases may be regarded as another evidence of the increasing faith of the American people in education. The total expenditures in the United States for public elementary and secondary schools have increased from $63,396,666 in 1870 to more than $2,000,000,000 today. For all types of public and private schools and colleges today more than $3,000,000,000 is annually expended.

It cannot be denied that the increases in school expenditures have been large, and that they have been particularly large during the last two or three decades. In fact, the expenditures have increased so rapidly that many of the staunch friends of education have become somewhat perplexed, because they do not know how much longer the public will be willing to finance the constantly expanding school program, especially since the public will have to bear for many years the staggering debt of World War II. As would be expected, persons who are lukewarm toward education, and the proponents of low tax rates, have viewed with alarm the mounting school costs; they have criticized school officials and employees for engaging in an "orgy of expenditures," and for making larger expenditures than they believed to be justified by the purposes of education and by the financial ability of the people. An appraisal of these criticisms will be reserved for a later section of the chapter.

Per capita expenditures. Not only have the total ex-

penditures for schools increased by leaps and bounds, but the per capita expenditures for those purposes have similarly increased. The total annual expenditures per capita of population for public elementary and secondary schools have increased from $1.64 in 1870 to approximately $17 today. We are now spending annually more than ten times as much for education per inhabitant as we spent in 1870; in other

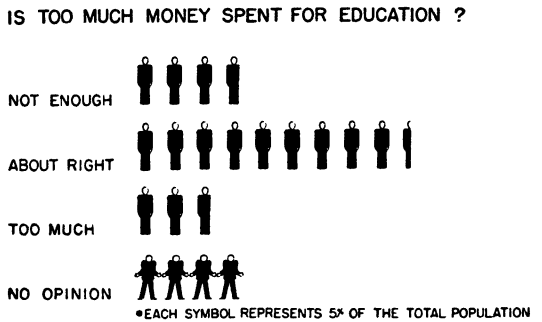

FIG. 23. Vote of a random sampling of the people of the United States on whether too much money is spent for schools. (From *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association, Vol. 18, p. 201.)

words, total expenditures have increased more than ten times as rapidly as total population.

The total annual expenditures per pupil in average daily attendance have increased from $15.55 in 1870 to approximately $100 today. When the per pupil expenditures in the various states are examined, wide variations are found. A few states spend less than $35 annually per pupil, while a few others spend more than $100 per pupil.

These large differences in expenditures result in large inequalities in educational opportunities among the states, and they have called forth the suggestion that federal funds be granted to the states, especially to the states which have low financial ability and therefore small expenditures. Inequalities in expenditures are due primarily to inequalities in wealth and income among the states. They are also due to (1) differences in the desire of the people for good schools, and (2) differences in the size and the difficulty of the educational problem occasioned by differences in such

environmental factors as climate, cost of living, density of population, and topography.

EXPLANATIONS FOR THE MOUNTING SCHOOL COSTS

The data of the preceding section make clear that school expenditures have increased by leaps and bounds; they indicate that since 1870 the total annual expenditures for public elementary and secondary schools have increased more than thirty fold. During the same period the total population of the nation has increased only two and one third fold, or less than one tenth as rapidly as school costs. The people's faith in education is abundantly proved.

The increases in school costs have been gigantic, but merely to point out these mounting costs without attempting to explain them is likely to place the schools, at least with any unthinking persons, in a vulnerable position. That mistake has been made many times in the past by persons who were unfriendly toward education. Whatever explanations for the mounting school costs are made will probably have to be made by the faithful friends of the schools. It is the obligation, therefore, of school officials and employees to know the explanations of the mounting school costs and to offer those explanations when occasion demands. In the following paragraphs the explanations for the mounting school costs will be discussed.

Increase in school attendance. The increase in school attendance is the first explanation for the increase in school expenditures. This increase in attendance is one of the most significant facts in the history of education in this or in any other country. Whereas in the early days formal education, especially above the elementary school, was provided for only a favored few—that is, for those who were able to pay tuition—it has within recent years become universal. At the present time, approximately one fifth of the people of the United States are regularly enrolled in school, and there is scarcely a home which does not have at least one of its members enrolled. This increase in school enrollment has been particularly rapid during the last two or three

decades. The increase has been especially rapid in the secondary schools, where the per pupil expenditure, justly or unjustly, is almost twice the per pupil expenditure in the elementary schools.

The percentage of children five to seventeen years of age (inclusive) enrolled in school has gone from 57 in 1870 to approximately 85 today. The percentage of pupils enrolled in the secondary school has showed a phenomenal increase;

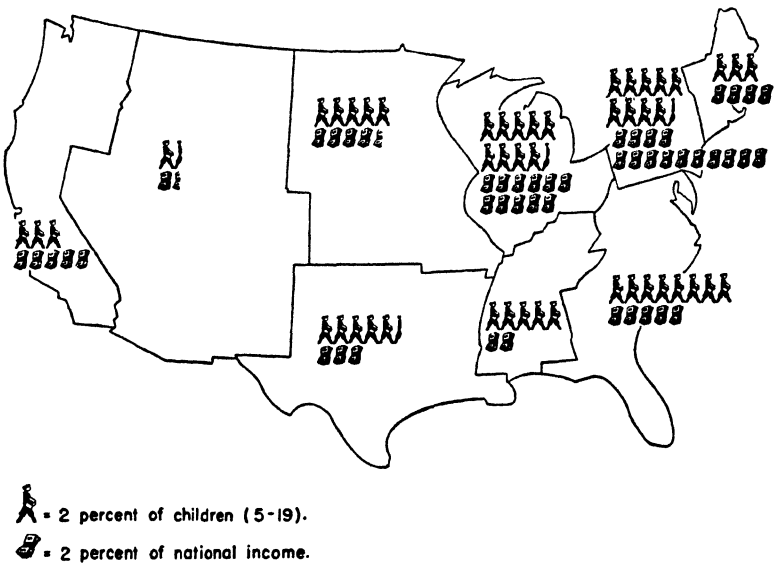

FIG. 24. The percentage of children (ages five to nineteen), and the percentage of the national income, found in each geographical division of the United States. (From *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association, Vol. 19, p. 214.)

it has increased from 1.2 in 1870 to approximately 24 today.

Not only have the schools attracted a larger percentage of children of school age, but they are keeping a larger percentage of them in regular attendance; this factor, also, has required increased funds. The percentage of children enrolled in and attending school each day, that is, the percentage of pupils in average daily attendance, has gone from 59.3 in 1870 to more than 85 today. Still more, the number of days the schools were in session has greatly in-

creased, going from 132.3 in 1870 to approximately 172 today.

Decrease in the purchasing power of the dollar. During the period between 1914 and 1929, school costs increased especially rapidly, and one of the chief explanations of the increase was the decrease in the purchasing power of the dollar which occurred during the period. From the latter part of 1929 to the latter part of 1932 and the earlier part of 1933 deflation continued apace, and the purchasing power of the 1932 and 1933 dollar became approximately equal to that of the 1914 dollar. Since the middle of 1933 to the present time, the purchasing power of the dollar has been decreasing, and this has caused the expenditure of more money to maintain the schools.[1]

Improvement in the quality and amount of education. From 1914 to the present, approximately one fourth of the increase in school expenditures can be explained by the increase in school attendance, and approximately one fifth of the increase can be explained by the decrease in the purchasing power of the dollar. The remainder of the increase, which amounts to approximately one half of the total increase, may be charged to the larger amount and the better quality of education provided the pupil. From the time of the establishment of the first schools, the schools have been improved, and this improvement has come because the public has demanded it and has been willing to pay for it. To say, as a few persons have said, that school officials and employees are "parasitic tax spenders" and are taking the people's money without the people's approval is a canard. The people have approved the mounting school expenditures, and they have approved them because they have deemed the expenditures necessary. When complaints are heard over high taxes for schools, they are usually found to come from large property owners and persons without children in school.

It is a tradition of America that every parent shall desire

[1] Data on the purchasing power of the dollar are based upon indexes of the cost of living which are published in the *Monthly Labor Review* by the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics.

for his children a better education than he received, and that he shall be willing to make great sacrifices, if necessary, in order to realize that ambition for his children. School terms have been lengthened from only a few weeks each year to thirty-two, thirty-six, or forty weeks each year. Better qualified teachers, administrators, and supervisors have been employed; better and more adequate school plants and supplies have been provided; better qualified janitors have been employed; more enriched courses of study have been offered; evening classes for adults have been established; and numerous school conveniences and services, such as pupil transportation, school libraries, school cafeterias, free lunches (especially to indigents), free textbooks, free supplies, playgrounds, and health service have been provided. In fact, it would be difficult to mention one feature of the school which has not been improved. In brief, the data show that more people are receiving a quantum of education than ever before, and what is of greater significance, they are receiving a much larger amount and a much better quality of education than ever before. To provide those improved services and facilities has required the expenditure of increasing amounts of money.

ABILITY TO SUPPORT SCHOOLS

In interpreting the mounting school costs, not only should the explanations of those costs be remembered, but the trend of the ability of the people to support the costs should also be kept in mind. There are two measures of ability to acquire and to maintain anything. These measures are (1) *wealth* and (2) *income*. In addition to these two measures there should be considered the relative value of education compared with the value of other activities and enterprises. Perhaps the latter is not a measure of ability, but it should always be kept in mind in both public and private finance. It should be kept in mind because the people have only a certain amount of money to spend on various services, activities, and enterprises, and they must properly apportion that income; they must "cut the garment to suit the cloth."

Above all, the people must place first things first and not handicap a vital function of government for the sake of financing a less important function; they must not be penny wise and pound foolish. The people will, of course, make the final decisions on these matters.

Wealth. In terms of its wealth, the nation has tended to finance its schools better and better as the years have rolled by. Although the wealth of the nation has rapidly increased, school expenditures have increased much more rapidly. In 1870, $2.89 was expended for public elementary and secondary education per $1,000 of wealth; at present, approximately $12 per $1,000 of wealth is expended.[1]

It should be kept in mind that the figures which have just been given are based upon actual wealth and not upon wealth reported for taxation; *actual* wealth is here used, because it is a much more accurate measure of ability than *taxable* wealth. Taxable wealth is not an accurate measure of ability, because it is well known that much property, particularly personal property (stocks, bonds, money, commodities, etc.), entirely escapes taxation; moreover, it is common knowledge that both real estate and personal property tend to be taxed at much less than their true value. It seems safe to conclude that if all property were on the tax duplicate at its true value, the rate of taxation for schools and for other public functions could be greatly reduced in most communities. If we estimate our national wealth today at $325,000,000,000, it is seen that an annual tax of approximately two thirds of one cent on each dollar of wealth would be sufficient to support the public schools and colleges on their present level of expenditure.

Income. In Europe, if a person is asked how much he is worth, he usually replies that he is worth an *income* of so many pounds, francs, marks, guilders, or other units of money per annum. In the United States, on the other hand,

[1] Data on the nation's wealth may be secured from *Wealth, Public Debt, and Taxation,* a publication of the U. S. Bureau of the Census. Similar data may also be secured from the National Industrial Conference Board, Washington, D. C.

the financial ability of the individual is usually stated in terms of dollars of wealth, rather than in terms of income. In the long run, the amount of income must be the measure of ability to pay for anything, whether in private affairs or in public affairs. This is the reason for the widespread agitation for an income tax to take the place of the property tax. If wealth does not produce an income, or if it does not afford a comfort or a psychic value, it is a dead weight and hardly worth retaining. The wealth of a Croesus would not last forever if it did not produce an income.

It is known that the annual income of the people of the United States has increased at a rapid rate. It is unfortunate, though, that official data on annual income are not available except for recent years.[1] In 1929, the nation's income reached a total of $83,000,000,000, then gradually receded to $39,400,000,000 in 1932. Following 1932, the income gradually increased and exceeded the 1929 total. In each year in which the nation was a combatant in World War II the income exceeded $100,000,000,000.

Anyone is certain to be impressed with the huge size of the annual income of the people of the United States and with the tremendous power residing in that income. This annual income per inhabitant is larger than the total wealth per inhabitant of most other countries. This income, of course, belongs to the people, and since the people are sovereign, they can spend the income in any way they choose. They can spend it on education or on something less important.

Unfortunately, official data showing how the people of the United States spend their income are not available. It is estimated, though, that more than one fifth of the nation's annual income is used in maintaining government—federal, state, and local. Admittedly this is a large percentage, but it is a much smaller percentage than is devoted to government by any other major country of the world. Although government now costs annually more than $100 per inhabitant, no expenditure which the typical citizen

[1] During recent years, annual data on income have been published by the U. S. Department of Commerce and by the U. S. Department of Agriculture.

makes secures greater benefits for him than his expenditure for government. From the taxes which he pays for government the citizen obtains education for his children, the construction and maintenance of highways and streets, health protection, fire protection, police protection, playgrounds and parks, hospitals, libraries, welfare agencies, national defense, and scores of similar services and conveniences. Although it cannot be claimed that taxes are a blessing, they are certainly not an unmixed evil.[1]

The amount which is spent for schools is rather definitely known; the annual amount which is spent for all types of public and private schools and colleges is now approximately 5 per cent of the total national income. When we compare the amount spent for certain other public or private enterprises, the emphasis on schools does not seem to be too large, if indeed it is large enough. For example, the total cost of crime approximates $2,000,000,000 per annum. About $400 a year is required to maintain a delinquent in a public institution, about $300 for an adult prisoner, and approximately $100 for each public school pupil. It is a provocative thesis that if we increase the amount and improve the quality of education, the amount of crime will be decreased. Most crimes are committed by persons who have had little or no formal education. Persons who do not know right conduct can hardly be expected to engage in right conduct.

From the reports of the U. S. Bureau of Internal Revenue it can be estimated that the expenditures per annum for tobacco amount to approximately two and one half billion dollars. Thus, the nation annually sends up in smoke and chews up five sixths as much as it spends for all types of schools and colleges (public and private). Its liquor bill per annum is more than its expenditures for schools, and its bill for soft drinks, ice cream, candy, and chewing gum is more than one half its expenditures for schools. And

[1] Because of the huge federal debt, created largely to finance World War II, federal taxes are certain to be heavy for many years. This will probably result in large demands to decrease state and local taxes for schools and other public institutions and agencies.

World Wars I and II have already cost the nation several times as much as has been spent on all types of schools since the founding of the first permanent English settlement at Jamestown, Virginia, in 1607, and the end of expenditures for those wars is not in sight.

As has already been stated, the revenue for financing the schools cannot be secured from thin air, nor on the good wishes of the friends of the schools; it must be secured from the income of the people. If more money is to be secured for the schools, it will have to be obtained from certain of the other activities which are now being financed by the public. Peter cannot be paid without taking something from Paul. Relative values must always be considered. If education is so vitally necessary to the welfare of the nation, the public can afford, if necessary, to decrease the expenditure for certain other purposes and to give that extra amount to the schools.

If the amount of education possessed by the individual increases his productivity and his other contributions to society, then the expenditures for education are justified on a purely economic basis. Likewise, if the amount of education possessed by the individual increases his desire and his ability to consume more and better goods, expenditures for education are also justified. Both of these assumptions seem to be well founded, although they should be tested by further research. Without an educated citizenry, it is difficult to see how publishing houses and newspapers could exist, or how manufacturers of innumerable modern conveniences and services, such as bath tubs, radios, air conditioners, mechanical refrigerators, vacuum cleaners, airplanes, and automobiles could survive. The savage may be content with simple food and with meager protection from the elements, but educated people are certain to demand better and more comforts and luxuries, but it is tragic to have to report that civilized man still insists upon going to war the same as savage man, and that much of his resources are still devoted to the destructive pursuit of war.

SOURCES OF SCHOOL REVENUE

From what has been said in preceding paragraphs it is obvious that the efficiency of a school or school system is determined largely by the adequacy of financial support which is given the enterprise. There is an old saying that "money makes the mare go"; likewise it may be said that money makes the school go. If a school department, a school, or a school system is not giving the type of service needed or desired, one of the first matters which should be examined is whether the financial support is adequate. To have an efficient school department, school, or school system requires the presence of such personnel, materials, conveniences, and services, as adequate sites, buildings, and equipment, ample and proper supplies, and well-qualified employees. None of these employees, materials, conveniences, and services can be obtained gratis. They can only be secured by paying for them with the coin of the realm; and that coin must come from the pockets of the people.

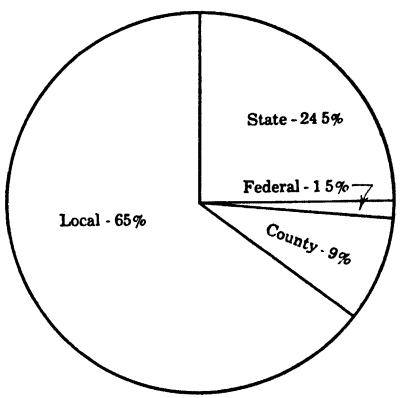

FIG. 25. The approximate percentage of school revenue now provided by each unit of support.

The schools have always been criticized for possessing certain shortcomings, and they are being criticized today for having many shortcomings. For example, it is being pointed out that a large percentage of the teachers is inadequately trained and is inexperienced; that school buildings and equipment are archaic and inadequate; that school terms are too short; that libraries, textbooks, and supplies are not what they should be; and that many other characteristics of the schools are far from perfection. The truth of these criticisms will be readily admitted; the schools are far from being perfect; in fact, probably no characteristic of them

even approaches perfection. It cannot be gainsaid, however, that these deficiencies are being corrected, and when they are corrected, more revenues are usually necessary. More money will continue to be needed, but it will become more and more difficult to obtain because of the sharply increased federal taxes required to pay for World War II.

By far the largest percentage of school revenue comes from taxation—taxation of property, income, sales, natural resources, inheritances, and other things. According to the *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States,* which is made regularly by the United States Office of Education, the public elementary and secondary schools of the United States now obtain their revenue from the following *sources:* appropriations and taxation, approximately 95 per cent; federal aid, approximately, 1.5 per cent; permanent funds, approximately, 1 per cent; and all other revenue receipts, approximately, 2.5 per cent.

By and large, there are four *units of support* for the public elementary and secondary schools: (1) federal, (2) state, (3) county, and (4) local. The approximate percentages of the total revenue receipts now furnished by each of these units are as follows: local, 64.5; state, 25; county, 9; and federal, 1.5. Of course, these percentages vary from state to state; in Delaware, for example, the *state* furnishes more than 90 per cent of all school funds; in New Mexico, the *county* provides more than 70 per cent of all school revenues; in Nebraska, the *local units* provide approximately 99 per cent of all school revenues.

Federal sources. There are two regular types of federal aid for the public elementary and secondary schools. The first is the income from the early grants of federal lands and federal monies to the several states; the second is the annual subsidy for vocational and distributive education. In addition to these regular types of income, the federal government has allotted certain emergency funds to education each year including and following 1933–34. Each of these will be briefly discussed in the following paragraphs:

By the provisions of the ordinance of 1785, "an ordinance for ascertaining the mode of disposing of lands in the

Western Territory," the lands in the Western Territory were to be surveyed into "townships of six miles square" with each township having thirty-six "lots" of one mile square, or 640 acres; the ordinance said further that "There shall be reserved the lot No. 16 of every township, for the maintenance of public schools, within the said township." Fig. 26 shows a "Congressional Township" provided by the ordinance of 1785.

The ordinance of 1785 must be regarded as one of the most momentous educational acts in the history of the nation, because it instituted a federal policy of supporting education. In 1802, the provisions of this ordinance were applied to other territories seeking admission into the Union. All the states, with the exception of the thirteen original colonies, Texas, West Virginia, and Maine[1] have received at least one "lot" of each township for the support of public schools; twelve states have received one "lot" of each township. The states which have been more recently admitted have received two or four "lots" of each township; Arizona, New Mexico, and Utah have received four "lots" of each township. All the states, including Alaska Territory, have received a total of 98,519,946 acres from these grants for the maintenance of public schools. The number of acres received by each state, together with the number of "lots" of each township, is shown in Table I.

6	5	4	3	2	1
7	8	9	10	11	12
18	17	**16**	15	14	13
19	20	21	22	23	24
30	29	28	27	26	25
31	32	33	34	35	36

FIG. 26. A "Congressional Township," provided by the Ordinance of 1785. Section 16 was given for the endowment of public schools.

In addition to the land grants just mentioned, other grants of land have been given to many of the states for public schools. Among the more important of the money grants were the so-called "Surplus Revenue Distribution" of 1837, and the "Five Percentum Fund" started in 1803.

[1] Texas owned its own land when admitted, and West Virginia and Maine were carved from original states.

TABLE I. LANDS GRANTED BY THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT TO STATES AND TERRITORIES FOR PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

State	*Sections of Each Congressional Township*	*Number of Acres*
Alabama	16	911,627
Alaska Territory	16 and 36 reserved (estimated)	21,009,209
Arizona	2 and 32, 16 and 36	8,093,156
Arkansas	16	933,778
California	16 and 36	5,534,293
Colorado	16 and 36	3,685,618
Florida	16	975,307
Idaho	16 and 36	2,963,698
Illinois	16	996,320
Indiana	16	668,578
Iowa	16	988,196
Kansas	16 and 36	2,907,520
Louisiana	16	807,271
Michigan	16	1,021,867
Minnesota	16 and 36	2,874,951
Mississippi	16	824,213
Missouri	16	1,221,813
Montana	16 and 36	5,198,258
Nebraska	16 and 36	2,730,951
Nevada	16 and 36, and lieu lands, act June 16, 1880	2,061,967
New Mexico	16 and 36, act June 21, 1898	4,355,662
	2 and 32, act June 20, 1910	4,355,662
North Dakota	16 and 36	2,495,396
Ohio	16	724,266
Oklahoma	16 and 36	1,375,000
Oregon	16 and 36	3,399,360
South Dakota	16 and 36	2,733,084
Utah	2, 16, 32, and 36	5,844,196
Washington	16 and 36	2,376,391
Wisconsin	16	982,329
Wyoming	16 and 36	3,470,009
TOTAL		98,519,946

The grants mentioned in this paragraph were not specifically made for public schools, but many of the states have dedicated them to that purpose.

The total amount of permanent school funds in the various states is now approximately $500,000,000, and practically all of this has come from the sale of lands which were given to the states by the federal government. In addition to this amount, the states control approximately 40,000,000 acres of unsold school land with an estimated value of approximately $275,000,000. The states which lead in the amount of permanent school funds are Minnesota, Texas, and Illinois. Only the *income* from the permanent school funds and from the unsold school lands may be utilized in supporting the schools. The capital cannot be used. The receipts from these permanent funds and the leases of school lands now amount to approximately $22,000,000 annually. Although the percentage of the total school budget provided by the income from these funds is now very small, the income in the early days, when total expenditures were not nearly so large, was considerable. The establishment of these funds in the early part of the nineteenth century provided a stimulus to education which was sorely needed in those early days.

The second type of regular federal support for public schools is found in the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917; this is the federal vocational-education act.[1] This act provided for the federal subvention of vocational education in *agriculture, home economics,* and *industrial and trade* education. It also provided for the preparation of teachers of those subjects. According to the provisions of the act, the subvention was to amount to $1,860,000 in 1917–18, and was to increase annually until a maximum of $7,367,000 was reached in 1925–26. This money is apportioned to the several states on the basis of total population, and in order to be eligible to receive it, "the state or local community,

[1] The George-Deen legislation, enacted in 1937, provides an annual federal subsidy for preparing workers for retail selling and other distributive occupations. Departments for the training of workers for these distributive occupations are already found in hundreds of high schools, and hundreds of new teachers are needed annually for the departments.

or both, shall spend an equal amount" for this work; each state and local community must also meet certain other standards prescribed by the act. These departments of agriculture, home economics, and industrial education are now found in thousands of schools, especially secondary schools, and thousands of new teachers are required annually by the departments. Salaries paid these teachers are higher than the average salary for teachers of the nation.

In 1933–34, the federal government started the policy of granting emergency funds for various educational purposes (FERA, WPA, CCC, NYA, etc.). The chief aim of these grants was to relieve the unemployed, and secondarily they aimed to stimulate education. Since 1933–34, some of these emergency appropriations have been continued. Supposedly all of the appropriations are to be temporary and will be discontinued when the emergency has passed. Since there was little or no unemployment during World War II, few emergency appropriations for these purposes were made. There will, however, be a large demand that some of them be continued permanently.

State sources. During recent years the state as a unit has furnished larger and larger amounts of funds for the support of schools. These funds usually come from taxation upon property, income, sales, corporations, inheritances, and other sources. New York, for example, furnishes more than $100,000,000 annually, and even the smaller states provide several million dollars annually. At present, approximately 25 per cent of all school revenue is furnished by the state as a unit. In a few states more than 50 per cent of all school funds is furnished by the state, and Delaware provides more than 90 per cent. Three objectives have been progressively realized by this tendency: first, educational opportunity for all pupils has been made more equal; second, the taxation burden among the various districts has been made more equal; and third, the tax on real estate has been lowered.

In some states, aid from the state is given to every school district, whereas in other states aid is given only to the districts which need it most; in still other states a combina-

tion of these practices is found. All states provide both *general* aid and *special* aid. *General* aid may be used by the school district for any educational purposes not prohibited by state law. Most state funds are granted for this type of aid. *Special* aid may be used by the school district only for the special purpose prescribed in the laws of the state, and to receive it most states stipulate that the local district must match the state grant. The more common projects for which the states have provided special aid are the following: libraries, transportation, county supervision, vocational and distributive education, and the education of handicapped children. Many authorities in school finance are opposed to special aid because the tendency is for districts to receive it which are most able to match the state subsidy. They affirm that the *stimulation* principle works against the *equalization* principle.

County and local sources. In most states the schools are financed primarily by the county and the local community. At present, these two units furnish about three fourths of all school revenue. During recent years, larger and larger amounts of state aid have been given, and this tendency has increased the percentage provided by the state and decreased the percentage provided by county and local sources. In some states (especially in the South) the county has a large part in the financing of the schools, but in most states the local district furnishes the bulk of school revenue.

By far the chief source of county and local revenue is still the property tax, but the tendency in theory and practice is to use that tax less. Minor sources of local revenue which are commonly utilized are the following: poll taxes, license fees of various sorts, tuition fees of nonresident pupils, interest on school funds deposited in banks, and rentals and fees on school property.

Practically all authorities on taxation have dwelt upon the short-comings of the property tax. These authorities are agreed that the property tax is a failure as a main source of revenue and that it will have to be largely supplanted by other forms of tax. In the early days, when most wealth reposed in lands and buildings, the property tax was more

equitable and more productive of revenue; it is not suited, however, to the present industrial and commercial era. Much of the wealth of the nation today is of an intangible sort (stocks, bonds, commodities, goods, etc.), and it is this intangible property which the property tax cannot reach. Real estate, therefore, must bear the brunt of the tax burden, and this causes much complaint from real-estate owners.

THE ELIMINATION OF WASTE IN SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

The many opportunities for waste. Probably no business, public or private, presents as many opportunities for waste as does education. What is the origin of these opportunities? In the first place, they grow out of the huge size of education. With the exception of the activities of the federal government, education is by far the largest public business; more money is spent on it, more people are engaged in it, either as pupils or employees, and more people are effected by it than is true of any other public enterprise except that of the federal government. There are, indeed, few private businesses as large as education. In the whole United States more than two billion dollars is now expended on public elementary and secondary schools, and in the typical community approximately one half of all local revenue goes for schools.

In the second place, innumerable opportunities for waste grow out of the technical and complex nature of education. Contrary to common belief, education is one of the most complex and technical enterprises. Education is concerned with the development of the human mind and body, and very little is yet known, compared with what should be known, concerning the best methods of meeting those important responsibilities. Moreover, it should be kept in mind that each pupil is a law unto himself, for no two individuals learn in exactly the same way, and no two pupils' interests, needs and capacities are exactly the same.

Necessity for the elimination of waste. Because of the technical and complex nature of education, it is too much

to expect that all waste in education can be eliminated. That, however, is the ideal to be kept in mind by all school officials and employees. Waste in education is unfortunate for two reasons: in the first place, the pupil is cheated of part of his educational heritage; in the second place, public funds are wasted and the tax-paying public is treated unjustly.

School economies may be roughly classified as *financial* and *pedagogical.* These two types of economies, though, are not mutually exclusive, because a real financial economy results in a pedagogical economy and a real pedagogical economy results in a financial economy. In attempting to effect economies, false economies should not be mistaken for true ones. When money is saved and the efficiency of the school is not injured or is increased, that is a *true* economy; or, when the same amount of money is expended and the efficiency of the school is increased, that is a *true* economy. On the other hand, when money is saved and the efficiency of the school is injured, that is a *false* economy; or, when the expenditure of an additional amount of money could be made, which would obtain educational results clearly beyond the cost, but is not made, that is a *false* economy.

The prime test, therefore, of whether a given practice or procedure is a true or a false economy must be determined by its effect upon the educational welfare and progress of the pupils. Manifestly a given practice or procedure may result in a true economy in one situation but in a false economy in another situation; for example, the elimination of a certain subject in one school, and the saving of the expense or the allotting of the same amount to other subjects, may be a true economy, whereas in another school that decision would result in a false economy.

There are literally thousands of opportunities for waste in education, and conversely, there are literally thousands of opportunities to effect economies. As a rule, the opportunities to waste or to effect economies are presented primarily to boards of education, superintendents of schools, business managers, principals and other school administrators, but

teachers have innumerable opportunities to waste or to effect economies. For example, teachers may effect economies in the use of supplies, such as gas, electricity, water, penmanship paper, laboratory supplies, home-economics supplies, and industrial-arts supplies; they may effect economies by seeing that the school plant is carefully used; and above all, they can effect economies in not requesting more days for disability leave than necessary and in making more efficient their classroom organization, management, and instruction. When school employees have taken all such steps, the public will have more confidence in the management of the schools and will more gladly pay additional taxes for school support.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. State pro and con the arguments on charging some or all tuition of secondary-school students. If tuition must be charged, should it be first charged to secondary school or to college students? Why? What would be the effect upon enrollment of charging tuition in (*a*) the secondary school, and (*b*) the college and university? If tuition is charged, should scholarships or loans be provided for poor students? Explain.

2. What is the annual per student cost in your state in (*a*) the public elementary schools, (*b*) the public secondary schools, and (*c*) the public colleges and universities? Why do secondary schools and colleges and universities cost much more than elementary schools? Are we justified in spending several times as much per pupil in the secondary school and in the colleges and universities as in the elementary school? Explain.

3. Do you prophesy a decrease or an increase in our expenditures for schools? Why? What factors are likely to cause an increase, and what factors are likely to cause a decrease? Explain.

4. Do you regard our present expenditures for schools as (*a*) beyond our ability to pay, or (*b*) beyond our need? Explain. Discuss the relation between education and the economic and cultural development of the nation.

5. Should persons who send their children to private or parochial schools be required to pay taxes for the support of public schools? Why or why not?

6. What are the present sources of school revenue in your state? What changes, if any, would you suggest in those sources? Why?

7. To what extent do inequalities in educational opportunity exist among the states? What are the causes of these inequalities? To

what extent do you believe that they should be eliminated? By what means? Should federal support of education in the states entail federal control, and how much control? Explain.

8. To what extent do inequalities in educational opportunity exist in your state? What are the causes of these inequalities? What are the social results of the inequalities? Would you favor complete state support of education? Should state support of education imply a larger amount of state control of education? Would you favor *complete* equality in educational opportunity? Why or why not?

9. To what extent do you believe that there is waste in the administration of the schools? Compare the amount of this waste with that in (*a*) private business, and (*b*) other public businesses. Mention a few examples of waste in the management of the schools. In what ways may the teacher cooperate in the elimination of school waste?

10. What is meant by a unit cost in education? What are some examples of unit costs? What uses may be made of unit cost data? Are we justified in spending more on certain subjects and departments than others? Why or why not? Why do certain subjects and departments cost more than others? Would it be possible for a school which spends only $50 per pupil annually to give as much education as a school which spends $75 or $100 per pupil? Explain.

11. To what extent, if any, would the elimination of music, art, and other so-called "fads and frills" result in financial savings to the schools? Explain. Is the cost of the schools determined primarily by the number of the subjects offered or by the number of pupils enrolled? Explain.

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PART III

THE PUPILS AND THE EDUCATIVE PROCESS

Chapter VII

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AMONG PUPILS

In the early days educational practice assumed that all pupils should be put into the same "mold." If the pupils did not fit the "mold," attempts were made to remodel them rather than change the "mold." All pupils were required to pursue the same course of study, and they were taught by the same methods. Only a small amount of attention was devoted to individual differences and to ways of meeting those differences. The nature, the extent, and the significance of individual differences were only vaguely recognized, and means for measuring the differences had not yet been devised.

During recent years, however, school employees have, in increasing numbers, tended to discard their uniform "mold" and to construct a separate "mold" for each pupil; in other words, they have attempted to adapt the school to the needs of the individual pupil. Identical subject matter and uniform methods of teaching have largely given way to attempts to ascertain the needs of the individual pupil and to meet those needs with various types of subject matter and different teaching methods.

The movement toward attempting to meet the needs of the individual pupil has been largely an outgrowth of investigations of individual differences among pupils. These investigations have made available a large body of knowledge on the nature, the extent, the causes, and the significance of individual differences. Since a quantum of knowledge of those differences should be early known by every prospective educational employee, this chapter will essay to give an orientation in that knowledge. The present discussion will, of course, have to be of an introductory and

elementary nature, and the student will need to supplement it in numerous ways in later courses, especially in such courses as *psychology* and *biology*.

EXTENT OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Universality of individual differences. Of the billions of fishes in the sea, of the thousands of leaves upon a tree, of the countless snowflakes in a snowstorm, of the billions of pebbles along the beach, and of the millions of people in the world, any careful and detailed examination will show that no two specimens are exactly alike. Even casual observation will show that *individual differences are universal.*

Individual differences, especially among people, have been recognized for centuries. They were portrayed in the characters of ancient and medieval literature, of history, of sculpture, and of painting. They were observed when the eye was the only measuring instrument, and centuries before the invention of objective measuring instruments such as the yardstick, the micrometer caliper, the microscope, and the intelligence test. Their recognition long antedated the pioneer work of Sir Francis Galton, Charles Darwin, and Gregor Mendel who did so much to stimulate the study of individual differences, especially in the field of genetics.

To find two pupils with many similar characteristics is exceedingly difficult. As Ralph Waldo Emerson has said, "Nature does not rhyme her children." Likeness may be found in a few anatomical characteristics such as weight, height, cephalic index (relation of length of head to width of head), chest measure, and blood pressure, but it is almost certain not to be found in intelligence, emotional nature, general appearance, and in the thousands of other characteristics which every person possesses. Fingerprints, for example, are sufficiently different to have long been used for the detection of criminals. So-called "identical" twins are far from being identical, and even the famed Dionne quintuplets, which are sometimes called "identical," were known, at the age of one, to possess innumerable characteristics which differentiated them. In brief, the chance of finding

two individuals with exactly similar traits or characteristics is so small as to be practically negligible.

Amount and distribution of individual differences. In even the best graded class large differences among the pupils will be found. These differences will be observed in physiological and anatomical development, in social maturity, in emotional stability, in general intelligence, in ability to do the work of the class, and in other traits.

The chief individual difference of which the school must take account and attempt to meet is the difference in *general intelligence*. In the typical class as organized in the schools of today the general intelligence of the pupils is widely different. It is not uncommon to find a pupil with an intelligence quotient which is two times as high as the intelligence quotient of the average pupil or of the poorest pupil. In an investigation of the intelligence quotients of 1,000 representative children L. M. Terman found that:

The lowest 1% go to 70 or below, the highest 1% reach 130 or above
The lowest 2% go to 73 or below, the highest 2% reach 128 or above
The lowest 3% go to 76 or below, the highest 3% reach 125 or above
The lowest 5% go to 78 or below, the highest 5% reach 122 or above
The lowest 10% go to 85 or below, the highest 10% reach 116 or above
The lowest 15% go to 88 or below, the highest 15% reach 113 or above
The lowest 20% go to 91 or below, the highest 20% reach 110 or above
The lowest 25% go to 92 or below, the highest 25% reach 108 or above
The lowest 33% go to 95 or below, the highest 33% reach 106 or above[1]

In any large number of measurements of any trait it has been found that the individual differences among the trait are distributed in a *continuous* gradation. Each group of individual differences merges imperceptibly into the next group; there are no gaps or sharp lines of demarcation at any point in the gradation. Although in everyday discussion, such terms as *subnormal, normal,* or *supernormal, short* or *tall, narrow* or *wide, soft* or *hard,* etc. are used, they cannot be used in scientific work since they do not have a sufficiently explicit meaning. There is no definite point in the measurement of intelligence, for example, where sub-

[1] L. M. Terman, *The Intelligence of School Children,* Houghton Mifflin, 1919, p. 8. By permission of Houghton Mifflin Company, publishers.

normality ends and normality begins, nor is there a definite point where normality ends and supernormality begins. If he is to be definitely understood, therefore, the scientist must describe the results of measurements in such accurate terms as *inches, pounds, percentiles, intelligence quotients,* etc.

When any large group of measurements of any trait of a biological specimen is plotted out into a graph, the result is a bell-shaped curve. This curve is variously known as the *normal curve, normal-frequency curve, normal-frequency polygon, probability curve, normal-probability curve,* or *normal-distribution curve.*[1] This tendency for quantitative differences to be distributed over a surface approximating a bell-shaped curve is found in differences due to environment as well as to those due to heredity.

The phenomenon just mentioned can be readily checked by measuring any trait of a biological specimen, provided a sufficiently large number of random-selected cases is included. Gather at random a few hundred leaves from a tree. Then measure the length of each leaf, and it will be found that a few leaves are very long and that about the same number are very short; next to these extremes will be found a larger number of leaves that approach the average in length; finally, most of the leaves will be average in length. When the measurements are plotted out into a graph, the bell-shaped curve will result with its high middle and sloping off on the two sides toward the extremes. Repeat the measurements on the width of the leaves and the same phenomenon will be observed.

Let us check the theory just mentioned by measuring the intelligence of 100 fifth-grade pupils who are random-selected, then plot the results into a graph. We shall measure the intelligence of each pupil by means of a standard intelligence test and shall report the results for each pupil in terms of an *intelligence quotient* or *I.Q.* The I.Q. or intelligence quotient expresses the ratio between the mental age and the chronological age of the pupil. It is secured by dividing the pupil's mental age by his chronological age,

[1] See Fig. 28 for a curve which approximates the *normal curve.*

then multiplying the quotient by 100. Thus, the formula for expressing the I.Q. is as follows:

$$\frac{\text{Mental Age}}{\text{Chronological Age}} \times 100 = \text{Intelligence Quotient.}$$

The I.Q.'s of the 100 fifth-grade pupils were found to range from 70 to 126. Beginning with the lowest I.Q., the record went as follows: 70, 75, 77, 80, 81, 82, 84, . . . 126. Of course, a few pupils had the same I.Q., and there were a few gaps in the series; however, there were forty-four different I.Q.'s in a possible total of fifty-six different I.Q.'s. These forty-four different I.Q.'s could, of course, be plotted into a graph, but a grouping of fairly similar I.Q.'s into one measure will make the data more convenient to handle and to interpret. If groupings of five units each are made, the distribution found in Table II results. Such an arrangement of data is called a *frequency distribution,* and it constitutes the first step toward the organization, summarization, and interpretation of any series of data.

TABLE II. FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF THE I.Q.'S OF 100 FIFTH-GRADE PUPILS

Group Range or Interval	*Frequency or Number of Cases*
125–129	1
120–124	2
115–119	5
110–114	10
105–109	14
100–104	15
95–99	20
90–94	16
85–89	10
80–84	4
75–79	2
70–74	1

The making of a frequency distribution is, therefore, the first step in the statistical treatment of data. This step should be followed by two other steps if the data are to be condensed so that they may be thoroughly understood. In the first of these two steps, the data of the frequency distribution are condensed into "averages," and in the second

step the data are condensed into a measure or measures of "variability." The chief measures of "averages" are the *mean* and the *median,* while the chief measure of "variability" is known as the *standard deviation.* The page limits set for this book preclude a discussion of the uses of these measures and of the mathematical processes necessary to secure the measures. Such discussion can well wait until a later course in the student's program, and fortunately most teacher-preparing institutions make provision for such discussion in a course in educational statistics or as a part of the course in psychology, in educational tests and measurements, or in mathematics.

One of the greatest aids to a clear interpretation of statistical data comes from the graphic presentation of the data. By plotting the data of the frequency distribution in Table II the data can be more easily comprehended and interpreted. We shall first plot the data into a *histogram* or *column diagram.* Such a graph may be constructed by plotting the I.Q.'s along the base line of the graph and the frequencies with which the I.Q.'s are found on the vertical lines of the graph. There results from this plotting a series of rectangles in which the widths represent the class ranges or class intervals, and the heights represent the number of frequencies or cases found to fall in the respective class ranges or class intervals. The completed graph is shown in Fig. 27.

A more common type of graph which may be used in presenting the data of a frequency distribution is the normal curve, which was mentioned in a preceding paragraph. Such a curve is made by plotting a series of points corresponding to the mid-points of the class ranges, then connecting these points by straight lines; using the same data as were used in Fig. 27, we have the normal curve shown in Fig. 28.

TYPES OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

For the purposes of studying individual differences, it is helpful to classify them into *types.* It would be possible to

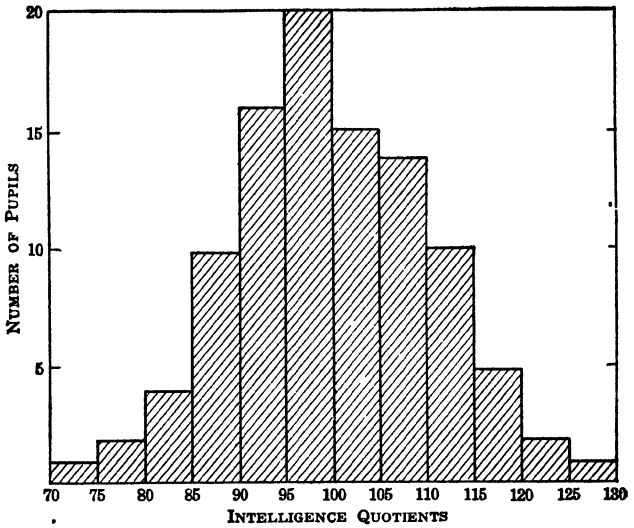

FIG. 27. Histogram or column diagram showing the distribution of the I.Q.'s of 100 random-selected fifth-grade pupils.

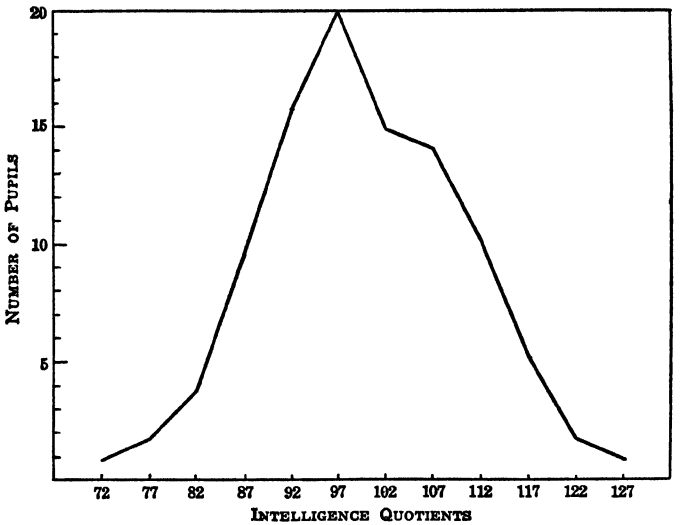

FIG. 28. Frequency polygon or normal curve showing the distribution of the I.Q.'s of 100 random-selected fifth-grade pupils.

take any group of persons—say, women as a class, five-year-old children as a class, Negroes as a class, the members of the same family as a class, individuals of the same amount of formal education as a class—and examine the group to ascertain whether or not differences were peculiar to the group as a group. Hundreds of such investigations have, of course, been made and the results recorded in the literature of *biology* and *psychology*. From the results of these investigations it is possible to classify individual differences into hundreds of types. The types of differences which are most frequently discussed are the following: (1) age differences, (2) family differences, (3) race differences, and (4) sex differences.

Age differences. Differences in maturity of individuals have always been observed. The world early learned not to expect intellectual, physical, and other types of maturity in children; it soon learned that "old heads cannot be expected on young shoulders." Individuals have long been classified into such periods as infancy, childhood, youth, middle age, old age, etc. The tendency has been toward the development of more accurate measuring instruments and techniques and toward the formulation of terms which would express more accurately the maturity differences that the more scientific measurements are constantly revealing. One series of terms which has been developed to express some of these outstanding differences is known as "ages." The "ages" most frequently used today are:

1. Chronological age
2. Mental age
3. Subject age
4. Anatomical-physiological age
5. Social age
6. Emotional age
7. Educational age

Most of the terms just mentioned have been created by students of psychology, and especially by students of *genetic psychology,* because genetic psychology uses largely as its materials the progressive changes in mental processes which occur with increasing chronological age. As may have been inferred, all of these new ages are based upon the chronolog-

ical age which, of course, has been used for centuries. By a given mental age, for example, is meant that degree of general mental ability which is possessed by the average child of corresponding chronological age. The other ages (subject age, anatomical-physiological age, social age, emotional age, etc.) may be defined according to the same general formula; to give another example, arithmetic age (which is one of the many subject ages) may be defined as the degree of arithmetical ability or accomplishment which is possessed by the average child of corresponding chronological age.

Although practically all investigations have indicated a tendency for the child's development in all his "ages" to proceed at approximately the same pace, exceptions to the rule are fairly frequent. A pupil of a chronological age of twelve years, for example, may be usually expected to have a mental age, a subject age, an anatomical-physiological age, a social age, an emotional age, etc., of twelve years also; in such instance the problem of classifying the pupil for instructional purposes is relatively simple. If, however, a pupil has a mental age of fifteen years and a social age of ten years, the problem of classifying him becomes much more complicated. If the pupil is placed in a group of pupils fifteen years old socially, he may develop an inferiority complex or suffer in some other manner, or if he is placed in a group of pupils ten years old mentally, he is not likely to be stimulated to put forth his best efforts.

Although there are obvious difficulties in meeting the needs of the various "ages" of the individual pupil, modern educators are working assiduously toward that goal; thus, modern school employees are giving attention to the physical, the social, and the emotional development of pupils as well as to the strictly intellectual growth. In brief, their goal for every pupil is a *well-rounded development which takes account of every aspect of the pupil's nature.* In striving for this goal they have learned that the old-fashioned types of pupil classification and instruction, which often "lock-steps" the pupil, must give way to an educational program that is based on the many-sided needs of the individual pupil. This movement toward attempting to meet the many-

sided needs of the individual pupil is so important that Chapter XI of this book will be devoted to a brief description of it.

Sex differences. Whether one sex is superior to the other in ability or in accomplishment, and the nature and amount of the superiority, if any, have long been moot questions. The arguments over the question have frequently been characterized by claims that one sex has large superiority over the other in ability and in accomplishment, but as is often the case, the more vociferous and persistent the claims, the less the evidence to support them. During recent years, especially in scholarly circles, the emphasis has been less on making claims, which were supported by opinion only, and more on securing *evidence* to show the nature and the extent of any differences which might exist; thus, during recent years, there have been dozens of investigations of these differences and the results of them have been reported. Every textbook on *psychology* discusses the differences.

In the main, the investigations have shown that sex differences, when found, are not large. Moreover, the investigations have pointed to the probability that many of the differences, which were originally claimed to be hereditary, are really due to training, environment, and general social conditions. The chief conclusions of the many investigations are summarized herewith:

1. Girls, on the average, mature earlier than boys, and they are not as tall, heavy, or strong as boys.
2. No significant difference in the general intelligence of the two sexes has been found.
3. In aptitudes for special types of work such as spelling, reading, and arithmetic the evidence shows that the sexes do not differ greatly from one another.
4. Although it is commonly assumed that boys are more self-asserting and pugnacious than girls, and that girls have greater sympathy than boys, no information is yet available which would suggest such emotional differences of the amount frequently reported.
5. There is some, but no conclusive, evidence that boys are more variable than girls in tests of different abilities.

What bearing have these findings on the amount and the type of education to be offered the two sexes? Especially,

shall a different amount and type of education be given the two sexes? Since the intellectual abilities of the two sexes are relatively equal, the two sexes must be trained equally well; any other practice would be contrary to the democratic ideal of America which desires and prescribes an equal opportunity for everyone. That there should be equality in the amount of education does not necessarily mean that the same type of education should be given, because it is likely that the type of education needed by one sex will differ in many respects from that needed by the other sex.

Race differences. Although as much research has been done on race differences as on sex differences, the conclusions to be drawn from it are more uncertain than in the case of the research on sex differences. Of the research on race differences that on anatomical differences has provided a more solid basis of fact than any other because these differences are fairly easily measured. Anthropologists have generally made use of the following criteria in their classification of races: (1) color, (2) stature, (3) hairiness of the body, (4) texture of the hair, (5) cephalic index, (6) cranial capacity, (7) prognathism (protrusion of the lower jaw), and (8) nasal index.

The question of race differences has, however, not been limited to the anatomical differences, which can be readily measured by the criteria just mentioned. Rather the question has usually turned upon the superiority of one race compared with the other races. And by superiority in such arguments *mental* superiority is usually meant.

In the United States, since the two most populous races are the white and the Negro races, the question of racial superiority has usually narrowed down to the white race versus the Negro race; hence, as would be expected, most of the research on racial differences has been made on those two races. The first conclusion which might be drawn from the data of these investigations is that the white race has much more native intelligence, on the average, than the Negro race. Such a conclusion, however, must be tempered by a consideration of the probability that the white race has much better environmental opportunities than the Negro

race. Indeed, it has been found that the northern Negroes make higher grades than the southern Negroes and that the higher grades are in direct proportion to the number of years which they have lived in the North; however, it is possible that the more capable Negroes have migrated to the North. When such possibilities are considered, the first conclusion to the effect that the white race has much more native intelligence than the Negro race cannot be considered absolutely final.

Many investigations comparing the general intelligence of whites with Indians and of whites with Orientals have also been made. Without exception these investigations have found that the whites made better grades on intelligence tests, on the average, than the Indians and the Orientals. Any conclusions from these results, however, must be qualified by the same comments which were made above regarding the comparison of the whites and the Negroes. The results do not give conclusive evidence that the better grades of the whites are the result of better native intelligence; they leave the possibility that the better grades of the whites may be partly the result of better environmental conditions for the whites, or of the fact that the intelligence test which was used was built upon white culture and was standardized upon white children. Conclusions must be held in abeyance until means are devised to measure native intelligence separately and distinctly from the many selective forces of environment such as climate, educational opportunities, home conditions, and general social and economic conditions.

Until the evidence is more conclusive that one race has greater native superiority than other races, the schools are not justified in giving better educational opportunity to one race than to another. The schools might, of course, be justified in giving a different *type* of education to the various races, but such differentiation would have to be justified on the basis of economic, social, or other type of need rather than on the basis of a difference in native ability. Moreover, the members of the various races should be treated as *individuals,* not as members of a group to be treated alike.

Family differences. Of all the types of individual differences those pertaining to families have been observed longest and investigated most widely. It has long been known that members of the same family are much more similar than the members of different families, and that many family traits, such as hair color, eye color, weight, stature, and intelligence, are inheritable.

Several of these studies on family intelligence and accomplishment have become classic, especially a study by Sir Francis Galton.[1] Galton found that the offspring of eminent parents was much more likely to become eminent than was the offspring of obscure parents. He found, for example, that the son of an eminent British judge had approximately one chance in four of becoming eminent, whereas the son of a man selected at random from the general population had approximately one chance in a thousand of becoming eminent.

In the United States a study similar to that of Galton found that only one person in 500 had a chance of being a near relative of one of the 3,500 eminent persons of the United States. This study also revealed that these 3,500 eminent persons were related in the ratio of 1 to 5 rather than in the ratio of 1 to 500 as was characteristic of the general population.[2]

The evidence on family resemblance is even more striking in the case of studies of families of inferior strains. Probably the most famous of these studies is that by H. H. Goddard on the family of Martin Kallikak, a soldier of the Revolutionary War.[3] Kallikak gave rise to two lines of descendants, one by a union with a more or less talented mother and the other by a union with a feeble-minded mother. Goddard traced these two lines of descendants and found that feeble-mindedness, crime, pauperism, and other inferior and antisocial traits were frequent in the line of the feeble-minded mother; on the contrary, he found that

[1] Sir Francis Galton, *Hereditary Genius,* Macmillan, 1869.

[2] F. A. Woods, "Heredity and the Hall of Fame," *Popular Science Monthly,* Vol. 82 (1913), pp. 445–452.

[3] H. H. Goddard, *The Kallikak Family,* Macmillan, 1912.

the descendants of the more or less talented mother were not afflicted with feeble-mindedness and forms of antisocial behavior.

CAUSES AND SIGNIFICANCE OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Two groups of factors operate to cause individual differences in the biological world. These are: (1) *heredity* (stock or nature), and (2) *environment* (culture or nurture). The first group of factors may be classified as internal, and the second group may be classified as external. Which of these groups of factors is more important has always been a moot question, and attempts to answer it have led to warm arguments, to extravagant claims, and to temptations to assign a percentage value to the influence of each factor. For example, one writer has stated that "heredity is twice as important as environment," whereas another writer has affirmed that "environment is 50 per cent more important than heredity." Such arguments and claims were especially prominent before the development of instruments and techniques of measurement and before the study of the question had been placed upon a scientific basis.

Recent investigations have shown that there is no factual basis for either of the percentage estimates just mentioned. Neither heredity nor environment can exist without the other, and any argument over which is more important is likely to be as fruitless as an argument over the relative importance of air and water. As Roger de Coverley has stated, "Much might be said on either side." Without a place to grow a seed could never grow, and without a seed the best environment could never produce anything. Since a knowledge of the interplay of heredity and environment and of the potential limits of each factor should assist prospective educational employees in observing pupils, some of the high points of that knowledge will be presented in the next succeeding pages.

Hereditary factors. That many of the differences among individuals are due to heredity has long been known. Casual observation has long shown that an animal or a plant has

the capacity to produce specimen of a similar kind. Thus, similarities among the same race, and especially among the same family, were observed long before the epoch-making researches of Sir Francis Galton (1822–1911) and Gregor Mendel (1822–1884); in fact, such similarities were doubtless noticed by Neanderthal man who lived between fifty and a hundred thousand years ago.

Research has shown that heredity proceeds according to certain principles or laws. Since one of the obligations of society is to promote the production of a better stock of human beings, knowledge of the laws of heredity should be a part of the equipment of every educational employee. Many institutions for the preparation of school employees consider this knowledge so important that they require every prospective educational employee to pursue a course either in *biology* or in *genetics;* other institutions require a course in *eugenics;* and most institutions provide this knowledge in the required courses in *psychology.* All that the present discussion is designed to do is to emphasize the significance of the problem and to encourage further study of the problem.

Every individual is the result of the fusion of two cells, one from each parent. The female cell is known as the *ovum,* and the male cell is known as the *spermatozoon.* All the cells which give rise to the reproductive elements are known as *germ plasm.* There are two theories regarding the continuity of the germ plasm. One of these theories (known usually as the Weissmann theory) holds that the germ plasm is continuous and passes unchanged from one generation to the next. According to this theory, the only way in which a tainted stock can be improved is through its union with a superior stock.

The other theory holds that characteristics which are acquired may affect the germ plasm in such a way that the germ plasm will transmit the acquired characteristics to succeeding generations. This is known as the Lamarck theory. Later statements of this theory (the Neo-Lamarckian theory) grant that all or practically all which is inherited exists in the germ plasm, but they claim that the

body cells, which recent experimentation shows are influenced by environment, may also influence the germ plasm. Scientists are still at work on these theories.

The first theories and laws of heredity were formulated by Sir Francis Galton who made the first scientific investigations of heredity. His investigations were made especially on families, with particular emphasis on such family traits as genius, disease, stature, and eye color. The first law which Galton proposed is known as the *law of ancestral inheritance,* which says that the contribution of the immediate

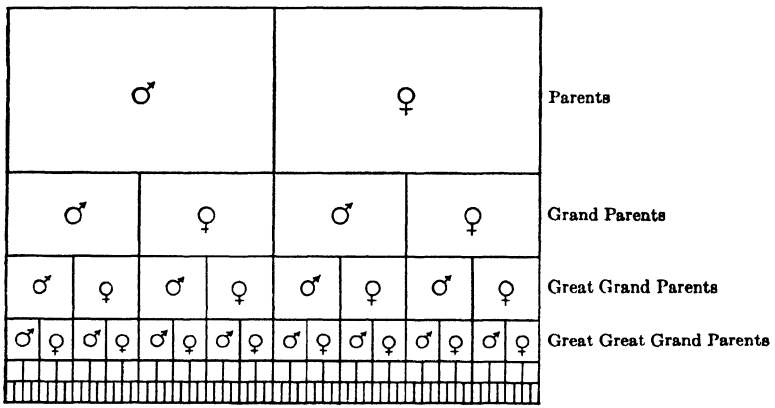

FIG. 29. Galton's law of ancestral inheritance. (After H. Thompson.) The whole heritage of an individual is represented by the entire rectangle; the heritage derived from each progenitor is represented by the smaller rectangles; and the number of the latter rectangles doubles in each ascending generation while its area is halved.

ancestors to the progeny exceeds that of any other ancestors and equals that of all other ancestors. According to this law, therefore, each parent contributes, on the average, one fourth to each trait of inheritance, and both of them contribute, on the average, one half; the four grandparents contribute, on the average, one fourth, and each grandparent contributes, on the average, one sixteenth. The infinite series continues until the total heritage of the individual is included according to the following formula: $1/2 + 1/4 + 1/8 + 1/16 + 1/32 \ldots = 1$. According to this formula, each term equals the sum of all the terms which follow; for example, $1/2 = 1/4 + 1/8 + 1/16 +$

. . . . Figure 29 shows pictorially Galton's *law of ancestral inheritance.*

The second law which Galton formulated is known as the *law of filial regression.* According to this law, nature tends to maintain the type or average in its stock. This law came from Galton's observations that extremes in traits of parents are not so likely to result in extremes in traits of their children. For example, extremely tall parents are likely to beget children who are taller than the average, but not as tall as the parents; and children of very short parents are likely to be shorter than the average, but not so short as the parents. On the mental side, children of very talented parents are likely to be more talented than the average, but not as talented as the parents, and children of mentally subnormal parents are likely to be less subnormal than their parents, but more subnormal than the average.

Although the work of Galton is still accepted as epoch-making, succeeding investigations have shown that some of his conclusions were extravagant. His laws, especially the *law of ancestral inheritance,* appear to be valid only when applied to large numbers of individuals; they are apt to be invalidated when applied to only one, or a few, families. A recent investigator, G. E. Conklin, has affirmed that although we inherit approximately equally from our parents, we usually inherit unequally from our grandparents and other ancestors. Moreover, he affirms that in stating his *law of filial regression* Galton did not always distinguish between heredity and environmental influence:

> . . . Inheritance from the four grandparents is usually unequal, and the farther back we go, the more ancestors we find who have contributed nothing to our inheritance. Of all the thousands or even millions of ancestors that each of us has had, only a relatively small number have contributed anything to our inheritance; although we are descended from all the others, we are not related to them biologically and have received none of their traits. Those who have contributed to our inheritance may be called "contributing ancestors" or merely "contributors," to distinguish them from non-contributing ones, and the fact that ancestors do not equally contribute to heredity disproves Galton's "law of ancestral inheritance."

The second principle also cannot be taken as Galton originally interpreted it, for he did not always distinguish between heredity and environmental characters.[1]

Gregor Mendel, an Austrian monk, and a contemporary of Sir Francis Galton, also formulated some well-known laws of heredity. These laws were the result of Mendel's observations and experiments on mice, bees, and garden plants, and especially on garden peas. Mendel had observed that some of his peas were tall and others were short, some had white flowers and others had colored flowers, and some had green seeds and others had yellow seeds. From these casual observations he was made to wonder what caused the differences in the peas—in brief, whether a law of heredity was operating. He organized certain experiments to attempt to answer this question.

To describe Mendel's experiments and to enumerate all of his discoveries would lead us too far afield. We shall have to be content with a brief statement of two of Mendel's well-known laws. The first law is known as the *law of unit characters.* According to this law, the total inheritance of a plant or an animal is composed of unit characters or traits and these behave as units in heredity, each being inherited somewhat independently of the remainder of the other units; for example, if one parent has light eyes and the other has dark eyes, their child will have either light eyes or dark eyes, and both eyes of the child will be the same color. Eye color behaves as a unit.

Mendel's second law determines, for example, whether the child's eyes will be light or dark. This law is known as the *law of dominant and recessive characters.* According to this law, if one parent has dark eyes and the other parent has light eyes, dark eyes will appear in the next generation; under certain conditions, however, light eyes may appear in succeeding generations. The trait which thus appears is said to be *dominant.* The trait which is latent and which only occasionally appears is said to be *recessive.* As long

[1] G. E. Conklin, *Heredity and Environment in the Development of Men,* Princeton University Press, 1922, p. 80. By permission of Princeton University Press, publishers.

as the dominant factor is operative, the recessive factor cannot produce any effect.

Mendel formulated estimates regarding the probable frequency of occurrence of the various types of offspring from different combinations of these dominant and recessive traits, and he showed that no estimate regarding the proportions of various types of offspring could be made until it was known whether a trait was dominant or recessive in each parent.

Environmental factors. Previous discussion has shown that the development of an individual is determined by a lifelong interplay of heredity and environment on the individual. The school cannot change heredity; it cannot make a superior heredity; it cannot make even a normal child from a child of inferior heredity. In brief, the potential value of the tutelage of the school is determined in part by the quality of the child's ancestry just as the potential growth of a seed is determined in part by the quality of the seed's stock.

The interworking of heredity and environment may be illustrated by what has been called the "triangle of life." This triangle is shown in Figure 30. Inspection of the triangle indicates that two individuals having the same base (heredity) for their triangle may develop into widely different individuals because of the varying influences exerted by the other two sides (training and environment) of the triangle.

The school must, therefore, regard the child's heredity as the foundation on which to build, and it must realize that the hereditary foundations of children differ widely in quality. All that the school can do is to modify, to control, and to direct the environmental factors in such a way that the potentialities of the hereditary factors will be realized. A child endowed with superior heredity will not reach full physical and intellectual stature in an inferior environment any more than a healthy seed will thrive in barren soil. That "genius will out" despite all environmental handicaps is as likely not to be true as it is to be true. In spite of what the Declaration of Independence

says, all individuals are *not* "created equal," nor can they be made equal. All that can be done toward making individuals equal is to provide them with the best environmental opportunities to realize their potentialities. Here, then, is the big opportunity for the school. Grasping the opportunity will tend to prevent the result which Thomas

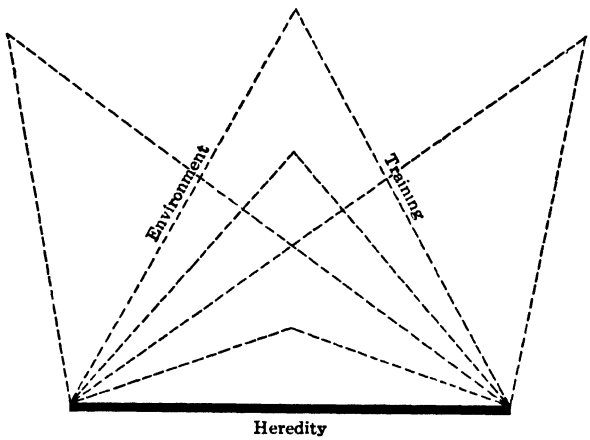

FIG. 30. The triangle of life. The triangle illustrates how training and environment may produce from the same heredity individuals who are widely different. (From G. E. Conklin's *Heredity and Environment in the Making of Men*, Princeton University Press, 1922.)

Gray deplored in his famous "Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard":

> Full many a gem of purest ray serene
> The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear;
> Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
> And waste its sweetness on the desert air.

What are the environmental factors that affect the pupil? These may be classified as prenatal, natal, and postnatal. They include all the experiences, helpful or harmful, which the pupil has had before birth, during birth, and after birth. They comprise all the experiences which the pupil has acquired in the home, in the school and other formal educational institutions, and in the community.

Since the school has the pupil under its tutelage only a few years, only seven, eight, or nine months during the

year, only five days in the week, and only five, six, or seven hours during the day, it is obvious that the school controls only a small portion of the experiences of the pupil. During this short span, however, school employees can almost work miracles. They can see that the school plant is safe and sanitary, that the emotional and physical health of the pupils is carefully supervised, and that the pupils are properly nourished when they are in school. They can make sure that the subject matter and teaching methods are adapted to the needs of the pupils, and that the pupils are properly classified and promoted. In brief, they can make sure that every feature of the school is such that every pupil will receive the sort of instruction and care which his heredity demands.

Over the experiences of the home and the community the school does not have any direct control. The school can, however, indirectly exert a large influence over these experiences through its tutelage of the pupils; it can instruct the pupils regarding the best principles of living and can instill in them a desire to abide by those principles. Indirectly through the pupils, and directly through the school nurse, through the visiting teacher, through the parent-teacher association, and through the newspapers and other public-relations agencies, the school can improve home and community conditions and thus enhance the opportunities for the development of the individual pupil. Through these agencies school employees can work for balanced diets in the meals of the home, for proper conditions for sleep, and for hygienic clothing; they can encourage the removal of community conditions which are hazardous to the health, safety, and morals of the people.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Should pupils be grouped for instructional purposes on the basis of one "age" alone? Discuss. If one "age" were selected for such grouping, which should be selected? Why?

2. Do you believe that the grouping of pupils on the basis of intelligence is undemocratic? Why or why not?

3. The Declaration of Independence affirms: "We hold these

truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal. . . ." Discuss this statement from the viewpoint of heredity.

4. Can you suggest why the hereditary basis for mental traits has been more difficult to establish than the hereditary basis for physical traits?

5. Does heredity explain all the differences between men and women? If not, what other explanations are there?

6. List several human traits which might be easily influenced by changes in environment and suggest the environmental changes that might be expected to influence each trait. Likewise list some human traits which would not be easily influenced by changes in environment.

7. What are the possible interactions of heredity and environment on such a trait as baseball ability?

8. Give your answer to the following questions: Is deafness hereditary? Is insanity hereditary?

9. Does your state have a sterilization law? If so, what are its provisions, and how does it function? Do you favor such a law? Why or why not?

10. Should the normal left-handedness of a child be interfered with? Why or why not?

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Chapter VIII

THE LEARNING PROCESS

DEFINITION AND SIGNIFICANCE OF LEARNING

The school exists *to facilitate the best quality and the largest quantity of learning on the part of the pupils and to prepare them for further learning.* The merit of any educational employee, therefore, must be determined by the degree to which the employee contributes to the accomplishment of that purpose. What facts and principles does the employee need to know in order best to facilitate learning, and how may he secure knowledge of those facts and principles? This chapter is designed to give only a tentative and introductory answer to this question and to prepare the prospective educational employee to begin immediately his observation and study of the learning activities of children and adults. A more complete answer to the question will be given in the student's later courses, especially in the courses in psychology.

Definitions of learning. Because of the universality of its use, *learning* is a term for which people have become accustomed to believe that they do not need a definition; everyone speaks almost daily of having learned something new, or of having learned something better. As if in agreement with that belief, many of the treatises on psychology and education do not bother to submit a definition of learning. In the treatises which include definitions of learning, many different expressions are used, but when they are stripped of their verbiage and "pedaguese" and stated in the American language, the definitions are seen to mean essentially the same.

When differences in the definitions are found, they usually

stem from a different emphasis of the authors. Some of the definitions emphasize learning as a *product* or *result,* whereas others emphasize it as a *process* or *event.* Following are some of the definitions which are found in treatises on psychology and education: "Learning is the act of acquiring habits and knowledge"; "Learning is profiting by experience"; "Learning is the establishment of responses to stimuli"; "Learning is the general term for the changes or process of change induced directly by experience whereby the organism is able to respond more adequately to a given situation"; "Learning consists of changes in the nature and behavior of human beings"; "Learning is the process by which we become able to do something which we previously could not do." Because of its clarity, simplicity, and adequacy, the last definition appeals to most students; it should suffice at least for beginning students of education.

In the definitions just quoted, and in many others which might be quoted, there is implicit agreement that learning is identified with *growth*—growth in thoughts, feelings, and actions. In this chapter that view will be accepted; moreover, learning will be used as synonymous with education, that is, the two terms—*learning* and *education*—will be defined in the same way. In his well-known definition of *education,* John Dewey has conceived of education as growth just as this chapter will regard learning as growth. Dewey has defined *education* as "that reconstruction or reorganization of experience which adds to the meaning of experience, and which increases ability to direct the course of subsequent experience." [1]

Most educators of former years interpreted learning in a narrow sense. They assumed that the only mental traits which people possessed were those that dealt with the intellectual functions. They assumed, moreover, that their only task was to teach the pupils to learn the things which had been discovered, invented, and described by the pupil's elders. Thus, the learning activities which were fostered by the old-time school were directed wholly or largely to-

[1] John Dewey, *Democracy and Education,* Macmillan, 1928, pp. 89–90. By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

ward the securing of skills and information, or toward the development of a simple thinking process which made use only of information.

Modern educators, on the contrary, are more and more recognizing that people possess many mental traits, which are not of a purely intellectual nature. Some of these other traits, which are usually called *emotional* traits, are suggested by such terms as *morale, sentiment, mood, appreciation,* and *ambition.* Modern educators are more and more recognizing the driving force of these emotional traits and dispositions and are trying to stimulate, to stifle, or to control them. And of still greater significance, they have discovered that such traits and dispositions can be modified through training, especially if the training is provided in childhood.

Another erroneous assumption which is widespread concerning learning is that it is limited to the years of school attendance. Many persons believe that learning does not take place before the child enters school and that it ceases when the days of schooling are finished. Although casual observation had long forecast the falsity of the foregoing assumption, it was not until recent years that the problem was attacked experimentally and the assumption proved to be false by objective data.

Regarding the presence or the absence of learning during the preschool years, there is abundant evidence to show that learning does take place during those years. In fact, there is no period of equal duration in which the typical individual learns as much as in the years from birth until the age of six or seven. At the age of six or seven when the pupil starts to school, he has already learned an unbelievable amount. He has acquired the rudiments of a language, has learned to care for the elemental needs of his body, and has acquired thousands of other facts, habits, and attitudes which have started him on the way to becoming a civilized creature. Although the world is still somewhat bewildering to the child who enters school, it is not, as William James said, the "big blooming, buzzing confusion" which it was to him as an infant.

These early years have gradually come to be recognized by psychologists, educators, churchmen, and the more enlightened members of the general public as unquestionably the most important years in life so far as education is concerned. During these years the pupil is building his foundation for life; he is acquiring information, habits, attitudes, and ideals which are likely to remain with him throughout life and to affect for good or for ill his whole life. In brief, these years are the most important part of the "tide" of his affairs—a tide, according to William Shakespeare, "which taken at the flood leads on to fortune."

The tendency in progressive families and communities has been toward trying to secure a more intelligent direction and guidance of these early years. For example, nursery schools and kindergartens—institutions which enroll the child at the age of three, four, or five years of age—have been established in hundreds of communities, especially in the cities. It should be mentioned, though, that only approximately twenty per cent of the children of the United States are now receiving the advantages of nursery or kindergarten education. Another movement designed to increase the educational opportunity of the preschool child has been directed toward the education of parents in child care. The modern school is becoming more and more aware of the fact that parents have a large responsibility for the education of their children, and that until the children enter school parents almost wholly bear the responsibility.

Regarding the education of adults, it was long assumed that "the old dog could not be taught new tricks," or if he could be taught new tricks, it would be only by the expenditure of an inordinate amount of time and effort. Contrary to this belief, experimentation has shown that perhaps the "old dog" is slow in learning many of the tricks which are taught to puppies—tricks often useless, but it has shown that the old dog can learn the things which he needs and desires to learn. Edward L. Thorndike, who has done more experimentation on adult learning than any other person, has the following to say of the ability of adults to learn:

The assumption was shown to be false by the experiences of everyday life and of schools for adults. In an earlier volume (*Adult Learning*) we confirmed this by experimental evidence and also measured roughly the changes in the ability to learn up to age 45. We showed that the ability to learn increased from early childhood to about age 25 and decreased gradually and slowly thereafter, about one per cent per year. Childhood was found to be emphatically *not* the best age for learning in the sense of the age when the greatest returns per unit of time spent are received. The age for learning that is best in that sense is in the twenties, and any age below 45 is better than ages 10 to 14.

Later investigations by Miles, Jones, and others make it probable that the decline in ability to learn from age 45 on to 70 is not much more rapid than this, so that a man of 65 may expect to learn at best half as much per hour as he could at 25 and more than he could at 8 to 10.[1]

In the belief that the individual will never grow too old to learn, modern schools are placing more and more emphasis upon the *sources and the tools of knowledge* in order that each individual may desire and be made competent to continue his education throughout life. For example, they are making the pupils acquainted with the importance and proper use of books, magazines, newspapers, the radio, the cinema, and similar sources of information which are available throughout life. Moreover, thousands of communities now have programs of adult education and millions of adults are extending their education through such programs.

Significance of learning. Although there is much difference of opinion regarding how learning takes place, regarding the best means of promoting it, and regarding many other matters pertaining to it, there is no difference of opinion on whether learning does take place. That learning does take place is universally and unanimously agreed. It occurs in school and out of school during all waking hours, and it continues from birth until death. In fact, as the preceding chapter has indicated, learning probably starts even before birth.

[1] Edward L. Thorndike, *Adult Interests*, Macmillan, 1935, pp. 1–2. By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

Man differs from other animals in many ways, but it is his ability to learn, and especially his ability to solve problems, which primarily distinguish him from other animals. Learning is man's greatest and most distinctive accomplishment. Learning has enabled man not only to adapt himself to his environment but to modify his environment to make it give him greater comfort and happiness. It has enabled him to improve his standards of living as regards food, clothing, shelter, recreation, and all other aspects of living. Through it he has developed the many sciences and arts which increase his happiness, his comfort, and his security in thousands of ways.

As Lord Kelvin, eminent British physicist, once said, "behind all known forces and above all known laws there is an intelligent mind." And minds which stimulate progress have become intelligent through learning. Our whole civilization has been made possible only by the fact that man could and did learn. Our civilization will continue to advance in the degree to which man augments his learning and puts it to an altruistic use. If man does not put his learning to an altruistic use—if he uses it for socially destructive pursuits—civilization will not advance. The *social value* of the learning is as important as the *amount* of the learning. The fruits of any vicious learning are certain to be evil.

From the beginning of the race, man has been learning. In his learning he has not been satisfied with the *status quo* but has constantly pushed back the frontiers of knowledge. Each generation has added something to the social heritage and has tried to hand down all this heritage to succeeding generations. The result is that each generation lives in a much more complex civilization than the preceding generation and needs more education. In an address at Cornell University, Edward L. Thorndike stated the significance of learning in the following words:

> Civilization is, indeed, the chief product of human learning. Homes and tools, language and art, customs and laws, science and religion are all created by changes in the minds of men. Their maintenance and use also depend on human modifiability—the ability of man to learn. If that were reduced by half, in the sense that the

next generation could learn only things half as hard to learn as those which man now can learn, most of human civilization would be unusable by the next generation and would soon vanish off the face of the earth. For example, most, if not all, that is taught in this [Cornell] university nobody could then learn. The contents of drugstores would poison us. Ships and trains and automobiles, if they moved at all, would go in somewhat the disorder of the toy boats and trains of children.[1]

To summarize, learning has ever been the chief activity of man. Each succeeding generation sees the learning activity become larger and more important because the cultural heritage grows by leaps and bounds; this heritage is the substance of learning. For several centuries the heritage has been so large and so important that society has given to the school the task of selecting, organizing, and presenting to the children the most valuable learning situations possible. To perform well the task becomes increasingly difficult and important. The importance of the task is more fully seen when it is realized that the life pattern of an individual is largely determined by the early years of life. A person's attitudes, habits, mental, moral, and physical well-being in adulthood will largely reflect the forces which were prevalent in childhood. Pope's couplet says:

'Tis education forms the common mind;
Just as the twig is bent the tree's inclined.

"SETTING THE STAGE" FOR LEARNING

The preceding section indicated that the school exists primarily for the purpose of facilitating the largest amount and the best quality of learning on the part of the pupil. The school has the task of setting the stage for learning; that is, it must provide the best conditions under which the pupils may learn. In setting the stage for learning, innumerable details must be kept in mind, and all of this book is fundamentally an attempt to describe the larger details of that stage, both regarding the *status quo* and regarding changes which should be made.

[1] Edward L. Thorndike, *Human Learning*, Appleton-Century, 1931, p. 3. By permission of D. Appleton-Century Company, publishers.

On that stage the pupil is, of course, the main attraction; he is the "Hamlet." Every other detail of the stage—the curriculum, school officials and employees, the school plant, the library, textbooks, supplies, and the like—exist only to serve the main actor. To serve adequately the pupil it is necessary that educational employees, and especially the teacher, have an extensive knowledge of the nature of the pupil. Contributing to that knowledge are many sciences, among the more important of which are psychology, eugenics, anatomy, and physiology. Making probably the largest contribution is *psychology,* because a large part of education must be based upon the science of psychology. The present section of the chapter will, therefore, discuss a few of the outstanding contributions of psychology to the learning process.

Proper psychological background. Every school employee who has anything to do with directing learning should have extensive knowledge of psychology, and especially of the psychology of the type of pupil with which the employee deals. Such knowledge is especially necessary on the part of the teacher, because he has the prime responsibility for setting the learning stage for the pupil; he cannot set that stage without *knowing* the pupil.

Psychology may be defined as *the science which seeks to ascertain and to organize the facts of human behavior and to interpret and to use those facts in directing and controlling human behavior. Behavior* to the psychologist includes all types of expression—thoughts, feelings, and actions of the individual; it is the response which the individual makes to the situations which confront him. Responses are continually being made by the individual, and they become more and more complex and more and more intelligent from birth until death.

For convenience in studying it, psychology may be divided into several fields. One of the more common of the numerous bases on which the division is made is that of *chronological age* of the individual; according to this classification, there are the psychologies of infancy, of childhood, of adolescence, of adulthood, and of senility. Another com-

mon basis of classification is regarding the use or application of the psychological facts; thus, there are several types of *applied psychologies* such as medical psychology, social psychology, advertising psychology, and educational psychology.

Of the so-called "age" psychologies, the elementary- and the secondary-school teachers are most concerned with the psychologies of childhood and of adolescence. In view of the fact, though, that learning is a continuing process from birth until death the teacher cannot be oblivious to the facts and the laws of the psychologies of the other ages. Of the applied psychologies, the teacher is most concerned with *educational psychology,* which treats of the use or application of psychological facts in such a way that the educational growth of the individual will be efficiently directed and controlled.

Colleges and universities which have departments for the preparation of teachers have gradually come to see the value of a knowledge of psychology for the teacher and more and more they have introduced courses for providing that knowledge. More and more, too, they have tried to make those courses function in meeting the needs of teachers of the various age and grade levels, of the various subjects, and of exceptional children such as the bright and the dull. All of them require at least one course in psychology, and most of them, especially those which have four-year curricula, require several of such courses.

The course most frequently required is that usually labeled "General Psychology," [1] which most psychologists believe should be a prerequisite to all other courses in psychology. The next course most frequently required is "Educational Psychology" with special emphasis upon the age and type of pupils with which the teacher will work. These two courses are regarded as the minimum essentials for

[1] "General Psychology" deals with the normal adult human. The theory back of this requirement is that the prospective teacher should have a knowledge of the psychology of himself before he attempts to study the psychology of children.

teachers and are usually required of all prospective teachers irrespective of the type of educational service which the teacher expects to enter. To supplement and follow the courses just mentioned most institutions offer other psychology courses, especially in particular fields. Among these other courses are "Psychology of the Preschool Child," "Psychology of Adolescence," "Abnormal Psychology," "Clinical Psychology," and several courses having to do with the special psychology of learning involved in reading, handwriting, arithmetic, language, and other school subjects. These extra courses are being more and more organized for special employees, among the more common of which are the following: psychological examiner of a school or a school system, guidance counselor, visiting teacher, and teacher of atypical children such as blind, deaf, speech defective, and mentally abnormal (bright or dull); these special employees are found fairly frequently in the larger school systems, and the salaries paid them are slightly higher than those paid to regular teachers.

Knowledge of individual differences. Psychologists have directed their energies largely toward the discovery and the formulation of psychological laws and principles. This effort has been predicated on the assumption that people are naturally much alike, hence should be dealt with somewhat similarly. The result has been that psychologists and educators have tended to regard the problems of education in terms of *groups* of students rather than in terms of the *individual* student. Moreover, the emphasis has been placed upon the group rather than upon the individual because many people have believed that it was undemocratic to deal with any pupil in a manner different from all other pupils.

Recently, however, studies of individual differences have proceeded apace, and everywhere it has been found that the differences among people are large in every trait which human beings possess; it has been found that there are large differences in general traits or abilities and in special traits and abilities. Moreover, educators have come to believe

that it is not undemocratic to deal with the individual in a different manner from other individuals, provided that the needs of the individual were met.

In consonance with the view just stated, educators have attempted more and more to meet the needs of each individual rather than the needs of only the average pupil of the group. In fact, the emphasis upon individual differences has become so large and so fruitful that Chapters VII and XI are largely devoted to an introductory discussion of that topic. The extent of differences within a random-selected group of 34 fifth-grade children is indicated in the following quotation:

> . . . This group was given medical examinations, tests and questionnaires of various sorts by means of which the differences were studied. These children varied in height from 47 to 60 inches and in weight from 55 to 103 pounds. Only two children showed no defects; seven of them were far-sighted, near-sighted, or astigmatic; 14 needed to have their tonsils removed; 31 had at least one decayed tooth; 4 had impacted teeth; 3 had adenoids; 1 was a cripple; 8 were seriously malnourished; 1 was slightly deaf. In social adaptation the group included 3 distinct leaders, 1 child who took no part whatever in the social life of the class, 1 bully, 1 truant, 2 delinquents, 1 chronic liar, and 4 extremely boastful children. Of the 34, only 9 were without at least one admitted specific fear, obsession, or other unusual emotional attitude; 2 children were so queer as to be classified as "eccentric." The I.Q.'s of the class varied from 68 to 147; 3 children were classified as brilliant, 5 as bright, 16 as average, 8 as dull, and 2 as defective. Two children had marked musical ability, 1 drew unusually well, 4 had superior mechanical skill. In educational tests they varied as follows: in arithmetic skills, from the second to the seventh-grade level; in arithmetic reasoning, from second to eighth; in spelling, from third to seventh; in reading rate, from second to ninth; in reading comprehension, from fourth to eighth grade.[1]

All of these individual differences must be kept in mind by the teacher if the needs of the individual pupil are to be met. Moreover, it should be remembered that physical and emotional differences must be met as well as intellectual differences. The total condition and attitude of the pupil are so obvious a part of the learning situation that to men-

[1] S. L. Pressey, *Psychology and the New Education,* Harper, 1933, pp. 250-252. By permission of Harper and Bros., publishers.

tion them is almost trite, but the fact that they are so often disregarded demands that they be mentioned. The pupil must be *ready* to learn before he will learn. The more important elements for a favorable learning situation are as follows:

1. The health of the pupil should be at its best. If the pupil is malnourished, ill, or otherwise physically handicapped, he cannot realize his potentialities as a learner.

2. The emotional tone of the pupil should be at its best. A pupil who is unhappy, discouraged, or otherwise does not possess the proper emotional tone is certain to be handicapped in his learning attempts.

3. The learning tasks, that is, the subject matter of the curriculum, must be adapted to the ability and the interests of the pupil. A pupil cannot learn at his best rate if the grade or the subject is not appropriate to his intelligence, to his preparation for the grade or the subject, or to his interest.

4. The "total situation" must be favorable for learning. This total situation includes the three elements just mentioned. It includes also a good school environment and effective methods of teaching.

METHODS OF STUDYING THE LEARNING PROCESS

The preceding section affirmed that the task of the teacher is fundamentally to analyze, to explain, to direct, and to control the behavior of his pupils. It also pointed out the necessity for the teacher having a knowledge of psychology, because psychology is the science which deals with human behavior. That discussion, though, may have left the impression that a knowledge of behavior can be secured only from textbooks and other literature, or only from courses in psychology. Such an impression would be unfortunate, because knowledge of behavior may be secured during every day of life. Anyone may secure such knowledge by observing the persons with whom he comes into contact. The teacher may secure it especially by studying his pupils, and the prospective teacher may also secure it by studying pupils. The three chief methods of securing knowledge of behavior are through (1) controlled experimentation, (2) observation, and (3) introspection. These methods will be explained briefly in the next following paragraphs.

Controlled experimentation. The most scientific way of studying behavior is through controlled experimentation, and during recent years the tendency among psychologists has been toward the use of this method. This method has the advantage over introspection and observation of being more objective, hence of being more exact and trustworthy.

To organize a controlled experiment in learning is one of the most difficult tasks imaginable. In a controlled experiment all variable factors are *controlled,* and the experiment is conducted upon constant factors. Thus, if we were organizing an experiment to ascertain whether the whole or the part method of memorizing a piece of poetry was the more efficient, among the steps which would have to be taken are the following: The piece of poetry memorized by each method would have to be of the same difficulty, interest, and similar characteristics; the intelligence, educational preparation, physical condition, and interest of the two groups of learners would have to be the same; the teaching of the two groups would have to be of the same quality and amount; and the environmental conditions of the two groups of learners would have to be the same. When all variable factors had been controlled, the two groups of learners could be placed under the stop watch, and their accomplishment in memorizing measured and studied further.

During recent years hundreds of experiments on learning have been performed and reported in the literature of psychology and education. The student's courses in psychology and in methods of teaching will bring acquaintance with some of the more significant of these experiments. It is sufficient to say here that the modern teacher must be concerned with the results of the work of other investigators; moreover, the wide-awake teacher will have many opportunities to perform many simple learning experiments of his own. The present writer believes that the ability to organize a controlled experiment should be demanded of every teacher. Interest in these matters should go far toward helping the teacher to develop the scientific attitude toward the learning process.

Observation. If the teacher does not have the time, the equipment, or other resources to do controlled experimentation on pupil behavior, he can always do something which is closely akin to it—namely, he can be a close *observer* of pupil behavior. The greater the care with which he conducts his observations the more scientific he will become; that is, the closer he will approximate the characteristics of a controlled experiment. The teacher can, and should, always be sensitive to the conditions which make each pupil learn best; he can do this by carefully *observing* the responses of each pupil, then trying to improve the situation so as to call forth better responses. Chapter XXIV of this book is entirely devoted to a discussion of school and classroom observations, especially for beginning students of education.

Introspection. Introspection is an attempt of the individual to analyze *his* mental processes. It means to look inward. Such introspection will help the teacher to interpret the mental processes of his pupils. It will be especially valuable if the teacher will reminisce and try to reinterpret the experiences of his own childhood. On the value of introspection by the teacher, L. A. Averill says:

> But how will introspection be of help to you in studying the behavior of children? You surely cannot set children to the task of introspecting! No, but you will be better able to understand and direct their behavior by being yourself a good introspectionist. After all we are more alike than we are unlike, and you will be often greatly helped in your control over and understanding of children by the ability to evaluate a definite situation in the light of your own past experiences in a similar situation . . . Introspection, in other terms, makes a better teacher of you by making you a better observer of children and a more intelligent participator in their joys and sorrows.[1]

In introspection, however, the teacher should guard against inferring that the child's mental processes are the same as those of an adult. Until there is evidence supporting that conclusion, the teacher cannot conclude that people of all grades, ages, or intelligence learn in the same

[1] L. A. Averill, *Psychology for Normal Schools,* Houghton Mifflin, 1921, pp. 7–8. By permission of Houghton Mifflin Company, publishers.

way. K. Dunlap has the following to say of the danger of inferring that children learn in the same manner as adults:

> The actual determination of the behavior of children and animals is far more difficult than the determining of the behavior of adults. It has been assumed sometimes that the child mind may be examined without reference to the adult mind and therefore without the disadvantage of the source of errors in such a comparison. This assumption is an unfortunate mistake which has merely served to cover up arbitrary assumptions as to the child's mind. One might indeed study child behavior exclusively, but when one discusses perception, thought, and emotional experience in children, one is making inferences from the adult mind; so that the only safety lies in being thoroughly cognizant of them as inferences. To deny in such case that one is making inferences is really to refuse to examine one's inferences, a procedure which leads to serious blunders in theory and in the interpretation of experiments.[1]

THE LAWS OF LEARNING

The effort of the scientist has always been directed toward reducing his facts to *laws*. This effort has also guided the student of the learning process, because he has ever attempted to discover the conditions under which learning may best take place, at least for the typical person. In spite, however, of the zeal with which the students of the learning process have worked and notwithstanding the large amount of experimental work, it must be concluded that the laws of learning are still in the process of being formulated. The laws are not yet final—in fact, most of them are as yet only hypotheses or working principles.

Most of the so-called "laws" of learning bear strongly the earmarks of a systematic bias of the student who formulated them. They are more theory than fact. The person, therefore, who uses psychology as an aid to teaching should be warned to distinguish between what is known and what is not known about learning. An hypothesis or working principle should not be mistaken for a demonstrated law.

In the main, the laws of learning have originated in one or more of the types of learning, for example, rote learn-

[1] K. Dunlap, *Elements of Scientific Psychology,* Mosby, 1922, p. 16. By permission of C. V. Mosby, publishers.

FIG. 31. A kindergarten market. (Courtesy of the St. Louis, Missouri, public schools.) Real life experiences are integrated by such projects.

ing, trial and error learning, and associative learning. Thus, it was early observed that in rote learning a piece of prose or poetry could be memorized by reading and repeating the piece over and over. From this observation it was concluded that, other things being equal, "practice makes perfect," and that the necessity for repetition should be formulated into a law. This law is known as the law of *exercise;* it was formulated by Edward L. Thorndike in 1913, and at the same time he formulated the laws of *readiness* and of *effect.*[1]

Law of readiness. According to the law of readiness, the individual must be *ready* to learn before he can learn—at least all that he might. The learning tasks must be satisfying to him, not annoying to him; the health and emotional tone of the individual must be at their best; and the school environment and methods of teaching must be appropriate. Of all the laws of learning, most students of the learning process regard the law of readiness as the most important and as most applicable to the various types of learning.

Law of exercise. The law of exercise says that, other things being equal, the performance of an act tends to make subsequent performance of that act easier, more fluent, and less likely to error.

Two corollaries of the law of exercise are often recognized by psychologists. The first of these is known as the law of *frequency.* It says that "learning is proportional to the frequency with which the learning factors are made operative."

The second corollary is known as the law of *recency.* It affirms that "other things being equal, whatever it is that makes for learning is more effective when recent." This corollary makes provision for the phenomena of forgetting which is an inevitable characteristic of all learning.

In spite of the many facts which seem to validate the law of exercise and its corollaries, and notwithstanding that the law and its corollaries play a large part in modern methods

[1] For a complete exposition of these laws, the interested reader may consult Edward L. Thorndike, *Educational Psychology,* Columbia University, 1913, Vol. II, pp. 1–5.

of teaching, there are certain considerations which create doubts regarding the complete validity of the law. For example, there are many data which suggest that "continued use of some functions is a sure way to destroy the functions and so to bring about quick forgetfulness." [1] Practice, therefore, to secure perfection must be of the proper *kind* and *amount*. Only intelligent practice makes perfect.

Law of effect. Protagonists of the law of exercise soon formulated the law of effect to supplement the law of exercise and to lessen the criticisms of that law. The law of effect affirms that "one learns quickly those reactions which are accompanied or followed by a satisfying state of affairs; one does not learn quickly those which result in an annoying state of affairs or learns not to make such reactions." [2]

Other laws. As with the law of exercise, so with the laws of readiness and of effect there are many data which must temper any wholehearted acceptance of the laws. For example, a casual inspection of our recollections will show that we remember many unpleasant events; moreover, all of us have spent many unhappy practice periods in acquiring a skill. It must be concluded that there are other factors in learning than readiness and exercise and effect and that uncritical acceptance of the laws just mentioned make too simple a matter out of the most baffling thing in the world—the learning process. E. R. Hilgard says the following laws must be followed if learning is to occur without waste of effort and without unnecessary fatigue and discouragement:

1. The desire to improve.
2. A clear understanding of the task. Illustration: It would not be practical for a person to attempt to build a house if he had studied only how to lay a floor.
3. Appropriate repetition. "Practice makes perfect" only when repetition of the subject being learned is accompanied by other factors, such as the desire to learn.

[1] For a detailed criticism of the law of exercise the interested reader is referred to Coleman R. Griffith, *An Introduction to Educational Psychology*, Farrar, 1935, pp. 411–413.

[2] The definition is from Horace B. English, *A Student's Dictionary of Psychological Terms*, Harper, 1935, p. 43. By permission of Harper and Bros., publishers.

4. A measure of progress. Rewards as well as punishment aid the satisfaction which arises from learning, but both are secondary to mere knowledge of success: A golfer's best score is greater incentive for improvement than any money reward.[1]

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What is meant by the *experimental attitude?* Of how much importance do you regard the experimental attitude on the part of the teacher? Discuss.

2. What is a controlled experiment? Compare the difficulty of setting up such an experiment in, say, physics or chemistry with one in learning?

3. When it has been found through experimentation that the pupils of a certain grade and in a certain subject learn best by means of a given method of instruction, could it be concluded that pupils in other grades and other subjects would also learn best by means of the same method? Why, or why not?

4. To what extent are a teacher's observations of the behavior of his pupils subjective? Do such observations have any of the characteristics of objectivity? Explain.

5. Many persons believe that psychology is not, and can never be, a science because behavior cannot be objectively and accurately measured. Do you agree with this view? Why, or why not?

6. Many persons hold the view that the laws or principles of learning are practically worthless because each individual is a law to himself and other laws of principles cannot be applied to him. Do you agree with this view? Why, or why not?

7. That the pupil should have a *desire* to learn has been stated as a principle of learning. Should this be interpreted to mean that the pupil should not be requested or required to engage in tasks which do not interest him? Would it be possible for the teacher to create pupil interest in every task assigned? Discuss. If a pupil could not be interested in learning the multiplication table, should he be excused from that task? Why, or why not?

8. Compare in potential significance for education the first six or seven years of life with later periods of similar duration. What steps are now being taken, and what further steps might be taken, to realize the potentialities of these early years?

9. What steps should the school take to prepare the individual to continue his education to the fullest after he leaves school? What are the chief agencies through which the individual may continue his learning after he leaves school?

10. In the directing of learning activities should the emphasis be

[1] From an Associated Press Dispatch.

placed upon the acquisition of information or upon the interpretation and use of information? Explain.

11. Discuss the significance of the emotions in learning and in life. Should the school attempt to educate the emotions? Why, or why not?

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Chapter IX

TEACHING PROCEDURES

TEACHING AS A SCIENCE AND AS AN ART

Because of the universal usage of the term, *teaching* is another term for which a definition is almost trite. If a definition is needed, the following would seem to suffice: *Teaching is the act of helping someone to learn, that is, of helping him to acquire knowledge, attitudes, ideals, habits, or some other type of learning which he did not previously possess.* With the exception of hermits and the feeble-minded, all persons are teachers every day throughout life. Teaching is the stimulus, and learning is the response. The function of teaching, therefore, is to provide the best stimuli in order that the best learning may take place.

Society has established and at large expense maintains the school in order that teaching and learning may be conducted in the most effective manner possible. When the teaching of the school is not effective—and that condition often obtains—learning does not result or the type which the school desires to secure does not result. The test of effective teaching is effective learning.

Much teaching is not effective because the conditions which make for effective teaching are not present. Often it is not effective because the teacher's aims are not clear, because the materials of instruction are not adapted to the pupils' interests and needs, because the school environment is not conducive to learning, and because the pupils are not in the best physical and emotional condition to receive the instruction offered. The preceding chapter showed that the pupils must be made *ready to learn* before they will learn.

Teaching as a science. Since it possesses much organized knowledge, which is the criterion for a science, teaching is,

at its basis, a science. Teaching already possesses thousands of facts and hundreds of principles, and new facts and principles are being constantly added and old principles are being constantly revised and improved. To be most successful it must proceed according to those facts and principles. It cannot be conducted on the basis of mere opinion or by "meni-mini-mo" methods. Nor will common sense—facetiously called "that most uncommon thing in the world"—suffice. Furthermore, the best common sense in any field of learning is predicated on sound knowledge of that field; as the Bible says, "A wise man is strong, yea, a man of knowledge increaseth strength."

The more the teacher knows about the teaching process the more effective his tutelage will be. He must know the responses which are desired from each pupil and the type and the amount of stimuli which must be applied to call forth those responses. Without this knowledge the teacher is likely to follow rule-of-thumb procedures in the formulation of aims, in the selection and organization of the materials of instruction, in the choice and use of teaching procedures, and in the selection of supplies, equipment, and other materials; without knowledge the teacher is apt to drift and to degenerate into a quack.

Teaching as an art. Ralph Waldo Emerson has said, "There is no knowledge that is not power." Although knowledge is always necessary for accomplishment in any endeavor, it alone will not beget the greatest accomplishment. When applied to teaching, therefore, Emerson's statement needs qualifying because mere knowledge of the facts and principles of teaching does not guarantee that a person will be an excellent teacher. Whether he be teacher, musician, painter, butcher, baker, or candlestick-maker, the great artist is a master of *performance* in his field as well as a master of *knowledge;* he not only has knowledge but is able to draw proper conclusions from it and otherwise to make the best use of it. In brief, if it is to possess the greatest power, knowledge must be *applied;* more than that, it must be *correctly* applied.

A teacher will have arrived at the state of artist when

he is able to attend to all the details which insure mastery over the means of execution, but it is likely that no teacher will ever completely arrive there. The test of the execution of the teaching act—the test for the artist teacher—is whether the pupil learns as much as his ability indicates he should learn. The securing and organizing of knowledge are the function of science. The applying of knowledge is the function of art.

REQUISITES FOR EFFECTIVE TEACHING

The purpose of the school is to facilitate learning on the part of the pupils. In order that learning may be most effective, the teaching procedures must be the best. If those procedures are not the best, there will, of course, be waste —waste of the pupils' time and of public funds. Indeed, the largest wastes in education occur in the selection and the use of teaching procedures. These wastes occur primarily because of ignorance on the part of educational employees of what constitutes the best teaching procedures, but they occur also because of failure to apply the principles and procedures of teaching which experience and research have demonstrated to be the most effective. In other words, the wastes occur because of ignorance of and neglect of both the science and the art of teaching.

All that can feasibly be attempted in this chapter is to mention and discuss briefly some of the more important requisites for effective teaching. But the information of the prospective teacher on these important requisites need not be limited to these few pages, because in the case of most of the requisites here mentioned other chapters of this book are devoted; moreover, most colleges and universities which are engaged in the preparation of teachers offer courses in each of these outstanding requisites. A brief discussion of the outstanding requisites is given herewith.

Desirable educational aims. Chapter II of this book stated that the effectiveness of the tutelage of any teacher is determined largely by the presence or absence, and by the merit, of the educational aims of the teacher. It is difficult

to arrive anywhere if the destination is not known, and if the destination is wrong, all effort expended in reaching it will have been wasted. Aims give direction and zest to the teacher's efforts. Worth-while aims are always a necessity, but poor aims are worse than none because they will likely lead to the inculcation of knowledge, skills, attitudes, and ideals which are injurious to both the pupils and society. When they are possessed by a vigorous and skilled teacher, poor aims are especially dangerous because such a teacher is almost certain to accomplish the aims quickly and effectively; when poor aims are accomplished by the pupils, they must be "unlearned" at some future time, and the "unlearning" process is often more difficult than the learning process.

The educational aims of the teacher will largely determine the teaching method that is used. If the teacher conceives the fundamental aim of the school to be to maintain society as it is, he will try to perpetuate a fixed pattern of habits, beliefs, and attitudes in the individual, and the method of teaching which he will employ is likely to stress habit formation and unquestioning obedience to the established order. If, on the other hand, the teacher conceives the fundamental aim of the school to be to help society reconstruct itself, he will try to prepare the individual to choose and to reconstruct his own habits, beliefs, and attitudes, and the method of teaching which he will employ is likely to emphasize the development of thinking.

Desirable subject matter. If method may be called the vehicle of instruction, subject matter—that is, the materials of instruction—may be labeled the cargo of the vehicle. To load an efficient vehicle with worthless cargo would, of course, be absurd. And to use efficient methods in the teaching of worthless subject matter would be equally absurd. Another of the necessary requisites, therefore, for effective teaching is desirable subject matter—subject matter which will meet the needs of pupils and of adults in a complex and rapidly changing civilization.

The teacher must know the materials which he is expected to teach; he cannot teach something which he does

not know. He may try, but his efforts are sure to be bungling and his results are certain to be puny. The recent slogan, "Teach children rather than subject matter," is as fallacious as would be the opposite slogan, "Teach subject matter rather than children." Both subject matter and children must be taught. But children must be taught subject matter which is on the level of their interest, understanding, and needs.

To select and organize the subject matter of instruction, or to guide the pupils in the selection and organization of it, is one of the most difficult and most important responsibilities of the school. The modern teacher is expected to shoulder this responsibility *in toto* or in part. If he is to be able to shoulder this responsibility, the teacher must be a persistent and intelligent student of the complex and constantly changing panorama of society. On one hand, he must ever be eliminating from the curriculum old activities and experiences which no longer meet social needs; on the other hand, he must ever be introducing new activities and experiences which meet social needs. In brief, the teacher who would be most effective must be well informed on the construction and use of the curriculum. To give the prospective teacher an orientation in the curriculum Chapter XIII of this book has been included.

Just as the method of teaching which is used will be determined by the teacher's concept of the purpose of the school, so the selection of subject matter will be determined by that same concept. If the purpose of the school is conceived to be to develop a fixed pattern of habits, beliefs, and attitudes, subject matter will be selected to develop those habits, beliefs, and attitudes, and methods of teaching which will most effectively accomplish that purpose will be employed.

If the primary aim of the teacher is to give his pupils mental discipline, methods of teaching which will accomplish that aim will be employed, and subject matter will be selected which will meet the same purpose. In earlier chapters, however, it was stated that mental discipline (especially when narrowly conceived) as an aim of education is

rapidly passing into the limbo of forgotten things and that teaching methods and subject matter are being more and more selected because of their content value rather than because of the belief that they provide mental discipline. Whereas such subjects as mathematics and foreign languages formerly constituted the core of the curriculum because it was believed that they provided mental discipline, such subjects as the social sciences, the natural sciences, and the vocational subjects are being given larger prominence, and whereas subject matter was formerly "drilled" into the pupils irrespective of whether the pupils liked drill methods, today more interesting and more effective teaching methods such as the project method are being more and more employed. This shift of emphasis is predicated on the belief that the pupils should be prepared for taking their place in a constantly changing social order.

Desirable psychological and biological laws. The preceding chapter has shown that the learning process is very complex—that it is one of the most baffling things in the world. Although experimentation has provided much information regarding the way in which the human mind works, even the Solomons of the profession are still far from knowing the exact way in which it works and the stimuli which make it work best.

The most valuable discovery of psychological investigations has been concerning the nature and the extent of individual differences. These investigations have shown that any two individuals are far from being alike in their interests and their abilities. Since effective teaching procedures are dependent on adequate knowledge of the learning process, the successful teacher must have a large knowledge of psychological principles. He must know the interests and the capacities of each pupil. As well as knowing the response desired from each pupil and that this response must be determined in part by the pupil's interests and capacities, he must know the stimuli in kind and in amount to apply to each pupil in order that the desired response may be secured. He must know the stimuli which will most effectively interest each pupil and cause each pupil to desire to work

at his maximum capacity, and he must realize that the stimuli which are effective with one pupil will not necessarily be effective with another. In brief, the teacher must know how to motivate each pupil to his best efforts, and he should know that a pupil who is not made *ready* to learn is not likely to learn much.

All colleges and universities which are engaged in the preparation of teachers offer, as has been earlier noted, several psychology courses and require at least one of these courses of all prospective teachers. Such courses, however excellent they may be, can only give the teacher the foundation knowledge which he needs of the learning process. To this foundation the artist teacher can add much through classroom experience, because the classroom is the best laboratory in the world for the observation and study of children.

In his classroom laboratory the teacher has human beings for his subjects and he has them under natural conditions—conditions which do not obtain in the psychological laboratories of the colleges and universities. Moreover, his subjects never grow old. They come to him in constant procession year after year; they come with different problems and challenges—differences in ages (chronological, mental, social, etc.), interests, attitudes, and ideals. To secure value from his experience the teacher must be wide awake. Experience which uncritically repeats another experience—which follows the "cowpath of tradition"—is of no value.

In addition to knowing and following the best psychological laws, the teacher must also know and follow the best biological laws. He must know how the whole human organism works. He must realize that the *whole* child comes to school, and not merely the child's mind. He should know that anything which affects one part of the organism also affects every other part of the organism; mind and body are an entity. Knowledge of these biological laws is usually provided by a course or courses in health and physical education which most colleges and universities offer and which teachers are required to pursue. Chapter XII of this book

discusses health and physical education; hence any further discussion of the subject is unnecessary at this place.

Desirable environment. The most effective learning can take place only when the environmental setting is best. This means, among other things, that the school site, building, and equipment must be adequate, safe, sanitary, comfortable, and attractive. Over most of these details school

FIG. 32. A well-equipped school department office machine class in Timken Vocational High School. (Courtesy of the Canton, Ohio, public schools.)

officials rather than teachers have control. Teachers, on the other hand, often have the power to correct or to improve poor environmental conditions; always they can request school officials to correct such conditions, and often it is a case of asking, "and ye shall receive." For example, teachers can suggest that shades be secured for the windows, that desks be placed so that the light will enter from the left side of the room, that an adequate and wholesome

water supply be made available, and that desks be secured which fit or are adjustable to the size of the pupils. They can request that the school equipment be made adequate and be kept in a proper state of repair, that the school building be properly cleaned and heated, that the school building and site be landscaped and decorated so that they will be attractive, and that unnecessary noise be eliminated. And they can ask that attention be given to every other detail which would make the school plant more adequate, safe, comfortable, sanitary, and otherwise conducive to best learning.

Desirable classroom management. Closely related to proper school and classroom environment is effective classroom management. For the details of classroom management the teacher is almost wholly responsible. Among the more important details of classroom management for which the teacher is wholly or largely responsible are the following: providing for the proper seating of the pupils; arranging for the pupils to pass to and from the classroom and the building at noon, recesses, and other school intermissions; checking of attendance; providing for the distribution, administration, and supervision of educational supplies and equipment; arranging for fire drills; and in general, making certain that everything in the classroom proceeds without confusion, friction, and other waste. In brief, the function of the teacher in classroom management is to assure, as James Whitcomb Riley has said, that the pupil is

> Humpin' on to somethin' fair,
> Bumpin' no one gettin' there.

In establishing a routine of classroom management the dangers of over-routinization as well as those of under-routinization should be avoided. There must be organization and discipline, of course, but this organization and discipline should not be repressive. In order that they may become self-reliant the pupils should be taught and permitted to exercise their initiative as often as possible; however, they should know that there are certain rules of con-

duct which they must obey if they are to avoid injuring themselves and interfering with the rights of their fellows. Somewhere between the "heel-clicking" type of discipline and the ultra-freedom type which permits each pupil to "run riot" is the desideratum.[1] For teachers to have effective classroom management is considered so important that most colleges and universities which are engaged in the preparation of teachers offer a course in, or devote part of another course to, classroom management.

THINKING AS THE AIM OF TEACHING PROCEDURES

Importance and definition of thinking. A main thesis of this book is that society should not permit itself to become petrified, but should ever be trying to improve itself. Another thesis of the book is that the school should accept the obligation of fostering a type of education which would energize and qualify its members constantly to help in the continuous reconstruction of society. For its teaching creed the school should accept the *doctrine of flexible habits* which means that our habits should not be permitted to become petrified but should be always in process of change to meet new demands. The mental instrument or procedure which may be used to keep our habits—our patterns or ways of living—flexible is *thinking*. Only through thinking can intelligence be liberated and social and individual progress be assured.

What, then, is thinking? It may be briefly defined as the reorganization or reconstruction of habits with the purpose in view of solving a problem. John Dewey defines thinking as "that operation in which present facts suggest other facts (or truths) in such a way as to induce belief in what is suggested on the ground of real relation in the things themselves, a relation between what suggests and what is suggested."[2] H. Gordon Hullfish defines it as "a special

[1] Many beginning teachers fail because of "poor discipline." Such discipline is usually the result of lack of understanding of children and of poor teaching in general. Well-prepared teachers need have little fear of pupil-discipline problems.

[2] John Dewey, *How We Think*, Heath, rev. ed., 1933, p. 12. By permission of D. C. Heath and Company, publishers.

type of adjustment—an adjustment that is used by man in solving problematic situations."[1] All of the foregoing definitions agree that thinking is used to solve problems and that it requires the use of the constructive faculties of the intellect. Thinking is the highest type of mental effort.

To give his pupils their first lessons in thinking will not be necessary on the part of the teacher, because every pupil will already possess this ability to a certain degree. When he enters school, the pupil has already met hundreds or thousands of problematic situations on which he has used his thinking powers. Moreover, the desire to think is possessed to a certain degree by every pupil. The task of the teacher is *to develop* this ability and this desire, and the task well done is the largest contribution which the teacher can make to his pupils.

If the teacher fails to make this contribution to pupil thinking, his educational efforts and products will be characterized by narrow training—training which in future days may bind the pupil to the galleys of tradition and of routine. Narrow training may catch the pupil in the trap of his habits and make it difficult for him to adjust himself to the constantly changing social order; moreover, it may disqualify him for making suggestions regarding changes which should be made in the social order.

If life is at all full, as it is sure to be with all normal persons, there is not a day when the individual is not called upon to solve many problems. Every normal person is confronted every day by situations which must be thought through and a logical conclusion reached; he must reconstruct or reorganize his habits to meet new situations; his old habits won't suffice him. In the main, and with most persons, these problems are relatively easy and involve choosing between two or more simple alternatives. On the relatively easy level, they involve such questions as the following: "Which automobile shall be driven today?" "What color shall the house be painted?" "What kind of meat, if any, shall be served for dinner today?" "What ensemble

[1] H. Gordon Hullfish, "Training in Thinking," *Journal* of the Ohio State Teachers Association, Vol. 2 (August, 1924), p. 31.

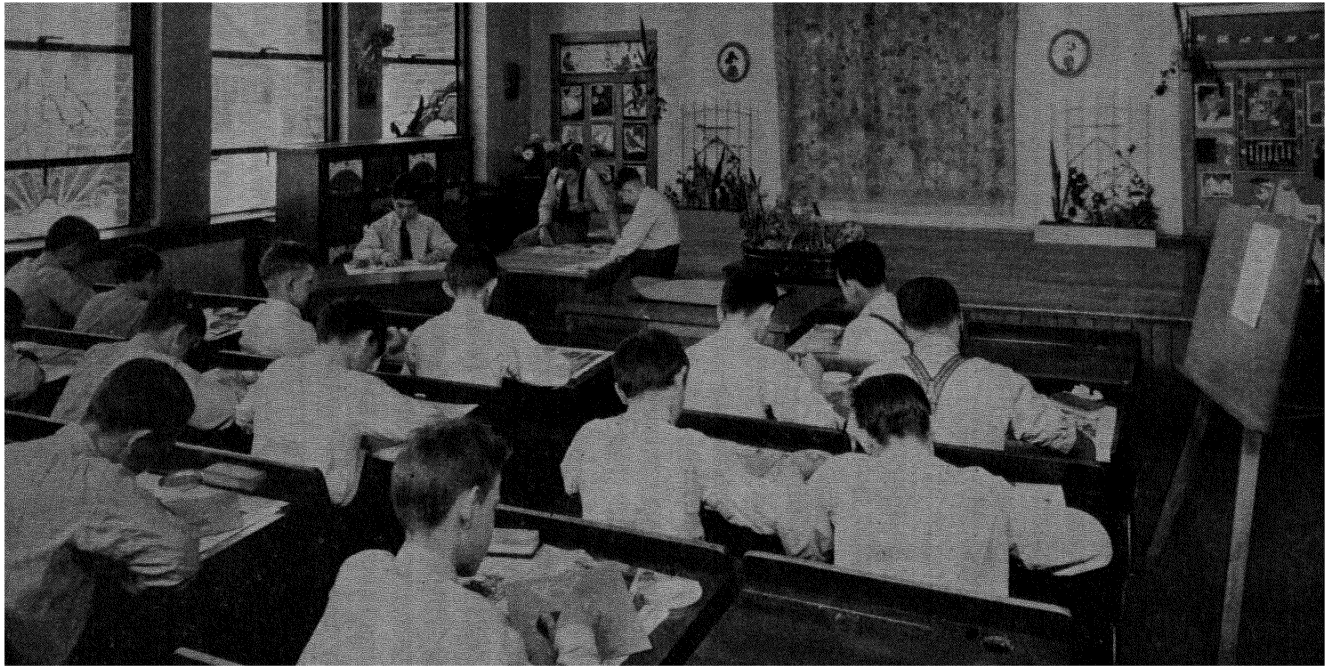

FIG. 33. An activity-program school. In spite of having to use much archaic equipment, the teacher of this school is giving the pupils an opportunity for self-expression. (Courtesy of the Detroit, Michigan, public schools.)

shall be worn today?" "Shall wheat or oats be planted this year?" On the other extreme, the problems become very complex, if not baffling, and involve "creative work" of the highest type. The more complex problems involve, for example, the formulation of a plan for a desirable social order, the control of war, the elimination of disease, the improvement of the money system of the nation, the liquidation of the federal debt, the elimination of unemployment, the perfection of television, and the securing of more competent public officials.

Phases of thinking. In its most highly developed form the thinking process possesses the following phases:

1. The individual becomes aware of the problem and has a desire to solve it.
2. He sets up hypotheses, guesses, hunches, or tentative answers regarding the solution of the problem. (Unfortunately, the thinking of many people never advances beyond this step, hence the large amount of credulity and intolerance. Many people jump at conclusions; their hypotheses, guesses, or hunches become the final anwers.)
3. He collects and organizes all pertinent data which bear upon the hypotheses, guesses, hunches, or answers mentioned in step 2.
4. The data are interpreted, and conclusions, either tentative or final, are formulated.

Dewey and Hullfish recognize only two phases of thinking; those two phases, though, include the four steps just mentioned. Hullfish includes the first two phases just mentioned under the heading of "finding meanings" and the last two steps under the heading of "testing meanings."[1] We shall quote briefly from each of these discussions; we turn first to Dewey:

. . . the origin of thinking is some perplexity, confusion, or doubt. Thinking is not a case of spontaneous combustion; it does not occur just on "general principles." There is something that occasions and evokes it. General appeals to a child (or to a grown-up) to think, irrespective of the existence in his own experience of some difficulty that troubles him and disturbs his equilibrium, are as futile as advice to lift himself by his bootstraps.

Given a difficulty, the next step is suggestion of some way out—the

[1] A *meaning* may be defined as an answer or a fact in a certain relationship. Hullfish gives credit to his teacher, Boyd H. Bode, for this formulation.

formation of some tentative plan or project, the entertaining of some theory that will account for the peculiarities in question, the consideration of some solution for the problem. The data at hand cannot supply the solution; they can only suggest it. What, then, are the sources of the suggestion? Clearly, past experience and a fund of relevant knowledge at one's command. If the person has had some acquaintance with similar situations . . ., suggestions more or less apt and helpful will arise. But unless there has been some analogous experience, confusion remains mere confusion. Even when a child (or a grown-up) has a problem, it is wholly futile to urge him to think when he has no prior experiences that involve some of the same conditions.[1]

Hullfish affirms that the initial step in thinking is the finding of meanings, but that the most important and the most difficult step is the testing of meanings. He says:

. . . We may see at once, therefore, that thinking is more than the finding of a meaning; it is, in addition, a matter of testing that meaning. And the greatest of these is testing! . . .

Man is not slow to find meanings, but his very readiness in finding them is also a barrier to his advancement. We have no more striking example of this than in current superstition—striking because it flourishes in an age known as a scientific one. . . . Finding meanings is natural, as natural to man as breathing. Testing meanings, however, is a matter of training, and though some may do this more readily than others, all may be helped by the development of the critical attitude. Thinking, then, is essentially a matter of clues, of meanings; but it becomes thinking only as these clues, or meanings, are tested. . . .

Man is, as we have said, a ready guesser. This fact gives a clue to classroom procedure. When a meaning is offered, thinking has started; when this meaning has been tested, thinking has been completed. It is the failure to test which makes for credulity.[2]

By what methods may meanings be tested? Two methods are available. One of these is known as the *inductive* method and the other as the *deductive* method. In the inductive method the facts are first found; then they are explained and conclusions drawn from them. In the deductive method the existence of certain facts is deducted or predicted, then the facts are searched for. Both methods are necessary in

[1] Dewey, *op. cit.*, pp. 12–13. By permission of D. C. Heath and Company, publishers.

[2] Hullfish, *op. cit.*, p. 32.

the best type of thinking, because some facts would never be found except by the process of deduction, and some conclusions would never be drawn if certain facts had not been observed.

When has a meaning been tested sufficiently to justify a conclusion? The answer is—when all facts or evidence have been accounted for and there is no room for a competing hypothesis. If certain facts or evidence do not fit into the hypothesis, doubt is cast over the validity of the hypothesis, and only a tentative conclusion, if any, can be drawn. The desideratum of the school is, therefore, to develop pupils who will want to test every reasonable hypothesis and who will not jump at conclusions. This disposition to inquire and to test is the essence of the scientific attitude, and this attitude should be regarded as the supreme goal of education and as the heart of any method of teaching.

Means of stimulating thinking.[1] The discussion thus far has pointed out the importance and the nature of thinking and the obligation of the teacher to stimulate thinking. How may the teacher stimulate the desire and increase the ability to think? The first suggestion is that pupils be given an *opportunity* to think, especially upon problems of social significance which are on their level of ability and interest. Like all abilities the ability to think increases with the proper kind and amount of exercise. To give this exercise the teacher has myriad opportunities throughout the school day—in fact, during every class meeting. The first obligation of the teacher is, therefore, to see that the "thinking stage" is kept laden with desirable problems—problems of social significance which are on the level of interest and ability of the pupils. This obligation cannot be met by the teacher merely asking questions and the pupils reciting the ready-made answers of the textbook.

A second suggestion is that the teacher give the pupils *guidance* in their efforts at thinking. In giving this guidance, an excellent teacher will be interested, of course, in helping his pupils to find the correct solution of a problem, but he

[1] For a detailed discussion of how the thinking process may be guided, the reader is referred to the excellent article by Hullfish, *op. cit.*

will be more interested in developing the *ability* to arrive at a correct solution and to test that solution. He has the obligation of tentatively accepting the answer (right or wrong) of a pupil, then of demanding proof from the pupil for the answer which he has given. Without this proof—without this testing of meanings—the act of thinking is not complete and the pupil has missed the most valuable part of his training. According to John Adams, the pupil's wrong *guess* is "golden" if the teacher will utilize the opportunity to "bore in" for the purpose of finding any element of truth in the wrong answer. Adams says:

> It is the teacher's business to discover what element of truth underlies each of the false answers his pupils supply. Every time that she succeeds in getting at the true reason for the false answer, she should give herself a good mark; every time she cannot, she should give herself a bad one. For it is her business to know just this sort of thing. . . . It was not a guess, but a confused explanation, that resulted in the exposition of an inquest: "when you have died unexpectedly you are cross-examined by a coroner." Every time a pupil has a rational explanation for his answer, however far-fetched the explanation may be, he must be exonerated from the charge of illegitimate guessing.[1]

In the "game of thinking," to summarize, it is the business of the teacher to guide in the selection of problems and in the solution of the problems. The goal of the game is a thinking pupil. In conducting the game a democratic method rather than an autocratic method should be used. The teacher should be a participant in the game as well as the referee. He should work with the pupils on the selection and the solution of problems. He should not hand down, Jove-like, the problems to be attacked nor the solution of them. He should give information and clues when he deems them necessary, and should withhold them when advisable.

Language as a tool for thinking. Man's most distinctive and important trait is his ability to think, that is, to find and to test meanings. This ability has enabled him to discover, to invent, or otherwise to make changes in society. Many of these discoveries or inventions have become magnificent

[1] John Adams, "The Golden Guess," *Educational Review,* Vol. 67 (May, 1924), p. 258.

tools for learning as the mere mention of such discoveries or inventions as the pen, the printing press, the typewriter, the camera, the moving picture, the radio, the telephone and telegraph, measuring instruments, and language will show.

Probably the greatest of these contributions is the invention and the improvement of *language* so that it can be used accurately and quickly to express meanings. Without the invention and development of language, the invention and development of the pen, the printing press, the typewriter, the telephone, the radio, and other means of communication would have been useless. Without a symbolism, such as language provides, learning would be immeasurably handicapped. In fact, without language there is doubt whether the highest type of learning, namely, thinking, could exist.

The lower animals seem to be able to find meanings, but are unable to detach these meanings from an object. Man, on the contrary, is endowed with the ability not only to find meanings, but to detach those meanings from an object, that is, to form an abstraction. In forming an abstraction language is necessary. Language is constituted of symbols. Man makes use of a symbol or combination of symbols for each meaning which he secures, and through the ages he has attempted to improve his system of symbols for each meaning which he secures in order that it might better serve him in expressing his ideas and thoughts. Although he has developed and makes use of many other types of symbols, words are unquestionably the best system of symbols which man has developed. Through the use of one word he can express an idea, that is, a simple meaning, and through the combination of words he can express various shades of meanings and more complex meanings. What a marvelous invention is language!

But language is a two-edged tool. It can be used to advance and to clarify thinking, or it can be utilized to obstruct and to obscure thinking. It can be used to elucidate thinking or to gloss over the absence of thinking. It can be used to express accurate meanings or inaccurate meanings. It is the ready tool of the ignorant and the demagogue just as it

is the faithful servant of the intelligent and the honest. Another task of the prospective teacher, therefore, is to develop his own language habits (both written and oral) and to prepare himself to do all that he can to assist his pupils to make conscious use of this tool as an aid to thinking—as an aid to the finding, the testing, and the expressing of meanings. John Dewey has the following to say of the importance of this task and of steps which may be taken to accomplish it:

> . . . That problem is to *direct pupils' oral and written speech, used primarily for practical and social ends, so that gradually it shall become a conscious tool of conveying knowledge and assisting thought.* How without checking the spontaneous, natural motives—motives to which language owes its vitality, force, vividness, and variety—are we to modify speech habits so as to render them accurate and flexible *intellectual* instruments? It is comparatively easy to encourage the original spontaneous flow and not make language over into a servant of reflective thought, it is comparatively easy to check and almost destroy (so far as the school room is concerned) native aim and interest and to set up artificial and formal modes of expression in some isolated and technical matters. The difficulty lies in making over habits that have to do with "ordinary affairs and conveniences" into habits concerned with "precise notions." The successful accomplishing of the transformation requires (*a*) enlarging the pupil's vocabulary, (*b*) rendering its terms more precise and accurate, and (*c*) forming habits of consecutive discourse.[1]

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Distinguish between a child-centered school and a subject-centered school. Which do you prefer? Why? Can an efficient school be totally child-centered or totally subject-centered? Why?

2. Distinguish between *logical* presentation of subject matter and *psychological* presentation. Illustrate. Discuss the relative merits of these two types of presentation.

3. What has been the traditional purpose of the recitation? What do you regard as the limitations of this traditional purpose?

4. How do you explain the fact that many accomplished athletes make inefficient coaches and that many average or inferior athletes make excellent coaches?

5. Someone has said that "the best government is one that governs least" and that "the best teacher is one who teaches least." Do you agree or disagree with these statements? Explain.

[1] Dewey, *op. cit.*, pp. 239–240. By permission of D. C. Heath and Company, publishers.

6. This chapter has defended the thesis that the development of thinking should be the heart of teaching method. Do you agree with this view? Why or why not? Do you believe that the emphasis in teaching has been too much upon fact acquisition and too little on thinking? Explain. Discuss the relation between information and thinking. Is is possible for a person to think without information?

7. Discuss the importance of language and the necessity for all teachers to cooperate with the English teachers.

8. Discuss the importance of measuring learning as a test of teaching procedures. Can one teaching procedure be adjudged superior to another until such measurement has taken place? Explain.

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Chapter X

PUPIL GUIDANCE

In all modern schools, teachers and all other educational employees are expected to help with the pupil guidance and personnel program of the school. All educational employees are expected to help with the program in spite of the fact that in many of the larger schools special guidance and personnel functionaries, such as deans of boys and of girls, counselors, and visiting teachers, are employed. This chapter will give an overview of the responsibilities of the school and of each educational employee for pupil guidance, and will indicate the opportunities and the requirements in pupil guidance as a profession.

EVOLUTION OF THE GUIDANCE MOVEMENT

Although pupil guidance has, in the broad sense, always been an activity of the school, as an organized activity it is a product of the present century. As an organized activity, it dates back to 1908 when the Boston Vocation Bureau was established. The purpose of this bureau was to give assistance to men and women in selecting a vocation and in securing a position. The work of the bureau was so successful with adults that in 1910 the Boston School Committee ordered the appointment of a vocational counselor in every high school of Boston.

The good leaven of these beginnings soon spread to other communities, for in the period between 1910 and 1915 such cities as Chicago, Cincinnati, Grand Rapids, Hartford, New York, and Philadelphia provided for organized vocational-guidance work in the schools. In the succeeding years the movement spread rapidly, embracing practically every school system, especially those possessing secondary schools. In 1913, the National Vocational Guidance Association was

formed at a meeting in Grand Rapids, and in 1915 *The Vocational Guidance Magazine* was founded. These ventures gave the movement a decided impetus which has continued with constantly accelerating pace until the present time.

In the beginning, as has been inferred from the preceding paragraphs, the movement was limited to *vocational* guidance—to attempts at assisting the individual in choosing a vocation and in securing employment. Realization soon came, however, that the individual needs guidance in many other ways. It was seen that the vocational needs of the pupil are inextricably related to his school needs, his health needs, his leisure needs, his moral needs, and his numerous other needs. During recent years, therefore, other phases of guidance have come into prominence, and everywhere the tendency is to emphasize "whole-child" guidance rather than only one part of the child's needs. The development of an integrated, well-rounded, and wholesome personality for every pupil has become the aim of the school.

As was noted above, organized guidance began outside the schools; it began as a venture to give assistance to adults in selecting a vocation and in securing a position. As was noted, too, the movement soon found its way into the schools. In the schools the movement was started in the secondary schools, and it has secured by far its largest impetus there. Following its introduction into the secondary schools it was introduced into the colleges, then into the elementary schools. Since 1929—probably as a result of the large amount of unemployment and the life crises created by this unemployment—there has been a renewed interest in adult guidance. This renewed interest has been evidenced in such ways as the establishment of hundreds of local, state, and federal vocational bureaus and employment agencies, and by the large emphasis upon adult education.

MEANING, KINDS, AND FUNCTIONS OF GUIDANCE

Meaning of guidance. A survey of the literature on guidance and of the organized programs of guidance shows

FIG. 34. Student counseling in the Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, public high schools. Hundreds of the larger high schools of the United States now employ full-time counselors.

that there is a difference of opinion on what the field of guidance really is. A few authors have used the term as synonymous with education. Among the authors who have adopted this broad conception of guidance is one of the pioneers in the guidance movement, Professor John M. Brewer of Harvard University.[1]

Other authorities, on the other hand, have expressed the belief that such a broad concept as that held by Brewer is likely to "direct attention away from guidance proper and therefore endanger the performance of the guidance function." [2] While these other authorities have no quarrel with Brewer's affirmation that guidance is as broad as education, they believe that for practical reasons certain aspects of education, that is, of guidance, must be "singled out for special consideration and definite organization." The aspects which these other authorities say should be singled out are concerned generally with *crises* in the life of the individual. The view that guidance is concerned with life crises has been stated by Arthur J. Jones in the following words:

> . . . Guidance, as organized, is, then, concerned with crises, with times of choice, times when the ways diverge, with times of needed adjustment . . . it is clear that the help given may be direct or indirect, the one guided may be conscious of the help given or may be entirely unconscious of it. The guidance may be given at the time of a crisis or long before it occurs. Indeed, the best guidance is usually that given long before the need for choice arises. It consists in assisting the individual in the gradual *accumulation* of facts and experiences that will, when the time comes, enable him to decide wisely. Guidance is thus seen to be an essential and a fundamental aspect of education. It is inherent in all education but certain aspects of it are singled out for special consideration and definite organization.[3]

Careful inspection of the two views expressed above indicates that there is fundamental agreement on what guidance really is. When the smoke of battle over the two views has

[1] John M. Brewer, *Education as Guidance,* Macmillan, 1932, pp. 2–3.

[2] This view is taken, for example, by Koos and Kefauver in their *Guidance in Secondary Schools,* Macmillan, 1932, pp. 15–17.

[3] Arthur J. Jones, *Principles of Guidance,* McGraw-Hill, 1930, pp. 28–29. By permission of McGraw-Hill Book Company, publishers.

cleared, the combatants find that they have been contending for the same thing, namely, a well-rounded education for each individual; they have had a battle of words, not of ideas. If one examines the criteria which the various authorities say that guidance should meet, he finds large agreement. Running throughout all of the statements of criteria is a common vein, namely, that guidance and arbitrary compulsion are incompatible and guidance is best when it helps the individual pupil to secure the proper *information* on which he will make his own decisions; in other words, in all of the statements of criteria there is a consonance of the spirit of guidance and of democracy. Among the statements of the criteria of guidance, that by John M. Brewer breathes especially the spirit of democracy, and for that reason it is quoted herewith:

1. The person being guided is solving a problem, performing a task or moving toward some objective.
2. The person being guided usually takes the initiative and asks for guidance.
3. The guide has sympathy, friendliness, and understanding.
4. The guide is guide because of superior experience, knowledge, and wisdom.
5. The method of guidance is by way of offering opportunities for new experiences and enlightenment.
6. The person guided progressively consents to receive guidance, reserves the right to refuse the guidance offered, and makes his own decisions.
7. The guidance offered makes him better able to guide himself.[1]

Kinds of guidance. In its broadest sense, guidance is concerned with every phase of the life of the individual. Life is broad and largely unpredictable, and guidance must consider its whole sweep. Guidance must, therefore, be as broad as education. It must keep in mind that society is in a process of constant change and must prepare the individual to adjust himself to those changes; moreover, it must have a philosophy of what society should be, and must qualify the individual to help to fashion that ideal society.

Since life is a unit, the guidance of each individual should

[1] Brewer, *op. cit.*, p. 22. By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

be a *unitary* process. For practical purposes, however, and especially for closer study, we commonly recognize various aspects of life which need particular guidance; to differentiate these aspects will be helpful, provided we do not forget to integrate each aspect with all other aspects. Since, in its more limited sense, guidance is concerned with *crises* in the life of the individual, it will be helpful to indicate herewith some of the more important of those crises concerning which decisions must be made by the individual and concerning which guidance is needed:[1]

1. *School guidance.* This is sometimes called *educational guidance* and is concerned with such matters as the selection of schools, the choice of curricula, and the making of proper adjustments to the educational program.

2. *Vocational guidance.* This is concerned with giving assistance in choosing an occupation, in preparing for it, in securing a position in it, and in making progress in it.

3. *Leisure-time guidance.* This is concerned with giving the individual assistance in utilizing more worthily his leisure time. Because of the decrease in the number of working hours, this type of guidance is receiving more and more attention.

4. *Health guidance.* This is concerned with assisting the individual to develop and to maintain the best health, physical and mental, of which he is capable.

5. *Character guidance.* This is concerned with the development of ethical character and the moral sense. It develops knowledge of what is right and the will to do the right.

6. *Home-membership guidance.* This is concerned with the development of those qualities which make the individual an efficient member of his family.

7. *Civic guidance.* This is concerned with developing the individual to be an efficient factor in the government of the community, of the state, of the nation, and of the world.

Functions of guidance. In organizing and conducting a guidance program the following functions of guidance should be kept in mind by school officials and employees:

1. *Securing information.* This information must possess a wide scope; ideally, it should include every aspect of life. It should en-

[1] The reader will immediately notice the similarity between these crises and the "seven cardinal principles of education" listed on page 80 of this book.

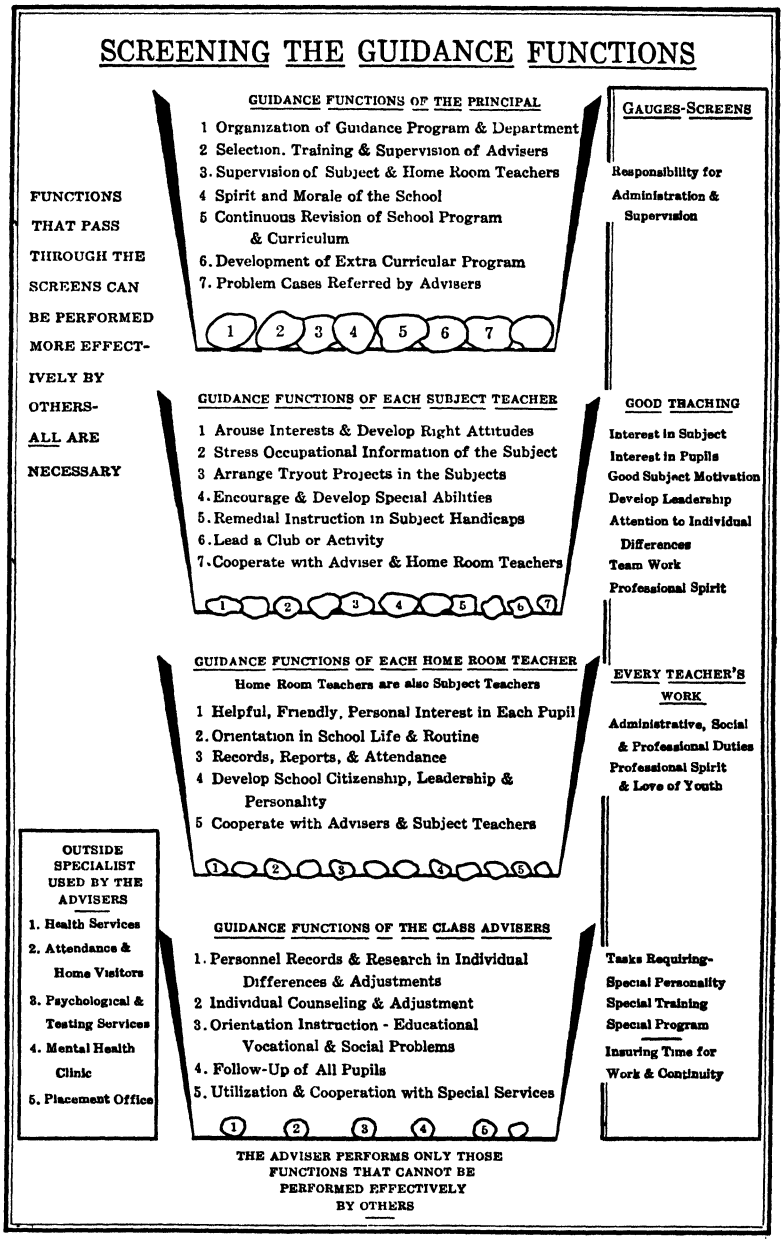

FIG. 35. Suggestive guidance functions of various school employees. (From R. D. Allen, *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. 3, p. 216.)

compass especially the chief life crises such as those mentioned under the heading of "kinds of guidance" in preceding paragraphs. Guidance which is not based on information is sheer quackery and is likely to be positively harmful to the pupil.

2. *Cooperating with other agencies.* The guidance program of the school must cooperate with the other interested and qualified agencies of the community. Among the more frequently found of these agencies are business and industrial organizations, labor organizations, other educational institutions, civic organizations, welfare organizations, parent-teacher associations, mothers' clubs, and churches.

3. *Placing and following up students.* The guidance program must help to place each student in the proper position, school, or curriculum. It may do this through organizing a placement service which will work in cooperation with employers and other schools.

4. *Counseling of students.* Such counseling may be given in part through group instruction in try-out courses or in life-career classes. It may be given also through individual counseling by means of home visits and a study of the needs of the individual student. All guidance must reach the individual student and meet his special needs; in other words, each student must be regarded as a case problem and must be treated individually.

A perusal of Fig. 35 will help the reader to secure a better view of some of the major guidance functions and of the school employees to which each function is usually assigned. Many schools, even the smaller ones, are performing these guidance functions without the assistance of a counselor (shown in Fig. 35 as "class adviser"). The tendency, however, especially among the larger secondary schools, is to supplement the regular employees of the school with a guidance specialist, usually known as *counselor;* in fact, many of the larger secondary schools employ several counselors. The counselor becomes a member of the faculty of the school and performs special functions which cannot reasonably be expected from the other members of the faculty. Regarding the general functions of the counselor and his relation to the remainder of the faculty, R. D. Allen says:

The class counselor, however, is not in any sense a narrow specialist; he is rather a generalist who takes the place of the principal in a large school for the purpose of getting a picture of the whole child

from the reports of the various subject specialists. The principal of a large school can no longer perform this service. Without some generalist to take his place, pupils will be abandoned to the one-sided guidance of subject specialists. Thus the counselor is more like the general practitioner in the field of medicine, while the special staff services are similar to the more highly specialized medical service.[1]

Regarding the more specific duties of the counselor, Allen says:

1. Personnel records and research in the study of individual differences and adjustments. This includes the use of tests of intelligence, achievement, aptitudes, and interest blanks. It also includes studies of pupil adjustments, failures, follow-up studies, and the curriculum; in fact, it includes all of the factors conditioning the success of pupils at school or at work.
2. Individual counseling and adjustments. Counseling and adjustment should include the referring of special cases to various staff services such as the placement office, health clinics, guidance clinics, and home visitors.
3. Group guidance or instruction designed to prepare pupils to meet more wisely the problems with which they are sure to be confronted. These include the study of educational and vocational opportunities, the study of their own abilities and interests, and the study of problems of personal and social relations. Such group guidance is an integral part of the general education of every child and should consequently be charged to instruction rather than to overhead.[2]

SCHOOL ORGANIZATION FOR GUIDANCE SERVICE

General policies of organization. Since the facilities and the problems of schools vary widely, it is impossible to suggest a guidance organization which will meet the needs of every school; there can be no such thing as an ideal guidance organization for every school. All that shall be attempted here, therefore, is to describe a few typical organizations now in use, and to suggest certain principles which school officials and employees should keep in mind in forming an organization for a given school.

In planning a guidance organization it should be recog-

[1] R. D. Allen, *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. 3 (June, 1933), p. 217.
[2] *Ibid.*, p. 215.

nized that guidance is an integral part of every activity of the school and that every educational employee has a part to play in the guidance program. In order that there may be the proper coordination of effort, and that none of the guidance functions will be neglected, it is necessary that the program be definitely organized. In planning the organization it is worth repeating that guidance should be regarded as a *unitary* process in which every part of child life shall be guided and integrated.

Organization for a small school. Because of the lack of resources, and the relative simplicity of the guidance problem, the guidance organization for the small school will necessarily be relatively simple. Except in unusual cases, the small school will have to get along without the aid of a guidance specialist. Fig. 36 shows a suggestive organization for a small school system having the 8–4 plan of grading.

As shown in Fig. 36, the superintendent of schools is looked upon as the director of the guidance activities of the school. He will appoint from among the faculty a guidance committee to have general direction and supervision of the guidance program. The members of this committee should work with the teachers of the school in "selling the guidance idea" and in coordinating all of the guidance activities.

Fig. 36 further suggests advisers for the various grades. One adviser is suggested for grades one to six; another, for grades seven and eight; and other advisers, for each of the four grades of the secondary school. The suggested organization also makes provision for using community agencies in the guidance program. In brief, through such an organization all of the four guidance functions mentioned in previous paragraphs could be performed.

Such an organization as is here suggested for a small school system with the 8–4 plan of grading could be readily adapted to a small school system with a 6–6 plan, a 6–3–3 plan, or another plan or grading. For samples of adaptations to other plans of grading the reader may consult the

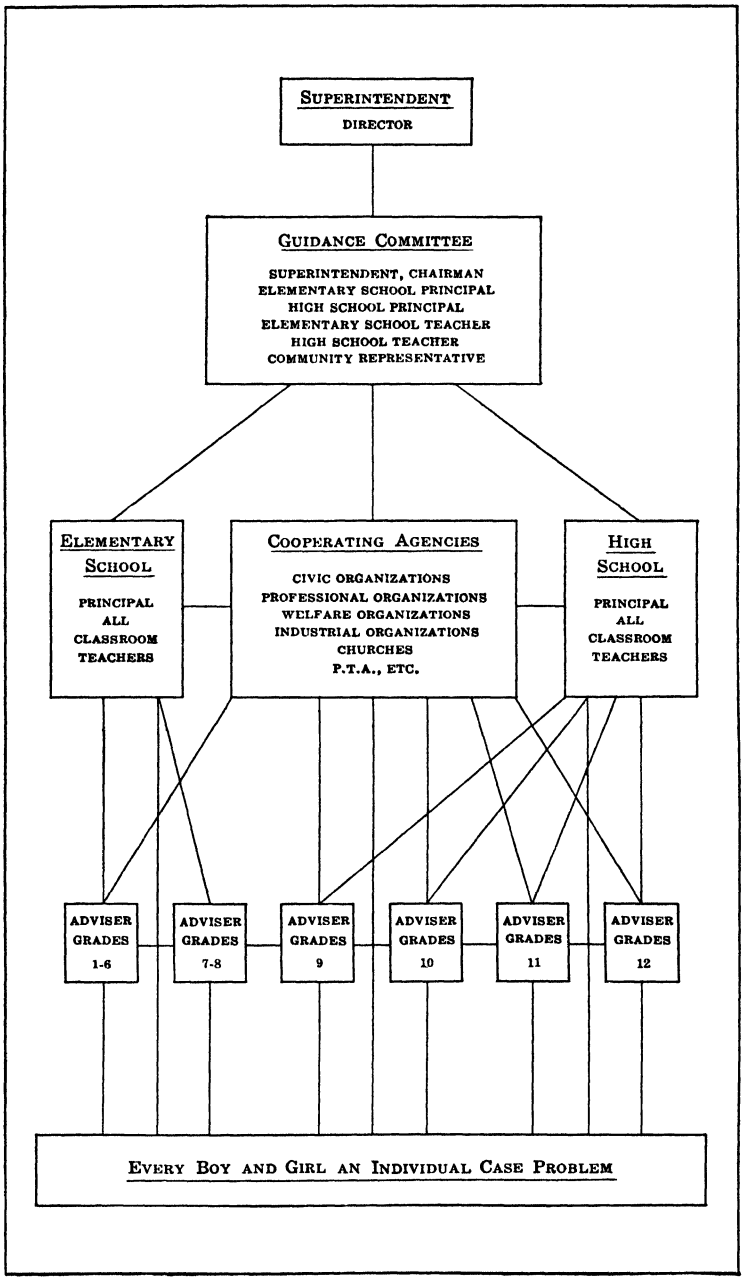

FIG. 36. Suggested guidance organization for the small 8–4 school system. (From D. H. Eikenberry, *An Introduction to Guidance*, p. 68.)

organization charts in certain of the references[1] in the list of Selected References at the close of this chapter.

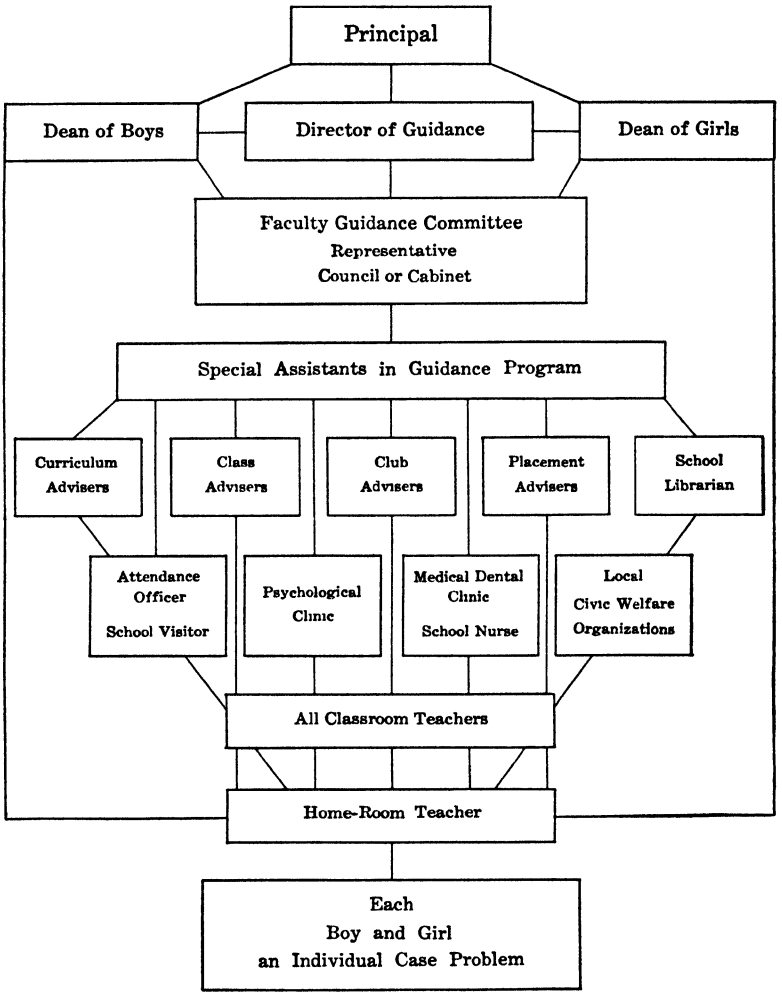

FIG. 37. Suggested guidance organization for a large secondary school. (From *Guidance in Secondary Schools*, Bulletin of the Department of Secondary School Principals, p. 8.)

Organization for a large school. Because of the larger number of employees, a larger educational offering, and better facilities generally, the guidance organization for a large

[1] See especially the books by D. H. Eikenberry, by Leonard V. Koos and Grayson K. Kefauver, and by Arthur J. Jones.

school will necessarily be more complicated than that for a small school. Although the guidance functions to be performed by the large school will be essentially the same as those to be performed by the small school, the large school will usually have many more guidance functionaries to help with the program. Incidentally, the larger school will often be able to employ special functionaries, such as counselors, deans of girls, deans of boys, and personnel directors, which the small schools cannot employ. Fig. 37 shows a type of guidance organization which could be adapted to the large school. This particular organization has been proposed by the Committee on Guidance of the National Association of Secondary School Principals.

OPPORTUNITIES AND REQUIREMENTS IN GUIDANCE SERVICE

Evolution of guidance service. Whereas in the early days of the guidance movement organized guidance was provided for only the problem pupils, that is, those who failed, left school, or were handicapped in some way, the ideal today is to provide organized guidance service for *every* pupil. In trying to realize this ideal, guidance service has passed through several stages. These stages have been described by Allen in the following words:

> At first the principal attempted to do all of the guidance work; in the larger schools, this necessarily involved only problem pupils. As schools grew in size the principal called upon the assistant principal, dean, or counselor for assistance. Such guidance, however, was only incidental to administration and dealt only with problem pupils. Next, the principal delegated the guidance functions to home-room teachers; he gave whatever supervision and assistance he was able to provide. This was clearly an attempt to provide guidance for *all children* and constituted an important step in the right direction. It implied, however, that the guidance offered must necessarily be restricted to what unselected and untrained workers could do; this was just the kind that every good teacher has always done and should do as a part of her administrative and instructional duties.
>
> Because every teacher could not reasonably be expected to advise with young people concerning educational and occupational opportunities beyond school, special counselors, attached to a central place-

ment service, have been appointed in many cities and assigned, full-time or part-time, to the various secondary schools. This type of staff service was provided to supplement organized guidance within the school, *but not intended to replace* such services. At best, these counselors were available only for the exit interviews with graduates or drop-outs.[1]

Opportunities in guidance work. As the need for organized guidance has come to be realized, the need for school employees who were qualified to perform the guidance functions has also come to be realized. So widespread is the interest in organized guidance that it may be said that educational employees who have special preparation and other qualifications for doing guidance work have a better chance to secure positions than employees without those special qualifications. In addition to the school principal and the classroom teacher, who possess better employment opportunities if they are qualified to assist in a guidance program, several other types of educational positions in the area of guidance have recently been created which provide excellent opportunities for employment. Among the more frequent of these positions are those of dean of girls, dean of boys, pupil personnel director, pupil counselor, and visiting teacher.

During recent years more and more schools, especially the larger secondary schools, have created guidance positions, and persons with the proper qualifications have not had much difficulty in securing appointment to these positions. The demand has been especially strong for pupil counselors. Through the organization of *Victory Corps* programs in thousands of high schools during World War II this demand has increased by leaps and bounds.

It should be stated, however, that guidance positions are infrequently available to anyone who has not had teaching experience. The entrance to a guidance position is usually through a regular teaching position in a school. For example, the teacher of social sciences, of English, of industrial arts, of business education, or of another subject sees the need for guidance services and secures permission from

[1] Allen, *op. cit.*, pp. 214–215.

the principal to start the work; he makes the program successful, and gradually he is released from his regular teaching duties to become a part-time or full-time guidance functionary with the title of counselor, adviser, personnel director, or such.

Requirements in guidance work. As is true in every other endeavor, the efficiency of a guidance program cannot rise higher than the efficiency of the persons who organize and conduct the program. Since all educational employees, from the superintendent of schools to the classroom teacher, have responsibilities for the guidance program, all educational employees should have a vision of the functions of guidance, of its importance, and of the methods of conducting it.

Realizing the need for special preparation in guidance, many institutions for the preparation of teachers, especially of secondary-school teachers, have introduced guidance courses. The most frequent of such courses is a general course which is designed to serve as an introduction to the field of guidance; it is usually offered under such a title as "An Introduction to Guidance," "Principles of Guidance," "Fundamentals of Guidance," "Guidance in the Schools," or "Guidance." Such a course has been found to be useful to classroom teachers, principals, and superintendents as well as counselors and other specialists in guidance.

In addition to the general course in guidance, several of the larger institutions for the preparation of teachers have introduced many specialized courses for the preparation of guidance specialists in school and in industry. Among the more frequent of such courses are the following: "Counseling," "Occupations," "Tests and Measurements," "Pupil Personnel," and "Dean of Boys and Girls." Other courses which are occasionally offered, and which have considerable bearing on guidance are the following: "The Visiting Teacher," "Social Case Work," and "Methods of Interviewing." Many of the most valuable courses may be found in fields other than that of guidance; among the college departments which frequently offer helpful courses for the guidance specialists are those of sociology, psychology, commerce, and industrial arts.

During recent years several states have introduced certification requirements for various types of guidance specialists. Thus, the teacher who has charge of the course in guidance or in occupations is usually required to have a teaching certificate in the field. Likewise a certificate is being more and more required of the guidance counselor, even though he may not have the responsibility of teaching a class.

Since the counselor is the most frequently found of the guidance functionaries, special mention should be made of the qualifications needed by him. Although his qualifications are usually stated in academic terms, that is, in courses, semester hours, etc., it would seem better to state the qualifications in terms of *what the counselor can do.* Such a plan of ascertaining qualifications is proposed by R. D. Allen. Allen recommends that the qualifications of each candidate for a counselor's position be passed through the following five screens: (1) subject teaching, (2) pupil-teacher relationships, (3) teacher-teacher relationships, (4) records and research, and (5) professional attitude. Persons who successfully pass through all five screens would be eligible for appointment as counselors. A pictorial presentation of Allen's screen test is shown in Fig. 38.

There are several other well-known statements of the qualifications which counselors should possess. We shall quote two of these statements in order that the reader may note similarity and dissimilarity in the qualifications proposed. The first statement, as follows, is by George E. Myers:

> It is well to remind ourselves, however, that among the qualifications, aside from special training, which those who select counselors often emphasize are: (1) a personality which attracts and gets on well with adolescents; (2) sufficient maturity to command the respect of pupils and fellow teachers; (3) at least as good a general education as is possessed by the average high-school teacher, usually represented by graduation from a college of good standing; (4) successful experience as a teacher; and (5) preferably, some business or industrial experience.[1]

[1] George E. Myers, "A Training Program for Counselors," *Vocational Guidance Magazine,* Vol. 5 (April, 1927), p. 315.

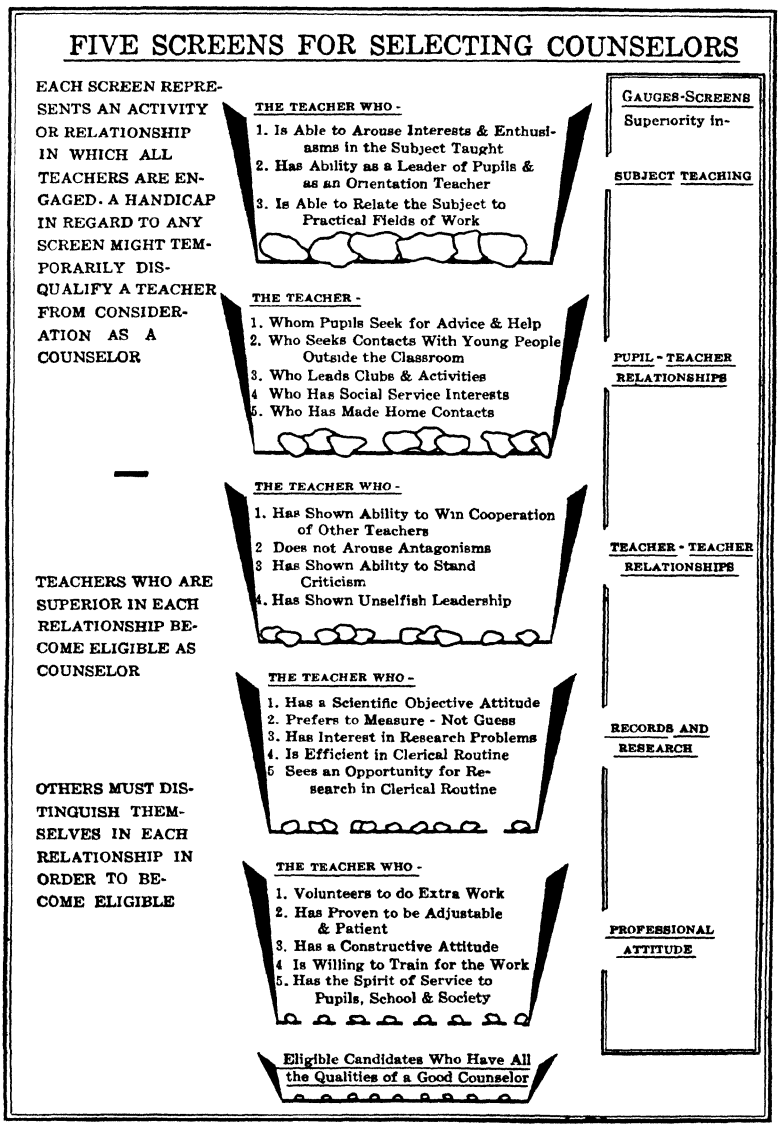

FIG. 38. Suggestive qualifications for counselors. (From R. D. Allen, *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. 3, p. 221.)

The second statement of qualification is by the committee on Guidance of the Department of Secondary School Principals. The statement follows:

. . . The duties of each counselor demand a high standard in personality, in vision, and in training. The mistake is often made of assuming that men and women with many years of successful teaching experience will necessarily make the most successful counselors. Although teaching experience is an asset to a counselor, it is obvious that successful teaching experience alone will not suffice. . . . In any case, the counselor should have a broad, comprehensive knowledge of occupational possibilities and requirements through first-hand contacts. The diagnoses and recommendations must be based upon accurate knowledge, both of the individual whose case is under consideration and of the conditions affecting the individual's decision.[1]

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What wrong decisions have you made, or talents have you wasted, which better guidance would have enabled you to avoid? Cite examples of how guidance has helped you.

2. Make a list of common crises in the lives of boys and girls, which a program of guidance could help them to meet.

3. Compare the need for pupil guidance today with the need several decades ago. What factors have caused the changes?

4. To what extent does the view of "education as guidance" magnify the importance of the teacher? Show that the excellent teacher is a "guide."

5. Do you believe that the best guidance which can be given is to place the individual in contact with all pertinent information on his problem or problems, then to insist that he make his own decisions? Explain. Can young children be trusted to make their own decisions?

6. When, if ever, should compulsory guidance be used? Explain. Would the use of compulsory guidance be contrary to the spirit of democracy? Why or why not?

7. Discuss the relative importance of guidance on each of the following school levels: the elementary school, the junior high school, the senior high school, the college, and the university. What kinds of guidance should be emphasized on each of these school levels?

8. Discuss the dependence of vocational guidance upon the other kinds of guidance. What is meant by saying that guidance should be a *unitary* process?

9. Do you believe that the schools are now doing enough toward placing and following up their graduates? Why? How long should

[1] *Guidance in Secondary Schools, Bulletin* of the Department of Secondary School Principals, No. 19 (January, 1928), p. 49.

vocational guidance follow the worker? How long should other types of guidance follow him?

10. In what ways, if any, does counseling differ from teaching?

11. Do you believe that the typical teacher is too much addicted to "giving advice" to make a good counselor? Explain.

12. What are the dangers of placing all counseling in the hands of special counselors?

13. What requirements, if any, for the certification of pupil guidance specialists does your state have?

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This magazine is devoted largely to a discussion of the problems of guidance.

"One Hundred Books: A Library on Occupational Adjustment," *Occupations,* Vol. 13 (February, 1935), pp. 417–421.

The list is annotated and covers a wide scope.

Chapter XI

PUPIL CLASSIFICATION AND PROGRESS

INDIVIDUAL VERSUS GROUP INSTRUCTION

Importance of proper classification and progress. Chapter VII pointed out that in their interests, abilities, accomplishments, and needs, pupils differ widely. Even in what is usually considered to be a well-grouped class in any subject, large differences will be found. In an arithmetic class, for example, some pupils will be found who add, subtract, multiply, divide, or perform other operations several times as quickly, many times as accurately, or both, as the average pupils of the class or the slowest pupils of the class.

These differences among pupils are coming to be recognized more and more by educational employees and the general public, and attempts are being made everywhere to meet them. In fact, no recent movement in education has been more prominent than the attempt to break up the traditional lock step in the school and to meet, as far as possible, the interests, abilities, and needs of the individual pupil. The modern school is trying to adjust itself to the pupil rather than trying to require the pupil to adjust himself to it. Any failure of the school to make needed adjustments to individual differences is likely to result in dire consequences to the individual and to society.

Although most schools should go much farther in adjusting themselves to the interests of their pupils, they could, of course, go too far in making these adjustments. The interests of a pupil should not be worshipped to the extent of promoting a lopsided development in him. For the welfare of the pupil and of society the school often has the obligation of trying to make the pupil more like his fellows, and to do this it will occasionally be called upon

to stifle interests. Many interests are worthless, some are even vicious, and all such should be eliminated.

In attempting to meet the varying interests and abilities of pupils and to enable each pupil to progress at the rate which his ability dictates, numerous teaching procedures and types of pupil classification and promotion have been used by the schools. Dozens of those procedures and plans are in extensive use today, and all of them have as their fundamental objective the meeting of the needs of the individual pupil as far as possible. Most of the earlier procedures and plans were designed primarily to help the duller pupils, and practically all of them neglected the brighter pupils. During recent years, however, special provision has been made for the brighter pupils as well as the duller.

To neglect to meet the needs of any group would be unfortunate, but to neglect to meet the needs of the brighter pupils would be particularly unfortunate because society must look to those pupils for the greatest contributions. A large percentage of the slower pupils will make little or no contribution to society, but the brighter pupils will provide society with its distinguished statesmen, its eminent artists, its great educators, its famous inventors, and its leaders in other activities of life.

Evolution of group instruction. The earliest schools used *individual* instruction, not *group* instruction. Although the pupils of the early schools were generally classified into groups according to their ability, especially ability in reading, each pupil recited individually and was given an individual assignment. This method of instruction had been copied from the home, where with meager equipment each child was taught as an individual. Samuel Chester Parker says of this early method of individual instruction:

> They [the pupils] were generally roughly classified into three groups according to their reading ability, but each pupil in a group was taught in the same way as if he had been alone. In the lowest class were those who were just learning their letters and syllables and could puzzle out a few words by spelling them; in the second class, those who could read somewhat without spelling the words, using the primer; and in the highest class, the more expert who read

in the Bible. Very little of the teacher's activity was actual instruction; it was simply hearing recitations. Giving of information by the teacher or inductive discussions with groups of children were almost unheard of.[1]

The practice just described continued until the end of the eighteenth century. About the latter date the giving of instruction to a whole class of children, that is, group instruction, came into vogue and has been since used. Al-

FIG. 39. Old-time method of individual instruction. The bunch of switches on the table indicates that the old-time schools did not "spare the rod." (From Samuel Chester Parker, *A Textbook in the History of Modern Elementary Education*, p. 101.)

though Comenius in his work entitled the *Great Didactic* (published in Latin in 1657) had recommended the substitution of group instruction for individual instruction, Jean Baptiste de La Salle, a French nobleman, must receive especial credit for the introduction of group instruction on a large scale. La Salle accomplished his work primarily through an organization known as the Brethren of the Christian Schools, which was an association of Catholic

[1] Samuel Chester Parker, *A Textbook in the History of Modern Elementary Education,* Ginn, 1912, p. 90. By permission of Ginn and Company, publishers.

laymen organized by him in 1684 to instruct poor children in elementary schools.[1]

Both types of instruction—group and individual—have always had their proponents, and these proponents have caused the pendulum of practice to swing from one direction to another. The pendulum is now swinging back toward individual instruction as a means of breaking up the lock step which came with group instruction. Just where school practice should try to bring the pendulum to rest between the two extremes is still a controversial question. Most educators agree, however, that instruction should be partly group and partly individual. The usual advantages claimed for each plan of instruction have been summarized by Clapp, Chase, and Merriman in the following words:

A. Advantages of Individual Instruction
   1. It permits the slow child to go at his own rate and thus gets better and more thorough results
   2. It prevents the child from overestimating his progress
   3. It concentrates the attention upon the work of individuals rather than upon the average work of the class
   4. It allows the more gifted to go ahead and use his extra power upon the work of his own choice. It thus prevents him from falling into habits of idleness
   5. It permits the teacher to catch little glimpses of the child's interests and possible vocational tendencies
   6. It gives the teacher an opportunity to develop diagnostic skill in ascertaining just how a child's mind works as it finds its way through a problem.

B. Advantages of Group Instruction
   1. It makes better provision for the social aspects of education, because there is opportunity for cooperation, speech, social and political participation
   2. It assists in motivation, because it appeals to the desire for the good opinion of others, and to the interest in group-discovered problems
   3. It is economical, because it saves duplicate preparation and explanation
   4. It permits the slow learner to get something from the more rapid learner
   5. It also enables the fast learner to learn his material better through the experience of explaining it to the slower pupil

[1] J. W. Adamson, *Pioneers of Modern Education, 1600–1700*, Cambridge University Press, 1905, Ch. XII.

6. It reduces the amount of preparation that the teacher must make for her daily work and simplifies the problem of management and discipline.[1]

NEW PLANS FOR PUPIL CLASSIFICATION AND PROGRESS

Some of the new plans of attempting to meet the needs of the individual pupil involve administrative adjustments, such as breaking up the traditional class organization to permit individual work. Other plans are based upon changes in teaching procedures, such as differentiated assignments. In a nation-wide survey of plans used in the secondary schools to meet individual differences, Roy O. Billett found that all such plans now in use "may be classified under seven categories, namely, (1) homogeneous grouping, (2) special classes, (3) plans characterized by the unit assignment, (4) scientific study of problem cases, (5) variation in pupil load, (6) out-of-school projects and studies, and (7) advisory or guidance programs." [2] Although Billett's survey did not include the elementary school, observation indicates that most, if not all, plans of the elementary school could be classified also under the seven categories just named.

Since, according to Billett, the first three plans, that is, *homogeneous grouping, special classes,* and the *unit assignment,* are used most frequently and "have been found to be core elements in a typically successful program to provide for individual differences," [3] those three plans will be emphasized in the discussion which follows. Billett characterized these plans as "a kind of trinity, a sort of three-in-one answer of the nation's outstanding schools to the problem of providing for individual differences." [4] He says further that the plans should be regarded as complementary rather than alternative procedures.

Before describing a few of the most widely used of these new plans for the classification and promotion of pupils,

[1] Clapp, Chase, and Merriman, *Introduction to Education,* Ginn, 1929, pp. 466–467. By permission of Ginn and Company, publishers.

[2] Roy O. Billett, in *National Survey of Secondary Education,* Vol. 13, p. 415.

[3] *Ibid.,* p. 11.

[4] *Ibid.*

attention will be directed to the criteria which such a plan should meet. At least the following criteria should be kept in mind:

1. As far as possible, the plan should meet the needs of all pupils from the highest to the lowest level of intelligence found in the school. It should adapt the teaching procedures and the curriculum to each pupil, and should, as far as possible, enable him to progress at his own rate and to be promoted when he is ready for promotion.
2. The plan should be financially practicable. It must meet that criterion because the public has only a limited amount of money which can be spent for education, and this amount must be spent to meet the needs of the largest number of pupils possible. Although educators might decide that it would be ideal to have a teacher for each pupil instead of giving twenty-five, thirty, or another large number of pupils to each teacher, a pupil-teacher ratio of 1 to 1 would be utterly unattainable because of the large expense which such a ratio would entail.
3. The plan should be administratively and pedagogically feasible. It should not require an undue amount of machinery for its operation. It should not be a "teacher killer."

Homogeneous grouping. The practice of grouping pupils for instructional purpose is almost as old as the school, and usually the basis for grouping has been either pupil ability or pupil accomplishment. The tendency has always been toward more refined methods of classifying pupils for instructional purposes, that is, toward greater homogeneity of grouping. Of course, complete homogeneity would be impossible to attain because of the wide differences which exist even between two pupils; the only really homogeneous group would consist of but one pupil. In the strict sense of the term, therefore, homogeneous grouping can only mean reduced heterogeneous grouping.

Contrary to common belief, *homogeneous* grouping and *ability* grouping are not synonymous because homogeneous grouping may be effected on many other bases than ability. Schools are using one or more of the following criteria or bases to group pupils homogeneously:

1. Mental age
2. Intelligence quotient or intelligence percentile
3. Average scholarship marks in all subjects combined

4. Average scholarship marks in one subject or in several related subjects
5. Score on an achievement test
6. Achievement quotient
7. Teacher's rating of pupil's ability
8. Average of several teachers' ratings of pupil's ability
9. Score on a prognostic test
10. Health and physical maturity
11. Social maturity
12. Effort
13. Vocational interest

Experimentation has not yet determined what basis or combination of bases is the most satisfactory for the grouping of pupils. There is a general belief, though, that a combination of bases is better than one basis, and that the bases used in the combination should be determined by varying conditions such as the age of the pupil, the grade, and the school subject.

Although the tendency is toward more homogeneous grouping of pupils, there is much difference of opinion over the merit of the tendency. The majority opinion, however, especially among school officials and employees, favors homogeneous grouping;[1] moreover, the experimental evidence seems to favor it. Paul T. Rankin affirms that the evidence on the efficacy of homogeneous grouping indicates greatest relative effectiveness for dull children, next greatest for average children, and least (frequently harmful) for bright children.[2]

The chief criticism which is made of homogeneous grouping is that it is undemocratic to recognize and to provide for individual differences through such grouping. Many persons claim that to recognize and to provide for these differences will give the bright pupils superiority complexes, will give the dull pupils inferiority complexes, and will beget social cleavages in a democratic society. In answer to this criticism, the proponents of homogeneous grouping affirm

[1] Walter H. Sauvain, *A Study of the Opinions of Certain Professional and Non-Professional Groups Regarding Homogeneous or Ability Grouping,* Columbia University, 1934.

[2] Paul T. Rankin, "Pupil Classification and Grouping," *Review of Educational Research,* Vol. 1 (June, 1931), pp. 200–230.

that the plan *is* democratic because it attempts to meet the needs, interests, and abilities of the individual pupil; any other practice, they claim, would not be democratic.

Homogeneous grouping can, of course, be more readily used in schools which have enough pupils in each subject or grade to organize two or more sections. The organization of more than one section for a grade or a subject in a small school, say of fifteen or twenty pupils only in the grade or subject, would usually be impossible because of the large expense of maintaining small classes. If a school has enough pupils in a grade or subject to organize two or more sections, homogeneous grouping may be readily effected. Thus, if thirty pupils were the average size of the class, sixty pupils in a grade or subject would permit the organization of two sections. Of course, the number of sections which could be feasibly organized would be determined by the total number of pupils in a grade or a subject.

In grouping pupils on a homogeneous basis most schools have limited the number of groups to three—bright, average, and dull. A few of the larger schools, however, have organized as many as ten groups. A certain school comes to mind, for example, which has 300 pupils enrolled in ninth-grade English; these 300 pupils are instructed in ten groups of approximately thirty pupils each. In determining the group into which each pupil shall be placed the school gives standardized English tests to the pupils. The thirty pupils who make the best scores on these tests are placed in section one; the thirty pupils who make the next best scores are placed in section two; and on a similar basis the pupils for the remaining eight sections are grouped. This school classifies its pupils on the basis of special abilities and accomplishments in the various school subjects; it uses subject-matter tests to ascertain those accomplishments and abilities in each school subject.

Although the school in which he is teaching may not be able or may not be inclined to practice homogeneous grouping as described above, the teacher can do his own grouping. In fact, he could regroup his pupils on a more homogeneous basis even though they had been sent to him on an

approximately homogeneous basis. Although he may have received the thirty brightest pupils in any grade or subject, they will have varying abilities and for instructional purposes they might be divided into two or three groups. Many teachers have thus grouped or regrouped their pupils, and all of them report excellent results for the pupils. They admit that to have two or three groups instead of one group results in more work for the teacher, but they insist that the benefits to the pupils clearly outweigh the extra time and energy required of the teacher.

Differentiation of teaching procedures for groups of varying abilities has occurred more frequently than differentiation of subject matter for those groups. Both types of differentiation should be practiced if the needs of the pupils are to be met. On the curriculum side this will mean variations in kind and amount of subject matter to meet the needs of each group; better still, it will mean meeting in every feasible manner the subject-matter needs of each pupil in the group.

Special classes. Many schools and school systems, especially the larger ones, have organized special classes into which exceptional or atypical pupils are placed. Three large groups of exceptional or atypical children are recognized; those groups are (1) the *mentally exceptional* (bright and dull), (2) the *physically handicapped* (defective in sight, hearing or speech, crippled, tuberculous, etc.), and (3) the *socially handicapped* (truants, delinquents, etc.).

Since such classes are more expensive than classes for normal pupils, many states give special financial aid to school systems that provide the classes. For such classes, teachers of special preparation are required, and persons who desire to secure that preparation will usually find opportunities for employment at salaries above the average.

The largest number of special classes has been organized for the mentally exceptional pupils. As a rule, the classes have been organized for the duller pupils only, but a few schools and school systems have organized them for the brighter pupils. In such classes pupils of various grades are found, and a large amount of individual teaching is given.

Pupils who have failed, or are in danger of failing, are sent to these classes with the hope that individual instruction will enable them to return to their regular classes within a short time. In the case of the brighter pupils the hope is that individual attention will make it possible to promote them to the next grade as soon as possible, or that they will be given work which is better suited to their interests and abilities.

As with most of the newer plans of pupil classification and promotion which are in use today, so with special classes better qualified teachers are necessary than in schools which use traditional plans of pupil classification and promotion. In special classes the teacher may have pupils enrolled in each of the grades from the first to the eighth; moreover, he will be responsible for teaching all of the subjects in these grades. The teacher of such a class frequently has almost the replica of the one-teacher school in which one teacher must instruct pupils in all grades and all subjects; in fact, the teacher of the special class has an even more difficult task than the teacher in the one-room rural school because all his pupils are atypical and each presents an unusual problem.

Unit-assignment plans. There are several widely used teaching plans, procedures, or techniques which have as their chief characteristic the use of the unit assignment. These plans, procedures, or techniques are known variously as the project method, problem method, individualized instruction, contract plan, laboratory plan, differentiated assignments, Winnetka plan, Dalton plan, and Morrison plan.

The earliest of these terms was the *project method* which was first applied to agricultural teaching. It was next applied to home economics and industrial arts, and in many cases, attempts have been made to make it include all phases of the curriculum. Many educational employees believe that the term *project method* lacks comprehensiveness, and they recommend the use of the term *unit* because of its comprehensiveness.

Since the terms *unit* and *unit assignment* are so frequently used in pedagogical literature to express a variety of mean-

ings it seems worth while to define them before proceeding with the discussion. Billett's definitions, as follows, will be accepted:

> The unit is regarded in this study as a concept, attitude, appreciation, knowledge, or skill to be acquired by the pupil, which, if acquired, will produce a desirable modification of his thinking or other forms of his behavior. The unit assignment consists of those activities and experiences planned by the teacher to enable the pupil to master the unit.[1]

A brief discussion of three of the most widely used of the unit plans, namely, the Winnetka plan, the Dalton plan, and the Morrison plan will have to suffice. Each of these plans may be adapted to schools and classes of any size and of any type, although in present practice the plans are more widely used in the large schools.

I. THE WINNETKA PLAN

The Winnetka plan takes its name from the fact that it was first used, and is still most extensively used, in the schools of Winnetka, Illinois. It is essentially a plan for individualizing instruction, a practice which was used as early as 1888 in the schools of Pueblo, Colorado, under the direction of Superintendent Preston Search. Individualized instruction was also used in the San Francisco State Normal College as early as 1913. Carleton W. Washburne, who as superintendent of schools instituted this plan in the schools of Winnetka, was at one time a member of the faculty of the San Francisco State Normal College, and no doubt received many of his ideas from that experience.

In Winnetka, the reorganization of the curriculum as the first step in individualizing instruction is stressed. The curriculum there is divided into two parts. The first part is known as the *common essentials,* and consists of knowledges and skills which have been definitely outlined and which are needed by all pupils. The second part is known as *group activities,* which are designated by various terms, such as *socialized, self-expressive,* or *creative* activities.

[1] Billett, *loc. cit.*

The pupil's work on the common essentials is completely individualized. This work is divided into units. Accompanying each unit are carefully prepared assignment sheets, work sheets, diagnostic practice tests, and final tests. Each pupil works at his own rate on each unit. When he has finished a unit, he compares his results with the appropriate answer sheet. If he finds that he has passed the unit, he proceeds to the next unit; if he discovers that he has failed, he goes over his work to correct his deficiencies. When he has completed a group of units, he requests his teacher to give him a mastery or a final test on that group of units. If he passes this test, he proceeds to the next group of units; if he fails, he does further work and then requests a retest. The pupil must secure a perfect score, that is, 100 per cent on every test, before he can advance to the next unit; a score of 99 per cent will not suffice.

The group activities occupy a portion of the pupil's time each day. Marks are not given for these activities. The following quotation from Washburne gives the nature of these activities:

> These group and creative activities are frequently centered around the children's work in social science or literature. They also include, however, appreciation of music, art, and literature, self-governing assemblies, playground activities, shopwork, the writing, editing, illustrating, and printing of a self-supporting school newspaper, and a wide variety of other means for stimulating creative work on the part of the child and for developing in him a social consciousness.[1]

2. THE DALTON PLAN

The Dalton plan takes its name from the city of its origin, namely, Dalton, Massachusetts. Its author and chief exponent is Miss Helen Parkhurst. According to Miss Parkhurst, the plan is based on three fundamental principles, namely, (1) freedom, (2) cooperation, and (3) budgeting of time.[2]

[1] Carleton W. Washburne, "Winnetka," *School and Society*, Vol. 29 (January 12, 1929), p. 34.

[2] Helen Parkhurst, *Education on the Dalton Plan*, Dutton, 1922, pp. 19, 24.

In this type of school the work is designated as a "job," and for each twenty-day period a job is outlined. The outlines of the various jobs are made either by the pupil or by the teacher, or by both. Each job is made up of several related phases of work. Pupils sign "contracts" to complete the jobs, and each pupil works at his own rate. Unlike the Winnetka plan, the Dalton plan requires the pupil to finish all jobs in all subjects of his grade before he can proceed in any subject of the next grade. Each pupil budgets his time to suit himself, and each has a job card or contract graph on which he records his progress each day for each subject. His progress is also recorded each day for each subject on the teacher's laboratory graph.

The program for the morning session is so organized that there are two short periods and one long period. The first is known as *organization time* and comprises about fifteen minutes; during this period the pupils of each "house" (homeroom) meet with the "house teacher" and plan their work for the day. The next period is known as the *laboratory period* which usually comprises from two to three hours; during this period the pupils work out their problems and are permitted to go freely from one subject-matter laboratory to another according to their needs and interests. Finally, there is a *conference period* which usually lasts from thirty to forty minutes; during this period the pupils of each grade assemble and, as a group, discuss their "jobs." The afternoon session is usually devoted to such activities as music, art, physical education, and industrial and household arts.

3. THE MORRISON PLAN

The Morrison plan takes its name from its originator, Professor H. C. Morrison of the University of Chicago. Like the Winnetka and the Dalton plans, the Morrison plan stresses the unit assignment. Unlike the Winnetka and Dalton plans, it does not feature changes in the school organization; rather it features changes in the teaching procedure.

The first step in Morrison's procedure is to establish learning units. Morrison defines a *unit* as "a comprehensive and significant aspect of the environment, of an organized science, of an art, or of conduct, which being learned results in an adaptation in personality." [1] The next step, which is the essence of the Morrison plan, may be summarized in the mastery formula, as follows: "Pre-test, teach, test the results, adapt procedure, teach and test again to the point of actual learning." [2]

Since this plan is built around group instruction rather than individual instruction, provisions for individual differences must be made through such means as special coaching for the duller pupils and supplementary work for the brighter pupils. Most of the Morrison plan can be adopted by any teacher, in any grade, or in any subject. The plan is really very simple, and it is not a "teacher killer."

More frequent promotions. In the early schools, promotions were made only annually. It was found, however, that annual promotions frequently handicapped the pupil by not permitting him to advance at his own rate. In practically all of the larger schools, therefore, promotions are now made two, three, four, or more times annually.

A shorter promotion interval assists the pupil who fails a subject or grade, because failure is often the result of not taking an examination, of missing school for a few days or a few weeks, or of not doing the work of a small portion of the year. Under annual promotions a failed pupil is required to repeat the work of the whole year, even though practically all of the work has been successfully completed. Under more frequent promotions, on the other hand, the pupil is required to repeat only six weeks, the quarter, or the semester in which his deficiency is found. Small schools find it difficult to vary from annual promotions because of their inability to organize classes for more than one section in a grade or subject; in such schools, therefore, annual promotions are still the rule.

[1] H. C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School,* University of Chicago Press, rev. ed., 1931, pp. 24–25.

[2] *Ibid.,* p. 81.

Double and special promotions. In order that the needs of the especially bright pupils may be more readily met, many schools permit such pupils to skip the work of a certain section or grade. For example, if a pupil is unusually proficient in the work of the fifth grade, he is permitted to skip the sixth grade; that is, he is promoted at the end of the fifth grade to the seventh grade. Most schools which permit double promotions require evidence, of course, that the pupil is competent in the subject matter of the grade or subject which is skipped.

Other schools do not wait until the close of the semester, the school year, or other promotion period to promote the especially competent pupils. They promote such pupils as soon as the pupils are qualified to do the work of the next grade. For example, if after a few days of school a pupil shows that the work of the present grade is too easy for him, he is promoted immediately to the next grade. In such instances, though, as in double promotions, most schools require evidence that the specially promoted pupils will not miss any of the vital work of the grade from which they are to be promoted.

Trial promotions. Many schools promote on trial or condition the pupils who have failed. If these pupils make good in the work of the next grade or subject, they are retained. If they do not make good, they are returned to the subject or grade from which they came, or some other arrangement is made for them. That trial promotions for pupils who have failed are efficacious is seen from the fact that most of such pupils successfully perform the work of the grade or subject to which they are promoted. In pupil progress, "nothing succeeds like success."

Most schools have used trial promotions chiefly with pupils who have failed. Such a plan, though, could be provided for the especially competent pupils as well as for the failures. The especially competent pupils could be promoted at any time with the proviso that if they made good, they would remain in the work of the subject or grade, but if they did not do the work successfully, they would be returned to their previous classification.

Subject promotions. Pupils frequently fail in one subject but pass their other subjects. They are often deficient in one or more of their school subjects, but they are average or above average in their other subjects. Although psychologists have found that pupils who rate high in one special ability usually rate high in all other abilities, they have found that there are many exceptions to this rule. In consequence, educational employees should keep in mind special abilities as well as general abilities when they are classifying pupils. Pupils who have passed one subject but have failed every other subject should not have to repeat the subject passed. Promotion by subjects makes possible the carrying out of the recommendation just made.

Most of the city schools now promote by subjects, especially in the upper grades of the elementary school and in all grades of the secondary school. Promotion by subjects is, however, possible in the smaller schools; in fact, it is possible even in the one-teacher school.

Summer school. Many schools, especially in the cities, provide classes during the summer months for pupils who desire to spend their vacation in school. Such classes usually run for only a portion of the summer vacation, for example, from three to six weeks. They enable pupils who have failed or have been conditioned in a grade or subject to remove the failure or the condition and to enter school at the beginning of the regular term with their particular class. Moreover, they make it possible for the normal or the bright pupils to complete the regular school course in less than the usual amount of time.

Parallel courses of study. A few elementary schools provide two parallel courses of study. One of these courses is the usual eight-year course and is designed for the average pupil; the other is a six-year course and is designed for the gifted pupil. According to this plan, all pupils do the same work but provisions are made for the bright pupils to do the work in six years instead of the usual eight years.

Schools which use this plan usually provide a few places where pupils may transfer from one course to the other without loss of time. The plan makes it possible for the

bright pupil to do the work in from six to eight years. The plan is designed to help the normal and the bright pupils especially. It possesses no advantage for the dull pupils except that which would come from the failed pupil having to repeat only the work of part of a year.

Differentiated courses of study. Although such a plan has much to commend it, only a few schools have organized different courses of study for the varying degrees of pupil ability. Practically all schools have only one curriculum, and it must be followed by all pupils—dull, normal, and bright. According to the differentiated course plan, the pupils are classified according to ability, then are expected to do the kind and the amount of work which their ability dictates.

According to this plan all pupils spend the same amount of time in the first six grades, but the amount of work which each pupil is expected to do is determined by his ability. The dull pupils pursue the minimum essentials of the course; the pupils of average ability pursue the average course; and the pupils of superior ability pursue the superior course. Beyond the sixth grade there is promotion by subjects, and the brighter pupils are permitted to take extra subjects and thus to complete the work in less than normal time. Likewise, the average and the dull pupils can take as many subjects as their interests and abilities dictate.

DECREASING PUPIL FAILURE AND STIMULATING SCHOLARSHIP

Results of failure. Failure results in a loss both to the pupil and to society. The largest loss from failure comes to the pupil. Failure usually means that the pupil must repeat the work of the subject or of the grade failed. It means that the pupil becomes retarded which usually results in him becoming a member of a class of pupils younger than he; this causes a form of maladjustment in the pupil's school life. Worst of all, failure results in the pupil being branded as a failure by his schoolmates, his relatives, and his friends. Failure incurs the risk that the pupil will develop an infe-

riority complex and acquire a grudge against the school and society. When a pupil fails school, there is danger that he is being prepared for failure in life.

A loss to society also results from pupil failure. A part of this loss may be measured in financial terms. It cannot be concluded, however, that when a pupil fails, the money which was spent on him is entirely wasted. Persons who affirm that the money is entirely wasted assume that the pupil who has failed will repeat the work of the subject or the grade failed, thus requiring a double expenditure for him. Regarded from another point of view, it is cheaper to fail pupils than to promote them, because when a pupil is promoted, he enters a subject or a grade which is more expensive than the preceding subject or grade; thus, secondary-school education is more expensive than elementary-school education, and the upper grades of the elementary school are more expensive than the lower grades of the elementary school. Failure does cause a real waste in preventing pupils from completing their schooling in the normal number of years, but if the compulsory school-attendance laws require all pupils to remain in school until the ages of fourteen, fifteen, sixteen, or some other number of years, failure has no effect on the school budget.

Amount and incidence of failure. The amount of failure varies from subject to subject, from teacher to teacher, from grade to grade, from school to school, and from school system to school system. The first year of the elementary school, of the secondary school, and of the college shows a much larger percentage of failure than any other year. Certain subjects show a much larger percentage of pupil mortality than others. Certain teachers consistently fail a much larger percentage of pupils than other teachers. And certain schools and school systems fail a much larger percentage of pupils than other schools and school systems. Approximately 10 per cent of the pupils enrolled in the schools of the United States fail annually.

Reducing and controlling failure. The school should do everything possible to prevent pupil failure. In attempting to prevent failure, the first step to take is to ascertain the

cause or the causes of failure. The cause or causes which operate in one pupil's case may be entirely different from the cause or causes operating in another pupil's case; these causes follow no pattern. Hundreds of possible factors operate to cause pupils to fail. Among the more common and potent of these factors are the following: lack of interest or of ability on the part of the pupil, poor teaching methods, too much home work or too many outside activities on the part of the pupil, poor health, and absence from school. Most of these causes need to be further analyzed, if failure is to be dealt with intelligently. Further analysis might show that irregular attendance was causing a pupil to fail, but that such attendance might be the result of one or more factors, such as too great distance of the pupil from school, poor health on the part of the pupil, and his being required to remain at home to work.

In attempting to reduce the amount of or to eliminate failure, the teacher is expected to become a student of the individual pupil. When a pupil starts to fall behind in his work, the teacher should do something about it then and there. The teacher is in a key position to ascertain the reason or reasons for the pupil's not doing his work. He should make a case study of the pupil; in such study, a conference or conferences with the pupil and his parents may be found necessary or advisable. Through this procedure, many pupils who would otherwise have failed may be kept from failing. Such attention to failing pupils will, of course, require extra time and thought on the part of the teacher, but awareness of its contributions to the life happiness and accomplishment of the pupil should be sufficient reward to the teacher.

As was reported in an earlier section of this chapter, many schools are promoting pupils to the next subject or the next grade on trial instead of failing them outright. According to this arrangement, pupils who have failed are given a few weeks, usually from two to six weeks, to attempt to do the work of the subject or the grade to which they would normally be promoted. If the pupil does the work satisfactorily enough to justify his remaining, he is retained. If he does

not do the work, he is returned to the subject or the grade from which he came. Giving pupils another chance usually brings out the best in them, because most of the pupils who are promoted on trial make good in the work of the next subject or grade. Giving the failing pupil the benefit of the doubt and an opportunity to make good brings out the best in him, but requiring him to repeat the work of a subject or a grade has the opposite result because many studies have shown that a large proportion of the pupils who are required to repeat a subject or a grade do not do better work than the first time they were enrolled in the subject or grade. Many repeaters do even poorer work the second time than the first time.

Some teachers fail a much larger percentage of their pupils than other teachers. They seem to consider that it is their prerogative, if not their duty, to fail one fourth, one third, one half, or another large proportion of their pupils. Probably many of these teachers have never reflected upon the losses resulting from pupil failure, or they believe that the only way by which they can maintain their standards is through proscribing a large percentage of their pupils; to them a high percentage of pupil mortality is the best evidence of high standards of scholarship.

Many teachers use the normal probability curve as a check upon the percentage of failures and the quality of the marks given to pupils. According to the theory underlying the normal probability curve, in a nonselected group of 100 or more pupils it would be expected that approximately 5 per cent of the pupils would receive the grade of E or failure; about 20 per cent, D; about 50 per cent, C; about 20 per cent, B; and about 5 per cent, A. It is never recommended that the normal probability curve be followed slavishly, but only as a check on practice. If a teacher finds that year after year he has been failing 10, 15, 20, or a larger percentage of his pupils, he should raise the question of whether his marking system is too rigid. On the other hand, if he finds that year after year he has given 10, 15, 20, or a larger percentage of A's, he might appropriately raise the question of whether he has been too charitable in giv-

ing marks. Many schools request each teacher to make a percentage distribution of his grades at the close of each reporting period. In many schools the principal reports to the various teachers the percentages of marks of each kind given by each teacher. In such a report, the names of the teachers are not indicated, so that any embarrassment to the teachers will be avoided.

Stimulating scholarship. To reduce or to eliminate pupil failure is only one of the tasks of the teacher so far as maintaining scholarship is concerned. Approximately 10 per cent of the pupils fail, but several times that many do not do all that they could do and should do. One of the most important aims of the teacher should be to stimulate a high standard of scholarship on the part of the pupils. Such standards are particularly important in the secondary school, the college, and the university, but they cannot be neglected in the foundation period of the pupil's school career; this foundation period is, of course, the elementary-school years. Pupils should be stimulated to do the best work of which they are capable and should be encouraged to have respect for scholarship in every field of learning; they should be aided in developing an abiding interest in scholarship.

The best ways in which scholarship may be stimulated among the pupils is for the teacher to be scholarly. The example of the teacher is always potent. If the teacher has careless habits of scholarship—in brief, if he is unscholarly—the pupils are not likely to advance beyond his level. On the other hand, if the teacher has high standards of scholarship—if he lives and breathes scholarship—the pupils are likely to be raised to his level. Scholarship is contagious, and all educational employees should live and breathe it.

Another important way of stimulating scholarship among pupils is for the teacher to recognize and to reward it. When a pupil does his work especially well, the teacher should congratulate him upon his accomplishment. On the other hand, when the pupil turns in poor work, the teacher should show his displeasure, particularly if the student is competent to do better work. The following describe other

means which various schools have successfully used in encouraging a higher standard of scholarship on the part of pupils:

1. By sending letters or notices to parents or guardians informing them of a low quality or of a high quality of work of their children
2. By publishing the names of pupils having high marks in the school paper, magazine, handbook, yearbook, or public newspaper
3. By mentioning at the graduation, or similar school exercises, the names of those pupils who have done a high quality of work
4. By posting the names of honor pupils on the bulletin board of the school
5. By awarding scholarship pins or other insignia, and by granting prizes for high scholarship
6. By awarding scholarships in higher institutions of learning to pupils with excellent scholastic records
7. By awarding the valedictory and the salutatory orations to the two pupils respectively who have the highest scholarship
8. By organizing and fostering honor societies, such as the Phi Beta Sigma Society, the Pro Merito Society, the Cum Laude Society, and the National Honor Society for Secondary Schools. All of these are secondary-school societies, and their general aims are to stimulate scholarship and a desire to render service, to promote leadership, and to develop character in the students.
9. By organizing city, county, district, or state scholarship contests
10. By giving extra credit for a high quality of work and less credit for a poor quality of work
11. By permitting pupils who have excellent marks to take extra work and thus to cut down the time required for graduation
12. By exempting from examinations those pupils who maintain a high standard of scholarship
13. By requiring certain scholastic standards for eligibility to compete in interschool athletic contests and in other extracurricular activities.

THE HOLDING POWER OF THE SCHOOL

Amount of elimination. The measure of the holding power of a school is the extent to which the school retains its pupils until they have finished the course of study or until the pupils are transferred to another school, have died, or have become physically incapacitated further to

attend school. Thus, if a given school keeps all its pupils until they have met the conditions just mentioned, whereas another school keeps only 50 per cent of its pupils, the former school has twice the holding power of the latter school. The holding power of schools and school systems varies widely; it varies from teacher to teacher, from school to school, from school system to school system, and from state to state.

One of the most significant educational facts of recent years has been the large increase in the holding power of the schools. As the years have gone by, the people of the United States have more and more believed that education is the greatest single lever to opportunity and an open-sesame through which the individual may best realize his potentialities. In 1870, only 57 per cent of the children between the ages of five and seventeen years of age, inclusive, were enrolled in school; at present, that percentage is approximately 85. The holding power of the secondary school has increased especially rapidly. In 1870, only 1.2 per cent of the pupils enrolled in the elementary and secondary schools were enrolled in the secondary schools; at present, the percentage of secondary-school pupils is approximately 25. A large part of these increases has been due to the enactment of more rigid compulsory school-attendance laws, and to a more efficient enforcement of those laws, but a large part of the increase has been the result of the advent of better schools and the desire of pupils to attend those schools. The typical resident of the United States now receives some high school education.

Increasing the holding power. To keep all the pupils in school until the compulsory school-attendance laws are satisfied is, of course, a legal necessity. In most states, though, the mere satisfying of the requirements of the compulsory school-attendance laws does not provide much more than the rudiments of an education. The extent to which pupils remain in school after those legal requirements have been met is another excellent measure of the holding power of a school, because when the state law no longer requires the pupil to be in school, the pupil decides whether he shall

remain in or leave school. Two factors usually determine whether the pupil will remain in or leave school. The first of these factors is the interest which the pupil has in school, and the second is the economic status of the pupil and his family.

Over the second of these factors school officials and employees can exert little or no immediate influence. Over the first factor, though, they can exert considerable influence. They can maintain a school which will challenge the interest of the pupil. They can take steps to show the pupil the advantages of an education and the opportunities afforded by the local school or school system. In brief, as was stated in Chapter X, the school can provide proper educational guidance for the pupils, and it is generally agreed that the best educational guidance which can be given most pupils is to encourage them, through providing activities which they enjoy and respect, to remain in school as long as possible. The amount of time which should be spent in school beyond the limits of the compulsory school-attendance laws will depend on the individual pupil and will be determined by such factors as the economic conditions of the pupil and his family, the pupil's opportunities for employment, and the intelligence and age of the pupil. The school cannot expect to keep its pupils forever.

THE AGE-GRADE PROGRESS OF PUPILS

Making and using an age-grade-progress table. An age-grade-progress table shows the progress of pupils through the school. Fig. 40 is an example of an age-grade-progress report. This particular report was made by the teacher at the beginning of the school year in September for his 2-B grade. Of the twenty-nine pupils in this grade, eighteen had made *normal progress;* that is, they had completed the work of the first grade in normal time, namely, one year; seven pupils, on the other hand, had been in the first grade one and a half years, and four members of the grade had been in school two years. Those pupils who have not done the work of the previous grade in a normal amount of time

are said to be *retarded;* thus, eleven pupils in this particular grade were retarded; seven of them were retarded one half year, and four were retarded one year. A pupil who does the work of a semester or a year in less than the normal amount of time is said to be *accelerated;* it so happens that in this particular grade no pupil was accelerated.

DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS BY AGE AND BY NUMBER OF YEARS IN SCHOOL

School *Lincoln* Grade *2B* Date *Sept. 5, 1942*

Ages	Years in School																		Total
	0	½	1	1½	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5	5½	6	6½	7	7½		15	15½	
4																				
4½ 5																				
5½ 6			*1*																	*1*
6½ 7			*15*	*4*																*19*
7½ 8				*3*																*3*
8½ 9			*2*		*4*															*6*
9½ 10																				
10½ 11																				
11½																				
20																				
20½ 21																				
Total			*18*	*7*	*4*															*29*

The above report is correct to the best of my knowledge.

(Signed) *Florence T. Foye*
Teacher

FIG. 40. A teacher's sample age-grade-progress report.

Such a form as is exhibited in Fig. 40 shows the number of years which the pupils have spent in school, and it also shows the ages of the various pupils. Such a table requires only a few minutes of time to make, and its value is large in giving the teacher further acquaintance with his pupils. Moreover, when such data have been collected by principals, superintendents, or other school employees and have

been summarized, a bird's-eye view may be had of the progress of pupils through a given grade, a given school, or the school system.

Retardation versus acceleration. Definitions of retarded and of accelerated pupils have been given in the preceding paragraph. Warning should here be given lest retardation be confused with overageness and acceleration be confused with underageness; the terms are not synonymous, nor are the causes the same. The cause of retardation is always failure, whereas the cause of overageness may be either failure or late entrance or both. An overage pupil is not necessarily a retarded pupil; an overage pupil may not have entered school until the age of eight, nine, or later, but he may have made normal or even accelerated progress after entering. Likewise, the only cause of acceleration is double promotions or the operation of other factors which have enabled the pupil to complete the work of a given grade or grades in less than the normal amount of time.

Just as there are many times as much overageness as underageness, so there are many times as much retardation as acceleration. A recent investigation brings out the fact that the median per cent of retardation in thirty-seven cities of the United States was 38.8. The smallest per cent found in any city was 21, while the largest per cent found in any city was 58. In the same thirty-seven cities, the median percentage of acceleration was 10.25; the largest percentage of acceleration was 30; and the smallest percentage of acceleration was only 1. In other words, these school systems had almost four times as much retardation as acceleration.

The data which have just been given indicate that the schools are not meeting the needs of the brighter pupils. Pupils who do not do the work are failed; thus, they automatically become retarded. On the other hand, pupils who would be able to do the work of one year in a half year, or the work of two years in one year, are not provided with such opportunity.

THE AGE-GRADE STATUS OF PUPILS

Making and using an age-grade table. An age-grade table shows the number of pupils of each of the various grades of a school or a school system. Such a table shows, for example, how many pupils of each of the various ages are in the kindergarten, in the first grade, and in each of the other grades of a school or school system. Table III is an age-grade table for a certain school system. From this table, it is observed that of the three pupils who are four and one half years of age, one is in section B of the kindergarten, one is in section A of the kindergarten, and the third is in section B of the first grade. Of the ten pupils who are five years of age, three are in section B of the kindergarten, two are in section A of the kindergarten, four are in section B of the first grade, and one is in section A of the first grade. In the column showing the twelve-year-olds, it is observed that there is one pupil in section B of the second grade, one is in section A of the third grade, two are in section A of the fourth grade, two are in section B of the fifth grade, three are in section A of the fifth grade, five are in section B of the sixth grade, ten are in section A of the sixth grade, six are in section B of the seventh grade, and one is in section A of the seventh grade.

A glance at this table shows that a large number of the pupils of this school system are overage, that is, they are older than they should be for the grades in which they are found. An age-grade table, therefore, enables the teacher, principal, superintendent, or other school employee to secure a view of the age-grade status of the pupils at a classroom, department, school, or school system. Such a table does not indicate the reasons for overageness; it merely points out any overageness and suggests that further investigation be undertaken to ascertain whether the age-grade status of the pupils is what it should be. Within the last two or three decades, such tables have been made in thousands of schools and school systems with the result that school employees are much better acquainted with the age-grade status of pupils than ever before. In only a few minutes or a few hours of

TABLE III. AGE-GRADE TABLE OF A SYSTEM OF SCHOOLS OF A CERTAIN CITY, DECEMBER 31, 1942. AGES COMPUTED AS OF SEPTEMBER 1, 1942.

Grade:	Kg.		1st		2nd		3rd		4th		5th		6th		7th		8th		9th		10th		11th		12th		
Sec.:	(B	A)	(B	A)	(B	A)	(B	A)	(B	A)	(B	A)	(B	A)	(B	A)	(B	A)	(B	A)	(B	A)	(B	A)	(B	A)	
Ages[a]																											Total
4½	1	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3
5	3	2	4	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	10
5½	6	4	5	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	18
6	3	3	15	6	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	29
6½	..	3	17	12	3	2	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	38
7	1	1	9	12	8	3	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	36
7½	..	..	3	6	12	9	4	3	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	38
8	..	..	2	6	9	11	12	2	3	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	46
8½	..	..	1	5	2	5	10	7	3	2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	35
9	..	..	..	3	3	4	5	12	8	3	3	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	42
9½	..	..	..	1	2	2	5	3	14	8	3	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	39
10	..	..	..	1	2	1	3	5	6	13	4	3	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	39
10½	..	..	..	..	..	2	1	3	2	5	12	7	2	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	35
11	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	4	3	3	7	10	7	2	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	39
11½	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	1	3	3	5	8	6	2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	29
12	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	1	..	2	2	3	5	10	6	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	31
12½	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	1	3	3	3	6	5	3	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	27
13	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	4	3	7	7	1	2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	26
13½	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	1	1	3	1	3	5	3	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	21
14	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1	1	4	7	3	2	1	..	..	..	..	..	20
14½	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	2	1	5	4	5	2	..	..	..	..	..	20
15	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	2	2	1	3	4	4	2	1	..	..	..	20
15½	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	4	3	4	1	1	..	..	15
16	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3	1	1	2	3	4	..	1	..	15
16½	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	.	2	2	2	2	..	..	9
17	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	1	2	3	4	1	1	14
17½	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	.	1	1	4	3	1	11
18	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	.	..	1	..	1	2	3	7
18½	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2
19	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	2	1	5
Total	14	14	57	56	43	43	42	41	42	42	36	36	28	29	21	22	22	22	18	18	15	15	14	12	9	8	720

[a]Four years runs from 3 years and 9 months to 4 years and 3 months.

time such a table can be made by a teacher for his own pupils, by a principal for his school, or by a superintendent for his school system.

In interpreting the age-grade status of the pupils of a grade, school, or school system, it is helpful to compare various schools and school systems. In order that comparisons may be meaningful, they should be made on the same basis; in other words, the technique for making age-grade tables should be standardized. Some of the details which should be standardized are the following: the date on which pupils' ages are figured; the procedure for determining the ages; and the number of semesters or years during which a pupil is considered to be of normal age. In making age-grade tables, one of the most perplexing problems has been that of determining pupils' ages. The usual, and probably the best, practice is to figure ages as of September 1st, which is the approximate date on which the school term begins, and to define age as the age at the nearest birthday of the pupil.

Overageness versus underageness. According to their age-grade status, the pupils of a grade, department, school, or school system may be divided into three groups; first, those who are *normal age;* second, those who are *underage;* and third, those who are *overage.* The normal-age pupils are those who are neither younger nor older than the ages which have been agreed upon as normal for the grade in which the pupils are found. A glance at Table III shows that for section B of the kindergarten, ages five and five and one half are regarded as normal ages; for section A of the kindergarten, ages five and one half and six are regarded as normal; for section B of the first grade, ages six and six and one half are regarded as normal. The normal ages for the pupils of each of the grades are found between the two diagonal lines shown in Table III.

Underage pupils are those who are younger than normal for the grades in which they are found. In the age-grade table exhibited in Table III the pupils above the two diagonal lines are underage. In section B of the first grade, for example, there are ten pupils who are underage. In

section B of the first grade the ages of six and six and one half are normal, but one pupil is only four and one half years of age, four are only five years of age, and five are only five and one half years of age. The five pupils who are only five and one half years of age are underage one half year; the four who are only five years of age are underage one year; and the one who is only four and one half years of age is underage one and a half years.

Overage pupils are those who are older than normal for the grades in which they are found. In Table III the pupils found below the two diagonal lines are overage. In section B of the first grade, for example, there are fifteen overage pupils. Of these fifteen pupils, nine are seven years of age or overage one half year; three are seven and one half years of age, or overage one year; two are eight years of age, or overage one and a half years; and one is eight and one half years of age, or overage two years.

A final glance at Table III makes evident that the number of overage pupils in this school system is several times the number of underage pupils. Such a situation is common in schools and school systems; in practically all schools and school systems there is a much larger percentage of overageness than of underageness. Under more ideal conditions these percentages would be somewhat similar.

The causes of overageness are (1) late entrance and (2) failure. The causes of underageness are (1) early entrance and (2) extra promotions. If a pupil did not enter the first grade until the age of seven, he would be one half year overage when he entered. On the other hand, if the pupil entered school at the age of five and a half years, he would be one half year underage when he entered.

CLASS SIZE

Evolution of class size. The first schools practiced individual instruction, and the grouping of pupils by classes was unknown. The grouping of pupils into classes came largely as an economy measure and as the result of a demand for the education of more children. The break from in-

dividual instruction soon went to the opposite extreme of placing an unusually large number of pupils under each teacher.

In the monitorial schools, which originated about the opening of the nineteenth century, as many as 500 pupils were frequently placed under the direction of one teacher. These large numbers of pupils were usually divided into smaller groups to be instructed by the brighter, the larger, and the older pupils who were known as monitors. It was soon seen, however, that pupils possessed many handicaps as instructors, and consequently teachers were asked to assume all teaching reponsibilities, but with smaller classes. From the time of the demise of the monitorial schools, therefore, the tendency has been for the pupil-teacher ratio to become smaller.

The pupil-teacher ratio varies from school to school, from school system to school system, and from state to state. As a rule, it is larger in required courses than in elective courses, larger in the elementary school than in the secondary school, larger in the cities than in the rural districts, and larger in the thickly settled regions than in the sparsely settled regions. Some school systems have regulations which set both the minimum and the maximum size of class. Most school systems try to keep the size of classes between thirty and thirty-five pupils.

Class size versus per pupil cost. The two largest factors which determine the per pupil cost of instruction in a given subject or grade are (1) the number of pupils in the subject or grade, and (2) the salary of the teacher. Of these two factors, the first is the most potent. If the teacher's salary and all other costs are kept the same, decreasing the size of a class by 50 per cent increases the per pupil cost by 50 per cent. On the contrary, increasing the size of the class by 50 per cent decreases the per pupil cost of instruction by the same amount. In a large city, increasing the pupil-teacher ratio by only one pupil would result in decreasing greatly the number of teachers needed; on the contrary, decreasing the pupil-teacher ratio by only one pupil would make necessary the employing of several extra teachers.

Class size versus pupil progress. It has just been stated that small classes are much more expensive than large ones. Cost is, however, only one consideration to keep in mind in setting the size of classes. The other considerations are pupil efficiency and progress. How does the efficiency of small classes compare with the efficiency of large ones?

During recent years, this question has been much discussed, and many investigations have been conducted seeking to secure information on the question. Practically all of the investigations have pointed to the same conclusion, namely, that small classes are only slightly more efficient than large ones. These investigations have been conducted on all the educational levels from the first grade of the elementary school through the college and the university. Moreover, they have been conducted with various subjects and teachers.

Such results are contrary to expectations, and perhaps a sad commentary on teaching methods today. In any event, the results show merely what is and not necessarily what ought to be. Perhaps small classes are little more efficient than large, because present teaching methods are not adapted any better to small groups than to large ones. Perhaps teachers are instructing groups of pupils rather than individuals. If teachers employed the opportunity which small classes afford to meet the needs of the individuals, perhaps small classes would show a much larger percentage of efficiency over large classes than investigations have indicated.

Further investigation, therefore, needs to be undertaken on the efficacy of classes of different sizes. These investigations should have as their objective the determination of the most desirable size of class under varying conditions. Such investigation might show that the size of a class should be determined by various factors, such as the intelligence of the pupils, the subject of instruction, the qualifications of the teacher, the number of classes for which the teacher is responsible and the amount of extracurricular and other duties which he must perform, and the amount and quality of supplies and equipment with which the teacher and the pupils have to work.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why did the transition from individual instruction to group instruction come at the same time that school enrollment began to increase rapidly?

2. What are the theoretical advantages of individual instruction? Of group instruction?

3. Homogeneous grouping of pupils has frequently caused friction with the home. How may this friction be avoided? Is homogeneous grouping undemocratic? Discuss.

4. Do you favor departmental teaching and promotion by subjects? Are the advantages as large in the lower grades as in the upper ones? Explain.

5. What plans for meeting individual needs can you propose other than are mentioned in this chapter?

6. Account for the fact that the first year of the elementary school, of the secondary school, and of the college shows more pupil failure than any other year. What steps might be taken to reduce the failure in the first year of each of these levels?

7. What steps should the school take to secure the cooperation of the home in reducing failure?

8. What, if any, legitimate causes of pupil failure are there? Under ideal conditions would there be any failure? Discuss.

9. Account for the fact that several times as many pupils are retarded as are accelerated. Account for the fact also that several times as many are overage as are underage.

10. Account for the larger percentage of elimination of boys than girls. How may the percentage of elimination be reduced?

11. Do you believe, as many persons have charged, that commencement exercises at the close of the elementary school cause many pupils to feel that their educational careers are finished?

12. How do you explain the fact that small classes accomplish only slightly more than large classes?

13. Why do small classes cost much more than large ones? Is the slight advantage in pedagogical efficiency which small classes have worth the cost? Discuss.

14. Should a teacher who can instruct more than the average number of pupils be paid accordingly? Why or why not?

15. Do you predict that the pupil-teacher ratio will become larger or smaller? Why?

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Chapter XII

HEALTH AND SAFETY EDUCATION

NEED FOR, AIMS AND SCOPE OF, HEALTH EDUCATION

Need for health education. Next to high intelligence, good health is the most valuable asset which any person can have. A Croesus with poor health would gladly exchange all his worldly possessions for the blessings of good health. And who would not! Without good health, and especially when there is no chance of securing it, a person is poor indeed—poor in opportunity for happiness and for success in life. Without good health the child is not likely to realize his potentialities in school, nor is he likely to realize his potentialities when he leaves school and takes his place in the workaday world as an adult.

The annual loss which is caused by sickness and premature death is colossal, yet health authorities are agreed that most sickness is preventable and that life may be greatly prolonged. The Committee on Waste in Industry reported that the annual loss in the United States from preventable sickness was $1,800,000,000. During World War I, 50,385 United States soldiers were killed in battle; that number was tragically large, but a much larger number of civilians are "killed" annually by tuberculosis, cancer, and other mainly preventable diseases. There are, of course, scores of other afflictions which take their toll in the hundreds of thousands, and all these causes, large and small, operate year after year.

Where physical examinations have been given, either to adults or to school children, a startling number of defects has been discovered. Approximately 30 per cent of our men

examined for military service during World War I were found to have physical defects which prevented them from doing a soldier's full duty, and the men examined, it should be noted, were the "flower" of American manhood, being between the ages of twenty and thirty. Data from the draft for World War II indicate that physical defects are almost as numerous as during World War I; defects of the teeth, eyes, ears, and feet have been particularly numerous; yet a large percentage of them could have been eliminated

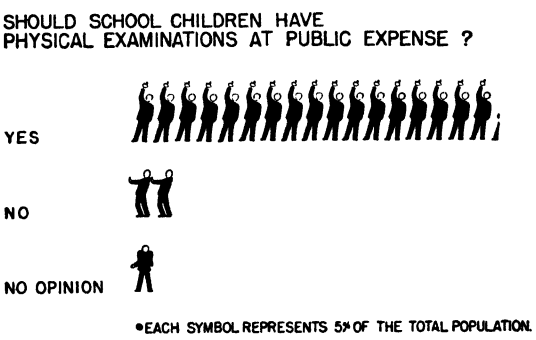

FIG. 41. Vote of a random sampling of the people of the United States on whether elementary- and secondary-school pupils should have periodic physical examinations at public expense. (From *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association, Vol. 18, p. 200.)

through efficient programs of health education in the schools.

Examinations of hundreds of thousands of school children in numerous and widely different communities of the United States indicate that practically all children have one or more physical defects which are actually or potentially detrimental to health. Moreover, contrary to common belief, a larger percentage of rural children have physical defects than city children; rural children have more defects primarily because of lack of medical attention. In an address before the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, former President Herbert Hoover stated that "one of your committees reports that out of 45,000,000 children:

35,000,000 are reasonably normal
6,000,000 are improperly nourished
1,000,000 have defective teeth
1,000,000 have weak or damaged hearts
675,000 present behavior problems
450,000 are mentally retarded
382,000 are tuberculous
342,000 have impaired hearing (this figure was later increased to 3,000,000)
18,000 are totally deaf
3,000,000 are crippled
50,000 are partially blind
14,000 are totally blind
200,000 are delinquent
500,000 are dependents."[1]

Illness and physical defects among school children result annually in a tremendous loss to the children and to society. The most obvious loss comes from the large amount of non-attendance at school. Approximately one sixth of the pupils are absent daily, and by far the largest cause of this absence is pupil illness. To the hundreds of thousands of pupils who are absent daily, and who in consequence cannot profit from the tutelage of the school, must be added the several million more pupils who come to school with illness and with physical defects which handicap their happiness and retard their educational progress. There is a close relation between physical well-being and mental efficiency. The mind can do its work only through that precious machine known as the human body; in fact, mind and body are an entity.

To summarize, it may be said that the need for a health program in the schools becomes articulate from the following facts: first, the importance of excellent health to the individual and to society; second, the large amount of illness and physical defects, most of which could be cured, improved, or corrected through a thoroughgoing program of health education; third, the tremendous loss of money which is spent annually for education that illness prevents children from receiving.

Aims of health education. In any ranking of the aims of education *good health* should head the list. A balanced per-

[1] *White House Conference on Child Health and Protection,* Appleton-

son should be the aim of the school, or as Juvenal says in his *Satires: "mens sana in corpore sano"*—"a sound mind in a sound body." Stated in general terms, *the aim of health education in the schools is the protection and the improvement of the physical and emotional health of the child.* This general aim has been stated more specifically in the following words by two specialists in health education:

1. To understand the school child thoroughly; and to help him to realize the best health and development of which he is capable.
2. To protect the pupil against contracting disease from any other child during this period; and to prevent his conveying disease to any other pupil.
3. To discover and call to the parent's attention any existing health defects, more especially those of a remedial nature, and to inspire and assist the parent to provide suitable remedial treatment.
4. To enlist cooperation of all existing agencies and all available influences for the correction of defects of school children and teachers.
5. To provide special and optimum conditions for certain handicapped children who would be at a disadvantage otherwise and to furnish exceptionally satisfactory supervision for them.
6. To provide suitable and healthful surroundings and conditions for the child in school.
7. To teach the pupil how to lead a life of health always and if defective, to teach him also as far as possible how to escape the handicap of infirmity.
8. To furnish technical information and guidance for all those who contribute in any way to school health service.[1]

Scope of health education. In its evolution the health program of the schools has passed through three stages. The first stage was that of *health protection*—protection of pupils and employees from an unsanitary school environment, from communicable disease, and from a school program unsuited to the pupils' physical and mental health. The second stage was that of *remedial work*—work designed to correct the defects which physical and mental examinations had found. The third stage was that of *health promotion*—promotion through such means as courses in health and physical education, the provision of lunches, and an hygienic school program.

[1] T. D. Wood and H. G. Rowell, *Health Supervision and Medical Inspection of Schools,* Saunders, 1927, p. 7. By permission of W. B. Saunders Company, publishers.

The progress which has been made in carrying out the threefold program just mentioned varies from school to school and from school system to school system. Some schools and school systems have hardly reached the first stage; others have progressed as far as the second stage; still others have progressed through the third stage and thus have a complete school health program. A complete

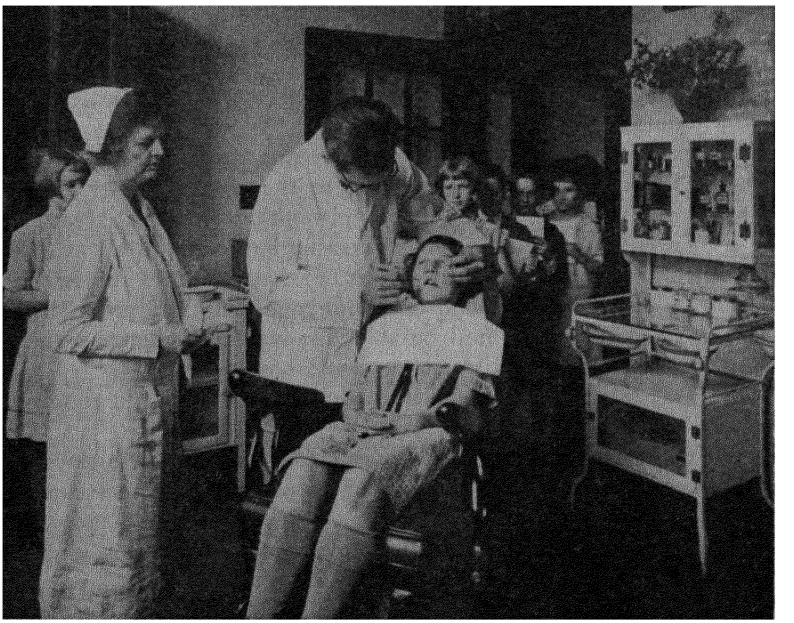

FIG. 42. Clinic in the Greenfield, Ohio, Elementary School. This city of approximately 6000 population also provides in its health and physical education programs a home hygiene room, gymnasium, athletic field, a swimming pool, a cafeteria, four instructors, and a school nurse who devote their entire time to the administration of the health program of the schools.

school health program—which, because of lack of finances, will probably not be immediately attainable in all school systems—would provide for the three phases just described.

It is an unfortunate commentary that hundreds of school systems are doing almost nothing in health supervision; hundreds of them do not have the services of nurses, physicians, or other special health employees; they do not spend one cent on a health program. They spend annually $50,

$75, or $100 per pupil on the teaching of the school subjects and on the remainder of the school program—all of eminent importance, it is admitted—but they fail to spend one cent on the most important aim of education and the most important thing in life, namely, *good health.*

The tendency, though, is in the right direction, for in theory and in practice the importance of a school-health program is being more and more recognized by the general public and by school officials and employees. This movement has been given a tremendous impetus by World War II. Practically all states have enacted certain legislation designed to protect and to promote the health and the safety of school children and school employees. The first of these laws were permissive in character and were designed for *protection*—protection against such hazards as an unsafe and unsanitary school plant and contagious diseases. Many of the laws are still permissive. Recent years, however, have seen the enactment of mandatory laws which govern many health practices such as sanitation, medical inspection, the employment of nurses, courses of study in health education, and courses of study in physical education.

SCHOOL EMPLOYEES IN THE SCHOOL HEALTH PROGRAM

How employees may assist. Although the school or school system may provide nurses, physicians, dentists, nutritionists, psychiatrists, clinics, and other health employees and conveniences, the value of these will be largely lost without the sympathetic and intelligent cooperation of the classroom teacher and all other educational employees. In schools and school systems which do not provide special health employees—and most schools and school systems unfortunately do not provide them—the school health program, if any, is left entirely to teachers and other educational employees. In any program of school health, the teacher is the most important employee.

There are numerous ways in which the teacher may assist in carrying out the school health program. He should prepare himself for that service. He can keep himself in ex-

cellent physical, mental, and emotional health and thus be a good example to his pupils; he can see that the pupils work in sanitary surroundings, and under hygienic conditions; he can help to interpret the school health program to the pupils and to their parents; he can make suggestions to pupils and parents looking toward the improvement of the pupils' health; he can cooperate with physicians and nurses in the health and physical examinations of pupils; he can assist in the control of communicable diseases; he can supervise the

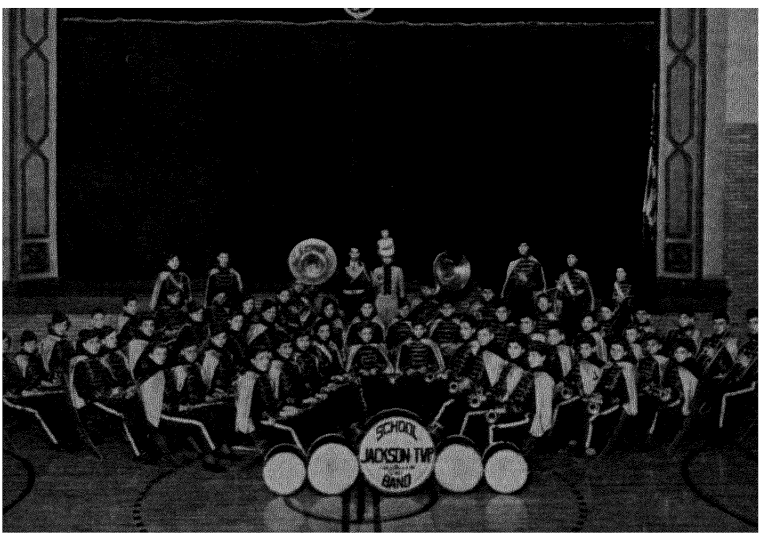

FIG. 43. A combined auditorium and gymnasium, which provides for physical education and for school and public meetings. (Courtesy of the Jackson Township, Ohio, public schools.)

play and recreation of pupils; and he can give instruction in health and hygiene and take all reasonable steps to see that such instruction functions.

As has been stated in preceding paragraphs, *protection* should be the first step taken in a school health program. This means that the health of pupils should be protected from any hazards inherent in the school plant or in the intermingling of children. Contagious disease is one of the chief hazards against which the teacher must guard, and he should inform himself concerning the symptoms of such

diseases and concerning other matters which would enable him to control the diseases.

Cooperating with other health agents and agencies. In most communities teachers and other educational employees will find various other agents and agencies interested to a greater or less extent in the health of school children. Some of these agents—for example, school nurses, physicians, dentists, and similar school employees—have as their only function the protection and promotion of the health of pupils and employees. Other of the agents—for example, the officials and employees of city or county boards of health, of welfare societies, of civic clubs, and of parent-teacher associations—are often interested in the health of school children either as an official duty or as a free-will public service. Thousands of parent-teacher associations are cooperating with the school in providing free lunches for indigent pupils and in arranging for health examinations of all pupils. Other community agencies are also giving free assistance.

The health service of these agents and agencies—whether they be school or nonschool—can realize its potentialities only with the cooperation of the teacher and other educational employees. With school officials and other public officials and employees, the teacher has the duty of cooperating in health protection and improvement; with the nonpublic agents and agencies he should likewise cooperate when this would serve the interests of the pupil, the school, and the public. He can cooperate with such agents and agencies by such means as reporting to them any pupils in need of health service and by carrying out the health directions of the agents.

The health agent with whom the teacher and other educational employees have the greatest opportunity to cooperate is the school nurse. This opportunity is greatest because the school nurse is not only the most frequently found health employee but is the most important health employee which the school can have. More and more school systems are employing nurses, and no school system should be without such service. Persons who have prepared themselves for school nursing find ready employment at approximately the

same salary of teachers.[1] The chief duties of a school nurse are the following:

1. To assist the teacher in the program of health instruction.
2. To hold conferences with, and to make addresses to, teachers and parents.
3. To help the teacher in making health inspections.
4. To assist the school physician in examinations.
5. To make examinations and to refer to a physician those cases requiring his attention.
6. To care for minor dressings and to arrange for the care of other emergencies.
7. To call upon parents for the purpose of securing their cooperation in securing as good health conditions for their children as finances permit.
8. To serve as attendance officer.
9. To cooperate with all agencies of the community to secure the best possible health standards for the pupils.

Preparation needed for health supervision. In terms of importance no phase of education is more neglected than health education. Much of this neglect arises from the fact that school officials and employees do not always sense the pre-eminent importance of health education, but a much greater part of the neglect is the result of a lack of knowledge of what constitutes a desirable school health program and of the procedures for realizing such a program.

The deficiencies just mentioned can best be corrected by educational employees qualifying themselves in health supervision. They cannot secure ample preparation by the perusal of a short treatise such as the present chapter must necessarily be. They must do a much larger amount of reading[2] and observation, and preferably such reading and observation should be secured in a college course on school health education. Most colleges now provide such courses, and in many states such a course or courses must be pursued as one

[1] Students who are considering entering school nursing as a career would do well to consult the book entitled *Manual of Public Health Nursing* and published by The Macmillan Company. The book was prepared by The National Organization for Public Health Nursing and discusses opportunities and requirements in all areas of public-health nursing.

[2] A list from which such reading may be chosen is given in the Selected References at the close of this chapter.

of the conditions for teacher certification. Among the topics which are usually treated in such courses are the following: the relation between health and efficiency; school sanitation; the features to be observed in giving physical examinations, for example, posture, nutrition, methods of weighing and measuring, and the use of height and weight tables; the correction of defects; the common diseases of the skin, scalp, and hair; the anatomy, physiology, and diseases of the eye and methods of ascertaining eye defects; the anatomy, physiology, and diseases of the ear, nose, and throat; the development, eruption, and care of teeth; the common defects of the back, chest, and extremities; the common contagious and infectious diseases, with particular reference to their method of transmission and early symptoms; the supervision of play; safety education; and health records.

The preparation just outlined should be regarded as the minimum needed by *every* educational employee. Persons who expect to enter the teaching or supervision of health and physical education should plan, of course, to go much beyond that minimum. More than half of the states have laws which establish certain requirements for securing physical education certificates, and most teacher-preparing institutions have physical-education programs which enable all interested candidates to meet those requirements. During recent years, teachers and supervisors of health and physical education have been finding employment opportunities above the average. Most beginners, however, must be prepared to teach one or two other subjects as well as health and physical education.

The school employee's health. The school employee should have a high standard of health for at least three reasons. In the first place, good health is necessary for the employee's happiness, economic welfare, and efficiency; without it the employee may not possess the strength, the ambition, the alertness, and the emotional tone demanded of him.

In the second place, the health of the employee, especially of the teacher, is important because it affects not only his own welfare but the welfare of his pupils. Ill health pre-

vents the teacher from accomplishing all that he might with his pupils, and not infrequently it becomes a positive menace to his pupils. If the teacher is nervous and irritable, as many a teacher is, there is danger of transmitting such characteristics to the pupils, or if the teacher possesses a communicable disease, such as tuberculosis, there is danger that the pupils may contract the disease.

In the third place, the employee's health is important because poor health means an immediate financial loss to the board of education when the employee is absent and a substitute must be employed for him. Such a loss is incurred only when the board provides a certain amount of pay for disability leave—a practice which has become common, especially in the city school systems. There is also a loss of pupil interest in certain phases of school work when a substitute must be employed and time is lost in making adjustments and getting adjusted to the new situation by both the teacher and the pupil.

There was a time when teachers were employed largely on a basis of charity, and when the ill, "the lame, the halt, and the blind" stood as good a chance of securing positions as the well and able-bodied. Those were the days when it was commonly believed that "anyone could teach school," and that physical imperfection or illness was no handicap to the teacher. Fortunately, though, that belief has largely passed, and boards of education are more and more demanding that teachers possess high qualifications in health as well as in professional ability; many boards require a physical examination such as outlined in Fig. 63. The goal toward which enlightened boards of education are striving has been stated as a series of suggestions to other boards. These suggestions were prepared by Thomas D. Wood, J. W. Brister, Olive Jones, and Juliet O. Bell and have been published by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company in a monograph entitled *The Teacher's Health.* Their suggestions follow:

1. Provide thorough health examinations for all teachers in service. These examinations should include a thorough survey of the teacher's physical condition, consideration of her mental health, in-

quiry into her hygienic daily program, and instruction of the teacher regarding her health needs and how to maintain positive health, the examinations to be made by a school physician or by one approved by the school authorities. . . .

2. Require health qualifications for the employment of teachers, the acceptance of the teacher to be based on the results of a thorough examination given by the school physician or by one approved by him.

3. Employ periodic examinations for promoting the teachers' health and not as a means for disqualifying them. It is of paramount importance that school boards respect in all cases the confidential nature of these examinations.

4. Follow up examinations and stimulate the correction of defects. Provide probationary period for the correction of defects.

5. Gain the early confidence of teachers in the development of a health-supervision program for teachers. This for the purpose of dispelling fear that may be aroused through misunderstanding or inadequate preliminary publicity. Moreover, it assures the full cooperation and participation of the teachers.

6. Provide a sanitary and healthful teaching environment, including proper ventilation, temperature, and lighting, adequate janitorial service, rest rooms, and lunch rooms. . . .

7. Improve the living conditions of teachers by means of adequate salaries, by provision of teachers' homes, or by securing a selective list of available living accommodations in the community. . . .

8. Require the withdrawal of the teacher from the classroom when she is suffering from certain minor health handicaps which are not necessarily severe illnesses. This provision is particularly important in the case of colds.

9. Consider teachers' yearly attendance upon summer school and university courses during school year in relation to their health.

10. Provide leaves with some remuneration for recuperation and rest whenever the condition of the teacher warrants this. . . .

11. Make provision for insuring teachers against loss of salary during illness.

12. Analyze the absences of teachers for the purpose of determining methods of safeguarding the positive health of teachers. A required health examination by the school physician after absence due to illness is advantageous to both teachers and pupils.

13. Furnish salaries to teachers sufficient for study, recreation, and an adequate standard of living.

14. Provide some doctor's, nurse's, or hospital care for sick teachers. This promotes the mental as well as physical health of teachers by reducing causes of worry.

15. Furnish some recreational facilities and encourage outdoor recreational pursuits among teachers.

16. Make provision for courses or other means of instructing teachers relative to personal and community health.
17. Reduce cause of worry by providing adequate retirement allowance.
18. Adopt a plan for tenure of office which will properly secure teachers in their positions.

Carrying out the above suggestions on the part of school officials will not avail much if teachers do not cooperate with school officials and do nothing toward protecting and improving their health. To keep in good health and physical condition is, in the last analysis, the responsibility of the teacher. The same monograph mentioned above suggests the following steps which teachers should take to improve their health:

1. Avail themselves of all the facilities provided by the community and the school board for the promotion of their health.
2. Adopt a hygienic program of living, giving sufficient attention to recreation, sleep, eating, rest, and exercise. Protection against certain specific diseases, such as smallpox and typhoid fever, by vaccination is also a wise and social procedure. Adequate social life and recreation are imperative needs.
3. Avoid worry and anxiety in regard to health.
4. Prepare themselves in the use of modern methods of teaching, since these are conducive to more effective teaching and to a better understanding of children, and thereby to greater social and emotional health on the part of the teacher.
5. Develop sympathy, tact and understanding in dealing with children, parents, fellow teachers, and supervisors, thus lessening the strain of teaching.
6. Foster a wholesome respect for the profession to which they belong and seek to make their work a contribution to that profession.
7. Withdraw from the teaching profession if its demands and conditions are at variance with health and temperament.

PROVISIONS FOR PHYSICALLY EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

Scope of such provisions. School systems are more and more making provisions for special programs for the *physically exceptional* children. Since such programs are much more expensive than programs for normal children, many states give special subsidies to local school systems

that organize such programs. Most states have established *state schools* for the deaf and the blind, and a few states have provided similar schools for epileptics. The chief types of physically exceptional children for which hundreds of local school systems now make special provision are the following: blind and partially sighted, deaf and hard of hearing, epileptic, crippled, cardiac (heart), tuberculous, and speech defective.

Opportunities and requirements in teaching physically exceptional children. In the United States several thousand classes for physically exceptional children of the various

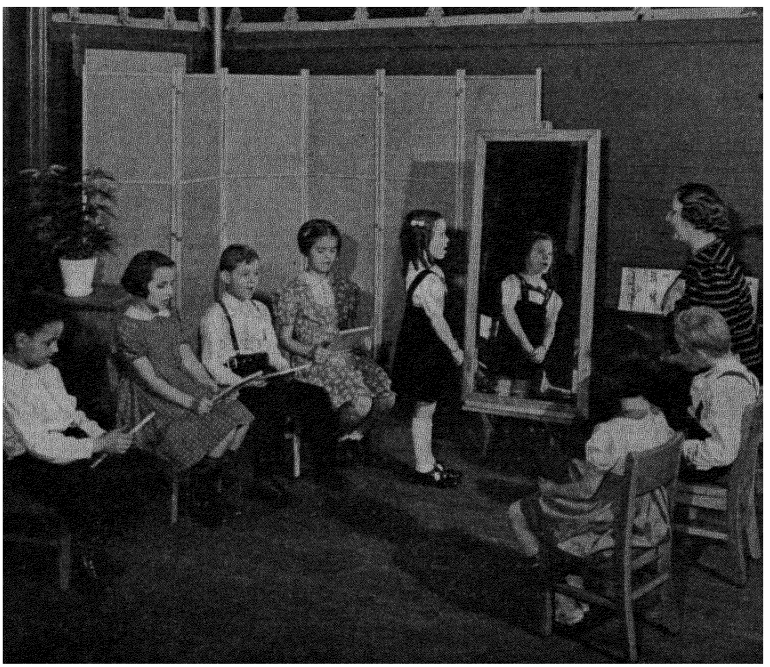

FIG. 44. A speech-correction class in the Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, public schools. Classes for physically exceptional children of many types are now found in hundreds of school systems.

types are found, and these provide hundreds of employment opportunities each year at salaries above the average. Each type of special class demands, of course, a teacher with special preparation, and only a few colleges and universities make provision for giving such preparation. Stu-

dents interested in preparing for a career in one or more of these types of special education should write to the following societies for the names of colleges and universities which provide such preparation and for the other services of the societies: American Heart Association, 1790 Broadway, New York, N. Y.; American Medical Association,[1] 535 North Dearborn Street, Chicago, Ill.; American Society for the Hard of Hearing, 1535–35th Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.; American Society to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf, 1537–35th Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.; American Speech Correction Association, 419 Boylston Street, Boston, Mass.; National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, 120 Broadway, New York, N. Y.; National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, 1790 Broadway, New York, N. Y.; National Foundation for the Blind, 105 East 22nd Street, New York, N. Y.; and National Tuberculosis Association, 1790 Broadway, New York, N. Y.

PROVISIONS FOR SCHOOL LUNCHES

During recent years the tendency everywhere has been toward the school providing lunch facilities for its pupils and employees. These provisions have been made especially by the larger schools, but many of the smaller ones have also made them; in fact, thousands of the one-room schools now provide at least one warm dish daily for each pupil. Since these facilities make a direct contribution to health, and since school employees must prepare themselves to manage the facilities, they will be briefly discussed herewith.

Management of school lunch facilities. In addition to having the responsibility of providing the proper equipment for the lunch period, the school must make provisions for the proper management of the lunch facilities. Making

[1] Students interested in preparing to become a physio-therapist or an occupational therapist should write the American Medical Association for information on these professions and on the colleges and universities which prepare students for them. The demand for these workers is already greater than the supply, and it is likely to become much greater because of the injuries to persons engaged in World War II. *Therapy* may be defined as "any activity, either mental or physical, especially prescribed and guided to aid in recovery from disease or injury."

these provisions will include the selection and supervision of the lunchroom personnel, and the prescription of certain business practices to be followed. The aim in lunchroom management should be to provide appropriate food at the lowest cost possible. Since pupils and school employees are expected to pay for the upkeep of lunchrooms the school should establish purchasing, accounting, auditing, and other business practices which will guarantee that pupils and employees will always receive "their money's worth."

Since teachers of home economics are almost always given the duty of supervising the school lunch facilities, they should not neglect this phase of their college preparation. They should learn how to manage or to supervise the management of the school lunchroom which will sometimes have excellent and adequate equipment, but which will more often have, especially in the smaller schools, inferior and inadequate equipment. Many schools are, of course, sufficiently large to require full-time lunchroom managers, and these positions provide another excellent employment opportunity for graduates of departments of home economics.

Many of the more progressive schools are trying to make the lunch period more than merely an "eating interlude"; they are making it a vital part of the educational experience of the pupils. They have abolished the cafeteria style of meal and have substituted for it a standard meal for every pupil. Committees of pupils help the lunchroom manager to plan the meals, and the menus are changed each day. Pupils rotate in serving the meals and in being hosts and hostesses at the various tables. In brief, attempt is made to teach and to enforce high standards of etiquette and to make in every way the lunch period an enjoyable, health-contributing, and socializing experience.

Lunches for indigent children. Thousands of children are malnourished because of parental ignorance of the principles of nutrition, and thousands of others are malnourished because of poverty in their homes. All these underprivileged children should be a special concern of the school, because malnourishment is sure to affect the educational accom-

plishment of the pupil, his emotional tone, his health, his conduct, and his happiness.

In many states public funds may be used to provide food for indigent pupils, and in thousands of communities such funds are being used for this purpose. In most communities, however, public funds for the purpose are insufficient and must be supplemented by private funds. In most communities private funds may be readily secured from parent-teacher associations, from welfare agencies, from other community organizations, and from individuals; in fact, private funds for this humanitarian purpose may be so easily secured that school officials and employees who do not take steps to secure them when and if they are needed are deserving of universal condemnation.

THE SCHOOL'S RESPONSIBILITY FOR SAFETY EDUCATION

The toll taken by accidents. The toll taken annually by accidents is colossal. In the United States, according to the National Safety Council, accident fatalities have increased from 91,087 in 1933 to more than 100,000 annually today. Almost 10,000,000 persons suffer nonfatal injuries, and approximately 350,000 of these are permanently injured. At the present rate, it can be predicted that 6 out of every 100 persons born are destined eventually to die of accidental injury. These deaths and injuries cause untold distress and suffering. They blast the opportunities of hundreds of thousands of persons, and since life and limb have value, accidents result in a loss of billions of dollars annually. In addition to the losses resulting from death and nonfatal injury—which cannot be measured adequately in dollars and cents—accidents result annually in the destruction or the damage of hundreds of millions of dollars' worth of property.

These accidents result from innumerable causes or instruments, the chief ones being automobiles, falls, railroads, drownings, burns, poisonous gases, and firearms. These instruments or causes are, of course, part and parcel of the civilization of the times, and they change as the work,

habits, and customs of the people change. Many inventions, which come to be widely adopted, result annually in thousands of deaths and injuries, as witness the automobile.

Nor are accidents limited to any particular age, although the available data show that certain ages are afflicted with more accidents than others. According to the National Safety Council, approximately 600,000 pupils annually suffer accidents and more than 13,000 of these are fatal. Drab though it is, the picture of pupil accidents is not entirely unlovely, because during recent years the number of accidents and of fatalities among pupils has been greatly reduced. These reductions have been made through programs of safety education in the schools and through better school and community cooperation. They have been made in spite of the increasing hazards and notwithstanding the increasing number of accidents among the adult population of the nation.

Reducing the number of accidents. All, or practically all, accidents are preventable. "Accidents do not happen; they are caused." They are not acts of God, but of man. They may be prevented through the universal education of the people in the causes of accidents and in the ways and means of eliminating those causes. The attainment of this goal, though possible, will not be easy; it will require universal instruction in safety education and universal following of that instruction. Every educational employee should be prepared to cooperate in giving that instruction.

In any program for reducing the number of accidents, the school has as its first responsibility the protection of the pupils from injury, particularly while they are on the school premises or are on way to or from school. Although the courts have declared with near unanimity that school corporations cannot be held *legally* responsible for injuries suffered by school employees, pupils, or other persons, nevertheless, it is not too much to expect that the school shall be *morally* responsible for the safety of pupils. The moral responsibility to make the school premises and enterprise as safe as possible is always present, whatever the legal responsibility may be. Moreover, it should be ob-

served that the courts of a few states (especially California, New York, and Washington) now hold school corporations, school officials, and school employees legally responsible for accidents caused by their negligence.

Since most school accidents occur on the playground, in the gymnasium, in the laboratories and shops, and on the streets, school officials and employees should, first of all,

FIG. 45. Schoolboy safety patrol. (Courtesy of the St. Louis, Missouri, public schools.) Thousands of schools have organized these patrols to protect pupils from injury.

take steps to try to prevent such accidents. After steps have been taken to eliminate school accidents, steps should next be taken to assist in the prevention of *nonschool* accidents. The latter steps are urged because pupils soon leave the watchful care of the school and take their places in the workaday world in which the danger of accidents lurks everywhere. To teach the child to become a careful adult should be a chief aim of the school.

In most schools and school systems the battle for the

prevention of accidents is now being fought along the four following fronts: first, the making of school sites, buildings, and equipment more safe for the work and play of pupils and employees; second, the closer supervision of the pupils while they are on the school premises and when they are on their way to and from school; third, the provision of instruction in safety; and fourth, the securing of cooperation between the school and other public and private agencies for the reduction of accidents, particularly traffic accidents.

Teachers and other educational employees have many opportunities to cooperate in carrying out the safety program just mentioned. They can assist by calling the attention of school officials to hazards around the school plant: for example, they can call attention to any machinery which needs guards or playground equipment which is unsafe for the age and size of the pupils. They can give their pupils instruction in the use of dangerous school machinery and equipment, in the performing of certain experiments which have possibilities of being dangerous, and in the traffic laws of the community and of the state; they can also provide ample supervision to see that the instructions are followed.

The most significant phase of the program for accident prevention during recent years has been the introduction of safety education into the schools as a subject of instruction. In some schools, instruction in this subject is provided in a separate course of study, and in other schools the instruction is correlated with the subject matter of other courses. Driver education has become a common subject, especially in the secondary schools. The officials and employees of schools and school systems which have provided safety instruction are unanimous in the view that such instruction has proved its efficacy. They affirm that during and following such instruction the number of accidents is greatly reduced. St. Louis, which was one of the first cities to introduce safety instruction into the schools, reports that within a period of three years following the introduction of a program of safety instruction the number of accidents among pupils was reduced to nearly zero.

Fire prevention and fire drills. The National Society for the Prevention of Waste has recently stated that the annual fire loss in the United States is more than $500,000,000. To this huge loss, school-building fires contribute more than $10,000,000 annually through approximately six fires daily. Scores of lives are lost, and hundreds of nonfatal injuries are suffered in these fires, and deaths and injuries frequently occur in school-building fires, although fortunately not nearly as frequently as in other fires.

When it is considered that the annual fire loss of the United States amounts to almost one fourth of the expenditure for schools—and when it is known that practically all fires are preventable—the opportunity which the schools have to teach fire prevention and control is brought into clear perspective. Someone has pointed out that the schools could more than pay their way by teaching methods of waste prevention—prevention of fires, of unnecessary illness, of accidents, and of premature death; of course, there are many other wastes.

In their campaign to eliminate fires and fire injuries school officials and employees have as their first responsibility the elimination of school-building fires and the prevention of injury to pupils. Such steps as the following should be taken:

1. **Fire hazards should be removed.** Fire hazards may be due to faulty construction of the plant or to careless usage of the plant. Most states now have laws which prescribe certain standards which the construction of school buildings shall meet, and the tendency has been to make such laws more rigid.

Beyond the obligation of calling the attention of school officials to construction hazards, school employees cannot do much toward the removing of such hazards. The other type of hazards—those resulting from the usage of the plant—they can, however, do much to eliminate. They can see, for example, that rubbish and similar fire menaces are not allowed to accumulate in their classrooms or in other parts of the plant over which they are responsible; they can see that any highly combustible materials used in labora-

tories, shops, and domestic-science rooms are properly stored or carefully used; they can teach pupils safety habits in the use of matches, chemicals, and similar materials; they can see that fire escapes, aisles, and exists are not obstructed; and they can make certain that they know how to use the fire extinguishers of the building and that those extinguishers are ready for instant and effective use.

2. **Regular fire drills should be conducted in every school.** The purpose of the fire drill is to get all occupants out of the building in as short a period of time as possible. To accomplish this purpose every pupil must know exactly what he is to do when the fire alarm is sounded, and he must know this for every hour of the day and for every condition under which he may be working or playing. These results cannot be accomplished with halfhearted or perfunctory compliance with the state law or with the rules and regulations of the local school or school system.

Most states now require every school, public or private, to hold a fire drill at least once each month. Such legislation had its beginning immediately following certain school-building fires in which pupils and school employees lost their lives. The most horrible of these catastrophes happened in Collinwood, Ohio, in 1908; in that fire, 173 pupils and 2 teachers died. Following that holocaust, legislation was enacted which demanded safer construction of school buildings, provisions for fire escapes and fire-fighting apparatus, and frequent fire drills.

The organization of the fire drill should receive special thought on the part of school officials and employees. Superintendents, principals, and other school officials are expected to take the lead in organizing and coordinating fire drills for each school, but the efficacy of any drill is largely determined by the sympathetic and intelligent cooperation of teachers. Teachers have the responsibility of getting their pupils out of their rooms, of seeing that the pupils properly join the line of march, and of maintaining strict discipline. Moreover, the fire drill affords teachers another excellent opportunity to impress upon pupils the value of carefulness and the tragedy of carelessness; if such a lesson

is taught, fewer pupils will regard the fire drill as nonsense or as an abbreviated lark.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Discuss good health as an aim of education. Compare it in importance with the other aims of education.
2. Compare the purposes of health and physical education today with its purposes a few years ago.
3. How do you account for the historic neglect of health and physical education in the schools?
4. What provisions do the laws of your state make for health, safety, and sanitary control of the schools? What changes, if any, would you suggest in the laws?
5. Would you favor compulsory medical inspection, compulsory physical examinations, and compulsory remedial treatment of school children? Why or why not? Would you favor compulsory vaccination of pupils? Discuss.
6. Do you believe the control of school health work should be in the hands of school officials or in the hands of the public health authorities? Discuss.
7. How do you account for the larger percentage of physical defects among rural children than among city children?
8. Do you agree with the view that if a school system can have only one health employee, that one should be a school nurse? Explain.
9. What provisions should the school make for pupil play? Should school playgrounds be kept open during the summer months? Explain.
10. What provision do you believe the school should make for a noon lunch for pupils and employees? Why? What special provision should be made for indigent children? Explain.
11. What are some steps which the teacher can take to reduce school accidents?

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PART IV

THE MATERIALS OF INSTRUCTION

Chapter XIII

THE CURRICULUM AND SOCIAL TRENDS

DEFINITIONS AND SCOPE OF THE CURRICULUM

Definitions of the curriculum. Definitions of the *curriculum* have undergone large changes during recent years. In the early days the curriculum was regarded as a list of subject matter—that is, a course of study [1]—which pupils were expected to read, to memorize, and to recite. Since this subject matter was usually found in and limited to the school subjects—reading, writing, arithmetic, and others—the school subjects usually determined the curriculum. In those days it was believed that book learning was the only type of learning—at least, the only type worth pursuing; hence, the textbook determined largely or wholly the curriculum. Pupil experiences secured outside the classroom were not regarded as a part of the curriculum; in fact, many school officials and employees tried to insulate the pupils from such experiences.

During recent years, however, definitions of the *curriculum* have become much more inclusive. They now include not only the school subjects but all other pupil activities and experiences which the school may direct. They include all the so-called "extracurricular" activities, various home and community activities—in brief, all pupil activities and experiences which the school may direct, wherever and whenever they may be found. Some of these activities and experiences are vitiating in their influence, but they are nevertheless a part of the total learning situation and can-

[1] This subject matter is usually called a *course of study*. That part of the curriculum which is organized for classroom use constitutes the course of study. Secondary schools and colleges usually have more than one course of study.

not be ignored by the school because the pupils cannot be insulated from them. According to this view, which is the one taken in this book, the *curriculum* may be defined as

FIG. 46. A visiting class at the educational museum. (Courtesy of the St. Louis, Missouri, public schools.) Such experiences help to vitalize the curriculum.

"all the activities and all the experiences in which pupils engage under the direction of the school to achieve the objectives of the school." The curriculum is the means by which the objectives of the school may be accomplished; it

is the learning experiences directed by the school and available to the pupils.

Scope of the curriculum. The potential curriculum is, of course, all of the social heritage; it is as broad as life—life in the past and at present. From this huge *potential* curriculum school officials and employees have the herculean task of selecting, organizing, and presenting the *actual* curriculum. The proper performance of this task presents the greatest challenge which school officials and employees ever face; it is worthy of the time and thought of a multitude of educational Solomons.

In the United States the school subjects have traditionally constituted the heart of the curriculum; hence, an excellent view of the growth of the curriculum may be had from observing the historical development of those subjects. Regarding this development it will suffice to say that the school subjects have become more and more numerous as society has become more and more complex and as the increasing congestion of home duties has caused the responsibility for the education of children to be shifted more and more from the home to the school. Facility in reading and writing and a knowledge of the Bible, which were the curricular requirements of the earliest schools, did not long suffice to meet social needs. Changing social conditions—constantly in the direction of greater complexity—constantly made necessary the introduction of new subjects into the curriculum. The tabulation on page 356 summarizes the development of the subjects of the elementary-school curriculum in the United States from the first schools to the present.

The subjects of the secondary school have had an even more phenomenal development than those of the elementary school. Whereas the Latin grammar school, which was the progenitor of the academy as the latter was the progenitor of the high school, limited its curriculum to such subjects as Latin, Greek, and higher arithmetic, the secondary school of today offers dozens of subjects. In fact, in many of the secondary schools of the large cities it would be possible for a pupil to attend school for a large portion of his lifetime, pursue a normal program of study, and not

1642	*1775*	*1875*	*At Present*
Reading	Reading	Reading	Reading
Writing	Writing	Writing	Writing
Bible	Arithmetic	Arithmetic	Arithmetic
	Spelling	Spelling	Spelling
	Bible	Conduct	Character education
		Language and grammar	Language and grammar
		Geography	Geography
		History and civics	History, civics, and current events
		Drawing	Art
		Music	Music
		Nature study	Science
		Physical exercises	Health education and supervised play
			Safety education
			Industrial arts
			Home economics
			Agriculture
			Commercial subjects
			Consumer education

have to repeat a subject. During recent years attempt has been more and more made to introduce vocational subjects into the secondary school and to take other steps to make the school more utilitarian. The large amount of employment which preceded World War II and the crying need during that war for skilled workers to build war machines have given vocational training a great impetus which is almost certain to continue in peacetime.

THE HISTORIC LAG OF THE CURRICULUM

The lag of the curriculum behind society. The chief criticism which has been made of the curriculum is its lag behind social conditions and social needs. The curriculum has not taken sufficiently into account the problems which pupils face and which they will likely face when they become adults; it has not sufficiently prepared the pupils for living in a rapidly changing society. This criticism of the curriculum is being made today, and it has always been made. It was made by Comenius (1592–1671), Froebel (1782–1852), Harris (1835–1909), Parker (1837–1902), and scores of other master teachers of former generations. During recent years it has been made by John Dewey and

his legion of disciples. What to do, if anything, about this lag has always constituted the chief problem for curriculum-makers.

In his great essay entitled, "What Knowledge Is of Most Worth," published first in 1859, Herbert Spencer (1820–1903), eminent English philosopher, made a devastating attack upon the schools of England of his time for their failure to prepare the pupils for "complete living."[1] In one place he says, "Had there been no teaching but such as is given in our public schools, England would now [1859] be what it was in feudal times"; in another place he describes the curriculum of his time as one suitable only for celibates.[2] In brief, the schools then spent most of their time in preparing the pupils for reading the books of extinct nations, for appreciating the "grandeur that was Greece and the glory that was Rome." As Spencer said, they gave little attention to preparation for "complete living"; that is, to preparation for engaging in a vocation, for maintaining health, for performing one's duties of citizenship, for becoming parents, and for participating in leisure-time activities.[3] They reveled in the classics and other contributions of the past and were largely oblivious to the problems of the present and the future.

This lag of the curriculum behind life has been very large, except in the earliest days of the school. It has been large, although educational statesmanship has always been conscious of the lag and has worked diligently toward its correction. In the early days life was much more simple than it is today, and preparation for it was given primarily by the home, the tribe, the church, the guild, or some other appropriate group; in those days the role of the school in the educational program of society was relatively small. Preparation for life was largely secured by the boy or girl through imitating the work and the play—the life—of his parents and other elders. Moreover, the curriculum of the

[1] Herbert Spencer, *Education: Intellectual, Moral, and Physical,* Appleton, 1860, p. 54.
[2] *Ibid.,* p. 55.
[3] *Ibid.,* p. 34.

simple school of those days was made up of life activities. School subjects and courses of study had not yet made their appearance, and textbooks were unknown.

A certain amount of lag of the curriculum is inevitable because of the nature of education. Since the school, like all other institutions, is the result of experience, it will by its very nature be essentially conservative. It is everywhere agreed that the prime purpose of the school is to transmit to the pupil the heritage of the race—the accumulated knowledge, techniques, and art. Since only a small part of this heritage can be transmitted in the brief time during which the school has the pupil under its tutelage, school officials and employees will always have the task of deciding what knowledge is of most worth, and since this question must be answered largely by opinion—and opinion is ever fallible—there will always be the danger that the most valuable knowledge will not be selected. Since it is "human to err," any lag caused by the fallibility of judgment may perhaps be forgiven.

There are other causes of the lag of the curriculum behind social needs. Those causes also make the lag somewhat inevitable, but not always forgivable. Those causes stem from the human trait of conservatism and the closely related trait of inertia. Many people resist change, especially change which does not meet their own desires; they prefer to go the easiest way—to follow the "cowpath of tradition." These people sometimes sloganize their desires by saying, "What was good enough for our parents is good enough for us." This becomes their slogan, especially when they see that a proposed public service would tax them more heavily. These people sometimes avow that we already live in a perfect or nigh perfect civilization and that the school should do nothing beyond attempting to adjust the pupils to that civilization.

The traits of conservatism and inertia should not be regarded as altogether bad, in spite of the fact that they often cause the delay of institutional changes which are sadly needed. They frequently serve the purpose of causing the rejection of philosophies, theories, proposals, opinions, and

"isms" which at first blush seem excellent, but which upon closer inspection are seen to be worthless. They serve as checks upon "crackpots," as bulwarks against self-appointed "voices of America" and would-be messiahs who promise abundant manna for every human need if the people will but follow their leadership. Conservatism and inertia act as governors against undesirable and too rapid change; they require all would-be reformers to prove the merit of their proposed reforms. In a democracy persons with those traits have a voice which must be heard the same as the voice of the apostles of liberalism and of change.

What has been the effect of this conservatism and inertia upon the curriculum? These traits have been too much in dominance. They have resulted in a conservative curriculum for the schools of today. Although social change may have long suggested the need for a new type of material for the curriculum, this material has not been introduced until many years later—until perhaps a serious business depression, a war, or other cataclysm has forced action. Although he constantly needs reforming, it is axiomatic that "the devil can be more easily reformed when he is sick." And the devil is always *worth* reforming.

Strange as it may seem, this conservatism and inertia are not found among laymen alone; they also obtain among a large body of school officials and teachers. Moreover, selfish motives sometimes actuate school officials and employees, and such motives always retard changes in the curriculum. Many of these officials and employees are opposed to curricular innovations because they see in them a threat to the continuance of their vested interests. They fear that if changes in the curriculum are made, they will be thrown out of employment or required to teach subjects which they don't want to teach; they see that textbooks and similar materials which they have prepared will no longer be used. It is a strange and sad commentary that new subjects have usually come into the curriculum upon the demand of certain lay groups and not from the leadership of educators. The vocational subjects were introduced into the curriculum, for example, upon the insistence of the industrial, agricul-

tural, and commercial interests, and without the support of the educators as a group.[1]

On the other hand, after a subject has secured a place in the curriculum, it has been like pulling teeth to eliminate it or any part of it. Scores of new subjects and hundreds of parts of subjects have come into the curriculum of the elementary school, the secondary school, and the college, but only a few of them have been eliminated. Many of these subjects or parts of them are retained long after the need for them has passed away. They are kept intact by conservatism, worship of tradition, and vested interests, and often these vested interests are vigorously active. The essentialists of modern education were the progressives of yesteryear, and the liberals of today will be the reactionaries of tomorrow. When reformers have revamped or reformed an institution, they set about to "protect" it from new reformers; the reformers of yesterday are the vested interests of today.

One view of the relation which should exist between the curriculum and social change has just been presented. To summarize, that view holds that society is now perfect or nearly so, and that the function of the school is to help to perpetuate society unchanged; if it concedes, as it occasionally does, that new factors are introduced into the social order, it denies that these new factors require a new type of school program. Most school officials and employees and most of the general public have held that view.

The other view holds that society is *not* perfect and that the school should assiduously and constantly prepare its pupils to seek improvement in it. It holds that the patterns of living—that is, the social heritage—must always be under close scrutiny in order that they may be improved wherever possible. It relates the social heritage to the problems which pupils face and which they will likely face when they become adults. It attempts to use the experiences of the race to help pupils to construct a more glorious pres-

[1] Many educators have always opposed the use of public funds for the teaching of strictly vocational subjects on the grounds that such education served a private purpose primarily rather than a citizenship purpose.

ent and future. This view is coming more and more to be held by educators, and has been given a tremendous impetus by World War II.

Almost before a new curriculum is finished, although its construction may have been attended with profound thinking and care, it will have become archaic in many parts. This out-of-dateness happens because social conditions and needs change from year to year. We can well say with Heraclitus that "there is nothing permanent; everything flows." Society changes whether the school does or not; often it changes in spite of the school. Fortunately, society has many other educational agencies, beside the school, which help it in its onward march.

It should not be inferred from the foregoing remarks that there is a revolution in social needs every change of the moon. Social needs change usually by gradual evolution, rather than by revolution. In his long struggle for a better life man has developed certain verities, or what he regards as verities, and he is not likely to throw these into the garbage heap of civilization overnight. When, however, institutions such as the school, the church, capital, organized labor, and government are notoriously tardy in adjusting themselves to social needs, the public is likely to lose patience with them and to change them by revolution—not necessarily a revolution accompanied by bloodshed but one characterized by violent changes in the institutions to bring them in line with social needs. Society changes gradually, but the adaptations of institutions to these changes must frequently be made by revolution. Revolution must often be used because institutions come to be controlled by conservative, careless, and selfish interests, and these interests always insist upon perpetuating themselves. That society progresses gradually, although the curve of advancement has many ups and downs and the momentum of progress through the years is not uniform, will be seen by a study of progress in any field of human endeavor.

To summarize, the curriculum must be under constant revision; it must be kept up to date. In brief, it must be constantly adapted to the needs of a continuously changing

—and, let us hope, constantly improving—society. If the needed revisions are not made, the curriculum cannot meet the needs of a dynamic society, and there is danger that it will lag many years behind social progress and become an excrescence upon society rather than a nourishment. This lag will result in a loss of money, time, and energy for school purposes; pupils will become attracted to progressing activities outside the school and will want to leave the school; and the public is likely to lose faith in the school and to regard the school's budget as obese. The lag can best be corrected by an informed body of educational employees—employees who are constant and intelligent students of the never-ending and turbulently flowing stream of civilization. These employees should regard the school as the chief source and as the greatest purifying agent of the stream of civilization; they should not permit the stream to become stagnant.

The lag of the curriculum behind the learner. Another chief criticism which has been made of the curriculum is that it is not always adapted to the needs of the learner, especially that it does not sufficiently consider the interests and the abilities of the individual. This criticism has been made especially by leaders in psychology and education; less frequently has it come from laymen. It was made by educational reformers of centuries ago before experimental psychology was born; it was made by Pestalozzi (1746–1827), Herbart (1776–1841), Rousseau (1712–1778), and many other educational pioneers. The criticism has become particularly frequent and cogent during recent years as a result of the development of an experimental psychology and a science of education. As a result of this development, no longer must educators entirely theorize or guess regarding "how the mind works" and how learning takes place. They now have many facts on such problems, although they are far from having final knowledge about them.

The old-time school was run on a philosophy of life which emphasized the importance of group solidarity and placed little or no emphasis upon developing the potentialities of the individual members of the group. Moreover,

the conceptions of mind held by old-time educators worked hand in glove with this philosophy which emphasized the group and neglected the individual—perhaps they germinated the philosophy. Those conceptions and that philosophy held that individuals were alike in natural endowment or that they could be made alike through education; the way in which they were to be made alike was through similar subject matter presented in the same manner. With these views in vogue it is easy to see how the old-time school came to be subject-matter-centered and how the pupil came to be "the forgotten man." Pupils were regarded as "funnels" into which the same kind and amount of subject matter were to be "poured," and at the same rate for each pupil.

In the early days one large group of educators assumed with John Locke (1632–1704) that the mind was a *tabula rasa*—a clean slate upon which anything might be written. This group discounted theories of differences in innate abilities and in potentialities among individuals; it believed that one slate was as clean, and could be written upon as easily, as another. The mind was a slate, and subject matter was the material to be written upon the slate. This was, indeed, an engagingly simple theory of the mind and of how the educative process was to be conducted. Long ago, however, the theory was everywhere discarded, and other theories supplanted it.

Another group of educators, which was closely related to and soon succeeded the *tabula rasa* group, believed that the mind was composed of a series of distinct and separate faculties—thinking, feeling, willing, etc.—and that each of these faculties could be trained through exercise just as a muscle may be thus trained; by inference this group regarded the mind as composed of several "slates" rather than as one slate. In psychology the members of the group came to be known as the *faculty psychologists,* and in education they came to be called the *formal disciplinists.* These educators believed that the chief purpose of education was to "train the mind," and that such subjects as arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and Latin were subjects par excellence for giving this "training." They believed, moreover, that

the training received in a given field would automatically "transfer" to other fields. Method of instruction was pre-eminent with them, and pupil interest and instructional content were of slight concern. The faculty psychologists and the formal disciplinists have been rapidly decreasing in number and in influence, and it is no longer believed that transfer of training will automatically take place.[1]

During recent decades another group of educators has come to the fore and is easily the largest group today. This group denies that the mind is made up of separate and distinct faculties functioning separately. It believes that the mind is an entity—an entity with itself and with the whole body.[2] It emphasizes the unitary character and coherence of mental processes. It no longer worships the disciplinary and knowledge-is-power processes and aims of education, but emphasizes the harmonious development of all capacities of the pupil and the preparation of the pupil for economic, home, civic, and social usefulness in a democracy. With this group, method of instruction, of course, is not neglected, but it no longer dictates what shall be taught; method has become instead the vehicle for carrying the precious cargo of instruction, namely, the content, and for helping the pupil to evaluate and to use that content.

This group believes that the interests and needs of the educational consumer—that is, the pupil—should be kept in mind as well as the needs of society. It realizes that unless the interests and needs of the pupil are kept in mind the consumer will not consume—at least all that he might, and it knows that if the pupil does not consume he will not be prepared to take his proper place in society when he becomes an adult. The modern educator, is, therefore, studying and catering to the learner; he is attempting "to psychol-

[1] The questions of the amount of transfer of training and of how transfer takes place are still controversial. For a critical summarization of the several theories and investigations on these questions, the interested reader is referred to Pedro T. Orata, *The Theory of Identical Elements,* Ohio State University, 1928.

[2] For a report of an investigation which discredits the specific and separate function theory of the mind, the interested reader is referred to K. S. Lashley, "Basic Neural Mechanisms in Behavior," *Psychological Review,* Vol. 37 (January, 1930), pp. 1–24.

ogize instruction," as Pestalozzi did years ago, but he is using different procedures than Pestalozzi used. He realizes that there are large differences in the interests and abilities of pupils, that the pupil learns best when he is gripped with a vital and worth-while purpose, and that self-activity is a *sine qua non* for learning. He believes that under the guidance of the teacher, the pupil should be permitted to have a voice in determining the content of the curriculum, and that without this voice the content is not so likely to be adapted to the pupil's interests, purposes, and abilities. He believes, moreover, that giving the pupil a voice in determining the content of the curriculum helps to prepare him for participation in the democratic way of life. The school is the cradle of democracy, and it should not be rocked by officials and employees who are dictators.

Often, though, subject matter has become both the means and the end with certain members of this modern group of educators. And, perhaps as frequently the pupil has become both the means and the end with other members of the group. Somehow both factors—subject matter and the pupil—must be united in proper relationship; without this marriage education cannot take place, and it is the obligation of the teacher to see that the proper marriage takes place. The school should not be "child-centered" nor "subject-matter-centered"; rather it should be "teacher-centered." A school without an excellent teacher to serve as a "midwife at the birth of ideas" would not likely produce many worth-while ideas. Although the pupils' opinions on what they would like to study should always be considered, the teacher should always make the final decision on what they *shall* study.

THE TECHNIQUE AND THE PERSONNEL FOR CURRICULUM-MAKING

In an earlier paragraph the *curriculum* was defined as "all the activities and all the experiences in which pupils engage under the direction of the school to achieve the objectives of the school." From this definition it is obvious

that the curriculum is the most vital part of instruction; therefore, the manner in which it is made and used determines largely the value of instruction, hence the value of the school. If the objectives of the curriculum are not adequate, if the pupil activities and experiences which make up the curriculum do not meet psychological and sociological needs, there will be waste—waste to the pupil and waste of public funds. If the teachers of the nation spend as much as 10 per cent of their time on nonessential materials in the curriculum—and they probably spend much more than that—more than $200,000,000 of the taxpayers' money is wasted annually. The opportunities for waste in the curriculum are stupendous; they lurk everywhere.

The preceding statement emphasizes the large amount of waste of public funds in the construction and administration of the curriculum. There are other wastes resulting from a poor curriculum, and those cannot be measured in dollars and cents; if they could be measured, the 10 per cent waste mentioned in the preceding quotation would seem small in comparison. The cost of these unmeasurable wastes falls heaviest upon helpless sufferers—the pupils. A poor curriculum often causes pupils to be bored, to become discouraged, and—what is more to be deplored—to fail and to quit school as soon as the attendance laws permit. Lack of interest in the school is one of the largest causes of nonattendance and elimination, and it is one of the largest causes of poor discipline, which is the most frequent bugaboo of beginning teachers.

The old-fashioned technique of curriculum construction. The old-fashioned technique of curriculum-making may be illustrated from an inglorious chapter in the professional autobiography of the writer. This has its setting in a small city many years ago. The writer had just been graduated from college and was elected superintendent of schools in the city in question. He was young and ambitious to do something "big and startling"; therefore, one of his first official acts was to start a revision of the curriculum. He did not seriously consider whether a revision was necessary, or whether he was competent to make the revision. Don

Quixote-like he plunged into the task. His knowledge of the curriculum was on a plane with that exhibited by an experienced school-board member who defined the curriculum to a new board member in these words: "The curriculum is that thing which every new superintendent finds it necessary to revise immediately upon taking up his work."

The technique which the writer used in making a curriculum for the school system in question was almost universally used at that time and is employed today by many old-fashioned school officials and employees. As an example of a technique which should be avoided, it invites further description. The first step taken was to write to the superintendents of a few of the larger school systems, such as New York City, Chicago, and Philadelphia, requesting copies of their curricula. These in hand, our work and malpractice began in earnest. Our technique of curriculum construction was the "scissors-and-paste" technique; it might also be labeled the "tinkering" technique. Work was begun on spelling, because we had read or been told that spelling was one of the most mechanical and easiest of the school subjects, and we desired to tackle the easiest subject first. We would read what seemed to be an excellent paragraph in the Chicago spelling curriculum and would transfer it by scissors and paste, without any attempt at adaptation, to our curriculum; another paragraph would be transferred from the New York City curriculum, another from that of Philadelphia, and still others from the curricula of other school systems. In a few hours the subject of spelling was finished and we proudly surveyed our handiwork. To us the making of a curriculum required but to say "presto begone," and the whole task was finished.

It is likely that the curriculum which we constructed was worse than none. The chief mistakes which we made were the following: we assumed that curriculum-making was a one-man job rather than a cooperative undertaking of the superintendent, principals, supervisors, and teachers; we did not have a well-formulated philosophy of life and of education, hence no fundamental objectives which the curriculum should be expected to realize and the method by

which they should be accomplished; we did not keep in mind the social conditions and needs of our community; we were oblivious to the abilities, interests, and other psychological needs of the pupils, no provision being made for individual differences; no suggestions were made to teachers regarding the topics which were of most importance and the sequence in which the topics should be taught; no suggestions were made regarding efficient methods of instruction which teachers might use; no reference books were listed; no criteria were given for judging the results of teaching; and the curriculum was regarded as an inviolable instrument with no provision for variation from it by the different teachers nor for keeping it up to date. What a nightmare this curriculum was to teachers and to pupils!

The modern technique of curriculum-making. The modern technique of curriculum-making is vastly different from the old-fashioned technique just described.[1] More and more this modern technique is being used; consequently, valuable curricula are much more frequently found than formerly. What is of greater significance, an attempt is being constantly made to improve the technique. In fact, during recent years the improvement of the curricula of the American schools has probably received more thought and attention of school officials and employees than any other phase of school work. The lag of the curriculum, described in the preceding section, is being rapidly reduced through these ubiquitous efforts. There is scarcely a school system in the land which is not questioning the merit of the present curriculum and which is not attempting to improve it. The world-wide upheaval during recent years has greatly stimulated this attempt by calling attention forcefully to the lag of the curriculum behind socio-economic needs.

In constructing a curriculum certain steps must be taken, and defensible principles must be followed in taking those steps; in other words, there must be an underlying philosophy for all steps. The central aim of all the steps should

[1] This modern technique is briefly described herewith. It is more completely described in several of the references listed in the Selected References at the close of this chapter.

be to secure a curriculum which will meet the needs of pupils and adults in a constantly changing civilization; moreover, the materials of the curriculum should be selected, organized, and presented to the pupils in such a way as to contribute to the realization of the central aim of education, namely, *creative thinking.* If adult needs monopolize the school's time and pupil abilities and interests are neglected, the instruction is not likely to "get across" to the pupil; on the contrary, if pupil interests and abilities monopolize the school's time and adult needs are neglected, the pupils are not likely to be prepared to take their proper place in society. The curriculum must be both "child-centered" and "adult-centered"; it must be adapted to the stage of development of the individual pupil and must look ahead to the time when the pupil has grown into adulthood. To reconcile these two poles is a problem for educational statesmanship, and the problem is faced by every teacher, statesman or not.

What are the steps which should be followed in curriculum construction? A perusal of the literature evinces that there is general agreement among the authorities regarding the steps in or the rules and plans for curriculum construction. All the authorities agree that the determination of worth-while objectives for the curriculum should be the first step in curriculum construction. All of them also agree that there is need for a study of child life at its various stages, for a study of social and economic conditions and trends, and for a highly critical selection of subject matter which will meet these stages, conditions, and trends. When disagreement among the authorities is found, it is usually concerned with the relative emphasis which should be given to psychological and to sociological needs. To summarize, the authorities agree that the following steps are necessary in curriculum construction:

1. Desirable objectives for the curriculum must be formulated, and all succeeding steps should be taken in the light of these objectives. To formulate those objectives requires consideration of (*a*) the kind of world we live in and the kind that we should live in and (*b*) the kind of philosophy of the educative process we should have.

2. Materials of instruction, that is, subject matter, must be selected, organized, and presented to meet the objectives formulated in step 1.

3. The preceding steps must be experimented with and the results evaluated. A questioning attitude must always be maintained by school officials and employees.

4. Revisions of subject matter and of teaching methods must be made in the light of the experimentation and evaluation mentioned in step 3.

5. The procedure must be continued. Curriculum-making is a never-ending task. It proceeds as society changes and as greater knowledge of the needs of pupils is secured.

Cooperation of science and philosophy in curriculum-making. Until about 1910, curriculum-making was largely in the hands of subject-matter specialists who were dominated by a philosophy of formal discipline, the sacredness of subject matter, and a worship of the past and the *status quo*. Moreover, in those earlier days opinion determined school procedures, and that opinion was largely unsupported by objective data. The science of education, as we know it today, had not yet been born.

About 1910, however, a group of educators led by such pioneers as J. M. Rice and Edward L. Thorndike began to use objective methods of research upon educational problems. The members of this group—and the group soon came to number thousands—were no longer satisfied with guessing at the aims, processes, and procedures of education; they demanded facts. Thus the science of education, as we know it today, came into being; it has grown by leaps and bounds.

These educators set about to study society, subject matter, and the learner—all necessary factors to be kept in mind by curriculum-makers. They raised questions regarding each of these factors, and they organized investigations using objective techniques to try to find the answers to the questions. They undertook to ascertain social needs through such procedures as tabulating the vocabularies of pupils and adults, the problems of mathematics which pupils and adults meet in actual life, and the language which pupils and adults use and sometimes use incorrectly. By means of case studies

and job analyses they tabulated the activities of people in various walks of life. They tabulated and compared the content of various textbooks. They constructed standardized tests which were designed to ascertain the ability of pupils to learn and to measure how much the pupils had learned. They investigated pupil reactions to various types of subject matter and to different methods of teaching each type of subject matter. They studied the nature of the individual learner—his intelligence, his eye-movements, fatigue factors, etc. These are only a few of the fields which the science of education has been exploring.

Unquestionably this movement—the scientific movement in education—has been of incalculable benefit to the curriculum-makers. Although it has done scarcely more than scratch the surface of its potentialities, it has provided much helpful information of social conditions and trends, and on the nature of the learner; it has accomplished much toward showing school employers and employees *what is* regarding these matters. Without the help of the science of education the teaching profession would still be guided by hunches, guesses, and unverified "isms." It was soon discovered, however, that the science of education could not solve all school problems; it was seen that it could make school officials and employees familiar with present conditions and with the past, but that it could not suggest the line of march for the future.

Science is one of the two handmaids of social progress. The other handmaid is a sound philosophy. If there is to be a desirable curriculum, science and philosophy must work together in its formulation. Science has the function of securing data which will show *what has been* and *what is;* for example, it will point out—in fact, it has already pointed out—that the writing vocabulary of the average person has been and is limited to a few words, and it will name those words. A sound philosophy has the function of suggesting *what ought to be;* for example, it will suggest that the writing vocabulary of the average person be enlarged rather than kept as it is. It is the function of philosophy to establish values and to set large goals; but, these values and

goals cannot be formulated by armchair philosophers who have no interest in, or respect for, present and past conditions.

"Fads and frills" in the curriculum. The schools have frequently been criticized for harboring "fads and frills,"

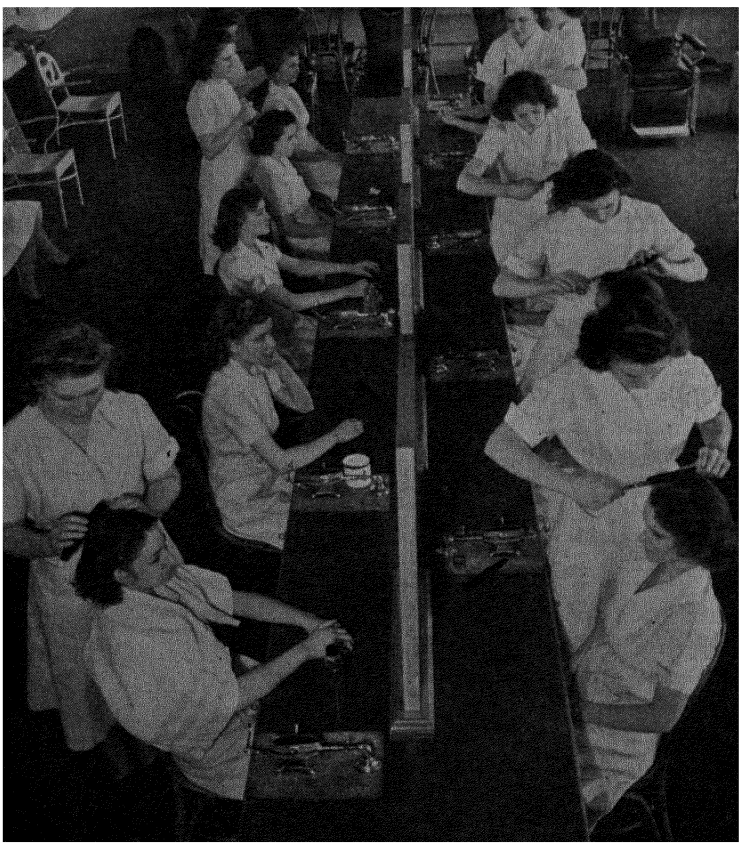

FIG. 47. Learning to be a beauty-parlor operator. (Courtesy of the St. Louis, Missouri, public schools.) This is only one of the many vocations now taught, especially in the large school systems.

for engaging in "boondoggling." When these terms are used, the criticism is implied that a nonessential is being harbored by the schools. Practically every new school subject has been compelled to run this gauntlet of criticism—a

criticism which has come especially from conservative persons. Even the "three R's" did not escape. For many years after their introduction into the curriculum the criticism was made against older subjects such as language and grammar, geography, and history and civics. The charge is now frequently made against the more recently introduced subjects such as fine arts, music, health education, industrial arts, home economics, agriculture, and commercial education. When economy waves strike the school, as they always do in times of severe business depression, these newer subjects are usually the first to feel the axe, in spite of the fact that they may be more valuable to the pupil and society than some of the older subjects. In consonance with the primitive ethic, the young subjects are "thrown to the wolves" before the old ones.

These new subjects—the so-called "fads and frills"—are also frequently criticized on the ground that they are more expensive than the traditional subjects and therefore cannot be afforded. Although some of the newer subjects require more equipment, smaller classes, and more expensive teachers than the traditional subjects, it has been discovered that many of the newer subjects are not more expensive than the traditional subjects. When pupils come to school, they expect to enter or are required to enter a certain number of classes, and it is often as cheap to provide classes in the newer subjects such as art, music, agriculture, and commerce as it is to provide classes in the traditional subjects such as English, history, mathematics, science and foreign languages.

Teachers and school officials, therefore, must ever be students of educational values, especially of the *relative values* of the school subjects and of all parts of those subjects. They must keep in mind relative values because only a small portion of what might be taught can be taught. They must put first things first because "art is long and time is fleeting." Herbert Spencer's memorable book tells in rhyme the necessity for the curriculum-maker to keep in mind our life span and to be guided by relative values; the rhyme (Spencer calls it a *song*) goes:

> Could a man be secure
> That his days would endure
> As of old, for a thousand long years,
> What things might he know!
> What deeds might he do!
> And all without hurry or care.[1]

On the one hand, teachers and school officials must not be guilty of harboring useless fads and frills. On the other hand, they must be able and willing to defend new subject matter and new procedures when such are an improvement over, or a supplement to, the old; in fact, they should be on the lookout for this type of subject matter. They should remember that the "fad and frill" of yesterday often become the necessity of today. The locomotive, the automobile, and the airplane were fads of yesterday, but they are necessities of today. An old couplet admonishes:

> Be not the first by whom the new is tried,
> Nor yet the last to lay the old aside.

The personnel for curriculum-making. Whereas in former years the curriculum was made or revised by one "master mind," usually the superintendent of schools, a supervisor, or some other person appointed by the superintendent, the modern curriculum is made or revised through the cooperation of the superintendent, the supervisors, the principals, the teachers, and all other educational employees; moreover, persons from other fields are frequently requested to give their views, especially regarding objectives and subject matter. In all progressive school systems, the practice of having one person make or revise the curriculum has passed into limbo; this is fortunate, because the performance of this task is too time-consuming and too technical for one person, however omnipotent and energetic he may be. Since it is difficult for any person to see "wholes," and since the curriculum should take account of wholes—society as a whole and the whole nature of the pupil—it is advisable to have a conclave of the best minds in various fields working

[1] Spencer, *op. cit.*, p. 29.

on the curriculum. In this conclave both scientists and philosophers should be represented, both students of sociology and of psychology—in fact, all points of view should be represented and integrated.

The tendency, therefore, is for the superintendent of schools to appoint committees and to delegate to them the task of making or revising the curriculum, and since it is necessary to keep the curriculum in pace with a constantly changing society and with new knowledge of the nature of the pupil, there are advantages in making these committees somewhat permanent. In small school systems, for example, those having less than eight or ten teachers, the usual practice is to have the whole teaching corps work on one subject or a group of subjects at a time under the immediate direction of the superintendent of schools; the whole personnel also works cooperatively on curriculum objectives. In the larger school systems, the usual practice is to appoint various committees to be responsible for each of the several subjects or groups of subjects. Over these committees is often placed an executive or supervisory committee which sees that the whole curriculum is balanced, without gaps, and in line with the formulated objectives of the curriculum and the school.

The making of the curriculum should not, however, be entirely a committee function. The suggestions of *all* members of the teaching corps, whether they happen to be members of the committee or not, should be sought; to secure these suggestions should lead to improvements in the curriculum and should be stimulating to the teachers who make the suggestions. Every teacher must help in putting the curriculum into operation and should therefore be familiar with how the curriculum was made and how it may be adapted to the needs of his pupils; only by the watchful solicitude of every teacher can the curriculum be made to function as it should.

The implications of the foregoing remarks on committee revision of the curriculum are obvious. If the teacher is to revise or to help revise the curriculum—and more and more he is being called upon to shoulder his responsibility—he

must be informed on the technique of curriculum construction and administration. For the teacher to secure this information after he has been catapulted into a teaching position is discouraging and wasteful; it is wasteful of the time and energy of the teacher, of school officials, and of the pupils. Therefore, while he is in college securing his preparation, the prospective teacher should make certain that he obtains as large an acquaintance with the curriculum

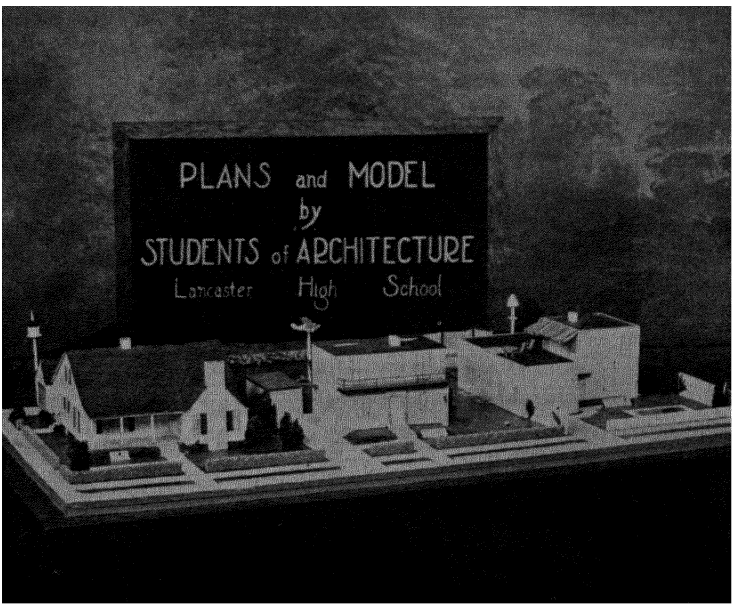

FIG. 48. The houses that Jack, John, and James planned and built. (Courtesy of the Lancaster, Ohio, public schools.)

as possible. It is especially necessary that he secure this acquaintance with the curriculum of his department or of his subjects, and he should also see the relation between his area of teaching and other areas, if he is to avoid a lopsided development of the pupil. Fortunately, most colleges which are engaged in the preparation of teachers now offer one or more courses on the curriculum and require all prospective teachers to pursue this instruction. Many of the large school systems now employ curriculum specialists, and these positions provide well-paying opportunities to

persons of educational experience and excellent collegiate preparation.

The use of the curriculum. The old-fashioned curriculum was a stereotyped affair with, as has already been said, its emphasis on the acquisition of facts. All schools were expected to teach the same facts, and all pupils—dull, bright, interested, and uninterested—were expected to learn and to "recite" those facts. Only a small amount of attention was devoted to problem-solving, particularly to the solving of problems which were interesting to the pupils and socially valuable. The "project curriculum" or the "activity curriculum," that is, a curriculum whose activities and experiences arise from the natural activities and the widening interests of the children, either was unheard of, or was considered shallow pedagogy. The old-fashioned curriculum was more suited to lethargic apes than to the restless, thinking and otherwise dynamic representatives of the human species who alone attend school.

Modern school authorities, on the contrary, make it possible for the curriculum to be used in a more sensible manner than formerly. They do not insist that the curriculum in use, whether it be state, city, or county, be followed slavishly; rather they permit—even insist—that the curriculum be adapted to the needs of the local school and of the individual pupils of the school. Moreover, the modern curriculum is so constructed that it may be readily adapted to varying situations. For example, although it may establish certain minimal essentials or constants, which it is expected shall become a part of the experience of all normal children, it reduces these essentials to bedrock; it suggests certain alternatives in subject matter from which teachers and pupils may choose; it is rich in suggestions on optional subject matter—which may be presented or omitted as the teacher deems best; and suggestions on excellent teaching methods are given.

In every way possible, therefore, the modern school is encouraging its teachers not to regard the curriculum as an inviolable instrument but as a growing, dynamic affair. It encourages the teachers to adapt the curriculum to the

needs of the individual pupil, and gives them many suggestions on how to make this adaptation. It encourages the teachers to experiment with new curricular materials and with new teaching methods. It permits, even encourages, the teachers to experiment with the Dalton Plan, the Winnetka Plan, the activity curriculum, or other newer types of curriculum, teaching method, or school organization.[1]

TEACHING CONTROVERSIAL SUBJECT MATTER

To include or to exclude controversial material. Problems innumerable and baffling have always faced society and probably will face it until the millennium. These problems concern every phase of human affairs, and many of them have existed since the beginning of man. They concern religion, temperance and prohibition, racism, evolution, marriage and divorce, war and pacifism, collectivism versus "rugged individualism," immigration, democracy versus other types of government, the constitution, crime, delinquency, capital and labor, strikes, natural resources, electric power, the railroads, taxation, relief and unemployment, the tariff, and the money and banking system. The list could be continued *ad infinitum*. Even the question of whether schools should be supported by taxation has always been and still is controversial. Shall such problems be included in or excluded from the curriculum? If they are included, how shall they be presented? These questions are faced sooner or later by every member of the teaching profession. They are faced especially by teachers in the secondary schools and the colleges.

Wars have been fought, political campaigns have been waged, strikes have been called, religious crusades have been conducted, and communities, states, and nations have divided over these issues. Whatever the attitude taken by the school regarding the discussion of these problems of human affairs, the discussion of them goes on in all spare time by persons in every walk of life. The problems vie with health and the weather as the chief topics of conver-

[1] These new plans and procedures are briefly discussed in Chapter XI.

sation, and unlike health and the weather they are debated vigorously. Innumerable school officials and teachers have become embroiled in bitter fights over their attempts to deal with the issues; many have become the objects of investigations which have caused them to lose their positions. Sometimes these officials and employees have been martyrs to worthy causes, but at other times they have been guilty of undemocratic and tactless acts in their efforts to deal with these issues; in dealing with controversial issues they are like the angel described in Addison's "Campaign," who "rides on the whirlwind and directs the storm."

Either of two positions may be taken with respect to the teaching of controversial issues in the school. First, such issues may be ignored and excluded; second, they may be included and discussed. A considerable portion of the public believes that the school should not deal with any controversial subjects. This portion believes that the function of the school is to maintain the social order as it is and that there are enough *facts* to teach without spending time on controversial questions; it believes that such questions cannot be answered by the school anyway and that if they are let alone, they "will answer themselves." Certain of the more liberal members of this group would normally favor the discussion of controversial questions, especially the less controversial and less baffling ones, but they believe that most teachers are not qualified to direct the discussion of them, or they feel that inflamed differences of opinion, "set ways," and prejudices on the part of the adult community would prevent free and scientific discussion.

The other position affirms that it is the obligation of the school to deal with life in all of its important aspects, and since controversial issues are a prominent part of the drama of life, they cannot be conscientiously ignored by the school. This position is defensible. The school should not concern itself with facts, known truths, and settled problems alone, but should bring that knowledge to bear upon the problems which present society faces. Knowledge of the past is of little value unless it is brought to bear upon the understanding of the present and the predicting and controlling

of the future. "Knowledge is power" only when it is used. The school must decide whether it will qualify its pupils to take an intelligent part in the discussion of controversial issues, or whether it will ignore the issues and leave these future citizens to be the easy victims of vicious propaganda which is sometimes sponsored by newspapers, magazines, books, radio orators, the newsreel, the movies, "politicians," and other agents and agencies. It must decide whether it will qualify pupils to think for themselves and to choose intelligently, or whether it will leave them in the hapless position of making it easy for other people to think for them and perhaps to dupe them.

The methods of presenting controversial material. If controversial issues are to be discussed in the school, which

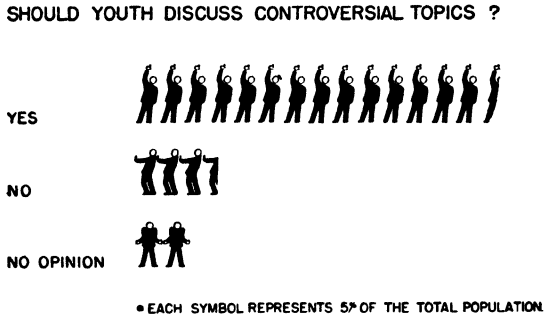

FIG. 49. Vote of a random sampling of the people of the United States on whether youth should discuss controversial topics. The same poll found that 67 per cent of the public favor such discussion in high schools, that 23 per cent oppose, and that 10 per cent have no opinion on the matter. (From *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association, Vol. 18, p. 197.)

ones shall be discussed, and how shall they be discussed? Regarding the first part of the question, it is manifest that all controversial issues cannot be discussed in the school because of lack of time; there are millions of controversial issues. Those few must be selected, therefore, which have the largest and most urgent social bearing and which are best adapted to the needs of the learner; moreover, those chosen must be in conformity with and must contribute to the realization of the objectives of the curriculum. In the

upper grades, the old-time debate on such subjects as whether fire is more destructive than water should give way to such questions as whether the government should provide a job for everyone; in the lower grades—and at least a beginning in discussing controversial questions should be made in these grades—such questions as whether marbles should be played "for keeps" would be more appropriate to discuss than the tariff question. Moreover, many issues will have to be banned from discussion, at least temporarily, because of inflamed public opinion, or because of state laws and local regulations opposed to such discussion; still other issues will have to be discussed with special tact, if discussed at all.

According to an investigation of the Commission on the Social Studies Curriculum of the Department of Superintendence, most school principals report that they believe that public opinion does not require the school to avoid the discussion of controversial issues; this belief was held especially at the high-school levels.[1] The issues which the principals believed had to be avoided or handled with special tact (but these were never mentioned in more than 15 per cent of the replies) were, in order of frequency of mention:[2] (1) local and state politics, (2) religion, (3) labor-capital problems, (4) politics, (5) communism, (6) "New Deal," (7) temperance and prohibition, (8) racial problems, (9) public ownership of utilities, (10) evolution, and (11) socialism. Practically all communities will permit a discussion of controversial questions in the school, provided the questions are tactfully selected and handled in a scholarly manner; excellent school officials and employees will seldom suffer repression on this score. The public does not want "spineless" teachers.

We come next to the final and the most important problem: How shall controversial questions be discussed? There are two groups of thought with reference to this problem. One group is unwilling to have all sides of a

[1] *The Social Studies Curriculum, Fourteenth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, Table 27, p. 303.

[2] *Ibid.*, Table 28, p. 304.

question presented; it believes in indoctrinating in—in propagandizing for—only one point of view; it would tell the pupils what to believe and would insist upon their believing it; it would indoctrinate opinions as well as facts. This view frequently finds expression in the resolutions of various organizations—political, religious, economic, fraternal, etc. —which ask that certain beliefs be taught in the schools and that competing beliefs be banned; these organizations are occasionally successful in having their views written into state laws or into the rules and regulations of local boards of education. Many textbooks also present only one view of controversial questions, and that view, of course, is the most frequently accepted one in the state or in the community in which the textbook is used. Many teachers teach only one side of controversial questions and insist upon their pupils believing as they do; often the pupil's mark or promotion becomes a Damoclean sword to enforce this expectation. The usual arguments for indoctrination—that is, one-sided indoctrination—have been summarized by Carleton Washburne as follows, although it should be stated that Washburne is opposed to indoctrination on the ground that its methods and aims are opposed to the methods and aims of true education:

(1) We must rebuild our social order, or, if we are on the other side of the fence, we must maintain the *status quo*. . . .

. . . the State needs trained citizens. It needs a certain like-mindedness among them in order that there may be cohesiveness. It needs certain common ideals. . . .

(2) Education to be realistic and to count in the life of the child must have the same zeal and emotional drive which is called for by the necessity of changing—or preserving—the social order. Schools in which there is no indoctrination tend to be cloisteral, to be out of touch with the live world outside. . . .

(3) Indoctrination is inevitable. . . . A teacher, by his very nature as a teacher, imposes his views and attitudes on children. . . . A failure to indoctrinate, moreover, is in itself an indoctrination for the status quo or for the point of view held by parents of the community.[1]

[1] "Indoctrination versus Education," *The Social Frontier*, Vol. 2 (April, 1936), pp. 212–213.

The other group of thought, while admitting that a certain amount of indoctrination is inevitable because of "the frame of reference" of the teacher or the school, rejects any theory of teaching which attempts to close a person's mind on controversial issues or which attempts to prohibit him from the exercise of his inherent right "to believe as he pleases." It believes that the welfare of a democracy rests upon the free interchange of opinions. It realizes that *free interchange of opinions is the keystone of democracy, and it indoctrinates, of course, for the preservation of that keystone.* Washburne gives the following arguments against indoctrination:

(1) Indoctrination is unfair to the child. . . . He has a right to see each side clearly and fairly presented. . . . But, if he cannot count on his teacher's objectivity and honesty, where shall he turn?

(2) Indoctrination is the antithesis of education. . . . Education should lead toward growth. Indoctrination stultifies growth.

(3) Anyone who supposes that he has the one and final solution to any problem is inexcusably bigoted and is, therefore, unfit to educate children. . . . The growth of society depends upon our free exploration of all possible avenues of escape, of all possible avenues toward our ultimate ideals. Indoctrination shuts off all avenues but one.

(4) . . . If one group can use the schools to indoctrinate the children toward its particular answers to controversial questions, so can another group. . . .[1]

On any controversial question this group would bring out the facts and the arguments on all sides of the question. It would permit—in fact, insist—that the pupil state his own opinions and formulate his own conclusions; complete impartiality would be its goal. In other words, it would practice the scientific attitude, that is, the inclination to find the truth, and by precept and example it would try to instill this attitude into the pupils. This admittedly would be indoctrination—*indoctrination in the scientific attitude and in the spirit of democracy.* It would teach pupils to distinguish between facts and opinions. It would realize that views which cannot be verified are opinions, and that when they are verified, they become facts and are no longer

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 213.

opinions. It would indoctrinate facts when they have been incontrovertibly demonstrated to be facts, but it would be certain that facts were present before they were given only one interpretation—before pupils were indoctrinated in them. It would realize that "truth is an elusive goddess" —elusive because of new discoveries and differences in interpretations of what the truth is.

Academic freedom and social responsibility. The recommended place of the teacher in the handling of controversial issues has been given in broad outline in the preceding paragraphs. That place demands that the teacher—a well-prepared and democratic teacher is, of course, meant —not be shackled in his attempts to lead his pupils to the fountain of truth. In other words, the teacher should have academic freedom, and he should have it so long as he is seeking the truth and is using fair means in his quest.

Like all rights, the right to academic freedom is, however, a relative matter; it does not give the individual a license to say and to do anything that he pleases. The right does not permit careless handling of the truth; it does not permit libel and similar practices. As former Justice Holmes of the United States Supreme Court once said, "It does not permit any one to yell fire! in a crowded theater." Whereas the teacher has the right in the classroom to state his own views on any issue which is being discussed, he has the obligation to present all sides of the issue and of placing his pupils in a position of being able to formulate their own patterns of belief. The right to academic freedom does not give the teacher the right to be an eternal propagandist for any doctrine, creed, or dogma; if he must propagandize, he should "hire a hall" or "publish a tract." His obligation is fundamentally "to teach rather than to advocate." When he states his views, he should state them calmly and judiciously, and always with the stipulation that they are his opinion only, which need not be accepted by his pupils; he should speak more in the tone of opinion and less in the tone of certainty. This is the only sort of academic freedom to which the teacher has a right; for him to expect or to

exact more than this is undemocratic and is likely to make him the fair quest of "heretic seekers."

The right to academic freedom places upon the teacher the responsibility of being well informed on the many sides of all important controversial questions to be discussed in his classroom. Without this erudition the teacher is not likely to be able to bring out all sides of a question and to guide the search for the solution of the question; without it, too, there is greater danger that he will try to substitute his opinion for knowledge, and this is the worst form of pedagogical quackery.

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE CURRICULUM

The types of organization. Many types of curriculum organization are in use in the schools today. These types are distributed between two extremes. In one of these extremes, the curriculum is organized by separate and isolated subjects—reading, spelling, algebra, botany, etc. This is the traditional type of organization and is found in most schools today. In the other extreme, all subject lines in closely related subjects are eliminated, and all subject matter is merged into what is usually known as a *fused, integrated,* or *unified* curriculum. This type of organization, or a variation of it, is coming to be widely used, especially in mathematics, science, and the social studies. In its report, the Commission on the Social Studies Curriculum noted the three following widely used types of curriculum organization for the social studies:

(1) Separate subject courses in geography, history, civics, economics, sociology, and other social studies.

(2) General social science courses with the materials from the different fields organized in a definite relationship to the social studies as a whole.

(3) An integrated curriculum in which the social studies are organized with or without the preservation of their identity, in a definite relationship to the *entire* curriculum.[1]

[1] *Op. cit.,* p. 179. By permission of the National Education Association, publishers.

The report of the commission labels these three types of organization as follows: (1) separate subjects organization, (2) interrelated subjects organization, and (3) unified curriculum organization. Under each of these types of organization various practices were noted. A diagrammatic representation of these three types of organization, together with certain frequent variations, are shown in Fig. 50. Observation shows that these types of organization are

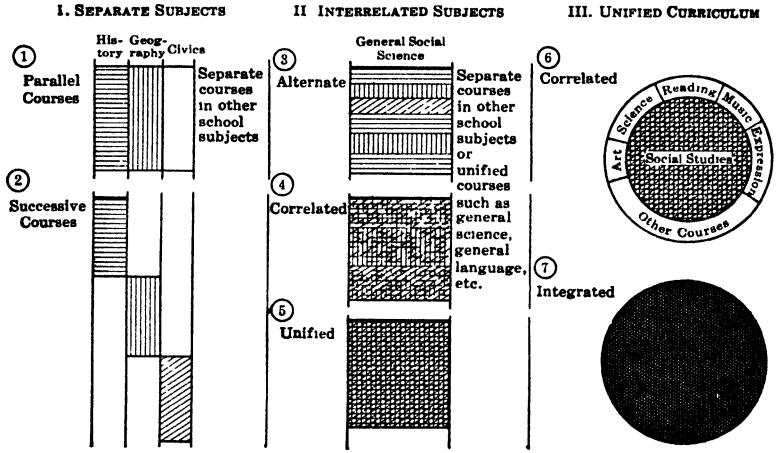

FIG. 50. General plans of organizing the social studies and of relating them to the curriculum as a whole. (From *The Social Studies Curriculum*, *Fourteenth Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, p. 181.)

used in other closely related studies as well as in the social studies.

Merits of the various types of organization. Which type of organization is best? Shall the curriculum be organized on a separate subject basis, or shall all subjects be abolished and a "fused," "integrated," or "unified" curriculum substituted? If neither of these extremes is deemed best, where is the optimum position between them? These questions have been widely discussed since Herbart (1776–1841) advocated the correlation[1] of the various subjects of the

[1] In correlation, the subjects are retained, but the materials in each subject are related to the materials in other subjects. In fusion, integration, or unification all subject lines are obliterated, and a problem or topic becomes the controlling factor in the organization of material.

curriculum. Under the leadership of the "progressive education" group, which vigorously advocates "activity" organization, fusion, integration,[1] and unification, the questions have become very live during the last decade. Although there has been much experimentation with the various types of organization and although each type has many advocates, there are as yet no conclusive data which indiçate superiority for any type. The Eight-Year Study has, however, recently reported certain advantages of the "activity" type of organization over the old-fashioned subject-matter type of organization.[1] The Commission on the Social Studies Curriculum suggests that the following instructional and administrative factors be kept in mind when selecting the type of curriculum organization; although these suggestions were made especially for the social-studies curriculum, they would seem to be pertinent to the whole curriculum.

(1) Are the teachers familiar with the adopted plan and adequately prepared to give it a fair trial?

(2) Are the patrons of the school and the public in general likely to assume a sympathetic attitude toward the proposed innovations?

(3) Are the principals and supervisors thoroughly familiar with the changes and competent to direct the new program?

(4) Are appropriate building facilities and proper equipment and furnishings provided?

(5) Are suitable textbooks and adequate instructional supplies available?

(6) Can the proposed plan be administered in a departmental school, platoon school, or any other type of school organization now in operation in the local school system?

(7) Does the proposed plan provide a comprehensive study of the social studies as a whole and at the same time insure a proper emphasis of each aspect of the social studies?

(8) Does the plan present human relationships in the most natural and realistic manner?

(9) Does the plan promote horizontal articulation of experiences in the different subjects at each grade level?

(10) Does the plan demand constant reorganization of materials by the pupils and insure the consideration of all elements or aspects of the topic of instruction mentioned above?

[1] Wilford M. Aiken, *The Story of the Eight-Year Study*, Harper, 1942.

(11) Does the plan afford the teacher the greatest possible freedom in adapting the made-in-advance curriculum to the needs and interests of pupils in a particular classroom situation?[1]

The difference in views of those who favor subject organizations and of those who favor the fused, integrated, or unified organization is occasioned primarily by a difference in philosophy of education. The advocates of the subject-matter plan of organization hold the view that the subject contains the necessary knowledge and that this subject-matter has been secured from the best experience of the race. The advocates of the fused, integrated, or unified plan of organization hold the view that curriculum-making should start with socially significant problems, issues, or topics, and should organize all material around such problems, issues, or topics.

In the final analysis, therefore, the question becomes: Shall the subject-matter organization of the curriculum be used, or shall the activity[2] organization be employed? Since objective data are not available to answer the question, we shall have to be content with a summarization of the arguments in favor of each plan.[3] The usual arguments advanced for the subject organization are as follows:

1. The subject—at least when it is well organized—contains the subject matter which pupils need and which they should, therefore, be expected to study. The activity curriculum, on the contrary, is child determined and likely to be whimsical. Pupils are not competent to decide what they shall study.

2. The subject gives assurance that knowledge, attitudes, and skills which are needed by the pupils will not be missed. The child-determined curriculum, on the contrary, is likely to possess many gaps.

3. The subject is likely to be logically organized, and pupils are brought to see the structure of knowledge.

[1] *The Social Studies Curriculum*, p. 179. By permission of the National Education Association, publishers.

[2] There are many views of what the activity program or curriculum really is. Some persons see it as a plan which gives full play to the spontaneous interests, the likes and dislikes, of the pupil. The best authorities, however, see it as an opportunity for the pupils and the teachers to work together in choosing and in attacking problems of social import adapted to the interest and understanding of children.

[3] Some data which tend to favor the activity organization are presented in Aiken, *op. cit.*

The usual arguments in favor of the activity curriculum are as follows:

1. It is organized in terms of problems, issues, and topics of interest to the pupils. In the belief that pupil purposes are necessary learning stimuli, it keeps in mind such purposes.

2. Provided proper guidance is given by the teacher, it may be made to include all subject matter which is really necessary. The subject curriculum, on the contrary, is likely to contain much subject matter which is not socially valuable and which is adult centered.

3. It leads to individual growth by teaching the pupil to see relationships without which learning is not very profound. The subject curriculum, on the contrary, emphasizes isolated facts which are not necessarily related to the problems of life.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What subjects do the laws of your state require to be taught in (*a*) the elementary school and (*b*) the high school? Is the amount of time to be devoted to each subject also prescribed? Mention the arguments for and against such prescription.

2. What are the advantages and the disadvantages of state courses of study? Will the present tendency toward socio-economic planning on the part of the states and the federal government result in greater or less prescription of courses of study? Explain. Is the present tendency toward such planning to be encouraged? Why or why not?

3. How closely should teachers be expected to follow the official course of study? Would your views be different if teachers were better prepared to determine the course of study? Explain.

4. What has been the effect of college-entrance requirements on the secondary-school curriculum? Should the colleges have entrance requirements or should they permit the secondary schools to determine their curricula without reference to college-entrance requirements?

5. Many educators believe that an examination of the course of study gives the best single measure of the merit of the school or school system. Do you agree with this claim? Why or why not?

6. What are the relative contributions of research and philosophy in curriculum construction? What would be the limitations of one without the other?

7. How would you justify to a doubting school-board member or other citizen the value of the so-called "fads and frills," for example, home economics, industrial arts, and gardening? Why must the curricular offerings of the school always keep in mind relative values of subject matter?

8. What objections would you make to a course of study which was based upon pages in textbooks?

9. In deciding upon what to teach, how much emphasis should be placed upon *sociological* needs, and how much upon *psychological* needs?

10. It has been said that social needs vary (1) *historically,* (2) *geographically,* and (3) *individually.* Give illustrations of these variations.

11. Mention a few items of "dead wood" which you believe should be eliminated from the curriculum. Justify your views. What are the influences which keep this "dead wood" in the curriculum?

12. What opportunity, if any, would you give the elementary-school pupil to elect subjects? The junior high-school pupil? The senior high-school pupil? The college or university student? Explain your views. To what extent should the pupil decide what he shall study?

13. Under what limitations do the small high schools operate with respect to their curricular offerings? Explain. What feasible steps might these schools take to increase their curricular offerings?

14. The schools have been recently criticized for emphasizing too much the "bread and butter" aim of education and for neglecting the citizenship aim. Do you believe that this criticism is just? Explain. Do you agree with certain educators that public funds should not be used for providing vocational education? Why or why not?

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Chapter XIV

THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES AND THE CURRICULUM

Definition and scope of extracurricular activities. Although the term is hardly appropriate, in common parlance *extracurricular activities* refer to all pupil activities which are not a part of the regular studies of the school. Among the more frequently found of these activities today are athletics, debates, dramatics, clubs, and school publications. Many of the activities are almost as old as the school, but the term *extracurricular* is of fairly recent coinage and usage.

During recent years these activities have had a phenomenal development in number and in prestige. They have grown up in response to the demand for a type of educational experience which the home, the church, the regular curriculum of the school, and other educational agencies of the community were not providing or were not sufficiently providing. They came in to supplement the regular curriculum and to make it more interesting and practical.

The activities have had their largest development in the college and in the secondary school, but they have also become prominent in the elementary school, especially in the upper grades. Today it is not uncommon to find several of them in one school. In a large school system, which has many secondary schools, hundreds of types of activities are likely to be in operation. They may be roughly classified under the same headings as the subjects and departments of the school. Most of them may be subsumed under the following headings: literary, journalistic, forensic and de-

clamatory, scientific, musical, foreign language, historical, geographical, mathematical, industrial, home economics, agricultural, commercial, arts and crafts, civic, social, and physical. The most frequently found activity is athletics, it being almost universal, especially in the secondary schools.

Values of extracurricular activities. In the early days the activities were considered to be outside the realm of the curriculum, hence the name *extracurricular.* In those days school officials and employees took little or no interest in the activities and in many instances condemned them as parasites of time and energy which should be devoted to the school subjects, and by the general public they were regarded as wholly wasteful of time, energy, and money.

During recent years, however, forward-looking educators and laymen have come to see that such activities, if properly directed and supervised, have distinct educational value. Whereas they were formerly considered to be extracurricular, today they are regarded as *curricular.* They are looked upon as an integral part of the curriculum because they possess educational value, and as was stated in the preceding chapter, any experience or activity which has educational value and which is directed by the school is really a part of the curriculum. Since these activities are in fact curricular, they should not continue to be called extracurricular; it would seem more appropriate to call them *extraclass,* and in the remainder of the chapter that term will be used in referring to them.

There is agreement among modern educators that extraclass activities have potential value and are worthy of a prominent place in the school program. Indeed, it is agreed that, if they are properly directed, many of them have greater value than some of the school subjects. They stem from a dynamic present rather than from a cadaverous past. They have the especial merit of arising spontaneously from the interests of the pupils; pupils like to participate in them, even without school credit. Many of the school subjects, on the contrary, are formal and uninteresting and give rise to what Shakespeare describes, "the whining schoolboy with his satchel . . . creeping like a snail un-

willingly to school." It is the obligation of the school to supervise the pupils in doing these things which they are going to do willy-nilly, and to use these interests, provided, of course, they are not vicious, in developing higher types of interests. In brief, these interests may be regarded as springboards from which pupils may be helped to jump to more worthy interests. Under proper guidance the interests may be integrated with and used to motivate the school subjects and thus become a part of the class activity. They may be used as aids for keeping the pupils, especially the older ones, in school and for stimulating the pupils to work more arduously on their school subjects. They are good medicine for the school organism, but like all good medicine they must be prescribed in proper kind and amount.

If any extraclass activity is to realize its potentialities, the purposes of the activity must be kept clearly in mind by school officials and teachers, and steps must be taken to accomplish them. Purposes are seldom achieved unless they are clearly seen and unless assiduous and intelligent efforts are made to accomplish them. And above all, these purposes must be worthy. They will be worthy only insofar as they help to meet pupil needs. The purposes of extraclass activities should be the same as the purposes of the regular classroom activities. They should prepare the pupils for participation in the democratic way of life. They should teach the pupils social cooperation through providing experiences in group living. They should develop in the pupils higher standards of ethics, sportsmanship, discipline, and school and community spirit. They should make pupils more aware of both their individual rights and their social responsibilities. They should prepare pupils for better leadership and followership, for more worthy home membership, for better recreational and æsthetic participation, for good health, for vocational efficiency, and for the highest type of citizenship in a democracy.

Necessity for teacher assistance. In accordance with the increasing appreciation of the values of the extraclass activities the more progressive schools and school systems today are encouraging and supervising them; they are making

them an official and an integrated part of the school program. For example, teacher sponsors are being assigned to them and public funds are being utilized for their encouragement; furthermore, in many schools and school systems a special period in the school day or school week is set aside for the activities and credit toward graduation is given pupils who engage in them.

The success of any program of extraclass activities depends upon the willing and intelligent cooperation in that program of the teachers of the school. Although school superintendents and principals are responsible for the general administration and supervision of the program, they cannot be expected to give the multifarious and diverse activities the close supervision which is needed; in consequence, the responsibility for such supervision is being delegated more and more to the teachers of the school, and the work is regarded as a regular and important part of the teachers' duties. The typical teacher of today, especially in the secondary school, is called upon to supervise at least one extraclass activity, and often he is called upon to supervise several of them. He should, therefore, keep this fact in mind when he is securing his preparation for teaching. Indeed, ability and willingness to supervise one or more of these activities have almost become a *sine qua non* for securing a teaching position, especially in the secondary school; moreover, ability to supervise one or more activities, especially to coach an athletic team, will often enable the teacher to command a higher salary.

If the teacher is to give intelligent direction and supervision to extraclass activities, he needs preparation for the work the same as he needs preparation for the teaching of reading, history, industrial arts, science, or any other school subject. Probably the best means by which he can secure this preparation is through participation in extraclass activities in college or university. Thus, the person who would become the most successful coach of athletics or debates should receive large benefit from becoming a member of the appropriate team or squad while he is a student in college or university. The same suggestion is pertinent for

FIG. 51. Electing officers by the student council. (Courtesy of the Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, public schools.) Such extraclass activities can be rich in educational experience.

coaches, directors, or sponsors of orchestras, glee clubs, choruses, bands, student publications, or other extraclass activities. In employing new teachers one of the questions most frequently asked of candidates by school officials is, "In what extraclass activities did you participate when you were a college or university student?" A candidate who must answer, "None," to that question often indicts himself as an unsocial creature incompetent to perform the task of advancing the socialization of pupils. "All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy," and is likely to handicap him in securing a teaching position when he grows into adulthood.

A second means which teachers might profitably use in qualifiying themselves more fully for the supervision of extraclass activities is to pursue a college or university course in such activities. Many departments of education now offer at least one course on extraclass activities, and in some of these departments all prospective teachers, especially in the secondary school, are required to receive this instruction. If such a course is not available to the student, he can, as a partial substitute for it, read one or more of the excellent books on the subject, the names of several of which are listed in the Selected References at the close of this chapter. Or under the guidance of his professors he can study the problem through selected magazine articles; during recent years hundreds of such articles have appeared, and these may be readily located through the card catalogues, indexes, and other facilities of good school and college libraries.

PRINCIPLES FOR DIRECTING EXTRACLASS ACTIVITIES

In the preceding section the aims and values of extraclass activities were emphasized. In the present section will be discussed briefly some of the more important principles of organization, administration, and supervision which school officials and employees and college students should keep in mind in accomplishing the desired aims and values. College students will find that all or practically all of these prin-

ciples apply to college activities as well as to activities in the elementary and the secondary schools. The principles follow:

1. *All extraclass activities should be supervised by the school and should be subject to school control and discipline.* In the first place, school supervision is recommended because it is necessary if any activity is to accomplish all that it might. Of course, too much supervision would be as bad as none, because it might kill or stifle spontaneity and make it difficult for the pupils to develop initiative and other desirable attitudes and ideals. The amount of supervision to be extended will depend on several factors, such as the type and age of the organization, and the maturity of the students. As a rule, a larger amount of supervision will be needed by new organizations than by old ones; more by athletics, dramatics, and similar activities than by chess clubs and similar organizations; and more by elementary and junior high-school pupils than by senior high-school pupils.

In the second place, school supervision is recommended because it will protect the reputation of the organization, of the individual members of the organization, and of the school. Whenever any activity is conducted under the name of the school, or whenever any school organization holds a meeting, school officials and employees must assume a certain responsibility; this responsibility comes whether the activity or the meeting is held on the school premises or elsewhere. The reputations of the organization and of the school must be jealously guarded, for, justly or unjustly, the public usually associates with the school any misconduct of the pupils and often blames the school for such behavior. By a strange irony a pupil who commits a misdemeanor receives more unfavorable publicity than an outsider receives for a similar, or even a more heinous, offense. Any aberrant behavior of the school personnel, whether pupil or employee, is likely to be news.

2. *Before a new activity is launched it should be approved by the principal, by the general supervisor of extraclass activities, or by another central authority of the*

school. Before a new activity is approved, there should be assurance that it will meet a need of the school, that it will not duplicate some other activity, that the pupils are sufficiently interested in it to support it, and that there is a teacher in the school who is qualified, has the time, and is willing to direct the activity.

3. *Every activity should beget civic-social-moral and other worth-while values for the pupils participating in it.* Some of the chief values of extraclass activities were mentioned earlier. Activities which do not have a purpose beyond the harmless enjoyment of leisure time or the creation of an outlet for superabundant energies should be reduced to a minimum, particularly in view of the fact that the realization of this purpose is usually a by-product of activities which have more worthy purposes.

4. *Since the principal and teachers are responsible for the administration of their school, they should have the power to veto any proposal of any school organization.* It should not often be necessary for them to exercise this power, but in view of the fact that they are in charge of the school, they must be privileged and expected to exercise it when necessary. Of course, their decisions on any matter should always be open to review by the superintendent of schools, and the decisions of the superintendent should in turn be open to review by the board of education which sits as a court of final authority and which represents the people of the community.

5. *The number and the type of activities to be developed in any school should be determined by the size of the enrollment of the school and by the needs of the school.* The advantage of having a large number of activities is that students are given a leeway for meeting their individual needs and interests. The danger of having a large number is that the school will be "overorganized" and that the students will become mere "joiners." Between these two extremes the happy medium must be sought.

That many schools have too many activities there is little doubt. Several of these activities do not meet a useful

purpose, and the students would be better served if some of the activities were permitted to sink into innocuous desuetude and limbo. Although "overorganization" is frequently found in the large schools, it more frequently exists in the small schools which often feel that their prestige demands that they have as many organizations and activities as the large schools.

6. *The introduction of a program of extraclass activities should be gradual.* The pace of introduction should be dictated by the needs of the school and by the rapidity with which the school can establish proper supervision of the activities. Any new extraclass activity should usually arise from a regular curricular activity of the school and should be developed in close connection with that curricular activity; for example, the History Club would arise from and be developed in connection with the work of the history department of the school.

7. *The number of organizations in which a student is permitted to have membership, or the number of activities in which he is permitted to participate during a semester or a year, should be limited.* A limitation on participation is recommended for two reasons: first, it will prevent the overambitious, brilliant, versatile, and popular students from overloading with activities to the possible detriment of their health and their regular studies; second, it will distribute participation in the activities among a larger number of students.

Although it is generally agreed that the number of organizations and activities in which pupils are permitted to participate should be limited, there is no formula for indicating with mathematical precision where the delimiting line should be drawn. In attempting to solve the problem just mentioned some schools have listed their extraclass activities as "majors" and "minors" and have indicated the number of majors and minors which a student shall be permitted to carry during a semester or a year. Other schools have established a "point" system for regulating these matters; according to this system each activity of the school is

rated according to the time and the energy that it requires, and students are limited in the number of points which they may carry each semester or year.

8. *In order that each student shall have a well-rounded development in both the regular curricular and the extraclass activities, the plan of educational guidance of the school should consider both types of activities in advising the pupil regarding his school program.* Such guidance is particularly helpful in the elementary and the junior high schools. In a school which has a well-organized program of extraclass activities and an efficient system of student guidance, there would be few, if any, students who would not participate in at least one extraclass activity. Shy pupils are frequently reluctant to enter extraclass activities; yet they most need the socializing experiences which such activities afford. Schools have heretofore placed too much emphasis, especially in athletics, on the development of "champions" and have neglected the average pupils.

9. *Since it is desired that as many students as possible shall participate in each activity, there should be democracy in the activity.* Democracy can be secured by making participation in each activity equally open to all pupils. This would not, of course, be interpreted to preclude the organization of separate activities for boys and girls, nor the establishing of reasonable standards of achievement for eligibility to participate in certain activities. Whatever may be their merits in colleges and universities, school officials and employees are agreed that secret organizations should not be permitted in the elementary and the secondary schools; in fact, most states either have state laws, or rules of the state department of education, which prohibit secret organizations in the elementary and the secondary schools.

10. *Only active members of the school, that is, students and school employees, should be permitted to enroll as members of school organizations.* Since they are not amenable to school control and discipline, outside members frequently cause trouble for both the organization and the school. Pupils who have severed their connection with the school should not be members of extraclass organizations.

11. *Whenever possible, the school building or grounds should be the place of meeting for all school functions.* Functions which are not held on the school premises are usually more difficult to supervise.

12. *In order to avoid conflicts in dates and to secure better administration in general, the meetings of all organizations and activities should be definitely scheduled.* Many schools have found it desirable to devote a certain period of the school day to such activities. For most organizations and activities, day meetings are preferable to evening meetings. If evening meetings are necessary, they should usually be held on an evening which is not followed by a school day.

13. *To secure large participation by the students and at a small cost to them, the expense incident to all organizations and activities should be kept as low as possible.* Not only should the fees, dues, and admission charges be kept low, but provision should somehow be made for the few pupils who cannot meet even the lowest expense.

14. *There should be close supervision by the school of all extraclass funds.* Most extraclass organizations have certain expenses to meet, and, therefore, they require revenue. The amount of money which they annually take in and pay out varies from a few dollars in the small schools to several thousand dollars in the large schools. In most schools athletic contests are the chief source of revenue. Whether the amount of money be large or small, the school must exercise supervision of it. Many progressive boards of education have adopted rules and regulations requiring every school to provide this supervision. No organization of the school can justly claim that since it has earned its own money, it should be permitted to expend it as it chooses.

School supervision of the finances of all extraclass activities is recommended for two reasons. In the first place, supervision secures a more economical expenditure of the funds. Under complete student control, there is the ever-lurking danger that the funds will be wasted. To permit the waste of funds is not fair to the members of the group which furnishes the funds, nor does waste inculcate desirable

habits in the students who are responsible for it. In the second place, supervision guarantees the financial integrity, and protects the reputation, of the persons who handle the funds. Without a proper system of audits and public reports of funds, defalcation on the part of persons who keep the funds is risked; moreover, the reputations of honest persons are likely to be besmirched. Even school officials and employees, who often assume control of these funds, must take heed lest "whispering campaigns" be launched against their integrity. All accounts should be so kept that no one, at any time, or at any place, could legitimately question the fidelity to their trust of the persons who keep them. To summarize, the following recommendations are made for supervising the extraclass funds: (1) they should not be under the control of the students alone; (2) they should not be under the control of the principal, of a teacher, or of any other person alone; and (3) they should always be open to inspection, be regularly audited, and itemized reports of their status should be publicly made every year.

It is an excellent plan to have the financial affairs of the extraclass activities directed by a committee composed of both student and faculty members. Under ideal conditions this committee would represent the financial affairs of *all* extraclass organizations and activities of the school and not merely the affairs of one or a few. Such a committee is particularly advisable in schools which have centralized financing of all activities. Its general functions are to prepare budgets for the activities, or to assist in preparing them; to assist in securing ample revenue for each activity; to aid in securing an economical expenditure of all revenue; and, in general, to serve as a clearing house for all financial phases of the extraclass activities.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Do you agree with the frequently stated criticism that the schools are spending too much time on extraclass activities to the neglect of the school subjects? Why or why not?

2. Do you disagree with any of the "principles for directing extraclass activities" mentioned on pages 399 to 403? Why? What other principles, if any, would you add to the list?

3. Do you believe that there is too much of a tendency to emphasize extraclass activities of the athletics type and to neglect those of a more intellectual type? Explain.

4. How should extraclass activities be financed? Should they be financed by public funds? Why or why not?

5. What facilities does your college or university have which you may utilize in preparing yourself for supervising one or more extraclass activities?

6. Should the emphasis in sports and other contests be upon interschool competition or upon competition within classes or other groups of the school?

7. Statistics show that coaches of athletic teams are paid higher salaries than other faculty members. Do you favor this practice? Why or why not?

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Discusses underlying principles, how to initiate an activities program, and how to administer various activities.

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Discusses homerooms, clubs, and assemblies.

TERRY, PAUL W., *Supervising Extracurricular Activities in the American Secondary School,* McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1930, 417 pp.

An excellent discussion of the supervision of extraclass activities.

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The book is a "presentation and a criticism of detailed procedure in the organization, supervision, and financing of these so-called 'outside' activities of the school."

Chapter XV

THE PLACE OF TEXTBOOKS IN EDUCATION

IMPORTANCE OF TEXTBOOKS

European versus American practice. In the schools of most European countries the *lecture method* of instruction is used and only a small amount of emphasis is placed upon *textbooks*. The lecture method is used in these countries from the first grades to and through the university. The teacher completely fills the instructional stage and presents all new material as if it were original with him.

In the schools of the United States the emphasis is placed on textbooks. This emphasis is found especially in the elementary and the secondary schools; in fact, in a large percentage of the schools what the pupil learns is determined chiefly by the textbook. The textbook has always been a sort of "educational bible" to be devoutly followed. Even at this late date, in thousands of schools the teacher begins the term's work by assigning page one of the textbook, then continues his assignments page by page and day by day until the whole book has been assigned, learned and "recited"; this plan is especially followed by the inadequately prepared teachers. Under this method of instruction the teacher regards his function to be to make assignments in the textbook and to ascertain, after the pupils have been given the scheduled amount of time to "learn their lessons," how well they have mastered them. Perhaps it would be more accurate to say that, under the textbook method, teachers do not instruct, but merely hear recitations.

In brief, the textbook has always been the chief vehicle of instruction in the schools of the United States; it has

largely determined both the content and the method of instruction. The emphasis on the textbook is due in part to the historic desire of the people to read. This desire of the people to read and to have their children taught to read is evidenced first in the Massachusetts law of 1647, known as the "Old Deluder Satan Act," a portion of which was quoted in Chapter I.

Another explanation for the emphasis on the textbook method of teaching has been the meager preparation of the teachers of the United States compared with the teachers of European countries. Since the teachers of many European countries have a larger amount of preparation than the teachers of the United States, they are better qualified to use the lecture method; conversely, they are not so dependent on textbooks or any other "ready-made" method of instruction.

What are the comparative merits of the lecture method and the textbook method? Unfortunately there are no objective data bearing on this question, and all that this discussion can do is to summarize oft-quoted opinion. For the lecture method, it is argued, in the first place, that it enables the teacher to meet the needs of his pupils better than they could be met by a textbook. In the second place, it is claimed that the lecture method teaches pupils to be good listeners—that it makes them "ear-minded." In the third place, in the European schools the pupils are frequently called upon at the close of a lecture to summarize the chief points of the lecture, and it is argued that this practice teaches the pupils to express themselves. In the fourth place, it is claimed that the lecture method does not limit the pupils' knowledge to the textbook; the merit of this argument, of course, would depend upon the information possessed by the teacher and upon his teaching skill.

For the textbook method of teaching the following arguments are advanced, especially when the textbooks are of excellent quality. In the first place, it is claimed that the textbook presents the most pertinent information on the subject and presents it in a clear, interesting, and well-organized manner. The author of the textbook has prob-

and in presenting his material. In the spirit of a true artist he has written and rewritten his material. On the contrary, the teacher is able to spend only a few minutes or a few hours in preparing for a lesson and in organizing his subject matter; in brief, the textbook is a time-saver to the teacher. In the second place, it is argued that the textbook method of teaching makes pupils better readers; in fact, it is a provocative thesis that this method has been responsible for making the people of the United States the most facile and avid readers in the world. Through the emphasis upon textbooks the American people have been taught to read and have been given an abiding interest in reading; of course, they read much trashy material, and that part of their reading proclivity is unfortunate and should be redirected in some manner by the school. When the people possess this ability and this interest, their information is not limited to lectures or to what is contained between the covers of a textbook; instead the whole world of literature becomes their inheritance as long as they live.

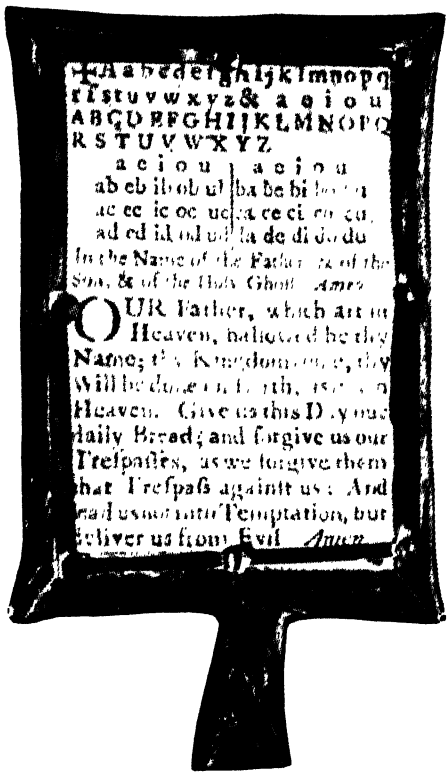

FIG. 52. A hornbook. The *Hornbook* was originally published in Europe in 1450. It was first printed in Latin, then in English. It was the first "textbook" in Europe and in America, and from it children learned the alphabet and began to read. It was really not a book but a thin paddle-shaped board, on which was pasted a sheet of paper containing the alphabet, a list of syllables, and the Lord's Prayer; the paper was covered with a sheet of transparent horn to protect it from becoming soiled.

Quality of American textbooks. The emphasis on te books has resulted in the schools of the United States d veloping the best textbooks in the world. These textboo are the premier pro uct of the book worl It should be note however, that it w not until the latt part of the nineteen century that the books showed mu improvement in qua ity. After that da the development textbook editing ar manufacturing w phenomenal. Frank Jensen says that the were three chief i fluences in the develo ment of modern tex books:

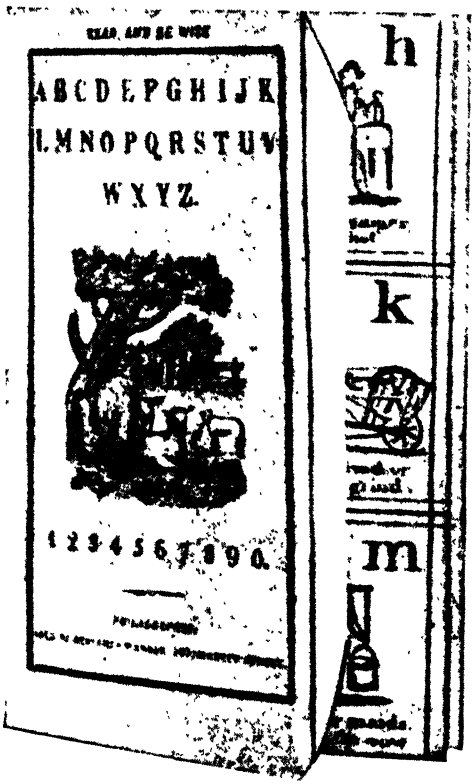

FIG. 53. A battledoor. The *Battledoor* was a sort of advanced *Hornbook* and succeeded the *Hornbook* in later Colonial times. It was widely used in the schools of England and in the northern colonies of the United States. It consisted of a sheet of cardboard folded once, with a little flap like a pocketbook. It included alphabets, syllables, and religious materials such as prayers.

First, a study of t child, resulting in the d velopment of a more scie tific educational metho second, the establishme of the textbook business a specialized indust rather than a subordina branch of a general prin ing or publishing busines and third, the revival interest in printing, whi had been a decadent a for over two hundr years.[1]

From data presented on the following pages it is es mated that more than sixty million dollars is now spe

[1] Frank A. Jensen, *Current Procedure in Selecting Textbooks,* Lippinc 1931, p. 5. By permission of J. B. Lippincott Company, publishers.

each year for textbooks in the public and private schools and colleges of the United States. Numerous publishing companies have been organized to cater to this business. Competition is very keen, and it has required publishers to attempt to produce the best books; in fact, the publishers have been compelled to pursue such a policy or be forced

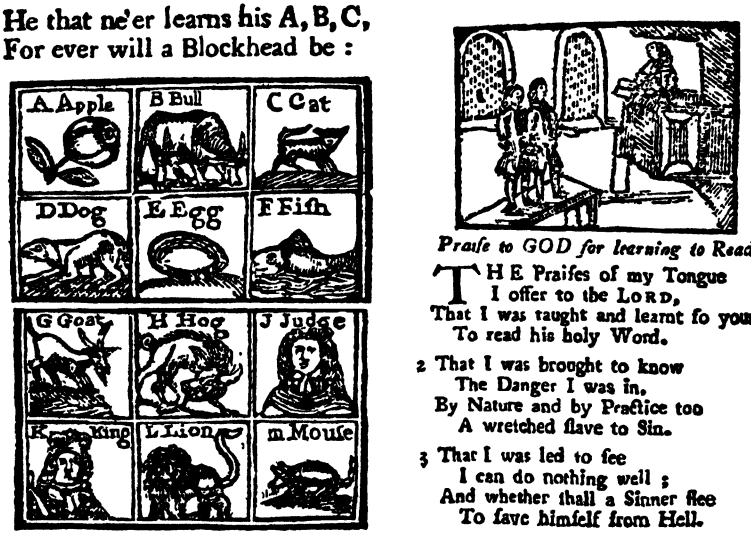

FIG. 54. Two specimen pages from *The New England Primer*. *The New England Primer* was the first textbook written and published in America. It was written by Benjamin Harris of Boston, and was first printed in 1690. It soon superseded the *Hornbook* and the *Battledoor* as the beginning reading text in the schools of the colonies; it also had a large sale in England and Scotland. It has been said of this book of about eighty pages of 3½ by 4¼ inches in size, that "it taught millions to read, and not one to sin." On the left side above is a page of the illustrated alphabet, and on the right side is a page of the reading matter.

out of business because of failure to receive purchase orders. Stimulated by increasingly higher standards of the members of the teaching profession and driven by competition, textbook publishers have progressed from the *Hornbook*, the *Battledoor*, and *The New England Primer*,[1] which were used in colonial days, to the splendid specimens of textbook artistry which are almost universal today.

[1] The *Hornbook*, the *Battledoor*, and *The New England Primer* are illustrated and described in Figs. 52, 53, and 54.

Although the textbooks of the United States are unquestionably the best in the world, and although they are being constantly improved, there are many mediocre and inferior textbooks. The schools will continue to have many mediocre and inferior textbooks as long as school officials and teachers persist in using such books, especially when better ones are available. For most of the school subjects, there are several textbooks, and for each of the universally required subjects such as spelling, reading, arithmetic, and language, there are at least a dozen recently published textbooks. All, of course, are vigorously promoted by their publishers. Not all are of the same quality; none are perfect, and some are distinctly inferior; some have even been accused of being un-American. It is the obligation of the agencies which select textbooks to select the best ones. A few general suggestions on how the best ones may be selected will be made in later sections of this chapter.

Cost of textbooks. Although certain mountebankish and rabble-rousing politicians question the cost of textbooks, that cost is surprisingly low when it is considered in relation to the educational contributions of textbooks, in relation to the quality of textbooks, and in relation to the total cost of the school. These politicians glibly claim that "millions of dollars" could be saved each year through state publication of books, or through another change in textbook policy. They promise to save "millions" notwithstanding the fact that the total textbook bill per annum does not amount to as much as "they would save."

The annual per pupil cost of textbooks in the elementary and secondary schools is less than two dollars; it is less that one cent per day of schooling for each pupil. Less than two per cent of all money spent for schools is devoted to textbooks. When textbooks are properly used, the contributions of good ones are so large that increased expenditures for them should be made if at all possible.

It should be pointed out that the cost data just given are from school systems which provide public-owned textbooks. Regarding the cost of textbooks under the practice of requiring the pupils to purchase them, it is known that the

average expenditures per pupil are less than in school systems which provide free textbooks.

OWNERSHIP AND PUBLICATION OF TEXTBOOKS

Public-owned textbooks. The practice of providing public-owned or so-called *free* textbooks for all public-school children originated in Philadelphia in 1818. Similar provisions were made by many other cities, especially in the East, in the course of the next half-century. The first state to enact a state-wide free-textbook law was Massachusetts in 1884; this law required all school districts to provide at public expense textbooks for all public-school children. Maine made similar provision in 1889. From these beginnings the movement for free textbooks gained rapid momentum which has continued to this day.

At present more than half of the states require free textbooks, and practically all of the other states permit local boards of education to provide them. Only a few states have not enacted legislation which requires or permits local school boards to provide free textbooks, but in those few states many local school boards have long provided free textbooks notwithstanding the fact that the statutes are silent on the matter. Gratuity of textbooks and of other instructional materials has come to be regarded by the public as the natural and inevitable sequel to gratuity of tuition.

The legislation pertaining to free textbooks was first applied to the elementary school, then to the secondary school. As a rule, the first laws *permitted* local boards of education to provide free textbooks; the next laws *required* these boards to provide them. A more recent step—a step which has already been taken by approximately one fourth of the states—requires the *state* to provide textbooks, these to be paid for by the state and to be furnished every pupil in the public elementary and secondary schools of the state; this is another evidence of the tendency toward equalization of educational opportunity throughout the state.

Most educators have come to believe that free textbooks

should be provided in all public schools, and a few believe that they should be provided in all private schools as well. The arguments which are usually advanced in favor of free textbooks in the public schools are summarized herewith. The reader is reminded, however, that most of these arguments, as well as most of the arguments for pupil-owned textbooks, are *opinions* only; the determination of their validity awaits the collection of further data and further thinking about the problem.

1. All other school services and facilities are free, and free textbooks would require only a small additional expenditure. In a free-textbook practice all pupils are placed on the same plane, and indigent pupils are not embarrassed or otherwise handicapped because of having to go without textbooks or because of having them provided by public funds.

2. The cost to the community is less. Under careful usage, a textbook will last from three to five years, thus permitting the same book to be used by more than one pupil; under the pupil-owned-textbook plan, the textbook is often used by only one pupil.

3. The criticism of many parents over the cost of textbooks is eliminated. In spite of the fact that the annual cost of textbooks is less than two dollars per pupil, even that amount is difficult for many parents to provide; moreover, the expenditure for textbooks must be made at the same time that expenditures must be made for new clothing and other necessities preparatory to the start of school.

4. Textbooks may be more easily changed when the need for changing them is imminent; thus, the pupils are not as likely to be handicapped by being compelled to use out-of-date textbooks.

5. Uniformity of textbooks in each school administrative unit is more easily procured than under the pupil-owned-textbook plan. Under the pupil-owned-textbook plan, many parents are content for their children to use out-of-date textbooks.

6. On the first day of school each pupil is provided with his textbooks by the school and is prepared to begin work immediately. Under the pupil-owned-textbook plan, there are many delays in securing the textbooks, and such delays handicap both pupils and teachers.

Pupil-owned textbooks. There are at least two sides to every question, and many arguments have been advanced in favor of pupil-owned textbooks; among the more frequently mentioned of these arguments are the following:

1. The cost of providing free textbooks is too large a burden for the public to bear; it increases taxes.

2. For the public to do too much for the pupil is likely to pauperize him; if the pupil is required to provide his textbooks, he is apt to be more appreciative of what society is doing for him through its many other educational expenditures.

3. Free textbooks are apt to be unhygienic, and the danger of the spread of disease is inherent in the plan. Of course, this argument applies only to used textbooks, not to new ones.

4. Pupil-owned textbooks encourage pupils to build up home libraries, whereas the free textbook plan does not give that encouragement.

5. When pupils own their textbooks, they have access to them during school vacations, whereas they do not have access to public-owned ones during vacations.

6. Pupils take better care of their own textbooks than they do of public-owned ones. This carelessness of pupils toward public-owned textbooks involves a large and unnecessary waste of public funds, and teaches disrespect for property.

7. The custodial care of free textbooks places an extra burden on school officials and teachers, and such burden can be avoided through having pupil-owned textbooks.

Textbooks for indigent pupils. In states which do not require boards of education to provide free textbooks, the laws usually stipulate that local boards of education shall provide indigent pupils with free textbooks. The laws usually stipulate also that clothing shall be provided to indigent pupils. These laws are another practical application of the educational creed of America which says that no pupil shall have his education handicapped because of family poverty.

In school systems which do not provide free textbooks to all pupils, teachers have the duty of ascertaining why pupils have not procured their textbooks and reporting such information to the principal, the superintendent, or other appropriate school official. In securing and in using such information, tact must be exercised; if certain pupils are not provided with books, because their parents or guardians are too poor to purchase them, this information should not be permitted to become public lest it result in the embarrassment of the pupils. The board of education will usually be able and willing to provide public funds for the books of such pupils. If the board is not able or willing to provide

the books, they may usually be secured through welfare organizations or through public-spirited citizens of the community.

State publication of textbooks. In two states school textbooks are published by the state. In California all elementary-school textbooks are printed by the state printing office, and in Kansas all elementary- and secondary-school textbooks are printed by the state printing office. In the other states all textbooks are purchased from private publishers. Several states have considered the state-publication plan, but all of them, with the exception of California and Kansas, have decided against it because of the belief that it is uneconomical and pedagogically unsound. The sponsorship and the arguments for and against the state-publication plan have been summarized in the following words by John F. Brown:

> State publication is favored chiefly by government officials, by political leaders and their immediate followers, and by labor organizations on the ground that (1) it is less expensive; (2) it encourages local authorship; (3) it produces state uniformity in textbooks and courses of study; (4) it supplies the local labor organizations with work which might go elsewhere if books were purchased in the open market, as is done in the case of other school supplies. State publication is opposed, particularly by educators of all ranks on the ground that (1) it has not been proved to be less expensive; (2) it results in the use of inferior books; (3) it causes delay in delivery of books when they are badly needed; (4) it imposes a service on the state that can be better done by private initiative.[1]

SELECTION OF TEXTBOOKS

Unit of selection. Every state has long had laws affecting the selection of textbooks. Approximately one half of the states now provide for state selection and uniformity. The remainder provide for local (that is, county or local school district) selection and uniformity. In some of the states which provide for state selection and uniformity, provisions for local selection are made for a few of the large cities. In some of the states, also, which provide for state selection

[1] John F. Brown, *State Publication of Schoolbooks*, Macmillan, 1931, pp. 1–2. By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

and uniformity, provision has been made for a multiple list of textbooks from which local districts may select. This provision for a multiple list is made especially for the secondary schools.

In spite of the fact that most school officials and employees as well as most publishing companies prefer local adoption of textbooks, the states which provide for local adoption are slightly in the minority; moreover, changes in state laws to permit local adoption are made slowly and grudgingly. The arguments which are usually advanced against uniformity of textbooks, particularly state uniformity, are as follows:

1. Uniformity of textbooks, particularly state uniformity, does not permit the use of books which are adapted to local needs. In the same school system, the educational needs of the pupils in one school will often vary widely from the educational needs of the pupils in another school. These varying needs are due to a diversity of social customs, occupations, and interests.

2. It is argued further against uniformity, particularly against state uniformity, that the adopting authorities are not always competent to perform this function. Members of state boards of education and of other state adopting boards are sometimes "politically" appointed, "politically" minded, and are susceptible to "pull" and other unethical influences. Often the members of these adopting agencies are not engaged in school work, or if they are engaged in school work, they are engaged in the administration of colleges and universities, or similar educational endeavors which are far removed from elementary and secondary school pupils. Infrequently is a teacher—the person who must use the textbook and consequently the person most vitally concerned with securing the best textbook—a member of the adopting agency.

Uniformity of textbooks, however, has many proponents, and many arguments are advanced in favor of that plan. Among the more frequently mentioned of these arguments are the following:

1. Uniformity is advantageous to the pupil who moves from one school district to another, or who is transferred from one school district to another. If he finds the same textbooks used in the new school as in the old, the pupil is not as likely to be handicapped educationally in making the transfer; moreover, the pupil does not need to go to the expense of purchasing another textbook, nor does the board of education have to incur that expense.

2. Uniformity is advantageous to the teacher who transfers from one school system to another, because he does not have to spend time in getting acquainted with new textbooks.

3. Uniformity makes it possible to effect economies in the purchase of textbooks. These economies grow out of the fact that a publisher who secures a state adoption for a period of one or more years is enabled to manufacture and to sell in large quantities.

4. Uniform selection secures a better quality of textbooks than does local adoption. In elaboration of this argument it is stated that state adopting agencies are more competent to perform this service and that they have more time to devote to the service than local school officials.

5. Finally, uniformity gives greater assurance that the minimum essentials of the course of study will be taught in all schools.

Term of selection. Practically all states have enacted legislation setting a certain term for which textbooks shall be selected. Most states prescribe a term of three, four, five, six, or seven years, with five years being the mode. A few states leave to the state board of education or other adopting agency the task of prescribing the term of selection.

Laws which prescribe the term of selection for textbooks have in mind the financial protection of the public from too frequent changes in textbooks. Such laws effectively accomplish the purpose just mentioned. Most of the laws, however, may be criticized because they do not make provision whereby an inferior textbook may be changed before the period of adoption is concluded; under most of the laws a change in a textbook cannot be effected before the close of the prescribed term even though the book is found to be wholly unsatisfactory, and even though another book has appeared which would be eminently more satisfactory. When the proper agencies have been established for the selection of textbooks, it would seem that those agencies should be given the decision of how long textbooks should remain in use. Most authorities recommend, therefore, that the adopting agency be the local school officials, and that these officials be permitted to change textbooks just as they are permitted to change superintendents, principals, teachers, or other services and facilities when the need for a change is demonstrated.

Standards for selection. Since textbooks frequently determine what is taught, since they are usually selected for a fairly long term, and since a considerable amount of public or private funds is expended for them, fine discrimination must be used in their selection. An unhappy choice of textbooks means that the teacher will be handicapped in his work, and that the pupils will not receive all the instruction which they might. As was stated in an earlier paragraph of this chapter, there are many textbooks available for each subject, and the best of these should be selected, but the best cannot be selected by "meni-mini-mo" methods. Knowledge of the characteristics of an excellent textbook and the will to choose the best are the chief requisites for effectiveness in selection.

Another requisite for securing superior textbooks is for the best qualified agency to be given the task of selecting them. According to the present state laws, county or state textbook commissions, or county or local boards of education, have this responsibility, but since the members of these commissions or boards are usually laymen, and since the selection of textbooks is a professional and technical function, textbook commissions and boards of education should not select textbooks without the assistance, or without the recommendation, of superintendents, principals, teachers, or other professionally prepared employees in education.

As the years go by, teachers are being given larger and larger responsibilities in the selection of textbooks. In local school systems which are permitted to select their own textbooks, and in states which provide for county adoption of textbooks, teachers are frequently required to serve as members of textbook committees; in fact, many school systems permit each teacher, particularly the high-school teacher, to select his own textbooks. This tendency presupposes that teachers should be familiar with the criteria which textbooks should meet and with the methods of selecting textbooks. All prospective teachers should secure this acquaintance while they are students in teacher-preparing institutions.

The tendency toward teacher cooperation in the selection

of textbooks is meritorious; teachers are peculiarly qualified to perform this service because they use textbooks every day in the school year and are in a position to know the comparative merits and shortcomings of various textbooks. Moreover, teachers—like all workers—prefer to have something to say about the tools with which they work; they do not relish having their tools foisted upon them. Teachers, however, should not expect to contribute to textbook selection until they have prepared themselves for the task. They should become acquainted with textbook score cards and standards and with the best textbooks for the subjects which they expect to teach.

USE OF TEXTBOOKS

After textbooks have been selected and purchased, school officials and teachers have two further responsibilities. In the first place, they have the responsibility of doing everything possible to increase the useful life of textbooks; in the second place, they have the responsibility of seeing that textbooks are properly used in the giving of instruction.

Increasing the life of textbooks. As with all other possessions the life of a textbook is determined largely by the care with which it is used. Under normal usage a textbook which has a durable binding and other excellent qualities of manufacture should last several years. Teachers can assist in prolonging the life of textbooks by giving the pupils proper instructions on the care of textbooks and in seeing that those instructions are followed. Special precautions should be taken against pupils losing their textbooks, and against depreciating their value through unnecessary marking, tearing, and soiling. These precautions should especially be taken in school systems which provide free textbooks. One of the lessons which pupils should learn is to respect property, whether public or private.

Use of the textbook in instruction. The materials of instruction for any group of pupils should be determined by the needs of the pupils. These needs vary from school system to school system, and from school to school; even in the

same school the needs of the pupils in one fifth-grade history class, for example, will vary more or less from the needs of another class in the same grade and subject. It is difficult, if not impossible, to select a textbook which will entirely meet the needs of a particular group. Even the best textbook is likely to possess the limitations of presenting too much or too little material, of being colored with the author's views to the neglect of other views, of being out of

FIG. 55. A group of children listening to a broadcast designed especially for them. Modern teachers use such experiences to supplement textbooks. (Courtesy of the Cleveland, Ohio, public schools.)

step with recent social changes, and of lacking adaptation to the needs of the individual pupil. The textbook should not determine the curriculum of the school; rather the needs of the pupils should determine the curriculum. Many teachers prefer not to use textbooks, but to direct their pupils to other sources of information and experience.

In using a textbook, the teacher should take steps to adapt the textbook to the needs of his pupils. He should supplement the material of the textbook with material found in other textbooks, in reference books, in newspapers, in magazines, in other courses of study, in the cinema, on the radio, in the life of the community, and in other sources.

The textbook should not be "king" over all other sources but should be "brother" to them. The teacher will often find it advisable to omit certain parts of the textbook. It would be extremely unfortunate for him to follow a textbook so slavishly that his pupils would receive no instruction except that contained between the covers of the textbook. The objectives of a course should be determined by the teacher or by the local course of study rather than by the author of the textbook. The chief objective of the school is to develop pupils who can think and plan, and this objective cannot be accomplished by any method of teaching which limits its material to a single textbook or which emphasizes textbook memorization.

The old-fashioned recitation is rapidly "passing," and fortunately so. Prospective teachers must prepare themselves to use textbooks more intelligently than they have been used in the past. Good textbooks can be valuable servants, but no servant should be overworked.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Would you favor state publication of textbooks such as two states now practice and as is sometimes suggested in the legislatures of other states? Why or why not?

2. What should be the unit for the adoption of textbooks? Should it be the classroom, the department, the school, the school district, or the state? Why?

3. Assuming that the laws of your state permit local adoption of textbooks, by what persons do you believe that textbooks should be selected? What should be the place of the teacher in that selection? Discuss.

4. What criteria should be kept in mind in deciding whether to change textbooks?

5. If a school system can provide free textbooks for only the elementary pupils or for only the secondary pupils, which group should be provided for? Why?

6. What tendencies regarding the use of textbooks in classroom instruction have you discerned since you were a pupil in the elementary and secondary schools? Do you regard those tendencies as progressive or as retrogressive? Why?

7. As a college student, do you prefer to use or not to use a textbook? Why? In what ways, if any, do you like to see a textbook supplemented?

8. As a teacher, would you prefer to use or not to use a textbook? Why?

9. How do you account for the fact that the expenditures for textbooks are frequently criticized in spite of the fact that those expenditures are small compared with the total cost of education? Should the schools spend more money for textbooks? Why or why not?

10. Assuming that the board of education which is employing you does not provide free textbooks nor make provision even for furnishing textbooks to indigent pupils, how might you as a teacher provide textbooks for your indigent pupils?

11. Should pupils be encouraged to keep their textbooks or to dispose of them? Why?

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Probably the most complete single reference on the subject of textbooks; contains a complete bibliography.

Chapter XVI

THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE SCHOOL LIBRARY

IMPORTANCE OF THE LIBRARY

The preceding chapter on "The Place of Textbooks in Education" stated that the tendency among modern teachers is away from the traditional practice of limiting instruction to the materials found in a single textbook. The tendency is toward supplementing the textbook with the many other sources of information which also have contributions to make to the education of the pupil; in fact, many teachers do not use textbooks but use other sources entirely. Among the more important of these other sources are the radio, cinema, the adult and child life of the community in all aspects, and other books and other printed materials. Probably most important among these other sources is "the printed word" as it is found in books, magazines, newspapers, and similar materials.

Since the function of the library is to make available as many of the more valuable of these printed sources as possible, this chapter will discuss the place of the library in education, various ways and means of improving the facilities of the library, and the possibility of increasing the use of these facilities. The discussion will be concerned primarily with the *school library,* but it will not forget the place of the public library, especially as an instrument in adult education.

Importance of the public library. Public libraries have traditionally been known as preservers of the social heritage. During the last few decades, however, they have come to be known as more than preservers of that knowledge; they have come to be regarded as outstanding agencies of popu-

lar education, and their development during this period has been amazing. The recent increase in the number and use of libraries has been caused by the increasing demand for adult education and by the expanding interest of the people in recreational and cultural reading. Although they read much trash, the people of the United States are the most avid readers in the world, and the development of public libraries has been a potent factor in stimulating them to read. It is, however, a sad fact that nearly five million of the adult population of the nation *can't read,* and thousands of these are native-born.

Although the development of public libraries has been phenomenal, and although the United States leads all other countries in its library facilities, there are still thousands of communities and millions of people wholly without library service. More than one third of the people of the United States are still wholly without local library service, and almost one third of the people do not possess adequate library service. The areas without any or without adequate local library facilities are usually found in the open country, but the majority of villages are also without such service. County libraries and their traveling units are rapidly being developed to serve the library needs of the villages and rural districts.

Importance of the school library. During recent years the teacher's concept of the place of the school library in the educational program has changed greatly. It has changed from the belief that the library is of small importance or is unnecessary to the belief that the library is one of the most important, if not indispensable, features of the school. There is an unmistakable tendency away from the traditional emphasis on the textbook to a larger emphasis upon the library. Indeed, in all progressive schools, the library is regarded, next to the teacher, as the most important feature of the school, and steps are everywhere being taken to expand its facilities and to increase its use. In the modern school firmament the library is recognized as the master planet, whereas textbooks are regarded as mere satellites of the master planet.

FIG. 56. A traveling library for distributing books to rural schools. Thousands of rural districts already have the facilities and services of these "bookmobiles." (Courtesy of the American Library Association.)

One of the chief evidences of the growing importance of the school library is seen in the tendency of the state legislatures to make the establishment of school libraries mandatory, to set standards which they must meet, and to provide for their financial support. Practically all of the states have enacted laws which require or permit boards of education to establish and to finance school libraries. More than one third of the states are attempting to stimulate the establishment and the improvement of school libraries through the policy of granting state aid to them. Several states have also created state library commissions and have delegated to them the work of stimulating the establishment and use of public and school libraries.

Thousands of schools, however, do not have a library, or if they have one, the reading materials in it have not been well selected, or are not being used. Not to have a library is unfortunate, but to have one and not to use it is worse still, because of the waste of funds which have gone into establishing and equipping it. School libraries are designed for use, and not merely to serve as ornamentation. Carlyle has said that "a true university of these days is a collection of books." It would, however, be more accurate to say that a *used* collection of books is a true university. The merit of a library must be determined in the final analysis by the extent to which it is used. Although it may be true in a few instances, as a cynical wag has said, that "a librarian is happiest when all the books and other materials are securely on the shelves," it is certain that such an attitude does not characterize most librarians. The attitude expressed in the *Old Librarian's Almanac* is rapidly passing into limbo:

> Keep your Books behind stout Gratings and in no wise let any Person come at them to take them from the Shelf except yourself. Have in Mind the Counsel of Master Enoch Sneed (that most Worthy Librarian) who says: "It were better that no Person enter the Library (save the Librarian Himself) and that the Books be kept in Safety, than that one Book be lost, or others Misplaced." Guard well your Books—that is always your foremost Duty. . . . So far as your Authority will permit of it, exercise great Discrimination as to which Persons shall be admitted to the use of the Library. For the Treasure House of Literature is no more to be thrown open to the

Ravages of the unreasoning Mob, than is a fair Garden to be laid unprotected at the Mercy of a Swarm of Beasts.

School officials and teachers are rapidly changing their belief and their practice that the textbook is the only source of knowledge, and are striving to make pupils acquainted with other books and other sources of information. Among progressive teachers the textbook is no longer regarded as an educational bible which does not need supplementation and which must be accepted without question by its readers. If, as is generally agreed, one of the chief purposes of the school is to make pupils acquainted with the sources of information, then the recent emphasis on the school library is commendable. Acquaintance with sources of knowledge will help the pupil to secure the greatest benefit from his schooling and will prepare him to continue his education throughout life. One of the most valuable lessons which pupils can learn is that education is a lifelong process and that it does not cease when they leave school; modern teachers are expected to instill those views in their pupils.

The pupil in the modern school is reading many times as much as the pupil in old-time schools. Moreover, owing to the decreasing emphasis on oral reading and the increasing emphasis on silent reading, he is being taught to read much more rapidly. He is no longer required to memorize his textbooks in order to participate properly in the recitation; in fact, the old-fashioned recitation is rapidly becoming extinct, and its death will be attended by few mourners. The pupil is being given the opportunity to read more through the establishment of an excellent library and through his being encouraged to use its resources. In brief, an increasing number of school officials, teachers, and librarians are trying to realize the objectives of the school library as stated by the American Library Association; those objectives are as follows:

1. All pupils in both elementary and secondary schools should have ready access to books to the end that they may be trained:
   a. To love to read that which is worth while
   b. To supplement their school studies by the use of books other than textbooks

c. To use reference books easily and effectively
d. To use intelligently both the school library and the public library

2. Every secondary school should have a trained librarian, and every elementary school should have trained library service.

3. Trained librarians should have the same status as teachers or heads of departments of equal training and experience.

4. Every school that provides training for teachers should require a course in the use of books and libraries, and a course on best literature for children.

5. Every state should provide for the supervision of school libraries and for the certification of school librarians.

6. The public library should be recognized as a necessary part of public instruction and should be as liberally supported by tax as are public schools, and for the same reason.

7. The school system that does not make liberal provision for training in the use of libraries fails to do its full duty in the way of revealing to all future citizens the opportunity to know and to use the resources of the public library as a means of education.

TYPES OF SCHOOL LIBRARY CONTROL

There are three types of school library control in the various communities of the United States. They are, in inverse order of contributions to school efficiency, as follows: first, control by the public library; second, joint control by the school district and by the public library; and third, control by the school district.

The tendency in both theory and practice is toward having the school library controlled and administered entirely by the school district; indeed, in many communities the school district has the responsibility of administering public libraries as well as school libraries. Control of the school library by the school district gives greater assurance that the needs of the pupils will be met than would be the case in joint control or in public library control. Under school control the responsibility for administering the library is centered in the agency which has as its only function the education of the children. Although control of the school library by the public library gives school service which is infinitely better than none, that type of control has certain limitations. Among its limitations are the following:

1. Under public-library control there is danger that friction will develop between school officials and public library officials.

2. The officials and employees of a public library are not always conversant with the needs of the school, nor are they always familiar with the ways and means of meeting those needs. Under public-library control, the needs of both the general public and the school must be met, and often it is difficult to meet the needs of one clientele without neglecting the needs of the other.

3. Under public-library control the school library is usually made a branch of the public library, is located in the school building, and must be used by both the pupils and the general public. When the school library is used by the general public, there is no way of controlling who shall come to the school premises; this means, therefore, that undesirable persons in the community will sometimes mingle with pupils.

USING THE SCHOOL LIBRARY

It should be repeated that a library is established for use and not merely for ornamentation. It is of small avail to have excellent library quarters, a carefully chosen collection of reading materials, and the services of a well-qualified librarian if the library is not used. In most schools and school systems steps need to be taken to increase the use of the library by both teachers and pupils. Teachers are in the best position to stimulate the use of the library on the part of pupils, because they make the assignments to pupils, and if they make frequent assignments to the library, pupils will be compelled to become acquainted with the library. Moreover, this enforced and day-by-day acquaintance with the library is likely to stimulate pupils to use the library of their own free will and accord; and what is of even greater importance, any habit of using the library —public as well as school—is likely to persist throughout life. The first obligation of the school is to teach the pupils the *tools of knowledge*—reading, writing, speaking, calculating, spelling, and others; the second obligation is to make the pupils acquainted with the best *sources of knowledge*—good books, good magazines, good newspapers, and others. Pupils cannot be best taught to think and to plan if they lack knowledge of these tools and sources. In the follow-

ing paragraphs suggestions are made which look toward stimulating a larger and more discriminating use of the school library.

Library instructions.[1] Millions of adults do not use libraries because they do not know how to use them. Whereas libraries should be as enchanted isles to everyone, to millions of people they are domains of mystery. Millions

FIG. 57. A corner of a library which serves as the heart of the school. This library is found in the University High School, Ohio State University. (Courtesy of Roy Wenger and Hazel Gibbony.)

of pupils must also be included in this unfortunate category. The best way by which this deficiency may be corrected is for every school to teach the never-ending nature of education, the importance of libraries in education, and efficient methods of using libraries. Prospective teachers should learn how to inculcate such lessons when they are securing their college preparation for teaching; they cannot teach

[1] Several of the books in the list of Selected References at the close of this chapter are devoted entirely to the giving of library instructions.

their pupils to use the library if they have never learned to use it. Teachers should be expected to begin the library instruction of their pupils in the early years of the elementary school and to continue it in the secondary school. In the elementary school instruction should be given on such topics as the following: how to use dictionaries and encyclopedias; how to use the table of contents and the index of a book; how to withdraw, to take care of, and to return books; where to look for certain books in the library; and characteristics of excellent books and of poor books, also of excellent magazines and of poor magazines.

In the secondary school the following topics should be discussed, and the topics suggested above for discussion with elementary-school pupils should be reviewed as needed: the values to be secured from using a library; getting acquainted with the school library; how to use a book; the use of general reference books; the use of special reference books; how to evaluate books, magazines, and newspapers; the use of magazines; the card catalogue as an index to the library; the better known periodical indexes and how to use them; library rules; library facilities in the community other than school libraries; services provided by the state library, if there is one, and by other libraries; the library as an adjunct to the classroom; how to prepare a bibliography; how to take notes; selection of books for the home library; visual material and its use; and books from which vocational and other types of guidance information may be secured.[1]

Special library day. Numerous schools are setting aside a special day, known as school-library day, on which a program is given on the purposes of the school library and on proper ways and means of using it. Many schools are using the day also to increase the facilities of the school library; on this day they encourage pupils, school officials and employees, and the general public to make suitable gifts to the library of books, magazines, pictures, and other appropriate material. If a library day is sponsored, it is ob-

[1] Acknowledgments for most of this list are made to Hannah Logasa, *The High School Library*, Appleton-Century, 1928, p. 175.

vious that the largest benefit from it would be secured by having it as early in the school year as possible.

Bulletin boards. On library and classroom bulletin boards may be posted such materials as well-chosen newspaper and magazine clippings, reading lists for various courses and subjects, jackets of new books, and other interesting material. Such material possesses educational value and leads to a larger and more discriminating use of the library. Many schools are making the library a clearinghouse for such material and are securing the cooperation of pupils and teachers in carrying out the project.

Book exhibits. Attention may be called to new books and to other new reading materials by placing such materials on a "New Book Shelf." Special attention may be called to particularly excellent books and to other reading materials by placing such materials on a "Have You Read This Book?" shelf; such materials may, of course, be old or new.

Special reading lists. The use of the library may be stimulated by the preparation of reading lists on various subjects and topics. For example, reading lists may be prepared on vocational guidance, economics, fiction, biography, science, and other especially alive subjects. Teachers are in especially favorable positions to prepare or to supervise the preparation of such lists. Pupils can often be asked to help prepare the lists. To give the lists proper publicity they may be mimeographed and handed to the students; they may be posted on the bulletin boards of the school; they may be published in the school paper or magazine; or attention may be called to them in appropriate class discussions. These lists may also be circulated among the parents in order that they may see what the school is doing. They will often encourage parents to read.

Personal interest of the librarian. The use of the library may be stimulated and improved by the librarian taking a personal interest in the requests and the needs of every user of the library. If the librarian is an "old grouch," is lazy, or does not cooperate with the people who use the library, the library can never realize its potentialities. Such a librar-

ian will drive students away from the library instead of attracting them to it.

Book reviews. Attention may be called to new books in the library by having reviews of these books written and published in the school newspaper or magazine. If a review cannot be secured for every new book, merely publishing the name of the book or posting the name or the jacket of the book on the bulletin board will help to call attention to the book. Usually such reviews can be written appropriately by pupils; for example, pupils in the science department could review new books on science, and pupils in the commercial department could review new books on commercial subjects.

In addition to written reviews of books, oral reviews may be presented. These reviews may be made in brief talks about books and may be presented by the librarian, by teachers, or by pupils. They may be given in school assemblies, in homerooms, or in regular classes.

Library conveniences. The use of the library may be stimulated by providing it with the conveniences and comforts which every good library should have. In the first place, the shelves of the library should be marked to show the contents of each shelf. In the second place, the library should have an accurate card catalogue which lists every reference contained in the library and indicates where the reference may be immediately found. In the third place, the library should be an attractive and a comfortable place to visit. This means, among other things, that it should be provided with comfortable chairs and tables, good pictures and other works of art. For a glimpse of a library which meets these standards, see Fig. 57.

Student and teacher library boards. Many schools have found that the library and its use can be improved by organizing a library board constituted of pupils or teachers or both. It is the function of such a board to cooperate with the librarian and school officials in selecting materials for, in administering, and in promoting the use of, the library.

THE LIBRARIAN AND HIS WORK [1]

Importance of the librarian. Just as the teacher makes the classroom, the shop, or the laboratory largely what it is, so the librarian makes the library largely what it is. An excellent school librarian constantly seeks information on the needs of every department of the school, tries to meet those needs, and attempts to promote the use of the library in every school department. The librarian is in a strategic position to see the results of teaching and to improve those results. He manages the school's "storehouse of information and ideas," and he is ever present to make mental notes of the pupils and teachers who avail themselves of the resources of that storehouse. He knows those who come to "scoff" as well as those who come and "remain to pray," and he knows those who never come to the altar of knowledge.

Under ideal conditions every school would have a librarian, either part-time or full-time. Such conditions, however, do not, and because of financial limitations probably cannot, obtain in the smaller schools. As a rule, full-time librarians are found only in the large secondary schools. The smaller secondary schools and the elementary schools are usually not provided with the services of a librarian. In the smaller secondary schools, however, one or more of the teachers are frequently asked to devote one or more of the class periods each day to the library; in such schools, moreover, some of the students are frequently called upon to assist in the library.

Qualifications for the position. The higher the level of the school, the more important the school library and the school librarian become; that is to say, these facilities and services are more important in the secondary schools than in the elementary schools, and more important in the colleges and universities than in the secondary schools. If it is true that "a library is a school," and if it is true that the

[1] Throughout this book the masculine gender is used in referring to all school officials and employees; for consistency it is here used in referring to the librarian in spite of the fact that four fifths of the school librarians of the United States are women.

librarian makes the library largely what it is, the necessity that the librarian have high qualifications is obvious. In personality, in college preparation, and in other qualifications, the school librarian should be among the best qualified employees of the school, and he should be certificated under state law in the same manner that teachers and other educational employees are certificated.[1] If his qualifications are as high as those of other employees, justice dictates that his salary and other rewards should compare favorably with the salaries and other rewards of other employees.

In fact, there is much argument for requiring the school librarian to possess even higher qualifications than teachers. He should have considerable acquaintance with all subjects taught in the school. Without this acquaintance with science, mathematics, English, history, commerce, and the other school subjects, he is certain to have difficulty in meeting the peculiar needs of each school department. In view of these facts, therefore, it would not seem unreasonable to urge that the librarian possess the same amount of undergraduate preparation as the typical teacher, and in addition, that he possess at least one year of postgraduate training in school-library science. In schools which are not large enough or are unable to afford the services of a full-time librarian, it would be well if one of the teachers possessed some of the qualifications just recommended in order that he might give part-time supervision to the library. All of the regional accrediting agencies (New England, North Central, Southern, Western, etc.) now have certain standards which secondary-school libraries must meet; these standards are fairly similar. The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has the following typical standards for the librarians of its secondary-school members:

Personnel. (*a*) Schools of 1,000 or more pupils, at least one full-time librarian who is professionally trained and who holds a bachelor's degree or its equivalent.

[1] The Council of the American Library Association has recommended the certification of all librarians. For a digest of the laws pertaining to certification, see Lucile F. Fargo, *Preparation for School Library Work,* Columbia University Press, 1936, pp. 62–80.

(*b*) Schools of less than 1,000 pupils, part-time teacher-librarian with technical library training.

Since the school librarian is essentially a teacher, many schools give him the title of teacher-librarian. Emma J. Brock has summarized in the following words the qualifications which a school librarian should possess:

> The work demands not only careful but broad scholarship. A mere high-school education plus even the most technical training is not enough. We must have not only a librarian, able to buy and to catalogue, to issue, and to keep a record of books lent, but the teacher-librarian, with an intelligent knowledge of all sources of information desired, competent, if necessary, to supervise the preparation of reports and special studies, cultured enough to make her library a place of refinement and inspiration. Moreover, she must have a strong yet winning personality, be able to command respect and therefore to keep the library a laboratory for work; at the same time she must be one who attracts students to her and what she has to offer by her sympathy, encouragement, and power to interest and inspire. No other position in the school offers such possibilities for universal service; no other makes greater demands upon her who fills it. . . .[1]

Cooperation between teachers and librarian. It was stated above that in function the school librarian is largely a teacher. Perhaps, it would be more accurate to say that he is a cooperating teacher, because his chief obligation is to cooperate with the teachers of the various departments in instructing the pupils. If the librarian does not cooperate with the teachers, they cannot accomplish all that they might. And if the teachers do not cooperate with the librarian, he cannot accomplish all that he might. There are many ways in which teachers may cooperate with the librarian. Among the more important of these ways are the following: by making definite rather than vague assignments to pupils; by responding immediately to requests of the librarian for reading lists for various courses; by requesting pupils to return materials to the library as soon as their use has been finished; by being on the lookout for excellent new references for the library, and by notifying the librarian

[1] "The Efficient High-School Library," *English Journal*, Vol. 5 (January, 1916), pp. 16–17.

of those new references; by reducing to a minimum the requests for duplicate copies to be purchased by the library.

Opportunities in school-library work.[1] School-library work presents another employment opportunity for persons who possess the requisite qualifications. The amount of salary, pension and tenure regulations, and other opportunities in the school librarianship compare favorably with those pertaining to the teaching profession; moreover, the opportunities for securing a position as a school librarian are easily as good as those for securing a teaching position. All colleges now employ one or more librarians, and practically all of the large and medium-sized high schools also employ one or more, and every year sees hundreds of the smaller high schools start the practice of employing a full-time or a part-time librarian. Beginning teachers who can show that they have had at least one college course on the school library will find that preparation an excellent selling point when they come to look for a position; moreover, that special preparation will often enable them to command a slightly higher salary.

THE MATERIALS OF THE SCHOOL LIBRARY

Importance of proper selection. The type of reading materials in the library determines largely the merit of the library. There are, of course, millions of books, thousands of bulletins, and hundreds of periodicals which might be secured for the library; however, because of budgetary limitations no school library can expect to secure more than a small percentage of any of these. School officials and employees must, therefore, select all reading materials from the point of view of relative values; their obligation will be to procure first of all the absolutely necessary books, periodicals, and other materials. Unless such discrimination is used in selecting the materials for the library, the library may become loaded with "literary junk" which will never

[1] Chapter XVII of this book is devoted to opportunities in the teaching profession, and most of that discussion will be found to be pertinent to the school librarianship.

or seldom be used; moreover, unless care is exercised, improper materials may be placed in the library, and these will be read and have a deleterious influence on the pupils and on school and home relations.

In selecting materials for the library, school officials and employees should keep in mind that there cannot be a standardized school library. Standardization may be secured in a few materials, such as dictionaries, encyclopedias, and indexes, but beyond these standard references each library must be a law unto itself. The materials in the library must meet the needs of the community and of the curriculum of the school. For example, if science has a prominent place in the curriculum of the school, there should be more references on science than would be necessary if science were not taught or did not have a prominent place in the curriculum. Moreover, the collection of references should be properly proportioned among the various departments of the school; it should not be constituted too much of science, history, mathematics, fiction, or any other subject. The school library should be given a "balanced diet" the same as the human body.

Selection of books. It has already been said that millions of books are now on the publishers' trade lists; moreover, several thousand new books are published annually in the United States alone. Confronted with this dilemma, school officials and employees should keep in mind quality instead of quantity when they are selecting books; they should realize that one excellent book may be of greater value than hundreds of worthless or mediocre books.

As has been stated above, the reading materials for the library should take into account the needs of the school. Materials should be selected only after conferring with the teachers of the various departments regarding the needs of the various departments. Prospective teachers should become familiar with those needs when they are securing their college preparation. In selecting materials for the library, many suggestions may be secured from various book lists. Most of the states as well as the private standardizing agencies (New England, North Central, Southern, Western, etc.) have established regulations governing the

minimum number and the kind of books to be found in schools of various types and sizes; these regulations apply more often to the secondary schools than to the elementary schools.

In addition to the minimum standards which most of the states have established for school libraries, particularly secondary-school libraries, many of the states have prepared lists of books suitable for school libraries. As a rule, these lists may be secured gratis from their publishers, namely, the state departments of education. Book lists for school libraries are now being published by practically all state departments of education, by a few library commissions, and by a few state libraries. Frequently these lists are published for various sizes and types of schools. In addition to the lists just mentioned, there are various other excellent lists for various grades and subjects, and persons who are preparing for teaching should become acquainted with the lists appropriate to their chosen fields of service.

Selection of magazines. Since the United States is primarily a nation of periodical readers, and secondarily a nation of book readers, teachers should become acquainted with the best magazines appropriate for the pupils of the grades and classes which they teach. They should strive to secure those magazines for the school library and to make the pupils acquainted with them.[1] The fact that hundreds of millions of copies of trashy magazines are read annually by pupils and adults may indicate a failure of the teaching profession to develop a high standard reading interest among pupils, past and present. Some of the magazines of the school library should be primarily for recreational reading, while others should be primarily for use in connection with the study of various school subjects.

To make the magazine material more useful, a good *periodical index* should be provided the library. Although there are many other indexes, the *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature* is one of the best. Prospective teachers should become acquainted with these indexes when they

[1] Every school library should also have at least one good daily newspaper (such as *The New York Times*, or *The Christian Science Monitor*), and pupils should be taught to read such newspapers.

are students in college; this acquaintance will not only help their college work but will also make them competent to help their pupils to become acquainted with the indexes.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Do you agree with the statement that "reading is the greatest intellectualizing agency in the world today"? Is reading more important than the radio? Why or why not? Do you agree with the statement that "the library is, next to the teacher, the most important feature of the school"? Why or why not?

2. What obligation does the teacher have to teach his pupils to use the library and to stimulate them to use it? Why? By what means may this training and this stimulation be given? What supervision should the teacher give to the type of library materials which his pupils read? What attitude should the teacher take toward the sale of trashy periodicals and books in a community?

3. What attention should the teacher give to the development of good habits of magazine and newspaper reading on the part of his pupils? Why? How may the teacher proceed to develop those habits in his pupils?

4. What cooperation should there be between the teacher and the librarian in selecting materials for the library? In what other ways may the teacher cooperate with the librarian in increasing the usefulness of the library?

5. Assuming that your community has neither a school library nor a community library, and assuming further that there are no public funds for a school library, how might you as a teacher proceed to build up a library for your pupils?

6. Would you favor keeping school libraries open during the summer vacation? Why or why not?

7. How do you explain the fact that so many high-school and college graduates do not read books? By what steps would you suggest that this situation be corrected?

8. As a teacher, would you use the library to supplant or to supplement the textbook? Why?

9. What are the laws of your state pertaining to the establishment and support of school libraries? What changes, if any, do you believe should be made in the laws? Why?

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A veritable mine of information on present and suggested standards for elementary-school libraries.

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Wilson Bulletin for Librarians, Editorial Office, 950–972 University Ave., New York City. 1914 to date.

This magazine is published monthly and contains many helpful articles and suggestions for school librarians. Each issue contains a selected list of the best new books which have appeared during the previous month.

PART V

EDUCATION AS A PROFESSION

Chapter XVII

OPPORTUNITIES IN THE TEACHING PROFESSION

NECESSITY OF VOCATIONAL CHOICE

When a person begins to face the problems of life, the problem of choosing and preparing for a vocation comes immediately to the fore. This problem must be faced by everyone, and it must usually be faced early in life. In choosing and preparing for a vocation the following factors should be kept in mind: first, the *opportunities* afforded by the vocation, and, second, the *requirements* for entering, and for achieving success in, the vocation. In this chapter the opportunities in the teaching profession will be discussed. In the next chapter the requirements for entering, and for achieving success in, the profession will be discussed. Of course, other chapters discuss the opportunities and requirements in a few special areas of educational service, such as pupil personnel and guidance, the school librarianship, school nurse, physical education, teaching handicapped children, and school lunchroom management.

IMPORTANCE OF THE TEACHER

"As is priest, so is parish," is an old Russian proverb. This proverb may be paraphrased and applied to the person in charge of any activity. The person in charge makes the activity largely what it is. If he is well qualified for his task, he will overcome all obstacles and make the activity function to the fullest; as Napoleon said of himself, he will "specialize in doing the impossible." If he is not well qualified, the activity will not realize its potentialities although all other conditions for such realization may be favorable.

In school affairs the teacher primarily determines whether the school will be efficient or inefficient. "As is the teacher, so is the school." Although they can never be neglected in an educational program, such facilities as buildings, equipment, and supplies are of secondary importance compared with teachers. Granted that hovels were safe and sanitary, it would be better for children to attend school in them there to be instructed by excellent teachers than to attend school in palaces there to be under the tutelage of inferior teachers. James A. Garfield once defined an ideal school as "Mark Hopkins at one end of a log and a student at the other end." In this definition Garfield was attempting to call attention to the indispensability of an excellent teacher, of which Mark Hopkins was a splendid example. He probably did not believe that a mere log—and any kind of a log —would suffice as the altar of instruction. He did believe, though, that school *personnel* was much more important than school *matériel.*

Garfield's remark applies to all levels of education—elementary, secondary, and college. It applies with particular cogency to the lower grades of the school, because the younger the pupil, the more he must depend upon his teacher. In the lower grades it is expected that the tools of learning will be taught, that desirable habits and ideals will be developed, and all in all that an enduring foundation will be laid for future learning and for life. As the pupil ascends the educational ladder, his teacher becomes less necessary to him, but he never becomes dispensable even at the top of the ladder. In brief, when we realize the importance of education to society and to the individual, and when we realize the role of the teacher in providing that education, we become more aware of the importance of the teacher. Good schools and qualified teachers are expensive, but ignorance and selfishness among a people are much more expensive. Wars, unemployment, crime, waste, graft, disease, and other social handicaps will continue as long as ignorance and selfishness are permitted to exist. When the light of education is snuffed out, the dark ages will return, and civilization will have committed suicide. In inimitable

style Henry van Dyke has stated the contributions of the teacher to pupils and to society:

I sing the praise of the unknown teacher. Great generals win campaigns, but it is the unkown soldier who wins the war. Famous educators plan new systems of pedagogy, but it is the unknown teacher who directs and guides the young. He lives in obscurity and contends with hardship. For him no trumpets blare, no chariots wait, no golden decorations are decreed. He keeps the watch along the borders of darkness and makes the attack on the trenches of ignorance and folly. Patient in his daily duty, he strives to conquer the evil powers which are the enemies of youth. He awakens sleeping spirits. He quickens the indolent, encourages the eager, and steadies the unstable. He communicates his own joy in learning and shares with boys and girls the best treasures of his mind. He lights many candles which, in later years, will shine back to cheer him. This is his reward. Knowledge may be gained from books; but the love of knowledge is transmitted only by personal contact. No one has ever deserved better of the republic than the unknown teacher. No one is more worthy to be enrolled in a democratic aristocracy, "King of himself and servant of mankind." [1]

SUPPLY AND DEMAND IN THE VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOL POSITIONS

The total number of positions. Because the answer to the question is one of the best measures of the opportunities for employment in the vocation, one of the first questions which should be asked by the person who is faced with the problem of selecting a vocation is: "How many positions are there in the vocation under consideration?" On this score, education as a vocation ranks high. According to the most recent census of the United States, only a few vocations, such as agriculture, construction, manufacturing, the railroads, and textiles employ more people than the schools. In the public and private schools and colleges of the United States there are more than a million teaching, administrative, and supervisory positions. Making up this large army of employees are approximately 870,000 public elementary- and secondary-school teachers, approximately 90,000 pri-

[1] Henry van Dyke, "A Tribute to the Unknown Teacher," *The Mathematics Teacher,* Vol. 25 (May, 1932), p. 302.

vate elementary- and secondary-school teachers, approximately 85,000 teachers in public and private collegiate departments, approximately 25,000 teachers in other types of teaching activities, and approximately 50,000 administrators and supervisors.[1]

Types of positions available. The preceding section has indicated that in relation to the total number of its employees education is a gigantic business, employing more than one million persons. It has also shown the number of positions in each large field of service. From the data just given it is observed that approximately two thirds of all school employees are classified as teachers in the public and private elementary schools and that most of the remaining one third are classified as teachers in the public and private secondary schools. Although they are helpful in giving a general picture, the data of the preceding section do not provide sufficient detail concerning the *types* of positions. The impression is given that there are few positions beyond those for classroom teachers and administrators. We need to seek elsewhere, therefore, for more detailed information in the types of positions.

A study by Miss Marjorie Rankin, who made an examination of the waxing and waning occupations in the public school systems of certain cities in the United States, will be found helpful in seeing the types of school positions available.[2] In the fourteen cities (ten large and four small) which she investigated, Miss Rankin found almost 400 different types of school positions. She classified these positions into six "lists." In the first four of the "lists," 239 different positions of a nonteaching type were found. Sample positions from each of her first four "lists" are herewith reported:

In "List 1," which is captioned "Personnel of Maintenance," 37 different positions are mentioned. These positions are concerned primarily with the business phases of school administration. Among the

[1] For the exact number of school employees for any year and in any state the student may consult *Statistics of State School Systems,* which is published biennially by the U. S. Office of Education.

[2] Marjorie Rankin, *Trends in Educational Occupations,* Columbia University, 1930

37 positions mentioned are the following: accountant, auditor, cafeteria manager, clerk, purchasing clerk, draftsman, and storekeeper.

In "List 2," which is captioned "Personnel of Professional Service," 29 different positions are mentioned. Among them are the following: architect, director of educational research, engineer, director of medical inspection, landscape gardener, school psychologist, and statistician.

In "List 3," which is captioned "Personnel of Personal Service," 44 different positions are mentioned. Among them are the following: attendance officer, nurse, coach, dentist, librarian, optometrist, nutritionist, physician, placement officer, and visiting teacher.

In "List 4," which is captioned "Administration and Supervision," 129 different positions are mentioned. Among them are the following: superintendent, assistant or associate superintendent, business manager, principal, dean of boys, dean of girls, and directors and supervisors of various departments or fields such as home economics, industrial arts, commercial education, music, art, special education, health, visual education, and citizenship.[1]

The remaining positions of Miss Rankin's study were classroom teaching positions and these comprised 72.12 per cent of all positions. She discovered, however, that there were several hundred types of teaching positions when the different subjects of instruction were considered. In the secondary schools, for example, she found that nineteen different kinds of English were being taught, fourteen kinds of music, thirty-one kinds of art, and eighty-three different trades. In the belief that the prospective teacher who is choosing a teaching field will want to be informed concerning all of the many teaching possibilities, "List 6," which gives a grouping of the subjects taught in the junior and senior high schools of the fourteen cities, is here presented in full:[2]

1. Aeronautics—Aviation
2. Agriculture
   - Animal husbandry
   - Floriculture
   - Horticulture
   - Home gardening
   - Landscape gardening
3. Architecture
   - Architectural drafting
   - Architectural drawing
   - Architectural modeling
4. Arts and Drawing
   - Art appreciation
   - Art metal

[1] *Ibid.*, pp. 8–13.

[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 18–21. By permission of Teachers College, Columbia University, publishers.

4. Arts and Drawing (cont'd)
   - Art needlework
   - Art weaving
   - Batik leather
   - Card writing
   - Cartooning
   - Ceramics
   - China painting
   - Clay modeling
   - Crafts
   - Decoration
   - Design
   - Detail drawing
   - Figure drawing
   - Free-hand drawing
   - Handwork
   - History
   - Illustrating
   - Jewelry
   - Lettering
   - Life sketching
   - Oil painting
   - Painting
   - Plastic art
   - Poster
   - Pottery
   - Related art
   - Scene painting
   - Show card
   - Wood carving
5. Astronomy
6. Biological Sciences
   - Anatomy
   - Bacteriology
   - Biology
   - Botany
   - Nature study
   - Plant science
   - Zoology
7. Chemistry
8. Civics
   - Americanization
   - Citizenship
   - Democracy
   - Economics
   - Pacific rim
   - Political economy
   - Political science
9. Commercial Subjects
   - Accountancy
   - Advertising
   - Auditing
   - Bookkeeping
   - Business methods
   - Business organization
   - Commerce
   - Commercial arithmetic
   - Commercial geography
   - Commercial law
   - Commodities
   - Detailing
   - Economic geography
   - Estimating
   - Finance
   - Industrial processes
   - Industries
   - Junior business practice
   - Office practice
   - Penmanship
   - Phonography
   - Raw materials of commerce
   - Retail selling
   - Salesmanship
   - Shorthand
   - Stenography
   - Stock billing
   - Textiles
     - Applied textile mathematics
     - Applied textile design
     - Applied textiles
     - General textiles
     - Physics and chemistry of
   - Typewriting
10. English
    - Applied English
    - Belles-lettres
    - Drama
    - Dramatics
    - Elocution
    - English to foreigners

- Expression
- Forum lectures
- Journalism
- Literature
- Newspaper
- Philology
- Play writing
- Public speaking
- Reading
- Short story
- Speech correction
- Spelling
- Theme reader

11. Engineering
    - Civil engineering
    - Engine testing
    - Mining
    - Navigation
    - Ship design and construction
    - Surveying
12. Esperanto
13. French
14. General Science
15. Geography—Physiography
16. Geology—Minerology
17. German
18. History
    - Current events
    - Traveling teacher of state history
19. Hygiene
    - Corrective physical education
    - First aid
    - Health
    - Home nursing
    - Orthopedic classes
    - Personal hygiene
    - Physiology
    - Wholesome living
20. Home Economics
    - Baking technology
    - Café management
    - Cafeteria
    - Clothing
    - Cooking
    - Corrective nutrition
    - Dietetics
    - Dressmaking
    - Foods
    - French draping
    - Garment design
    - Homemaking
    - Home thrift
    - Household arts
    - Household science
    - Interior decorating
    - Millinery
    - Needlework
    - Nutrition
    - Quantity foods
    - Sewing
    - Special catering
21. Italian
22. Laboratory Assistant
23. Latin and Greek
24. Logic
25. Mathematics
    - Algebra
    - Arithmetic
    - General mathematics
    - Geometry
    - Slide rule
    - Trigonometry
26. Music
    - Appreciation
    - Band
    - Glee Club
    - Harmony
    - History of music
    - Opera
    - Orchestra
    - Organ
    - Piano
    - Sight singing
    - Theory of music
    - Violin
    - Vocal music
    - Voice
27. Norse
28. Occupations

29. Physical Training
    - Athletics
    - Clog dancing
    - Folk dancing
    - Military science
    - R.O.T.C. officers' class
    - R.O.T.C. rifle practice
    - Social dancing
    - Swimming
30. Physics
31. Sociology
    - Social problems
    - Social studies
32. Spanish
33. Swedish
34. Trades
    - Auto mechanics
      - Auto brake adjustment
      - Auto electrics—laboratory
      - Auto electrics—theory
      - Auto mechanics
      - Auto repair
      - Auto theory
      - Auto upkeep
    - Beauty culture
    - Building construction
    - Carpentry
      - Cabinet making
      - Milling cabinet
      - Sticking
    - Cement
      - Concrete construction
    - Cleaning
      - Fancing spotting
      - Pressing
    - Electricity
      - Lighting
      - Practical electricity
      - Wiring
    - Flower making
    - Gas engine mechanics
    - Hair and skin
    - House painting
    - Janitor engineer
    - Lace making
    - Machine shop—machine operation
    - Meat cutting
    - Mechanical arts
      - Blue print reading
      - Forge shop
      - Iron work
      - Joinery
      - Lead work
      - Leather
      - Metal work
      - Pattern making
      - Sheet metal
      - Shop assistant
      - Steam
      - Steel design
      - Steel square
      - Vise shop
    - Mechanics
      - Construction drawing
      - Machine construction
      - Machine design
      - Machine operation
      - Mechanical drawing
      - Mechanics
      - Mechanism
    - Mechanics of materials
    - Novelty
    - Paper hanging
    - Photography
    - Plastering
    - Plumbing—pipe fitting
    - Power machine—power sewing
    - Printing
      - Bookbinding
      - Hand composition
      - Linotype
      - Monotype
      - Presswork
    - Radio
    - Reed craft
      - Basketry
      - Reed furniture weaving
    - Roof framing
    - R. R. station accountancy

Shampooing
Shoemaking
Sign painting
Smithing
Soda dispensing
Stage craft
  Costuming
  Stage electricity
Tailoring
Telegraphy
Telephone operation—
  P.B.X. Tel. operation
Tile setting
Trade drawing
Trade sewing
Transportation
Upholstering
Vulcanizing
Welding
  Oxy-acetylene welding
  Gas and electric
Woodwork

35. Thrift

Miss Rankin's study also reports the percentage of school employees found in each of the various types of school service. A perusal of these percentages shows that the elementary-school teachers comprised almost one half (49.11 per cent) of all employees and that the junior and the senior high-school teachers comprised more than one fourth (28.49 per cent) of all employees. The percentage for each type of employee is shown in the following columns:[1]

It is unfortunate that such a study as that of Miss Rankin's is not available for the rural and village schools—schools in which most educational employees must begin their careers. Casual observation, though, will indicate that the rural and village schools do not have nearly the diversification of services that the city schools possess. In those smaller schools few educational positions beyond those of teacher, principal, and superintendent are found. Casual observation will also indicate that the typical educational employee must begin his career in classroom teaching or in one of the activities which Miss Rankin has classified as "personnel of personal

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 23, Table III. By permission of Teachers College, Columbia University, publishers.

Elementary school teachers	49.11
Senior high school teachers	18.69
Special service employees	9.80
Junior high school teachers	9.65
Administration and supervision employees	5.75
Kindergarten teachers	4.22
Personal service employees	2.58
Professional service employees	0.17

service" (nurse, attendance officer, librarian, visiting teacher, etc.).

Although there are many exceptions to the rule, positions in the other groups—"personnel of maintenance," "personnel of professional service," and "administration and supervision"—are usually filled by experienced employees through promotion from the ranks or through promotions from similar positions in smaller schools or school systems. Beginners who aspire to principalships, superintendencies, or other of the more responsible and better salaried school positions are almost certain not to find employment; they should remember that they must first prove themselves in the crucible of teaching experience. Fig. 58 shows the chief types of administrative and supervisory positions which are available in the school system of a typical large city.

Number of vacancies. Another question which is always asked by the person who is contemplating entrance into a particular vocation is: "How many vacancies are there each year in the vocation under consideration?" The answer to this question will give another view of the opportunities for securing a position in the vocation. Compared with other professions the tenure of position of the teaching personnel of the schools of the United States is very unstable. This instability provides annually an unusually large number of vacancies. Because of the large amount of turnover in it, a wag has dubbed the teaching profession "the teaching procession." The teachers of many European countries usually remain several years—often their whole career—in the same position, but the teachers in most American communities, especially in the smaller communities, are professional "tramps." Although some turnover may be an evidence of vitality, the *unusual* amount of turnover in the teaching profession indicates a lack of professional consciousness and prestige. In brief, vacancies in the teaching profession are too plentiful for the best interests of the general public, of the pupils, and of the profession.

The *National Survey of the Education of Teachers,* a nation-wide survey conducted and financed by the United States Office of Education, reported that approximately

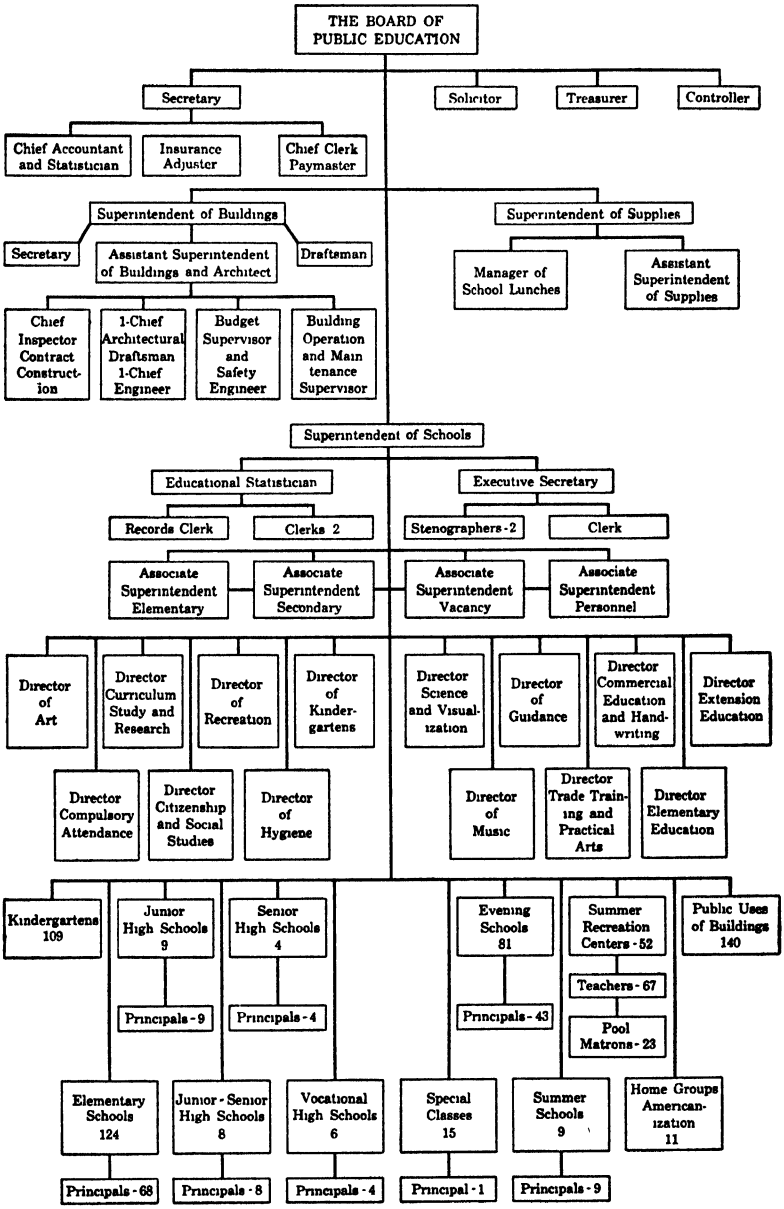

FIG. 58. The types of administrative and supervisory positions found in a large city school system. These positions pay excellent salaries, but few of them are available to beginners in the profession.

11.5 per cent "new additional" [1] elementary teachers were employed; "new additional" teachers employed for the junior high school and for the senior high school were 8.7 per cent and 11.8 per cent respectively.[2] Assuming that conditions at present are about the same, it can be estimated that approximately 70,000 "new additional" teachers are needed in the public elementary schools each year and that approximately 25,000 "new additional" teachers are needed in the public secondary schools.[3] It should be kept in mind

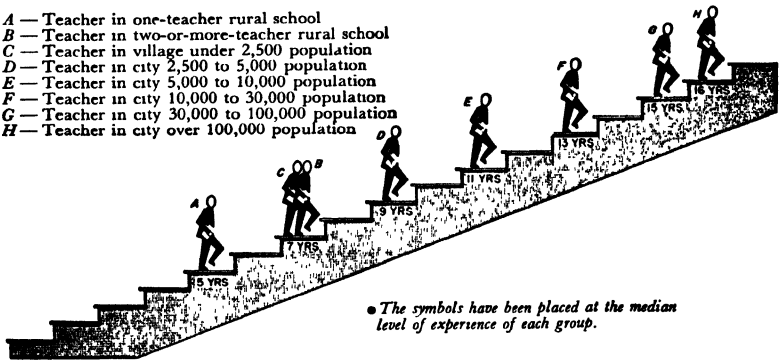

FIG. 59. Professional experience of the classroom teachers of the United States. (From *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association, Vol. 18, p. 58.)

that the estimates just given are limited to the public elementary and secondary schools. The estimates do not include the several thousand "new additional" teachers required in the public and private colleges and in the private elementary and secondary schools, nor do they include the several thousand "new additional" administrative and supervisory officers needed in the public and private schools and colleges.

To summarize, approximately 100,000 "new additional"

[1] "New additional" teachers includes those employed to take the place of those leaving the profession, plus those employed to fill newly created positions. During recent years the number of such teachers has shown a gradual decrease because the school population has become somewhat static and additional teachers have not been needed; however, see footnote 3 below.

[2] E. S. Evenden, *National Survey of the Education of Teachers,* U. S. Office of Education, 1933, Vol. VI, p. 222.

[3] These estimates are undoubtedly too low for the emergency years of World War II; an unparalleled shortage of teachers has happened during this period.

employees are needed in the public and private schools and colleges of the United States each year (1) to take the place of employees leaving the profession, and (2) to fill new positions. In addition to these "new additional" employees, about the same number of employees changes from one educational position to another each year. The *National Survey of the Education of Teachers* found that approximately one fifth of the elementary teachers were "new" to their position each year, that approximately one seventh of the junior high-school teachers were "new," and that approximately one fifth of the senior high-school teachers were "new."[1] This means that approximately 200,000 teachers were "new" to their position each year. The survey found also that the amount of teacher mobility was much larger in the rural districts than in city districts, and that it was much larger in certain states than in others.[2] The city districts pay the highest salaries, and when teachers arrive there they have no other place to go.

What are the factors that create demand for teachers? And what are the sources of supply of teachers? The *National Survey of the Education of Teachers* has also provided answers to these questions. From one of the reports of the survey, it is observed that the three chief factors creating demand were the following: (1) "predecessor left to teach somewhere else in state," (2) "predecessor married," and (3) "hold newly created position."[3] The same study indicates also that the three chief sources of supply were the following: (1) "another school system in the same state"; (2) "college or university in same state"; and (3) "teacher-training class, normal school, or teachers college in same state."

The changing supply and demand. Although approximately 100,000 new teachers are needed annually in the whole United States, it should be pointed out that during

[1] Evenden, *op. cit.*, Vol. VI, p. 201. (As used here, *new* means new to the position, not necessarily a beginning teacher.)

[2] *Ibid.*, Vol. VI, p. 201, 203.

[3] *Ibid.* During World War II a huge additional demand has been created by the drafting of men teachers for the armed forces and by the better salaries paid to teachers by industry.

most of the recent years the supply of teachers has been larger than the demand. Except during World War II, practically every state has had an oversupply, and in some of the more populous states the oversupply has amounted to several thousand teachers.[1] Of course, it might be argued with much logic that no state has had an oversupply of "blue ribbon" teachers but only an oversupply of teachers who had been certificated and thus made eligible for employment. The tragedy of oversupply comes from the fact that the "mine-run" teachers handicap the "blue-ribbon" ones in securing positions; inferior teachers cheapen the whole profession just as fiat money cheapens the best currency. It has long been observed that prosperous times beget an undersupply of teachers, whereas depression times bring an oversupply. The causes of the recent tendency toward an oversupply of teachers may be summarized as follows:[2]

1. A much larger increase in the number of college students and of college graduates than in the number of teaching positions and of positions in the other professions
2. The large amount of unemployment and of economic uncertainty during recent years. This has made teachers want to retain their positions and has caused teacher turnover to decrease
3. The ease with which teaching certificates may be secured, especially in certain states
4. The relatively high beginning salaries in teaching compared with other vocations
5. The growing tendency for women teachers to continue teaching after marriage
6. The rapid growth of tenure and pension legislation for teachers

Practically all of the states have neglected to try to maintain a balance between the supply and demand of teachers; not much evidence of foresight and planning with respect to this problem is observed on the part of school officials and the public. A policy of *laissez faire* has been pursued. The large disparity between supply and demand has had unfortunate results for the schools; it has given many pro-

[1] World War II is causing an undersupply, but this will probably be only temporary.

[2] Most of these factors have not operated, of course, during World War II.

spective teachers the impression that teaching has little promise as a desirable career.

With prospects that an oversupply of teachers will be found after the war as before, then would seem to be a propitious time to increase further—in fact, *much* further —the standards of the profession.[1] Teachers should assume the lead in promoting that program just as physicians have taken the lead in advocating higher standards for the members of their profession. If the problem is attacked vigorously and with statesmanship, large and immediate improvement can be made. In attacking the problem the public must be further educated to see the need for improving the opportunities and working conditions in the profession as well as the need for increasing the level of qualifications. Looking toward increasing the level of qualifications, the following program is suggested, especially when peacetime returns:

1. A more critical selection of the candidates entering teacher-preparing institutions
2. A lengthened period of college and university preparation
3. An improvement in the facilities and services of teacher-preparing institutions
4. More rigid state supervision over all matters pertaining to the selection, the preparation, and the certification of educational employees
5. Higher salaries and better conditions of work in general

As is true of practically all vocations, the demand for teachers in various types of educational positions is constantly changing. These changes in teacher demand are the result of social and economic changes, or of a belated recognition that certain services have long been needed in the schools. For example, two or three decades ago there was only a small demand for teachers and supervisors of vocational subjects. Since that time, however, the demand for teachers and supervisors of vocational subjects, especially commercial subjects, has grown by leaps and bounds. Other types of educational employees who have recently come

[1] These steps cannot be taken, of course, during the teacher undersupply period of World War II.

upon the scene, and for which there is a lively demand, are the following: specialists in preschool education, guidance specialists, research specialists, naturalization specialists, teachers and supervisors of adult education, specialists in radio education, psychologists, school librarians, school nurses, physio-therapists, and teachers of atypical children (such as crippled, blind, deaf, tuberculous, cardiac, speech defectives, mentally gifted, mentally subnormal, and incorrigibles).

Any scarcity of employees in a given field usually results in higher salaries being paid in that field. Whether we agree or disagree with its operation, the law of supply and demand has always applied to school employees and other workers as well as to commodities; according to that law, underproduction results in higher prices, and overproduction brings lower prices. In a free system of economics and in the absence of government price ceilings, services as well as commodities are always seeking higher prices. When prospective teachers discern a scarcity of teachers in a given field, they tend to decide to enter that field. The result of their decision, as a rule, is that supply and demand are soon balanced; in fact, it often happens that supply soon exceeds demand, and this results in many teachers being unable to secure positions and in a tendency toward lower salaries.

What fields have an oversupply of teachers, and what fields have an undersupply? Many studies of this question have been made for various states and localities. As a whole, these studies report a tendency toward either an undersupply or a balanced supply of teachers in agricultural education, commercial education, Spanish, nursing education, elementary education, home economics, industrial arts, and music. The same studies have reported a tendency toward an oversupply in the social studies, English, French, German, physical education, biology, mathematics, physics, and chemistry. During World War II, however, an undersupply in practically all subjects has been found.

In considering any data on supply and demand the prospective school employee should remember that changes in supply and demand are likely to make the picture of to-

morrow different from the picture of today. Opportunities for employment in a certain field may be plentiful today, but tomorrow the opportunities may be few or nil. If he desires or must have a position, the prospective school employee should keep himself informed concerning these changes; his best source of information on the changes will probably be the employment office of the institution in which he is studying, and he will often save himself much grief by keeping in close touch with that office. Employment offices cannot fill vacancies which do not exist.

In selecting a field of endeavor, the prospective school employee is entitled to helpful guidance, and every teacher-preparing institution has the obligation of giving this guidance. Although prospective school employees should be permitted—in fact, required—to select their fields of endeavor, they should be provided with up-to-date information which will assist them in making an intelligent choice. The "sink or swim" policy, which many teacher-preparing institutions have pursued, has resulted in entirely too many of the graduates of these institutions "sinking." Practically every teacher-preparing institution is organized to give all necessary guidance, provided students will seek it; only short-sighted and careless students will fail to take advantage of all such services.

Important though that consideration is, the opportunity for employment should not dictate entirely, if even chiefly, the field for which the candidate should prepare. Never to be neglected in choosing a life work are other considerations. Especially important among these are the candidate's abilities, desires, and aptitudes. These factors may weigh so heavily that the student should prepare for a certain endeavor in spite of the fact that his opportunity for securing employment in that field is certain to be limited. Possibly a wait of one or more years until the candidate is able to secure a position is not too high a price to pay for the privilege of working in a field where his abilities, desires, and aptitudes lie. In the end, such a wait is sure to bring greater happiness and professional progress than a lifetime spent as "a square peg in a round hole."

Subject combinations. The prospective teacher should keep in mind that he will probably be required to begin his career in a rural, a village, or a small city school system. On the assumption that every beginning teacher is a "gamble" until he has been tested in the crucible of experience, the school systems of the large cities usually demand successful experience of one to three years of all new appointees. Since the city school systems pay higher salaries than the rural and village school systems, and, since they provide many other advantages, they do not have any difficulty in enforcing this requirement. Of course, the requirement can be questioned because it prevents the employment of *all* beginners although some of them may be outstanding prospects.

In brief, the rural, the village, and the small city school systems have usually been the training ground for the teaching personnel of the large cities, and this in spite of the fact that the city systems provide more adequate supervision. Since the typical beginning teacher must look forward to a few years of service in the smaller school systems, he should keep this fact in mind when he is securing his preparation for teaching. For example, if he is planning to teach in a secondary school or in a departmentalized elementary school, he should consider the advisability of equipping himself to teach *two or three* different subjects. Although he would probably prefer to teach only in the field of his major interests, he is not likely to find many opportunities for such employment; in fact, investigations show that he stands almost a fifty-fifty chance of having to teach more than one subject even when in later years he is employed by a larger school. Experience indicates that teachers of industrial arts, music, fine arts, physical education, agriculture, commercial subjects, and home economics have the best chance of teaching in one field alone.

Although the basis or the justification for the combination is not always clear, the beginning teacher should keep in mind also that in practice certain subjects tend to go together. For example, mathematics goes with physical and biological sciences, and physical and biological sci-

ences go together. There is some demand for an art and music combination; Latin goes more often with English than it does with other languages; industrial arts and athletics frequently go together. According to Earl W. Anderson and J. L. Morrill, the subject combinations which are most commonly found in the programs of the beginning secondary-school teachers of a typical state are listed in the following columns:[1]

English
- Latin
- History
- Home Economics
- French
- Mathematics

History
- English
- Civics
- Mathematics
- Geography

Mathematics
- Science
- English
- History
- Biology
- Physics

Latin
- English
- History
- French
- Home Economics
- Mathematics

Home Economics
- English
- History
- Geography
- Science
- Latin

Industrial Arts
- Mathematics
- Science
- Agriculture
- History
- Geography

Music
- English
- History
- Latin

Agriculture
- Industrial Arts
- History
- Home Economics
- Mathematics

French
- English
- Latin
- Home Economics
- Mathematics

Botany and Zoology
- General Science
- History
- Home Economics
- Mathematics

Commercial
- Mathematics
- English
- History

[1] Earl W. Anderson and J. L. Morrill, *Do You Want to Teach?* Ohio State University, pp. 14–15.

Chemistry	Geography
Science	History
History	Civics
Biology	Mathematics
Physics	English
Home Economics	Spanish
Physics	English
Science	Latin
Biology	History

Data concerning the combinations of subjects of elementary-school teachers, who are doing departmental teaching, are not plentiful. It is known, though, that few school systems use departmental teaching in the elementary school. When it is used, it is usually found in the upper grades only of the elementary school. This means, therefore, that the typical elementary-school teacher will have to be prepared to teach all subjects which are offered in the grade or grades that he teaches. The teacher in the one-room rural school is often called upon to teach all grades and all subjects of the elementary-school curriculum. In the larger elementary schools the typical teacher has only one grade.

Opportunities for men and for women. Until about the beginning of the nineteenth century practically all teachers were men. At that time the movement for the higher education of women gained momentum and women began to enter the professions, especially the teaching profession; this movement increased the supply of women teachers and decreased the demand for men teachers. About the same time also a period of large industrial expansion started, and this provided many new business opportunities for men. With the exception of the years of severe business depression and of wars, the percentage of men teachers has dropped constantly during recent decades. The percentage fell from 38.7 in 1870 to 17.7 in 1932, but has increased since 1932 to approximately 20 today. Whether the recent increase in the percentage of men teachers indicates a reversal of the major trend of the last century or is merely an intermediate upswing cannot be foretold; of course, World

War II has caused a decrease, at least temporarily, in the number of men teachers.

A few states report the number of teachers of each sex in the various types of teaching positions in the public elementary and secondary schools. An examination of those data shows that the percentage of men teachers in each state varies widely and that the percentage of men teachers varies also with the type of school. This percentage is highest in the traditional four-year high school, next highest in the reorganized types of high schools, and lowest in the elementary school and kindergarten. In the elementary schools only one teacher in every ten is a man, whereas in the secondary schools approximately four teachers in every ten are men.

Unfortunately, nation-wide data showing the sex of school administrators are not available, but a perusal of the latest *Educational Directory* of the United States Office of Education will show that by far the majority of school administrators are men. In the colleges and universities men hold practically all of the administrative positions; in the elementary and secondary schools they hold practically all of the superintendencies and most of the principalships; and in most of the other types of administrative positions they are in the majority. Men have sought the administrative positions because of the higher salaries and the greater prestige which these positions give, and they have not had much difficulty in securing them because of the widespread belief, justified or unjustified, that men are better administrators than women. Although a few women are found in every type of school-administrative position, it is only in the elementary-school principalship that their number even approximates the number of men.

Many of our fellow citizens believe that more and better qualified men are needed in the teaching profession, and they have concluded that to secure them larger salaries will have to be paid. Most efforts at augmenting the number of men teachers have been directed, therefore, at increasing the pay of men to a point where it would compare more favorably with that of other vocations. In attacking the prob-

lem of pay, many boards of education have concluded that it is necessary to pay men teachers more than women teachers of equal qualifications. Recent studies show that the majority of school systems pay higher salaries, at least in certain positions, to men than to women of equal preparations and experience. These studies indicate that men teachers receive on the average $100 to $200 per year more than women teachers in the elementary schools, and from $200 to $300 per year more in the secondary schools. The arguments for paying men teachers more than women teachers have been summarized by Willard S. Elsbree in the following words:

> All things point to the conclusion that *at the present time* society has more to lose than to gain from equal pay legislation. In general, the most vociferous proponents of equal pay are either ignorant of the possible and probable outcome of forcing the issue or are so intent upon securing their own selfish ends that they have shut their eyes to the chain of unfortunate consequences that would follow.
>
> If able men are to be attracted to the profession, unequal pay appears to be a necessary expedient until such time as conditions in all occupations make the supply of men and women teachers approximately equal; and when that happy day arrives, equal pay legislation will be superfluous. Moreover, unless some system of maternity benefits accompanies the establishment of equal pay, or is evolved independently, unequal pay will be a social and economic necessity for family support.[1]

The practice of paying men more than women has been strenuously opposed by many persons, especially by the women teachers. In many communities the women have organized to eliminate this practice—a practice which appears to them to be "rank discrimination and patent injustice." The women have adopted as their slogan, "Equal pay for equal work." They attack in the following manner the two chief arguments for a pay differential for men:

Regarding the first argument, namely, that men teachers have dependents whereas women teachers do not, the women affirm that women teachers, as well as men teachers, frequently have dependents. As evidence they point to such

[1] Willard S. Elsbree, *Teachers' Salaries*, Columbia University, 1931, p. 50. By permission of Teachers College, Columbia University, publishers.

investigations as that by Theresa P. Pyle. In that study Miss Pyle obtained questionnaire returns from 775 widely scattered teachers regarding their dependency load. The mean dependency load (including the teacher himself) was as follows: single women, 1.6; single men, 1.4; married women, 1.9; married men, 3.4. She found that all the married men supported dependents as compared with 63 per cent of the married women, 52 per cent of the single women, and 33 per cent of the single men.[1]

The women point out that there are many men teachers without any dependents just as there are many women teachers without any. They are unable, therefore, to see any justice in paying all members of a group an additional salary because the majority, or a few, of the members of the group have dependents. They conclude that if an additional salary is to be paid for dependents, it should be paid only those who *really have* them.

Regarding the second argument, which is to the effect that the influence of the masculine personality is needed in the schools, particularly in the upper grades, the women point out that this is entirely a matter of opinion. They affirm that there is no objective evidence showing that the influence of the masculine personality is a *sine qua non* for a a well-rounded development of the pupil. They conclude that teaching ability is an individual matter, and that it is fallacious to attribute certain invariable traits or abilities to a given sex.

PECUNIARY REWARDS AND OPPORTUNITIES

Amount of salary. If the welfare and progress of society and of the individual are or can be determined largely by the teacher—and this is admitted by all intelligent and altruistic persons—then it is the responsibility of educational statesmanship to see that the teacher is the best qualified person possible. In undertaking to secure teachers of high qualifications the salary paid them is one of the first matters

[1] Theresa P. Pyle, *The Teacher's Dependency Load,* Columbia University, 1939, p. 100.

which should be examined, because there is almost sure to be a relationship between salary and qualifications. A salary of $2,000 will usually purchase a much higher type of qualification than a salary of $1,000. School employees are like other persons in their desire to earn as much as possible, and they consciously and inevitably drift toward the communities and positions which pay high salaries. They require the same necessities and desire the same comforts and luxuries as other persons. They want to provide for their families and for their old age. They are normal human beings and are not ascetics.

In the first place, a sufficiently high standard of pay is needed to attract the best young people into teaching. A low standard will not attract such persons. The joy of service, albeit potent, is not a sufficient magnet. Although Moses affirms in Deuteronomy, viii. 3, that "man doth not live by bread alone," he did not imply that man could live without *any* bread; bread continues to be the "staff of life," and to purchase it the coin of the realm is necessary. In the second place, the schedule of pay must be high enough to keep the choicest spirits in the profession and to enable them to be progressive and happy in their work. Teaching must constantly compete with other vocations; if its standards of pay are low compared with other vocations, there is danger that the best members of the profession will be lost to other vocations, especially in prosperous times. In the third place, the salary must be high enough to enable the teacher to take his proper place in community life, to give him a feeling of security, and for him to maintain a standard of living equal to or approximating that of the most cultured people of the community.

Teachers, therefore, are justified—in fact, they are obligated—to demand adequate pay; they should assume that obligation, not because of their own selfish interests, but because society will suffer if they do not assume it. Of course, the members of a profession, which is worthy of the name of profession, do not work for salary alone; with them *service* is primary and pecuniary reward is secondary. In the following words John Ruskin has stated the senti-

ment which should guide the members of a profession in their pecuniary relationships:

> If your fee is first with you and your work is second, then fee is your master and the lord of all fees, who is the devil; but if your work is first with you and your fee is second, then work is your master and the lord of all work, who is God.

In campaigns to increase the salaries of teachers, hundreds of local, state-wide, and nation-wide studies of teachers' salaries have been made during recent years. These

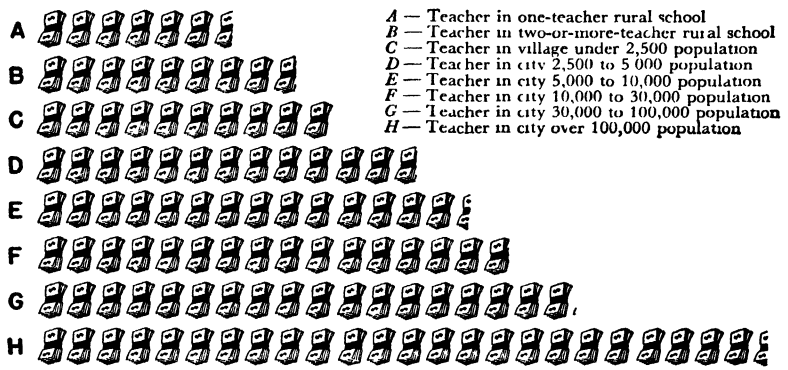

FIG. 60. Approximate annual salaries of the classroom teachers of the United States. (From *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association, Vol. 18, p. 60.)

studies have shown not only the salaries of teachers in the several types of school service, but some of them have indicated also the economic position of teachers compared with workers in other fields of endeavor. The high points of some of the more important of these studies are reviewed herewith.

Since its establishment in 1923, the Research Division of the National Education Association has been the most prolific agency in collecting and disseminating data on teachers' salaries and in showing the usually unfavorable economic position of teachers compared with other workers. Similar data have been collected and disseminated regularly by most of the state education associations, by many of the state departments of education, by the United States

Office of Education, and by many local education associations. These studies can, therefore, always be consulted for the most recent data, and all of them may usually be found in school, college, and public libraries.

Studies made by these organizations show that, although the tendency is toward greater uniformity in salary when qualifications are equal, salaries still vary widely; they vary from state to state, from school system to school system in the same state, from secondary school to elementary school, and from subject to subject. Teachers in the one-room schools receive the smallest salaries, and teachers in the secondary schools receive the largest ones. Salaries are lowest in the rural, the village, and the small city school systems, and highest in the large city school systems. These disparities result in a large turnover annually in the lower paid positions and in a constant and inevitable drift of the teachers in those positions toward the higher paid positions. Practically all teachers in the cities started their careers in the rural and village school systems and migrated from there into the better paying positions of the cities.

Thousands of teachers receive a pittance of less than $500 annually—in fact, in a few states the average annual pay is less than $500. By far the lowest salaries are found in the southern states, largely because of the lack of sufficient taxable wealth, and because the cost of living is lower there. Only in the state of New York is the average annual salary more than $2,000 and in only a few states is it more than $1,500. The wealth of any state or school district is the chief determinant of teachers' salaries in that state or district, and teachers who work in the less wealthy states and districts must expect to receive salaries smaller than those paid in the more wealthy states and districts.

Any worth-while study of teachers' salaries should compare those salaries with the wages of other workers in the community in which the study is being made. Such comparison should be made because the incomes of the people of a community largely determine the standard of living of the people of the community—a standard which teachers are expected to meet or to approximate. "When in

Rome we are expected to live as Romans." The "have nots" cannot be expected to live in happiness with the "haves," if, indeed, they can live at all. If wearing patched clothing is fashionable, and if the simple life is the mode of the people of a community, then teachers will not need such a large salary to maintain a respectable standard of living compared with other people. If, however, most of the people have many luxuries, then teachers must possess comforts at least, and for securing them larger salaries will be necessary.

Although the economic position of the teacher, compared with other workers, has been improving, it is not yet what it should be. The remark has often been made, and it has never been contradicted, that the teacher's work constitutes the bulwark of the nation. The cruel fact is, however, that this well-founded theory has been disregarded by society in making its salary awards, because the pay of the teacher is much less than that of other workers who have equal standards of preparation. Of course, there will probably continue to be some differential between the pay of teachers and the pay of workers in many other vocations because of such advantages of teaching as its short hours, frequent holidays, healthfulness, tenure, and social service. As has been previously stated, the members of a profession worthy of the name do not work for salary alone; they want to give much more than they receive.

In comparing the salaries of teachers with the salaries of other workers the disparity of teachers' salaries cannot be justified by the argument that teachers work only eight, nine, or ten months, whereas workers in other vocations must labor twelve months. Persons who offer this argument tend to forget that the teacher must *live* twelve months although he is paid for a less number of months; expenses continue whether income does or not. They forget also that most teachers spend their vacation months in attending the summer sessions of colleges and universities or in taking other steps to improve themselves for their work. They further forget that to improve one's competence usually requires the expenditure of money for college tuition, books,

periodicals, and other services. Most teachers who are worth their "salt" really work during the twelve months of the year; they are constantly engaged either in teaching or in improving themselves for teaching.

Salary schedules. Of almost equal importance with the amount of salary is the manner in which the salary is determined. As an aid in determining the amount of salary most school systems, especially the city systems, have devised *salary schedules.* A large percentage of the small school systems—systems in which teachers must usually begin their careers—do not yet have salary schedules; in these systems each salary is determined each year by the board of education. A salary schedule is advantageous both to the administration and to the teacher. To the administration it is a salary *plan* and helps in school budget-making.

A salary schedule is advantageous to the teacher because it tends to assure that at least approximate justice will be given the teacher. When a schedule is in operation the teacher knows what his normal expectancy in salary will be in two, five, ten, or some other number of years. When there is no schedule, it often happens that the teacher is left to secure as much as he can, and the school officials are left to pay no more than they must; there is no normal expectancy in salary under such an arrangement.

At first glance the lack of a salary schedule would seem to be advantageous because the salary could then be determined on basis of *merit.* The difficulty, though, is to *measure* merit. When the Solomons of the profession do not agree on what a good teacher is—on what constitutes merit—imagine the difficulty which the well-intentioned "school official up the creek" must have in distributing salary awards on basis of merit. Without a salary plan, politics, pull, and other evidences of partiality are likely to be potent considerations in determining salaries. There is danger that those teachers who are aggressive, nervy, and perhaps unethical, will be paid too much, whereas those who are modest, though efficient, will be cheated.

It is unfortunate that practically all salary schedules in operation today tend to give the salary awards wholly on the bases of (1) the number of years of college training,

and (2) the number of years of experience in teaching. Thus, after the minimum amount of college training, say two, three, four, or five years, has been secured, an increase in salary of $50, $75, $100, or some other amount for each additional one third or one half year of training is paid. Likewise $50, $75, $100, or some other amount is paid for each year of teaching experience. A schedule of this type is shown in Table IV. It is observed also that this schedule, like those of most school systems, is a "position" schedule; it pays a different rate for each type of position, and it always pays elementary-school teachers the lowest rate. "Single" schedules, which are coming to be rapidly adopted, pay all teachers having equal qualifications the same amount; thus, elementary-school teachers are paid as much as secondary-school teachers, provided their qualifications are equal.

TABLE IV. A TYPICAL SALARY SCHEDULE FOR TEACHERS

(Used in the Oakland, California, public schools)

Number of Years of Experience	*Kindergarten and Elementary Credential*		*Junior High Credential or Equivalent*		*High-School Credential or Equivalent*	
	A	B	A	B	A	B
Two years and less than three years experience	$1380	$1500	$1500	$1620	$1740	$1860
Three years and less than four years experience	1500	1620	1620	1740	1860	1980
Four years and less than five years experience	1620	1740	1740	1860	1980	2100
Five years and less than six years experience	1740	1860	1860	1980	2100	2220
Six years and less than seven years experience	1860	1980	1980	2100	2220	2340
Seven years and less than eight years experience	1980	2100	2100	2220	2340	2460
Eight years and less than nine years experience	2100	2220	2220	2340	2460	2580
Nine years and less than ten years experience	2220	2340	2340	2460	2580	2700
Ten years or more experience	2340	2460	2460	2580	2700	2820

NOTE: Column "A" shows the salary during the first year in Oakland; Column "B" shows the salary after the second year in Oakland.

Strange to say, many of the automatically operating schedules have been called "merit" schedules by their designers. Obviously such schedules are *not* merit schedules, because college preparation and experience are not necessarily measures of merit. Many doctors of philosophy are inferior teachers, and many excellent teachers have had only one, two, or three years of professional preparation. Likewise some of the most inefficient teachers are those of long experience, and some of the most efficient are those of short experience. If age and experience were a sure index of accomplishment, Methuselah would be the most eminent man in history, but Scripture records that all that good man did was to *live*. A schedule which gives its rewards entirely for college preparation and teaching experience will please the "time-serving" type of teacher, but will not please the more ambitious and capable teachers.

It is an unfortunate commentary that many teachers' organizations, especially in the large cities, insist upon retaining the automatic type of schedule and are not willing even to explore the possibilities of rewarding merit. Some of these organizations will not concede that some teachers are more efficient than others; other organizations will concede the possibility or the probability of a difference, but they insist that nothing can or should be done about it. Such actions of teachers' organizations damage the profession and often keep choice spirits from entering and remaining in the profession; they exhibit a type of rabid unionism which forgets justice and social responsibilities.

Requisite to the operation of a merit type of salary schedule is a plan for the evaluation of teaching efficiency. Most school systems which use such a schedule rate teachers at least twice a year according to categories similar to the following: A, excellent; B, superior; C, good; D, fair; E, poor. The annual salary increments usually provided for the various categories are the following: A, $100; B, $75; C, $50; teachers rated D or E usually receive no increment. When such a plan of distributing salaries is used, the percentages of teachers placed in the five different categories are usually made to approximate the normal probability curve;

that is, approximately 5 per cent receive the mark of A; approximately 20 per cent, B; approximately 50 per cent, C; approximately 20 per cent, D; and approximately 5 per cent, E. It should be mentioned, though, that few school systems undertake to rate their teachers for salary awards or for any other purposes. Teacher-rating is a "hot potato" which few school officials or teachers have the courage to attempt to handle.

During recent years a few school systems have adopted types of salary schedules—usually called *super-level schedules*—which provide extra compensation for teachers, principals, and supervisors who give outstanding service. These awards are in addition to the pay provided by the automatic schedule; to receive them, evidence of superior service must be presented. When it is properly administered, such a plan of recognition does much to break up the "lock step" found in most salary schedules. It postpones contact with the inevitable stonewall, which in practically all schedules is reached in a few years, and over which even the artist teacher is unable to climb to a higher salary.

In Pittsburgh, which was one of the first school systems to adopt the super-level type of salary schedule, the board of education has arbitrarily set a limit of 45 per cent for the number of employees who may secure super-level salaries. These employees are selected from the whole school system and not necessarily from individual schools. The 45 per cent of excellent teachers may be awarded according to the following schedule:

15 per cent may receive one super-level increment, or $200 annually, in addition to the automatic maximum.
12 per cent may receive two super-level increments, or $400 annually.
9 per cent may receive three super-level increments, or $600 annually.
6 per cent may receive four super-level increments, or $800 annually.
3 per cent may receive five super-level increments, or $1,000 annually.

Summary of salary principles. In the following paragraphs the chief principles which should be followed in paying teachers are summarized:

1. On the theory that the larger the salary, the better will be the qualifications of those who receive it, attempt should be made to make that percentage of the school budget which is devoted to teachers' salaries as large as possible.

2. When a salary schedule is instituted, it should be known whether there will be ample funds within the next one, five, ten, or fifteen years to finance it. The cloth must always be cut to suit the garment. Breaking faith with teachers regarding salary promises should not be countenanced by school officials; moreover, teachers should have no part in the formulation of schedules which communities are unable or unwilling to finance.

3. The beginning salary should be sufficiently high to cause the better high-school students to desire to spend the necessary time and money in preparing for teaching.

4. The standards of pay should be at least as high as those of other vocations which require equal qualifications. This applies both to the beginning salary and to the salary of succeeding years. Moreover, if funds permit, the pay should approximate in amount that of other school systems, provided of course that equal qualifications are demanded.

5. Since maximum efficiency is not reached early in experience—at least with thoroughly live and ambitious teachers—salary increases should be made as long as there is evidence of increased efficiency. This means that some teachers will receive increases for thirty, forty, or fifty years. Lack of revenue is the only justification of ceasing salary increases at the close of ten or fifteen years of experience, as many schedules do.

6. It should be made possible to employ experienced teachers from other school systems and to start them at the same salary which local teachers having equal experience and qualifications are receiving.

7. Equal pay should be given for equal qualifications and equal services. Granted that they have equal qualifications, elementary-school teachers should have as much pay as secondary-school teachers. In other words, the single-salary schedule, that is, equal pay for equal qualifications, should be placed in operation. This type of schedule will permit the assignment of the teacher to that type of service for which he is best qualified and which he desires to enter.

8. A general increase in salary to all teachers can seldom, if ever, be justified. Such a policy assumes that *all* teachers are entitled to an increase, and of the same amount, which is seldom if ever true. The same remark is also germane to a general decrease in salaries.

9. Provision should be made for adjusting the salary schedule to meet changes in the cost of living. This includes downward as well as upward revisions.

10. No salary schedule can be made to operate automatically. All that a schedule can do is to serve as a general plan. Teachers should

be paid on the basis of merit, and this requires that some means of ascertaining merit be instituted. In working out this plan of ascertaining merit the help of the teachers should be elicited, and also their help should be invited in designing the salary schedule. Teachers are more and more being called upon to help in these matters.

Pay for disability. Although teaching presents fewer hazards to life, health, and limb than most vocations, sickness and accidents occasionally overtake teachers and render them incapable of performing their regular duties. To be disabled is a handicap, but to have one's income cut off at the same time that one is disabled is a tragedy. Boards of education have long been aware of this problem and are coming more and more to realize the advisability of providing financial assistance for teachers who are disabled. Most city boards of education provide such assistance, but most rural boards still do nothing in this regard. In providing such assistance boards are confronted, on the one hand, with the problem of seeing that teachers are properly protected against worry and other inconveniences which often come when one's regular income is cut off; they are faced, on the other hand, with the problem of seeing that the public is properly protected against the small fringe of "chiselers," because there is in the teaching profession, as in all vocations, a small group of employees who would take unfair advantage of provisions for pay for disability. Attempts of school systems to provide pay for disabled teachers have usually taken the four following directions and most teachers can expect to be covered by one of the plans:[1]

1. *A certain number of days of full pay or part pay each year for disability.* This is by far the most frequently used plan. The number of days of pay given each year varies from school system to school system. Some school systems give full pay for a certain number of days and follow those days with part pay for a certain number of days; other school systems stipulate that the disabled teacher shall pay the salary of the substitute and that any part of the regular salary which remains shall go to the disabled teacher.

[1] In addition to these local practices, several states have workmen's compensation laws which protect all workers, including school employees, against occupational accidents.

2. *Cumulative pay.* A few school systems provide a certain number of days of pay for disability each year and permit such days to accumulate from year to year. For example, if the school system provides ten days of disability pay each year and the teacher does not use any of his disability leave for a certain year, he would have twenty days' pay for disability leave coming during the next year. If the teacher left the school system, he would be paid for the number of days of disability leave which he had not utilized.

3. *Bonus for nondisability.* At the end of the school year many school systems pay their teachers a bonus for regular attendance upon their work; that is, a certain number of days of full pay or part pay is added to the teacher's salary if he has not been absent during the school year. If, for example, a bonus of $5 per day for ten days is provided, a teacher who has not been absent a day would have a bonus of $50 coming to him at the close of the school year. For each day that the teacher is absent $5 would be deducted; thus, if he were absent two days, his bonus would be $40; and if he were absent ten days, his bonus would be nothing.

4. *Group disability insurance.* Instead of establishing their own system of paying for disability, many boards of education are cooperating with their teachers in securing group disability insurance with old-line companies. A few boards of education are paying the whole premium for such insurance, but most boards of education are contributing part of the premium and teachers are contributing the remainder. Many boards of education believe that old-line insurance companies can give their teachers protection against disability at less cost to the community than could the board of education by establishing its own system. The advantage of group disability insurance over individual insurance comes from the fact that it is much cheaper.

Pensions or old-age annuities. During recent years one of the large public questions has revolved around the advisability of providing economic security for all workers through a system of pensions. The public has apparently accepted the theory of pensions for all groups of workers, and much federal and state legislation has already been enacted to that end. Most teachers of the United States are now included under the provisions of this legislation, which for teachers is still state and not federal.

Pensions or old-age annuities for teachers in the United States are a fairly recent development, dating back only a few decades. The first pension systems for teachers were local, and, as a rule, teachers were not required to join them;

they appealed primarily only to the older teachers. During recent years, however, the tendency has been toward the establishment of state-wide pension systems, New Jersey taking the lead in this movement in 1896. Approximately two thirds of the states now have state-wide and compulsory pension systems, and in many of the remaining states several of the larger school systems, especially in the cities, have organized their own systems. The tendency is to require every new teacher to join the pension system and to make the system more sound actuarially. Although pension systems have been established primarily to assure a better type of teaching service for the public, they keep in mind also the welfare and rights of the teacher; they protect both the teacher and the pupils. The arguments in favor of a pension system for teachers—an excellent system, of course, is meant—may be summarized as follows:

1. A pension system protects the pupils from the incompetency of senile teachers. When a pension system is not in operation, boards of education hesitate to retire such teachers because they are aware that the retired teachers would perhaps not have means of support and might become paupers. Such a system permits the retirement with justice of old teachers, and it has the further merit of giving young teachers greater opportunities for employment. Most pension systems now set the compulsory retirement age at somewhere between sixty-five and seventy, and provide for optional retirement at an earlier age or after a specified number of years of service.

2. A pension system helps to attract desirable people into the teaching profession and to keep them there until the age for retirement is reached. It reduces turnover in the profession.

3. A pension system reduces or removes the teacher's anxiety and worry over old age and thus enables the teacher to give a better type of service. It gives a greater feeling of economic security.

4. A pension should not be regarded as "charity," but as "deferred pay." A pension system forces the teacher to start saving early in life and thus to provide for his old age; statistics on the amount of pauperism and near-pauperism in old age demonstrate that most persons need such a stimulus to saving. Moreover, since the teacher's as well as the public's contributions are required to be invested in high-grade bonds (usually local, state, or federal) there should be small doubt of the security of the investment.

Every state has not adopted a teachers' pension system; nor do all of the states, which have adopted systems, have

systems which are actuarially and socially sound. Teachers must, therefore, continue their pension campaigns until none of their number is without proper pension protection. The excellent systems of such states as Louisiana, Maryland, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Texas, and Wisconsin should be imitated and improved upon by all the states. In one of its recent reports the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching lists the fundamental principles upon which it deems that a teachers' pension system for a state should be based. Since these principles have had wide acceptance, they are being epitomized herewith in order that the pension system, present or proposed, of any state may be evaluated by them:

1. Membership in the system should be optional for those persons who were teaching prior to the going into operation of the pension law. Membership should be compulsory, however, for all teachers accepting appointment after the enactment of the law.
2. The rules of the system should provide for the retirement of any teacher when old age or disability makes satisfactory service no longer possible. The retirement allowance should be sufficient to enable the teacher to live in comfort.
3. The contributions of the teacher and of the public should be approximately equal, and in no case should the teacher or the public provide the contributions without the help of the other. The amounts to be paid by the teacher and by the public should be stated in the law creating the pension system.
4. The teacher's and the state's contributions should be made regularly and concurrently during the period of service of the teacher.
5. An individual account for each teacher should be kept.
6. The system should be on a sound reserve basis and periodic actuarial investigations of the system should be made.
7. A retirement allowance should be made for disability after a reasonable period of service.
8. The teacher's cumulative deposits should be returnable upon withdrawal from teaching, from the state, or upon death prior to retirement. Interest at an established rate, as well as the principal, should also be returnable.
9. The teacher should be permitted to select the manner in which he will receive his retirement allowance.
10. Credit should be allowed for all service prior to the enactment of the retirement legislation. Moreover, credit for such service should be allowed for service in the local state or in other states.
11. The retirement board should be representative and its per-

sonnel should be prescribed so as to assure a high type of representation both for the public and the teacher.[1]

Miscellaneous pecuniary opportunities. In addition to the pecuniary rewards and opportunities which have been indicated in preceding paragraphs, a few other pecuniary rewards and opportunities should be kept in mind. Many teachers are today supplementing their salary incomes by means of these other opportunities which are open to every teacher although few take advantage of them. Of course, if more teachers should take advantage of the opportunities, the "market would be glutted," and the opportunities would not be as large as they are today.

In the first place, many teachers have prepared textbooks, workbooks, or other instructional materials which are published and marketed and from which they receive royalties. Likewise many teachers write for magazines and receive compensation for their productions; it should be mentioned, though, that most of the writing of teachers is designed for pedagogical magazines and that only a few of these pay their contributors. When the teacher can engage in these literary activities without injuring his health, emotional tone, and above all, without neglecting his regular school work, the activities would seem to be entirely commendable; such work well done enhances the prestige of the teacher, his profession, and his school system.

In the second place, teachers have opportunity to add to their incomes through occasional lectures. Many teachers, even in the elementary and the secondary schools, have acquired such renown for doing well certain things that they are in demand to give lectures before lay and professional groups, especially before groups of teachers; some of them are invited by colleges and universities to offer courses in the summer sessions of these institutions. In fairness, though, it should be stated that such opportunities come, as a rule, only to school administrators and to college and university professors; moreover, the honorarium for such work

[1] "Pension Systems and Pension Legislation," *Twenty-Third Annual Report of the President and of the Treasurer,* Carnegie Foundation, pp. 73–100.

is seldom large, and frequently such services are expected to be given gratis.

NONFINANCIAL REWARDS AND OPPORTUNITIES

Important though they are, financial rewards and opportunities are not the only criteria to keep in mind in choosing a life's work. Every vocation, especially every profession, has rewards and opportunities of a nonfinancial nature. Although some of these are admittedly intangible, they are worth keeping in mind by anyone who is considering a career. The chief nonfinancial rewards and opportunities of teaching are briefly discussed herewith.

Opportunity for service. At the risk of appearing trite, it is repeated that the welfare and progress of civilization depend upon the proper education of all the people. Universal education is especially necessary in a democracy such as ours, because in such a government and way of life the people make the laws and are otherwise sovereign. Education must always be the good leaven of a democracy. These beliefs, which a European visitor once dubbed the "American religion," have been accepted from the time of the first settlements and have been an American tradition for more than three centuries. The school was born from these beliefs, and from small beginnings has grown to be America's most cherished public institution.

It is universally agreed that the teacher makes the school largely what it is and, what is more important, that he has a vital and lasting influence upon the lives of his pupils. He helps his pupils to lay their foundation for life, and each of his ministrations becomes an enduring stone in that foundation. He—an *excellent* teacher, of course, is meant—assists them to acquire the tools of knowledge and instills in them an abiding desire to use those tools; he stimulates them to think for themselves; he inculcates in them high ideals for self and for society, and points the way to the realization of those ideals; he teaches them to discipline themselves.

In his pupil relationships the teacher stands *in loco parentis;* indeed, he frequently shapes his pupils' lives more

than the pupils' parents. And in helping to shape their lives he can have assurance that they will in turn help to shape the destinies of civilization. In after years his tutelage will shine back from their lives to bless him or to curse him; it can never be blotted out. In a democracy the teacher is, or can be, a real maker of history; he is, or can be, an architect of civilization.

In every sense the teacher is a servant of mankind, and no worker possesses a greater opportunity for service. If he possesses this passion for service and if the passion is accompanied by a burning love for teaching, his life is certain to be full of valuable accomplishment and profound happiness. Without these attributes no one can be a true teacher.

Opportunity to learn. Every person has an inherent desire to learn, and no person has a greater opportunity to learn than the teacher. The whole teaching situation is conducive to learning on the part of the teacher. The teacher has an even greater opportunity to learn than his pupils. He has the opportunity to observe his pupils, and those precious charges come to him in constant procession; they never grow old, and they are never alike. And he has the opportunity to study all civilization—past and present. Try as diligently as he may, he can never exhaust his learning opportunities.

At the same time that the opportunity which the teacher has to learn is being mentioned, a possible danger of his calling should be pointed out. This danger comes from the fact that the teacher, especially in the lower grades, associates with immature minds, and if he is not on his guard—if he is not driven by an insatiable desire to learn—he may develop an immature mind. Just as Ernest, through association and imitation, became like the Great Stone Face, so the teacher may become like his pupils. Although the teacher must be able to descend to the level of understanding of his pupils, he must guard against forever remaining on that level if he is to be a real leader in the school and in the community. In a sense he must have a dual existence.

Pleasantness of professional associations. The professional associations of the teacher, especially if he is well

qualified, are among the most pleasant of those of any worker. The level of education on which the teacher works keeps him informed with a large degree of accuracy and completeness of the problems and conditions facing persons engaged in other fields of endeavor. With this body of knowledge the teacher is able to make pleasant associations with the members of a diversified number of vocations. Moreover, the teacher works and plays with other teachers —persons who have high ideals, pleasing personalities, excellent education, and a desire to make a contribution to society,[1] and because of the increasing requirements for school employees, the teacher's professional associations are constantly growing more pleasant. Many teachers are helping to make their associations increasingly more pleasant by trying to stimulate desirable young people to enter the profession, and by trying to discourage undesirable persons from entering the profession; this should be a challenge to every teacher.

Opportunity for recreation. Although teaching is far from being an easy work, it does not require the confinement of most positions. With its summer vacations of three or four months and its vacations at Christmas, Easter, and other times, it provides greater opportunities for study, travel, and other types of recreation and cultural advancement than most vocations. The minimum amount of time which must be given by the typical teacher in meeting his pupils is six or seven hours per day, five days a week, and eight or nine months a year; the remainder of his time can be spent largely as he desires.

Contrary to the belief of many persons, the work of a teacher who is worthy of the name of teacher cannot be limited to the mere meeting of classes. After the school day and during weekends and other vacations the teacher must spend a large amount of time in preparing to meet his classes; he must plan his work for the next year, semester, week, or day; he must mark examination papers, reports, themes, and

[1] All teachers, of course, do not meet these high standards. Many are mentally ill, even to the point of being psychopathic. Others are unethical. And still others are lazy or possess some other shortcoming.

similar work of his pupils; he must have conferences with pupils and their parents; he must make reports to and have conferences with school administrators and supervisors; he must coach an athletic team or sponsor a club; he must be a member of one or more school committees; he must attend meetings of the faculty and of the parent-teacher association; he is expected to take part in many community activities. During the summer months the typical teacher is not idle, for as a rule he will be found enrolled in a college or university or engaged in another activity calculated better to qualify him for his work the following school year.

Relatively assured tenure. Although there have been many instances of unceremonious dismissal of teachers, compared with workers in most other vocations, teachers have greater assurance of tenure. In practically all school systems they are given a contract for a year, and their services cannot be terminated within the period of the contract except for good cause such as gross neglect of duty or immorality. The tendency in practice is to retain the teacher year after year, provided his services are satisfactory; in fact, many states have enacted statutes which are calculated to protect the tenure of all teachers who are giving satisfactory service, and hundreds of boards of education, especially in city districts, have adopted rules and regulations designed to protect the tenure of competent teachers. These state laws and local rules and regulations usually provide for a probationary period of three to five years before a teacher can be placed under tenure; after the teacher has satisfactorily completed his probationary period he serves under a continuing contract and cannot be dismissed except for good reason, which is usually stated as gross neglect of duty or immorality. The theory underlying these tendencies is that the teacher needs freedom from worry if he is to do the best work. The teacher cannot do his best work if he is constantly haunted by the possibility of losing his position, especially for a specious reason. Teachers should continue their campaigns for tenure laws which protect competent and worthy members of the profession, and they should oppose laws which protect the incompetent and the unworthy. It

must be sorrowfully reported, however, that some organizations of teachers have insisted upon protecting the incompetent as well as the competent.

Increasing respect and prestige. In the early days the teacher did not have a large amount of prestige. He was a common subject for caricature and was frequently the butt of jokes. He was pictured and described as a queer person —queer in dress, language, and action. In those days the humorist could convulse with laughter his audience by starting his address with Mark Twain's salutation, "Ladies, gentlemen, and schoolteachers"; the cartoonist could secure the same response by portraying the pedagogue as a long-haired, bespectacled, absent-minded individual. There was a widespread belief—perhaps not unjustified—that the teacher was a less intelligent, a less practical, and a less ambitious person than was found in other professions; this belief was summarized by George Bernard Shaw when he said, "He who can, does; he who cannot, teaches."

Even today the teaching profession is criticized, questioned, and heckled more than any other profession. It is not *lese majesty* to criticize the teaching profession, and such criticism is frequently indulged in by members of other professions as well as by artisans, unskilled workers, and businessmen. Practically every person claims to know how the schools should be run, what subjects should be taught, and how they should be taught. The physician, the architect, the veterinary surgeon, or the member of any other profession is seldom advised or "told" how to perform his work, but everyone feels competent to advise or to "tell" school employees how to conduct the complex and important work of education. Since they are public servants, school employees can probably never escape a critical attitude on the part of their employers, namely the public. All that school employees can hope for is that the criticism directed at them will become more intelligent and more constructive —in fact, they should always desire criticism of those sorts.

Fortunately, the situation just described is rapidly improving. More and more the public is coming to regard the profession of teaching as one of the most important

Advantages	*Disadvantages*
1. A matchless opportunity for service to pupils and to society	1. Lack of prestige and public respect—too much of the feeling that anyone can teach
2. A relatively high beginning salary, pay for disability, and provisions for old-age pensions	2. A low average and final salary, and the lack of merit salary schedules
3. A tenure of position which is relatively well assured	3. Too many unjust dismissals and other factors which cause a rapid turnover
4. Pleasant professional associations	4. Too many associates poorly prepared, mere time-servers, and otherwise lacking in professional consciousness
5. Unusual opportunity to learn	5. The danger that constant association with immature minds will cause the teacher to "become like a little child"
6. Usually a position available	6. The frequent refusal to employ married women, and other evidences of a non-merit basis being used in appointments and promotions
7. Extensive vacations	7. The teacher's work is never done, not even during the summer months

FIG. 61. Summary of the most frequently mentioned advantages and disadvantages of education as a profession.

professions and is coming to accord greater respect to its members. More and more the members of the profession are being called upon to give advice to the government, to industry, and to other activities; more and more they are asked to assume positions of leadership in society. This greater respect and prestige is being accorded for two reasons: In the first place, the public has seen that other agencies and institutions which have been accorded a prominent place in the life of society have failed to produce the best type of social order for a country such as ours, and it has concluded that it is in the proper education of the youth that the solution to this problem lies; more and more the public is turning to the teachers for that education. In the second place, the members of the profession are rapidly increasing their qualifications, and in consequence are deserving of greater respect and prestige.

Notwithstanding numerous exceptions to the rule, society is disposed to give its rewards on the basis of merit and accomplishment. Society prefers to applaud and to reward its servants rather than to frown upon and to penalize them. When the teacher possesses as much college preparation, personality, and ability as the physician, lawyer, architect, dentist, or the member of any other profession, he is accorded as much respect and prestige even though he may not be highly paid. When he does not possess such traits in equal amount—and that is often the unfortunate situation—he does not command equal respect and prestige. A "full-blooded" teacher will not ask for more than this. He will remember Cassius' reply to Brutus, "The fault, dear Brutus, is not in our stars, but in ourselves, that we are underlings."

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. In its importance to society, how does teaching compare with such professions as medicine, law, engineering, and the ministry?

2. In contemplating entrance into a certain vocation, what emphasis should a person place upon the opportunity for securing a position, and what emphasis should he give to his desires and aptitudes? Compare the opportunity for securing a teaching position with that in other vocations; compare also the opportunities for promotion. Compare the opportunity of securing a position in your major subject or department with that in other subjects and departments.

3. What are the chief advantages of teaching as a vocation? What are the chief disadvantages?

4. Does teaching present as many opportunities to men as to women? Explain. Do you believe that the teaching profession needs more men in it? Why or why not? If more men are needed, how would you suggest that they be secured?

5. What bearing, if any, does each of the following factors have upon the salary of the teacher: supply and demand, sex, training, experience, marital status, the level of teaching, and results secured with the pupils? Do you believe that teachers today are usually paid on basis of merit? Why or why not? Account for the fact that teachers frequently object to having their services evaluated and rewarded on basis of that evaluation.

6. Do you favor a retirement system for teachers? Discuss from the point of view of both the teacher and the state. Are teachers more entitled to pensions than other workers? Explain. Should all teachers be required to retire at a given age? Why or why not? Does your state have a teachers' retirement system, and if so, what are its provisions, merits, and limitations?

7. Account for the fact that teachers of former generations were so often made the butt of jokes. Do you see any evidence of such lack of respect today, and to what extent if any is such practice today excusable?

8. How does the prestige of the typical teacher today compare with that of the typical member of other professions? Account for any differences which you may discern.

9. Do you believe that working with immature minds of pupils tends to make the teacher similar to his pupils? Explain. If there is danger here, how may it be avoided?

10. Do teachers and pupils need more time for recreation and vacation than other people? Explain. Do you regard teaching as easy work? Why or why not?

11. What type of tenure law do you favor for teachers? What are the advantages and dangers of tenure laws for teachers?

12. What are the causes of the large amount of turnover in the teaching profession? What waste, if any, results from such turnover?

13. What provisions does your college make for the guidance of its students?

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"The Teacher's Economic Position," *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association, Vol. 13 (September, 1935), pp. 165–267.

Emphasizes the amount, the sources, and the uses of the teacher's income.

"The Teacher Looks at Teacher Load," *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association, Vol. 17 (November, 1939), pp. 223–274.

Shows that nearly one half of the teachers of the United States regard their professional load as too heavy.

Chapter XVIII

REQUIREMENTS IN THE TEACHING PROFESSION

IMPORTANCE OF KNOWING REQUIREMENTS

Before anyone decides to enter the teaching profession, he should know as much as possible regarding the demands which the profession will make upon his abilities. He needs such information to help him decide whether he desires to prepare for teaching, and to guide his preparation for it. Without such information there is danger that he will enter the profession and then find that he does not like the work or that his abilities are not suited to it. The chief requirements for a happy and fruitful life for any person are that he be working in the vocation for which he is best qualified and to *know* that he is working in that vocation. If he meets those requirements, the worker is apt to develop into artist rather than remain on the level of drudge.

CHANGING BELIEFS REGARDING TEACHER QUALIFICATIONS

During the first two centuries of the educational development of the United States only a small amount of attention was given to the improvement of the teaching personnel. Although public schools had been in operation in certain communities of Massachusetts as early as 1635, not until 1823, when Samuel R. Hall established his *private* normal school in Concord, Vermont, was there available an institution especially designed for the preparation of teachers. And not until 1839, at Lexington, Massachusetts, was the first *state-supported* institution for the preparation of teachers established. In those early days the teaching voca-

tion was not accorded much respect by the public, and almost anyone was permitted to teach school. Teaching then was merely a vocation and had not yet assumed any of the characteristics of a profession. About the only qualification necessary for a person who aspired to the position of teacher was to possess sufficient energy and "pull" to find a school board or community that would hire him. All teachers were regarded as having essentially the same merit, and the position of teacher was usually given to the lowest

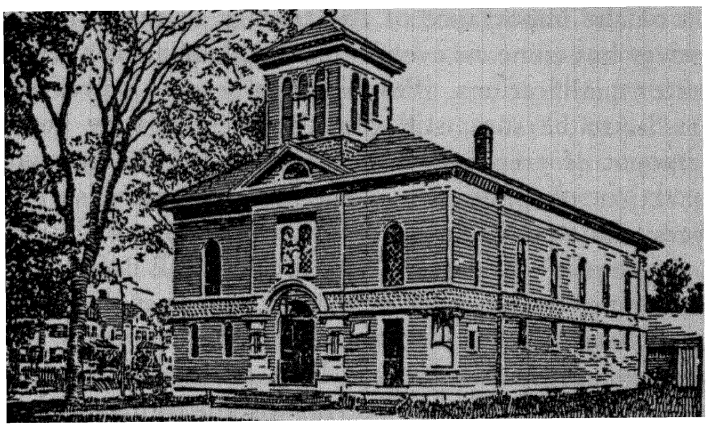

FIG. 62. The first state normal school in America, opened at Lexington, Massachusetts, in 1839. During recent years, the name, *normal school*, has been rapidly changing to *teachers college* or *college of education*.

bidder; bidding for the position was frequently conducted at public auction. The schools of those days were conducted in "little red" schoolhouses and were taught by "little-read" teachers. In his *Lectures on School Keeping*, published in 1829, Samuel R. Hall quotes a writer in the *Journal of Education* who scathingly criticized the low standards for teachers in those times:

Every stripling who has passed 4 years within the walls of a college, every dissatisfied clerk who has not ability enough to manage the trifling concerns of a retail shop, every young farmer who obtains in the winter a short vacation from the toils of summer—in short, every person who is conscious of his imbecility in other business, esteems himself fully competent to train the ignorance and weakness of infancy into all the virtue and power and wisdom of maturer years

—to form a creature, the frailest and feeblest that heaven has made, into the intelligent and fearless sovereign of the whole animated creation, the interpreter and adorer, and almost the representative of divinity.

Although some of the conditions of earlier days still remain, large changes have come in the public's concept of what the teacher should be. The public has come to recognize more and more that the teacher makes the school largely what it is and that a good school makes a vital contribution to the welfare of society. With the growing recognition of the importance of the teacher to the school and to society has come an ever-increasing demand for teachers of better qualifications. Teaching has become a profession. There is, to be sure, still considerable disparity between the amount of preparation of teachers, and the amount of preparation of physicians, dentists, veterinary surgeons, lawyers, and members of many other professions. Nonetheless, the time is approaching when society will insist upon at least as much preparation of its teachers as it demands of the members of any other profession. Education is at last getting the recognition it has long deserved. It may be safely predicted that in the not far distant future every new teacher will be required to have five, six, or seven years of preparation beyond the secondary school; moreover, the *quality* of the preparation will be improved. Teachers can and should hasten that day by voluntarily acquiring more education and by conducting a campaign for other teachers, especially new teachers, to meet the same high standards of education. In attempting to secure a better qualified teaching personnel, the beliefs of the public regarding teacher preparation have undergone and are undergoing many changes. Some of the more prominent of these changing beliefs are discussed in the following paragraphs.

"Born" teachers versus "made" teachers. In the early days the belief that good teachers were "born" and not "made" was almost universal. In fact, this belief is frequently held today, particularly by laymen. Such a belief implies that formal preparation for teaching is of little or no importance and that inherent qualities of the teacher are

the all-important factors making for the teacher's success. That belief, however, is rapidly passing because it is evident that the teacher, like the physician and the members of other professions, needs many qualifications which he cannot inherit. The teacher needs, for example, knowledge of the principles of learning, of the nature and extent of individual differences, of social and economic changes, of the principles of hygiene and health, and of effective methods of presenting valuable subject matter to groups and to individuals. Knowledge of these and of hundreds of other matters requisite to a teacher's success cannot be inherited; they must be *learned,* and to learn them requires years of effort both in the college classroom and in the crucible of teaching experience. Knowledge of many of these matters can, of course, be secured by the teacher through experience in the schoolroom, but it can be thus secured only through long travail and endless discouragement and at the risk of much malpractice being inflicted upon the unsuspecting and helpless pupils. The teaching process is admitted by all persons who have studied it to be unusually technical and complex. Persons who have studied the process longest and most ardently readily admit that the more they study it the more baffling it becomes. "A little learning is a dangerous thing," said Alexander Pope, and this statement would seem to be especially applicable to the work of the teacher. Democracy's schools must have teachers who possess profound and broad learning.

Knowledge of subject matter as the only sine qua non. Many well-educated persons (and, strange to say, some of these persons are teachers) affirm that knowledge of subject matter is the only qualification needed by the teacher. They affirm that "if the teacher knows his subject he can teach it." They imply that knowledge of the principles of learning, of social needs, and of methods of presenting subject matter are of little or no importance. While a teacher cannot teach a subject if he doesn't know it, mere knowledge of subject matter will not assure that the subject matter will "get across" to the pupils, and, of course, if the subject matter doesn't "get across" to the pupils, the teacher's

tutelage will have been in vain. In order that his tutelage shall be most effective the teacher must be informed on the interests, abilities, and needs of his pupils as well as know his subject matter. His obligation is to teach pupils as well as to dispense subject matter. Pupils soon discover that knowledge of subject matter is not the only requisite for a teacher. It is a frequent happening to hear a pupil say that "his teacher knows his subject but is not able to present it." Pupils always characterize such teachers as failures.

Amount of preparation for the various grades. In the early days school officials followed the policy of assigning the "blue-ribbon" teachers to the upper grades and of giving to the lower grades the "scrub" teachers. The belief underlying this practice was that the chief tasks of a teacher were to keep the pupils busy and well disciplined, and that almost anyone, especially if he had a dictatorial mien, could accomplish these tasks with young children. Although this practice is still followed in some schools and school systems, it is rapidly being abandoned in all enlightened communities. School officials and the general public are coming to realize more and more that teachers of the lower grades need as much preparation as teachers of the upper grades; in fact, they are gradually coming to realize that there are valid reasons for requiring an even larger amount of preparation for teachers of the lower grades. They are coming to realize that the pupils in the lower grades need much more personal guidance from their teachers than the pupils in the upper grades. The pupils in the lower grades must acquire the tools of learning, and those tools cannot be acquired without the tutelage of a teacher. In the upper grades, on the other hand, pupils already possess an acquaintance with the tools of learning and in consequence are able to work somewhat independently. Those older pupils learn much through their own initiative, and they often learn in spite of poor teaching.

It may be properly contended, therefore, that the elementary school, and especially the first part of the elemen-

tary school, is of greatest importance among the school levels because it lays the foundation for the pupil's educational career and for life. It should have "prior rating" so far as the resources of the public are concerned; it is democracy's school *par excellence.* In those early years the pupils acquire the tools of knowledge and form habits and ideals which will remain with them throughout life. Unless the proper foundation is laid in the lower grades, the best superstructure for future educational accomplishment cannot be erected. Moreover, because they must start early to earn their living, or because secondary schools are not readily available to them, many pupils are unable to secure more formal education than that provided by the elementary school, and this is another potent reason for making the elementary school as thorough and as practical as possible. When these facts have become generally known by school officials and by the public, teachers in the lower grades will be required to have as much education as (if not more education than) teachers in the upper grades. And let not the teachers of the secondary schools and colleges forget the same facts, because where importance and difficulty of work are concerned they must humbly bow before the teachers of the elementary schools.

From the foregoing remarks on the *amount* of preparation needed by teachers it should not be inferred that the *type* of preparation for teachers in the lower and the upper grades should be the same. The preparation for all levels of service will require many identical elements, but it will also have many elements which are different in kind and in amount. Most institutions for the preparation of teachers are aware of these varying needs and have organized different curricula for teachers of the various grades. The larger institutions, for example, have organized separate curricula for the kindergarten and primary grades, the intermediate grades, the upper grades, the junior high school, and the senior high school. Many of them have developed separate curricula for the education of principals, superintendents, general supervisors, teachers and supervisors

of special subjects, and other types of school specialists.[1] This is a day of specialization, and the teaching profession is coming more and more to be constituted of fields of specialization. The teacher can no more expect to perform efficiently all types of educational service than can a general practitioner in medicine expect to be an expert in all branches of surgery and medicine.

The single-salary schedule, which school systems are gradually adopting, has been a tremendous influence for increasing the preparation of elementary-school teachers. That type of schedule pays elementary-school teachers as much as secondary-school teachers, provided their qualifications are equal. When such a schedule is in operation, the elementary-school teacher feels justified in undergoing a longer regimen of preparation because he will receive as much salary for the extra preparation as will the teacher in the secondary school. No other factor has been so potent in decreasing the disparity between the preparation of the elementary-school teacher and the secondary-school teacher as has the widespread movement toward the adoption of the single-salary schedule. All members of the profession should support movements for the universal adoption of such a schedule.

TEACHER EDUCATION IN AMERICA AND IN EUROPE

Educational status of our teachers. Ideally, any measure of the preparation of teachers would take into consideration the quality, the effectiveness, and the appropriateness of schooling as well as the amount of schooling. Unfortunately, though, measures of these components of preparation are difficult to secure, with the exception of the *amount* of schooling. The amount of schooling is tangible and can be measured by ascertaining the amount of "time spent" in educational institutions by the teachers of the United States.

[1] Several states, which have more than one teacher-preparing institution, have delegated to each institution the task of preparing employees for a certain speciality. Each institution is thus enabled to do well its task rather than to dissipate its energies and resources in trying to prepare employees for all or several types of educational positions.

Unfortunately, however, there is no federal agency such as the United States Office of Education which regularly collects information on the amount of schooling of teachers; moreover, few of the state departments of education regularly collect such information.

Independent surveys of the amount of schooling are occasionally made, and these surveys indicate a gradual increase in the amount of schooling among all types of teachers found in every state. They show that approximately three fifths of the secondary-school teachers of the nation have had at least four years of college preparation and that approximately one third of the secondary-school teachers have completed at least one year of graduate work. Approximately one half of the elementary-school teachers have not had more than two years of college preparation. Most of the undereducated teachers are found in the rural and village communities; they are employed there primarily because of the low salaries and in spite of the fact that their positions are the most difficult of any in the teaching profession. Because of low salaries the southern states usually have a larger percentage of undereducated teachers than the states of other sections.

Educational status of European teachers. Although our penchant for education has been called our national religion, and in spite of the fact that our people more firmly believe in universal education than the people of any other country, our teachers are not as well educated and are not held in as high esteem as the teachers of several of the European countries. After an intensive study of teacher qualifications in England, France, Germany, and Sweden, compared with teacher qualifications in the United States, the *National Survey of the Education of Teachers* came to the following conclusions:

1. With the exception of Sweden, the elementary teachers in the four European countries mentioned are now expected to have as much pre-service education as is required in the states of the United States in which the standards are highest and more than is generally accepted as necessary in the majority of the states.
2. With the exception of England, the secondary teachers of those

countries have a much larger amount of training than our secondary teachers. In fact, the secondary teachers of France, Germany, and Sweden "possess such thorough and extensive educational preparation that they may well be compared on that item with the faculties of our better staffed colleges and universities."

3. During recent years there has been a tendency for some of the European countries to decrease the disparity in the amount of training required of elementary and secondary teachers by increasing the amount for elementary teachers.

4. Explanations for the larger amount of pre-service training in these European countries are the following: (1) a larger amount of competition in those countries for desirable positions, this competition resulting from over-population and increased numbers of university graduates; (2) in those countries "teaching has been made more attractive to capable persons by means of very secure tenure, economic security at a level which permits a standard of living comparable with other professional groups, high social prestige, and a consciousness of performing a patriotic service"; (3) teaching standards there have been influenced by the secondary schools, whereas here they have been influenced by the elementary schools.[1]

QUALIFICATIONS NEEDED BY THE TEACHER

If the teacher is to secure and retain a position, if he is to accomplish all that he might with his pupils, and if he is to acquire advancement and happiness in his profession, he must be adequately prepared for his work. The day when "anyone can teach school" has passed. The teacher who expects to succeed must have at least the following qualifications, and it should be the responsibility of the state and of teacher-preparing institutions to demand these qualifications.

High intelligence. The first requisite for a successful teacher is high native ability or intelligence. In accordance with this belief many teacher-preparing institutions require all prospective students to give evidence of above-average native ability before they will be admitted. They secure this evidence through requiring all students to take an intelligence test. Teaching is primarily a scholarly voca-

[1] Epitomized from the *National Survey of the Education of Teachers*, Vol. VI, pp. 64–65.

tion, and for the successful pursuit of such a vocation a high degree of intelligence is required. Although there have been cursory investigations of the amount of intelligence needed by the teacher, these investigations have not pointed to any final conclusions. They have indicated, however, that persons of below-average intelligence cannot succeed as teachers; on the other hand, they have shown that intelligence of an unusually high type may often be a handicap to the teacher because persons with such intelligence are frequently unwilling or unable to give attention to the large amount of routine and detail which successful teaching requires. Many persons believe that a higher degree of intelligence is needed for teaching in the upper grades than in the lower grades; while such a belief seems to have a certain amount of plausibility, there are as yet no objective data to support it.

Good health. Next to high intelligence, good physical and emotional health and freedom from physical defects are the greatest assets which anyone can have. "A sound mind in a sound body" is the foundation for success in any activity. Contrary to widespread belief, teaching is not easy work. It is not a vocation for "the lame, the halt, and the blind." It demands regular habits, constant application, a good emotional tone, and abundant nervous energy.

If the teacher does not possess good physical and emotional health, he is likely to find the work of the schoolroom unusually wearing; for example, if he is nervous or has defective sight or hearing, he is apt to find the discipline problem more difficult than it would otherwise be. All of this, of course, is likely to interfere with the teacher's success with his pupils, to worry the teacher, and to injure his health still further. Worst of all, there is danger that the poor health of the teacher will injure the health of the pupils; this is even more true of emotional or mental health. If the teacher is afflicted with tuberculosis or any other malignant disease, the disease may be transmitted to the pupils. So, too, if the teacher is nervous and grouchy, the pupils are likely to become nervous and grouchy also. A speech defect or difficulty is apt to be imitated by pupils,

especially in the elementary school, and to fasten itself upon them throughout life.

Realizing the importance of good health for teachers, many teacher-preparing institutions require health examinations as one of the entrance requirements to the institutions, and the tendency is to make these examinations more rigid. In addition, practically all of these institutions have organized recreational programs and maintain departments of health and physical education which are calculated to improve the health of their students. Still more, most school systems require a high standard of health as a condition of appointment and retention of position by the teacher; many require a health certificate of all teachers who are appointed and many also require periodic health examinations after appointment. School systems are making these requirements as a guarantee that the health of the pupils will be protected and improved, and that the educational advancement of the pupils will be more certain. Fig. 63 shows a typical form used by school systems in making physical examinations of educational employees.

To summarize, the person with poor health, or with an uncorrectable physical defect which is likely to interfere with teaching success, should steer clear of the teaching profession, because such a person is not likely to be the most successful teacher or to have complete happiness in his work. And the person who possesses sufficiently good health to enter the teaching profession should so order his habits that good health will continue to bless him.

Ethical character. One of the foremost aims of the school should be the development of ethical character in the pupils. The pupils must be given standards of conduct which will enable them to distinguish between right and wrong, and they must have instilled in them the desire to *do* the right. These elements in the education of pupils must not be neglected by the home, the church, the school, and other educational agencies, because any neglect of them is likely to breed criminality and to sabotage democracy.

In the development of ethical character in the pupils the example of the teacher is potent, and any person unwilling

1. *Name* ..... *Date of Birth* ....
Married ☐
2. *Residence* .....*School* ..... *Single* ☐
Widow ☐
3. *What Previous Illness: As an adult* .... *As a child*.. .....
4. *History of Injuries* ....
5. *Surgical Operations: Adolescence* .. *Later Life* . ...

The following lines (6 to 25) inclusive require the use of either check marks or numerals.

6. *Height* . *ft.*... *in. Weight* *lbs. Successful Vaccination: Yes* *No.* .
7. *Nutrition: Very Good* . *Good* *Fair* *Poor* *Very Poor* . ..
8. *Menstruation: Regular—Yes* .. *No* *Irregular—Yes*.. . *No* .. ... *Absent—Yes* *No.* . . . . .
9. *Glandular Enlargements: Cervical—Yes* . ..*No* .... *Thyroid—Yes* ..... *No.* ... .
10. *Anemia: Yes* *No* . . *Nervous Disorder: Yes* .. *No* .. ..
11. *Reflexes: Exaggerated—Yes*.. . *No* *Diminished—Yes* . *No* . . .. *Normal—Yes* . *No* . ...
12. *Vision: (without glasses) Right 20/*..... ...*Left 20/*.. ..... *(with glasses) Right 20/*. ... *Left 20/* .
13. *Hearing: (Whispered voice) Right Ear* .... *ft. Left Ear* . *ft.*
14. *Teeth: Decayed—Yes* . ... ..*No*... .. *Repaired—Yes* . *No* ....
15. *Nasal Obstruction: Right—Yes* . ... *No* .. *Left—Yes* . *No*....
16. *Tonsils: Enlarged—Yes*.. *No* *Imbedded—Yes* .. . .*No* . ..... *Diseased—Yes* *No* . *Removed—Yes* *No*
17. *Valvular Disorder: Yes*. .. .*No* *Diagnosis* ....
18. *Heart* *Functional Disorder: Yes*.... *No*.... *Diagnosis*.....
19. *Normal: Yes* . . *No*.....
20. *Pulse—Rate*. *Temperature*.... . *Degrees F. Respiration—Rate* .....
21. *Blood Pressure: Systolic* .. . .*Diastolic* . ...
22. *Rales: Crepitant—Yes* *No* . *Moist—Yes* *No*.. .. .
23. *Lungs* *Impaired Resonance—Yes*.. *No* ..*Area of Dullness—Yes*. *No*. .
24. *Friction Fremitus—Yes*... *No* . .*Friction Rub—Yes*... *No*. .. .
25. *Orthopedic Defects: Yes* *No* ....
26. *Days ill during previous calendar year* . *Cause*..... ....
27. *Additional* ..... . *examination desired of* ..... *part of the body.*

I hereby certify to the above statements as representing the result of an examination made in my private office on the date below, and to the fact that ... . *is neither mentally nor physically handicapped in the successful performance of the work of a teacher.*

. . .. *M.D.*

Date Examined . ..... *Office*. ... .

FIG. 63. A typical form used for recording the results of physical examinations for educational employees. This particular form is used in the Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, school system.

to try to be a good example should not enter the teaching profession. A high regard for ethics is so important for the teacher that all of Chapter XXI is devoted to this topic. Pupils acquire many habits and ideals through imitation, and no person, next to the pupil's parents, is more imitated by pupils than the teacher; indeed, pupils usually accept the teacher as a *model.* This tendency of pupils to imitate their teacher, especially in the early school years, makes it necessary for the teacher to possess the highest type of character. What the teacher *is* in moral character speaks more loudly than what the teacher *says* about moral character; the hypocrite is soon discovered and is thereafter despised. If the teacher possesses low ideals of life or vicious habits of any sort, there is danger that those traits will be transmitted to the pupils through precept or example. If, on the other hand, the teacher possesses high ideals and exemplary habits, those are likely to be transmitted to the pupils, and such is the desideratum. The impression which the teacher's character and related traits are likely to make on the pupil is indicated by the following quotation:

> In my memory chest there is stored away a picture of the teacher who made the greatest impression on my life, when I was a child of ten. I do not recall any particular subject that she taught me, but my picture shows her standing before the class, perfectly groomed, glowing with health, always ready with a smile and a bit of encouragement for the child who had tried and was never allowed to feel that he had entirely failed. She could be stern when occasion demanded, but there were few problems of discipline in that room. Children learned from example as well as precept the joy of right living, and the value of order, personal neatness, and cleanliness. The good-morning and good-by, as the lines filed in and out, carried a personal message to each child. In an age when sarcasm and ridicule were frequently used on children, I believe her influence showed me the great opportunity afforded by teaching and led to my choice of the profession.[1]

Pleasing and well-rounded personality. Personality may be defined as the habits and the physical characteristics which differentiate an individual from other individuals.

[1] *Character Education, Tenth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, 1932, p. 289.

It is *the whole person in action.* It is the *sum total* of the traits of an individual. There are thousands of personality traits, and many of them slowly but constantly change under the impact of environment and formal education. Although the total bundle of habits and physical characteristics can be slowly modified, it cannot be rapidly or completely changed; certain *central tendencies* remain from birth till death. Some of the traits are inborn, while others are acquired.

Although every individual has a personality, not every individual has a pleasing and well-rounded personality. A person has a *pleasing* personality when he possesses traits which attract people to him. He has a *displeasing* personality when he possesses traits which offend and repulse people.

Many persons believe that knowledge of the details of one's vocation, plenty of ambition, and hard work are the only ingredients of success. Although it cannot be gainsaid that these ingredients are of significant importance in bringing success and happiness to the individual, it is affirmed that a pleasing and well-rounded personality is of as great importance as any of them. Of course, a pleasing and well-rounded personality is more important in some vocations than in others. It is of little or no importance to a hermit or other recluse. It is particularly important in vocations in which the employee is required to have many personal contacts. It is of especial importance to the teacher because he must constantly associate with people—with his pupils, the parents of his pupils, his colleagues, and the general public—and these persons should be attracted to and have confidence in him. Only by having the confidence of these persons can the teacher gain that self-confidence which is necessary for his happiness and success.

Not only should the teacher attempt to develop pleasing and well-rounded personality traits in himself but he should have as one of his chief teaching aims the development of such traits in his pupils. In fact, it would not be far wrong to say that the aim of education is to develop a pleasing and well-rounded personality. If the pupil develops a

pleasing and well-rounded personality, he will be able to make the necessary social adjustments in life. The period when the pupil's mind is plastic and he is forming life habits is the time *par excellence* to develop such traits. Without a pleasing and well-rounded personality the teacher is not apt to realize his potentialities in success with his pupils, in professional advancement, and in happiness. The pupils are not likely to be attracted to him, and if they are not attracted to him, they are not apt to cooperate with him in discipline and in learning. Moreover, without such a personality the teacher is apt to displease or to offend school officials, parents, or members of the community, and such displeasure or offense will surely handicap the teacher—in fact, such a handicap may cause him to lose his position and make it difficult for him to secure another one. Many investigations have shown that more teachers fail because of a weak or missing link in personality than fail because of poor scholarship. Even the genius is likely to fail as a teacher if he has an overbearing manner, is cynical, uses incorrect language, possesses slovenly habits of dress, or has some other displeasing or objectionable trait. It should not be forgotten that *only one* displeasing or obnoxious trait may cause the teacher to fail although all of his other traits may be pleasing.

The teacher should not be content to develop a personality which is characterized by a cheap veneer for fooling the people. He should strive to acquire a personality which will be pleasing to the most discerning persons who may care to penetrate the veneer. He should remember that intelligent persons know that "a skunk has beautiful fur and that a parrot can talk."

A fortunate aspect of personality is that it is largely acquired and can be changed. Practically every trait which any person possesses is within his individual control, and thereby hangs hope for all of us. Just as we have "made" ourselves, so we can "remake" ourselves. One does not inherit a selfish or cynical disposition; that is acquired. One does not inherit slovenly habits of dress; those are acquired. Since such traits and habits are acquired, they can be modi-

fied. Every teacher should, therefore, introspect (look inward) occasionally to attempt to ascertain any displeasing traits which he may possess, and yet he should not neglect those already pleasing. The traits which are displeasing should be made over, while those that are pleasing should be consciously cultivated and improved. In attempting to improve his personality the teacher should not only study his own traits but he should associate with and learn from persons of pleasing and well-rounded personality as much as possible; personality is contagious.

During recent years many tests for analyzing and measuring personality have been devised. Some of these are designed for self-rating; others are designed for rating by other persons; and still others may be used in either procedure.[1] As a part of their student personnel work, hundreds of departments and colleges of education now require all students to take one or more of these tests and to use the results in an attempt to improve their personality. Many of these departments and colleges have established personality guidance clinics, and require all students to make use of the services of these clinics in developing a well-rounded personality. The following traits are among those which are most frequently analyzed and measured by personality tests:[2]

1. Introvert, or extrovert
2. Ascendant, or submissive
3. Unsocial, or social
4. Shy, or bold
5. Quiet, or talkative
6. Even-tempered, or hot-tempered
7. Calm, or excitable
8. Cautious, or impulsive
9. Sluggish, or overactive
10. Carefree, or worrying
11. Dependent, or independent
12. Careful, or careless
13. Fearful, or fearless
14. Lazy, or industrious
15. Unreliable, or reliable
16. Dishonest, or honest
17. Noncooperative, or cooperative
18. Trustful, or suspicious
19. Rude, or courteous
20. Cold, or affectionate
21. Slovenly, or neat
22. Unhappy, or happy

[1] For a classified list of these tests, together with the names of the authors and publishers, see Gertrude H. Hildreth, *A Bibliography of Mental Tests and Rating Studies,* Psychological Corporation, 1939. *The Review of Educational Research* also publishes from time to time such a list.

[2] Walter S. Monroe, ed., *Encyclopedia of Educational Research,* Macmillan, 1941, p. 788. By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

The person who would develop a pleasing and well-rounded personality might well emulate the practice of Benjamin Franklin as described in his autobiography. At the end of each day, Franklin was wont to analyze himself for the purpose of discovering any deficiencies which he had exhibited during the day. When he ascertained a deficiency, as he often did, he promised himself to correct or to start correcting it at once. No doubt this self-analysis stimulated self-improvement and helped to make him the great person that he was; probably it helped to earn for him the sobriquet, "the first educated American." Franklin was his own most severe critic.

What are the personality traits which persons who expect to enter the teaching profession should possess, or should try to develop? A complete list of such traits cannot be given within the limits of this chapter because such a list would include thousands of items. Moreover, as would be expected, there is no unanimity of opinion on what constitutes even the most important traits. In his book on *School Discipline,* W. C. Bagley reports the composite judgment of 100 experienced school officials and employees on the most important elements entering into *teaching personality;* the first ten of those elements were the following:

1. Sympathy
2. Personal appearance
3. Address
4. Sincerity
5. Optimism
6. Enthusiasm
7. Scholarship
8. Physical vitality
9. Fairness
10. Reserve and dignity

In a nation-wide investigation Charters and Waples found that the kind of traits needed by teachers varied in certain instances with the type of service in which the teachers were engaged. Breadth of interest, leadership, and scholarship, for example, were found to be more important for teachers in the senior high school than for teachers in the junior high school and in the elementary school. As a rule, though, they found that the various traits needed in the various grades ranked fairly closely, as will be observed from Table V. In making this investigation they requested

TABLE V. RANK-LIST OF TEACHERS' TRAITS [1]

Traits	Rank for Teachers of:				
	Grades X–XII Senior High School	*Grades VII–IX Junior High School*	*Grades III–VI Intermediate*	*Grades Kdg.–II Kdg.-Primary*	*Rural School*
1. Adaptability	8	10	8	6	1
2. Attractiveness, personal appearance	17	14	9	10	15
3. Breadth of interest (interest in community, interest in profession, interest in pupils)	1	10	11	15	2
4. Carefulness (accuracy, definiteness, thoroughness)	11	13	9	14	12
5. Considerateness (appreciativeness, courtesy, kindliness, sympathy, tact, unselfishness)	17	3	1	1	3
6. Cooperation (helpfulness, loyalty)	11	9	14	16	3
7. Dependability (consistency)	14	19	16	17	15
8. Enthusiasm (alertness, animation, inspiration, spontaneity)	9	4	5	2	11
9. Fluency	23	24	25	23	25
10. Forcefulness (courage, decisiveness, firmness, independence, purposefulness)	5	4	18	19	13
11. Good judgment (discretion, foresight, insight, intelligence)	2	1	3	4	3
12. Health	16	16	12	10	9
13. Honesty	7	12	7	9	6
14. Industry (patience, perseverance)	19	8	14	13	17
15. Leadership (initiative, self-confidence)	4	17	19	21	8
16. Magnetism (approachability, cheerfulness, optimism, pleasantness, sense of humor, sociability, pleasing voice, wittiness)	11	4	5	3	9
17. Neatness (cleanliness)	20	16	13	4	18
18. Openmindedness	9	20	23	24	22
19. Originality (imaginativeness, resourcefulness)	22	22	16	12	19
20. Progressiveness (ambition)	23	23	22	20	22
21. Promptness (dispatch, punctuality)	21	14	20	18	21
22. Refinement (conventionality, good taste, modesty, morality, simplicity)	14	20	2	8	13
23. Scholarship (intellectual curiosity)	5	16	21	21	20
24. Self-control (calmness, dignity, poise, reserve, sobriety)	2	2	3	6	6
25. Thrift	25	25	24	25	24

[1] W. W. Charters and Douglas Waples, *The Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study*, University of Chicago Press, 1929, p. 18. By permission of the University of Chicago Press, publishers.

several hundred educational leaders to indicate the most important traits which they believed teachers should possess. The twenty-five traits most frequently mentioned, together with the ranking in importance for the various grades of the school, are indicated in the table just mentioned. The teacher or prospective teacher should find this list helpful in analyzing himself. And, since all of us would be helped by seeking and knowing the answer to the prayer of Robert Burns,

> O wad some Power the giftie gie us,
> To see oursels as ithers see us!

the teacher or prospective teacher might desire to have one or more of his colleagues, supervisors, or administrative superiors measure him by means of the list. Only by criticism—criticism by one's self or by other competent persons —can the individual bring out the best in himself. Only the angels are perfect, and they do not inhabit this world.

In seeking to see himself as others see him probably no one is in a better position to help the teacher than the teacher's pupil; such an appraisal by the teacher's more mature pupils would seem to be especially helpful. Although it may be claimed that pupils, especially younger pupils, lack maturity of judgment and sometimes thoughtlessly place their wishes above their needs, these inclinations are not associated with youth alone. Regarding the ability of high-school seniors to appraise their teachers Frank W. Hart says:

> . . . They [high-school seniors] are in a better position than anyone else. They are with us day in and day out, for weeks, months, and years on end. They see, hear, and know us at our best, at our worst, on good days and on bad days, in high spirit and low. Furthermore, they have had experience with many teachers of many different ways of teaching; thus they have standards of comparison. They are in a position to judge.[1]

In a nation-wide investigation Hart asked all seniors in sixty-six high schools of various sizes and types to give

[1] Frank W. Hart, *Teachers and Teaching*, Macmillan, 1934, p. 6. By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

certain information regarding their high-school teachers. They were requested first to consider all of the teachers which they had had, then "to think of the one *you have liked best*" and to write down "your *reasons for liking this teacher best*"; they were instructed also that "this is to be the teacher you *liked best,* not necessarily the best teacher." The reasons which the pupils gave for liking best the teacher which they selected are shown in Table VI.[1]

As a second part of the inquiry the same seniors were requested to "think of the one *you have liked least of all,*" and to write down "your reasons for *not liking this teacher.*" On this assignment the responses of the pupils are shown in Table VII.[2]

A third question which was asked the same seniors was the following: "Was the teacher *you liked best* also the *best teacher,* that is, the one who taught you most effectively?" They were also asked whether the teacher which they liked least was the best teacher. Eighty per cent of the seniors stated that the best-liked teacher was also the best teacher, that is, the one who taught them most effectively; and approximately one half of 1 per cent reported that the least-liked teacher was the best teacher when judged by teaching effectiveness.[3]

Finally, the seniors were requested to indicate how the best teacher which they had selected differed from the best-liked teacher. Table VIII shows the comments of the seniors on this request.[4]

Broad education. More and more the tendency in educational theory and practice is away from the compartmentalization of knowledge and toward the *integration* of knowledge in a given field with knowledge in other, especially related, fields. If he is to participate in this movement, the teacher must have an excellent general education. He must be informed not only on the subjects which he teaches but also on as many other fields, especially related fields, of learning as possible. He should feel at home in many lands. He should be familiar with past and

[1] *Ibid.*, pp. 131–132.
[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 250–251.
[3] *Ibid.*, p. 256.
[4] *Ibid.*, p. 278–279.

TABLE VI. REASONS FOR LIKING "TEACHER A" BEST, ARRANGED IN ORDER OF FREQUENCY OF MENTION, AS REPORTED BY 3,725 HIGH-SCHOOL SENIORS

Reasons for Liking "Teacher A" Best	*Frequency of Mention*	*Rank*
Is helpful with school work, explains lesson assignments clearly and thoroughly, and uses examples in teaching	1950	1
Cheerful, happy, good-natured, jolly, has a sense of humor, and can take a joke	1429	2
Human, friendly, companionable, "one of us"	1024	3
Interested in and understands pupils	937	4
Makes work interesting, creates a desire to work, makes class work a pleasure	805	5
Strict, has control of the class, commands respect	753	6
Impartial, shows no favoritism, has no "pets"	695	7
Not cross, crabby, grouchy, nagging, or sarcastic	613	8
"We learned the subject"	538	9
A pleasing personality	504	10
Patient, kindly, sympathetic	485	11
Fair in marking and grading, fair in giving examinations and tests	475	12
Fair and square in dealing with pupils, has good discipline	366	13
Requires that work be done properly and promptly, makes you work	364	14
Considerate of pupils' feelings in the presence of the class, courteous, makes you feel at ease	362	15
Knows the subject and knows how to put it over	357	16
Respects pupils' opinions, invites discussion in class	267	17
Not superior, aloof, "high hat," does not pretend to know everything	216	18
Assignments reasonable	199	19
Is reasonable, not too strict or "hard-boiled"	191	20.5
Helpful with students' personal problems, including matters outside of class work	191	20.5
Dresses attractively, appropriately, neatly, and in good taste	146	22
Young	121	23
Work well planned, knows what class is to do	110	24
Enthusiastically interested in teaching	108	25
Gives students a fair chance to make up work	97	26
Home-work assignments reasonable	96	27
Recognizes individual differences in ability	86	28

Reasons for Liking "Teacher A" Best	*Frequency of Mention*	*Rank*
Frank, "straight from the shoulder," a straight shooter	78	29.5
Personally attractive, good-looking	78	29.5
Teaches more than the subject	74	31
Interested in school activities	68	32
Sticks to subject	53	33
Modern	52	34
Sweet and gentle	50	35.5
Pleasing voice	50	35.5
Intelligent	42	37
Prompt and businesslike	41	38
Sincere	36	39
Knows more than the subject	32	40
Has pep	31	41
Uses good judgment	22	42
Cultured and refined	20	43

TABLE VII. REASONS FOR LIKING "TEACHER Z" LEAST, ARRANGED IN ORDER OF FREQUENCY OF MENTION, AS REPORTED BY 3,725 HIGH-SCHOOL SENIORS

Reasons for Liking "Teacher Z" Least	*Frequency of Mention*	*Rank*
Too cross, crabby, grouchy, never smiles, nagging, sarcastic, loses temper, "flies off the handle"	1708	1
Not helpful with school work, does not explain lessons and assignments, not clear, work not planned	1025	2
Partial, has "pets" or favored students, and "picks on certain pupils"	859	3
Superior, aloof, haughty, "snooty," overbearing, does not know you out of class	775	4
Mean, unreasonable, "hard-boiled," intolerant, ill mannered, too strict, makes life miserable	652	5
Unfair in marking and grading, unfair in tests and examinations	614	6
Inconsiderate of pupils' feelings, bawls out pupils in the presence of classmates, pupils are afraid and ill at ease and dread class	551	7
Not interested in pupils and does not understand them	442	8
Unreasonable assignments and homework	350	9

TABLE VII (*continued*)

Reasons for Liking "Teacher Z" Least	*Frequency of Mention*	*Rank*
Too loose in discipline, no control of class, does not command respect	313	10
Does not stick to the subject, brings in too many irrelevant personal matters, talks too much	301	11
"We did not learn what we were supposed to"	275	12.5
Dull, stupid, and uninteresting	275	12.5
Too old-fashioned, too old to be teaching	224	14
Not "fair and square" in dealing with pupils	203	15
Knows the subject but "can't put it over"	193	16
Does not hold to standards, is careless and slipshod in her work	190	17
Too exacting, too hard, gives no chance to make up work	183	18
Does not know the subject	170	19
Does not respect pupils' judgments or opinions	133	20
Too changeable, inconsistent, unreliable	122	21
Lazy, not interested in teaching	115	22
Not friendly, not companionable	98	23
Shows boy or girl favoritism	95	24
Dresses unattractively or in bad taste	92	25
Weak personality	85	26
Insincere	75	27
Personally unattractive	65	28
Does not recognize individual differences in pupils	64	29
Voice not pleasant	63	30

present happenings in economics, science, invention, international relations, politics, literature, religion, music, art, and other fields of learning. When he possesses such knowledge, the teacher is more likely to have confidence in himself, to be expert in instructing his pupils, and to be highly regarded by his pupils and by the community; with such erudition he is likely to be regarded as a broadly educated and cultured person rather than as a narrow, cloistered pedagogue. In the reconstruction days ahead teachers must have a greater knowledge of world geography and history than ever before.

An excellent beginning toward securing this general education should have been made in the secondary school, and this should be continued in college courses. As a college

TABLE VIII. DIFFERENCES BETWEEN BEST TEACHER AND BEST-LIKED TEACHER, ARRANGED IN ORDER OF FREQUENCY, AS REPORTED BY 763 HIGH-SCHOOL SENIORS

Best Teacher Differed from Best-Liked Teacher as Follows:	*Frequency of Mention*	*Rank*
More exacting in standards of work, stricter in marking, "we learned more"	267	1
Better at explaining lessons and assignments, work is better planned	155	2
Knows the subject better and can "put it over" better	95	3
Stricter, more rigid discipline	85	4
Makes the work more interesting	46	5
Is less friendly	39	6
More serious, more businesslike, keeps closer to the subject, more conscientious	38	7
Less understanding of pupils, less interested in pupils	13	8
More sarcastic	12	9
Less attractive	10	10.5
More cross and crabby	10	10.5
More aloof	6	12

student, therefore, the prospective teacher should not neglect to elect those courses which acquaint him with many fields of activity in which truly educated persons should be conversant. At best, however, because of the time that must be given to the entire program of studies, a college course can give the prospective teacher only a taste of these various fields. This necessitates that the teacher supplement such knowledge after he is through college; especially must he keep his knowledge up to date. He can accomplish this through reading books, magazines, and newspapers, through hearing public lectures, through travel, and through listening to the radio. The school of experience will always be the great school for the teacher, and he will have that school as long as he lives; he will have it twenty-four hours a day, year in and year out, and usually its tuition is free.

Knowledge of subjects to be taught. A person cannot teach something which he does not know; he may make the

attempt, but the result is sure to be a bluffing, stumbling, and bungling effort. Therefore, another requisite for the teacher is an excellent command of the subjects which he will teach. Arithmetic cannot be taught unless the teacher knows arithmetic, and grammar cannot be taught unless the teacher knows grammar. The same remark is true for all subjects. In their knowledge of subject matter the best teachers are always more than a day or a week ahead of their pupils; the pupils of such teachers "drink from a running stream rather than from a stagnant pool."

Colleges which prepare teachers for the elementary schools usually expect every graduate to show competence to teach all of the subjects required in the elementary-school curriculum.[1] The elementary-school subjects which are universally required in one or more grades are reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling, language, science, geography, history and civics, and health education. Many states also require other subjects to be taught in one or more grades of the elementary school; among these subjects are character education, art, music, safety education, consumer education, physical education, industrial arts, home economics, agriculture, and commercial subjects.

Colleges which prepare teachers for the secondary schools usually require every graduate to have at least one major field and one or more minor fields of work; in fact, the laws of many states make such a requirement for secondary-school teachers. Many states, moreover, now certificate secondary-school teachers by subjects and prohibit schools from employing teachers to teach subjects in which they have not been certificated.

Desire to teach. "Will I like better to teach than to do any other work?" is a fundamental question to be asked and intelligently and frankly answered by everyone who is considering preparing for the teaching profession. "Will I like to work with children both when I am young and when I have grown old?" "Will I desire to stand *in loco parentis*

[1] This requirement is especially important today, because of the growing practice of having the teacher advance to the next grade with the pupils; thus, the teacher of a fifth grade this year would teach the same pupils in the sixth grade next year.

to a constantly changing group of dynamic children who come or are assigned to me for tutelage?" "Will I want to serve as guide to those children, to teach them, to have patience with them, and to get along with them?" "Will I find the problem of discipline not too wearing and tearing?" "Will I be happy in work which constantly demands service to others?" Anyone who can give an unhesitating and sincere "Yes" in answer to these questions has met another test for entering the teaching profession. Anyone who cannot give that answer should avoid the teaching profession as he would a scourge. A person who does not like to teach will never become a great teacher; he will be caught in the trap of his decision, and his life is certain to be full of disappointment and misery.

Knowledge of professional education. During recent decades professional education has made unusually rapid strides, and an excellent beginning has been made toward the development of a science of education. Thousands of investigations have been conducted on the learning process, the curriculum, pupil classification and progress, and myriad other educational problems. Probably no field of learning during recent years has made greater progress toward securing a scientific basis than has education. During recent years, also, more attention than ever before has been devoted to the formulation of proper educational aims and to other phases of a sound philosophy of education. The successful teacher must be informed concerning as many of these matters as possible. Without attempting to mention the specific courses which should be pursued, the outstanding types of knowledge in professional education with which the teacher should be familiar are indicated herewith:

In the first place, the teacher needs a sound philosophy of life and of the educative process. He must have such a philosophy in order that his own life and his teaching efforts will be properly guided. As a part of his educational philosophy he must develop good aims and ideals for education in American democracy, and he must ever be improving those aims and ideals. In fact, a sound philosophy of life and of education is deemed *so* necessary to the teacher

that Chapter II of this book has been devoted to a detailed discussion of the subject.

In the second place, the teacher needs to be a student of social forces and social changes, and he especially needs such information for the community in which he expects to teach. Such knowledge is particularly important for the modern teacher because of recent and present social and economic problems and the many diverse solutions which have been proposed for those problems. He should possess this knowledge in order that he may adjust the curriculum to meet those social changes and in order that he may keep his educational aims in proper focus. Most colleges which prepare teachers offer at least one course in educational sociology, and such a course should give the teacher a start in securing the necessary knowledge of social forces and changes. Such a course, though, can give only a start and in order that he may keep up to date the teacher must ever be a student of the changing panorama of society; in fact, the chief obligation of the teacher is, through the instrumentality of the school, to cause improvement in the changing panorama of society.

In the third place, the teacher needs a knowledge of the psychological and biological laws affecting the pupils. He needs to know as much as possible concerning the mysteries of how the pupils' minds function and he should immediately become aware of the fact that no two minds function in an exactly similar manner. To secure information on how the mind functions he will need to pursue various courses in psychology, and to study the various individuals with whom he works. He should become aware also that health education is as important as, and is closely related to, mental education, and he must become proficient in directing it. He must be informed on the physical defects among children and on ways of preventing and correcting them. Chapters VII, VIII, and XII of this book give an introductory discussion of these problems.

In the fourth place, the teacher must acquire knowledge of and skill in proper methods of presenting his subject matter. He must be able to present his subject matter

in the most effective manner to individuals who differ widely in interests, in desire to learn, and in capacity to learn. The wide-awake teacher, of course, will discover many effective methods of teaching through trial and error and experimentation, but during such procedures the pupils may suffer. To protect the pupils, all teacher-preparing institutions offer courses in methods of teaching and require stu-

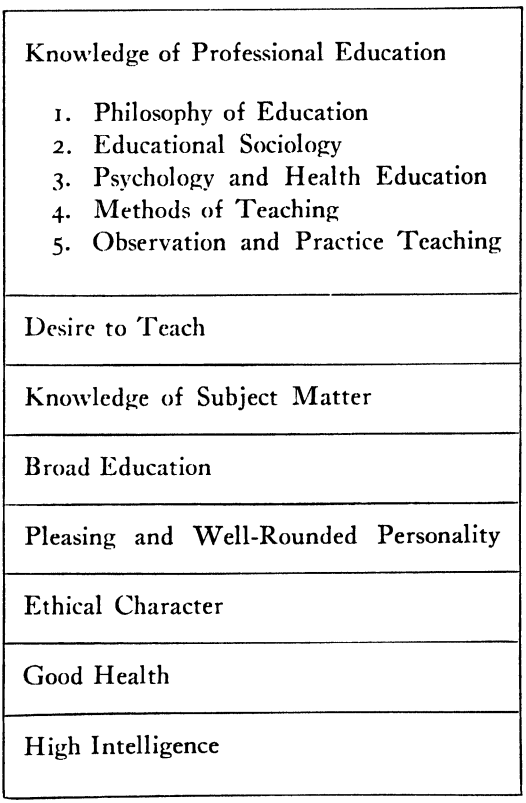

FIG. 64. The foundation equipment for the teacher.

dents to enroll in them. These courses are usually of two types, first, general methods of teaching, and second, special methods of teaching.

Most teacher-preparing institutions provide one or more courses in each of the four areas just mentioned, and these courses are usually required of all prospective teachers. In addition and in the fifth place, most teacher-preparing in-

stitutions require a certain number of school and classroom observations. Since the tendency is to begin these observations in the first course in education, Chapter XXIV of this book is devoted to that topic. Following these courses and observations, and toward the close of his college course, the prospective teacher is inducted into practice teaching and is expected to conduct classes under typical school conditions. Practice teaching is deemed so valuable that the American Association of Teachers Colleges has recommended a minimum standard of ninety clock hours of it. Many teacher-preparing institutions have established internship or apprentice teaching for all teacher candidates; this is usually done off the campus, comprises at least one semester, and sometimes the student is paid a small amount for it. Such courses, observations, and practice teaching are expected to give the student a good start in gaining familiarity with the science and the philosophy of education. This regimen of preparation will qualify the student to receive the first two letters of the alphabet (A.B.) and open the door to the school of educational experience wherein he will receive as many other letters as he may earn.

SPECIAL REQUIREMENTS FOR CERTIFICATION AND APPOINTMENT

State requirements. Every state has enacted statutes which govern the certification of teachers. Such statutes apply universally to teachers in the public schools, and in most states they apply also to teachers in the private schools. From the beginning of teacher certification the tendency has been for the states to assume the leading role in the control of it. In the early days the laws usually permitted local agencies to grant certificates. During recent years, however, the tendency has been for the state to take from the local communities all power of granting certificates. The belief underlying this tendency is that the state is obligated to assure the highest type of teaching personnel possible throughout the state, and that when local officials have the power

to certificate teachers, there is danger that the standards demanded by the state will not always be met.

At present, practically all of the states grant either temporary or permanent certificates to all graduates of standard teacher-preparing institutions of the states. This policy almost always applies to the public teacher-training institutions, and it frequently applies also to the private colleges and universities which have been authorized to prepare teachers. Most of the states also make provision for the exchange of certificates with states which have equal and similar standards. Most of them grant the graduates of their standard teacher-preparing institutions a temporary or provisional certificate of one to four years in length; at the end of that trial period, provided the teacher's experience has been satisfactory, a life or permanent certificate is granted.

A few states also make provision for certificating teachers by examination. Such provisions are made for persons who are not graduates of standard teacher-preparing institutions and who are therefore unable to qualify automatically for certificates. These states make provision for such examinations several times during the year at various places in the state; the questions for the examinations are usually prepared and the answers marked by state officials.

Of course, the requirements of the various states vary for securing teaching certificates, and the prospective teacher should early become acquainted with the requirements of the state in which he expects to seek employment. He will be able to secure this information from the school code of the state, from correspondence with or bulletins of the state department of education, or from the college in which he is securing his preparation to teach. Attention to this matter will often save the prospective teacher disappointment and loss of time. Practically all states now require at least two years of college preparation for new teachers in the elementary school and at least four years of college preparation for new teachers in the secondary school; of course, a few states require more, and a few others permit less.

Local requirements. In no phase of educational endeavor does any state prohibit the local community from establishing *higher* standards than those which the state provides. The state establishes minimum standards, not maximum ones. Many communities therefore require higher standards for the certification of teachers than do the laws of the state. Perhaps some of these local requirements may be more accurately described as *different* rather than higher. The chief local requirements are listed herewith:[1]

1. Approximately 5 per cent of the school systems (practically all of these being city systems) require all candidates for teaching positions to pass a written examination. Since 1940, written examinations have been given a slight stimulus through the National Teacher Examinations. These examinations are given and scored under the sponsorship of the American Council on Education. They are given annually in about seventy-five centers of the United States. A teacher's score on the examination is released only to himself or to school officials designated by him. Information for any year regarding the dates on which and the cities in which the National Teacher Examinations will be given may be obtained by writing the American Council on Education, Washington, D.C.

2. One or more years of teaching experience is a prerequisite for appointment in approximately one third of the city school systems. Such experience, though, is almost never required by the rural and village school systems. Although the tendency in theory and practice is away from requiring such experience, many city systems still believe that their higher salaries justify them in requiring it.

3. Approximately 10 per cent of the city school systems have a minimum age limit (usually twenty-one years) for the appointment of teachers, and approximately 15 per cent have a maximum age limit (usually forty years) for new appointees. Such age limits are seldom found in the rural and village school systems.

[1] Most of the statistics on these requirements are taken from "Teacher Personnel Procedures: Selection and Appointment," *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association, Vol. 20 (March, 1942), pp. 51–79.

4. Although the tendency in theory and practice is away from such rules and regulations, approximately half of the city school systems still will not employ married women as teachers. "Only spinsters need apply," seems to be their slogan. Such rules and regulations are also found in the rural and village school systems, although they are not found there nearly as frequently as in the city systems. Owing to the undersupply of teachers during World War II, many school systems have abolished such restrictions.

5. Only a small percentage of boards of education have rules and regulations against the appointment of nonresidents as teachers, but most boards give local residents preference over nonresidents if qualifications are equal. A few boards have rules against the employment of local residents until they have had one or more years of teaching experience elsewhere.

In addition to the local requirements which have just been mentioned, many school systems require special professional qualifications on the part of their teachers. For example, they frequently require ability to coach an athletic team or to sponsor one or more other extracurricular activities; also many schools require some of their teachers to be able to teach special subjects such as music, drawing, physical education, or penmanship. These requirements are found especially in the smaller school systems in which most teachers begin their professional careers. While he is enrolled in a teacher-preparing institution, therefore, the prospective teacher should keep in mind these special requirements and attempt to secure the preparation which will enable him to meet them. Attention to this matter will often mean the difference between securing a position and not securing one. Attention to it will also often mean a larger salary for the teacher.

Requirements of standardizing agencies. The laws of the various states have always been calculated to bring the schools to a higher and higher standard, and thousands of laws in every state have been enacted for that purpose. The state laws, therefore, may be regarded as the chief standardizing agencies of the schools. In addition to these laws,

which may be regarded as public standardizing agencies, there are many private or quasi-public standardizing agencies, and these have performed a noteworthy service in raising school standards. Every section of the United States now has one of these private or quasi-public standardizing agencies. As a rule, the agencies operate in the secondary schools and the colleges and are infrequently found in the elementary schools. The better known of the agencies are the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Western Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, and the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools. The chief function of the agencies is to raise education to a higher and higher plane. The associations have formulated certain standards which schools seeking and retaining membership in the associations must meet; for example, they have established standards for graduation, length of school year, size of staff, program of studies, pupil load, library, preparation of teachers, and teaching load.

The schools invited to membership in these associations are regarded as the better types of schools and teachers usually aspire to secure employment in them. Teachers aspiring, therefore, to secure employment in one of those schools should know the requirements for teachers of the standardizing agencies. For example, if the teacher expects to secure employment in a school which is a member of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, he should know the requirements for teachers in the schools of that association; likewise, if he desires employment in a school which is affiliated with the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools he should become aware of the requirements for teachers in those schools. Failure to meet these requirements would, of course, prevent the teacher from securing employment in these schools. The requirements for teachers of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools may

be regarded as somewhat typical and are quoted herewith. That association requires of its teachers graduation from a college having membership in the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, or graduation from a college having equivalent standards; it requires also that academic teachers and the superintendent and the principal shall have at least fifteen semester hours of credit in education, and that all teachers shall teach only subjects in which they majored or minored in college..

SUMMARY OF PRINCIPLES OF TEACHER EDUCATION

In this chapter attempt has been made to give a view of the status of the education of the teachers of the United States and to point the way to improvement. As a summary of this discussion the "principles of teacher education" which were formulated by the *National Survey of the Education of Teachers* will be quoted *in extenso:*[1]

1. It is the responsibility of the state to establish standards for the preparation of its public-school teachers, to insure an adequate supply of teachers meeting those standards, and to protect its standards and the services rendered by the teachers by maintaining a balance between the supply of teachers and the demand for teachers. This control should be exercised primarily by means of certification and the enforcement of adequate regulations of state departments of education.
2. The importance of the work of the teacher, particularly in a democracy, justifies securing the strongest recruits possible for the teachers' curricula. This end will be assisted by:
   (*a*) Admission requirements aimed to select the most capable of the applicants as shown by all known prognostic measures including health and personality.
   (*b*) Programs of "selective recruiting" to interest exceptionally capable high-school graduates in teaching.
   (*c*) Systems of student personnel and guidance service which will start at admission to a teacher's curriculum and continue through a period of adjustment following graduation.
   (*d*) A rigid system of elimination of students who, during their preparation, show themselves to be unsuited or unfit for teaching.
3. The preparation of teachers and other educational workers

[1] *Op. cit.*, Vol. VI, pp. 243–246.

should be determined by the demands which will be made upon them in the different types of positions and not be arbitrarily or traditionally set requirements for majors or minors. This implies that:

(*a*) Competence in the total work of the teacher should be the criterion for determining curriculum content and arrangement.

(*b*) Graduates should be aware of the desirable elements in present educational practice and also sensitive to needed changes in educational procedures.

(*c*) Graduation from curricula for teachers should depend upon mastery of the content and skills demanded by the work to be performed and not by time spent nor courses passed.

4. In order to assume their appropriate positions of leadership in the communities in which they work, teachers should have sufficient general education to compare favorably with that of members of the "learned professions" and with that of the better educated citizens of representative communities. This education should include:

(*a*) Survey contacts, preferably on the college level, with the major established fields of knowledge—English, social sciences, mathematics, music, fine arts, and philosophy.

(*b*) A scholarly mastery of the subject or subjects to be taught and of the subjects most closely related to them.

(*c*) A familiarity with the social, political, industrial, and aesthetic developments in this and other countries.

(*d*) The development of one or more fields of intellectual avocation.

(*e*) The development of a growing and integrated philosophy of living.

5. Teachers should have the distinctly professional knowledge and skills required in the type of position for which they are preparing. These distinctly professional elements include:

(*a*) Professional orientation with respect to education and teaching.

(*b*) Mastery of essential educational tools—psychology, measurements, and statistics.

(*c*) Knowledge of the individuals to be taught—in most cases, children.

(*d*) Essential teaching methods and techniques for the subjects taught and the groups taught. These may be presented in four or more different ways.

(*e*) Knowledge of class organization and class instruction.

(*f*) Observation of and participation and practice in teaching.

(*g*) Professional integration and the development of a working philosophy of education.

6. In order to protect the learners from the effects of inexperienced teaching all initial practice teaching should be closely supervised. . . .
   (*a*) The period required to obtain the necessary initial skill should vary for different individuals.
   (*b*) Practice-teaching facilities should be representative of the better schools in which the graduates will be employed.
   (*c*) Curricula for teachers should aim, in the time available, to make prospective teachers as competent as possible at the beginning of their period of practice teaching.
   (*d*) No teacher should be certificated who has not satisfactorily passed a period of supervised practice teaching.
7. The concept of a "safety minimum" of teaching skill at graduation implies:
   (*a*) A period of probation after graduation, during which the prospective teacher demonstrates his ability to add to his teaching skills.
   (*b*) A program of in-service education which will stimulate teachers to continued professional development.
8. Aside from having the necessary knowledge and skills a teacher should possess those traits of personality which are usually found among the better teachers and which are associated with leaders in any representative community. Some of the elements in a program for the education of teachers which contribute to personality development are:
   (*a*) A comprehensive program of student guidance and welfare.
   (*b*) A rich program of extra-class activities especially those which are also found in the elementary or secondary schools.
   (*c*) A comprehensive program of health services.
   (*d*) The provision of residence and dining facilities which contribute to desirable habits and manners.
   (*e*) A generous program for the social and religious activities of students.
   (*f*) Opportunities to discover and develop latent creative talents.
9. Education should be recognized as one of the major forces responsible for social, political, and economic stability and betterment. A general understanding of this role of education should be a part of the sociological information of all citizens. . . .
10. Preservice curricula for teachers should be largely prescribed—the prescription differing in terms of the positions for which the prospective teachers are preparing. Only in this way can the objectives . . . be realized.
11. Courses in curricula for teachers, whenever the number of students makes it possible, should be "differentiated" for the larger school divisions; that is, teachers preparing for the elementary

schools and those preparing for the high schools should have separate courses in the various subjects. . . .

12. Institutions offering curricula for teachers should be approved for and restricted to the preparation of teachers for only those types of positions for which the institutions are satisfactorily equipped in staff, library, and other facilities. . . .
13. The American ideal of equality of educational opportunity is directly related to the preparation of teachers and all programs —state or national—to equalize educational opportunities should include as one of the most important factors the education of the teachers.
14. Institutions offering work on the graduate level for teachers should adapt the courses and the requirements for graduate degrees to the needs of teachers in the various types of positions. . . .
15. The faculty of any institution, the graduates of which are recognized for certification as teachers, should be pervaded by a high degree of contagious enthusiasm for teaching and a sincere interest in the students as prospective teachers. . . .
16. The teacher plays so important a part in the work of the public schools, and so many factors which require years to develop are involved in the increasing efficiency of institutions for the preparation of teachers, that the education of teachers should be classed as one of those essential forms of public service which should be maintained regardless of economic changes.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Do you believe that persons who enter the teaching profession are of as high a type as persons entering other professions? In other words, is it true, as George Bernard Shaw has said that, "He who can, does; and he who cannot, teaches"?

2. What steps, if any, should teachers take to direct choice persons into the teaching profession?

3. What entrance requirements should teacher-preparing institutions have? Compare those more ideal requirements with the requirements now in force. Should teacher-preparing institutions limit their enrollments as do the colleges of medicine? Why or why not?

4. What relation should there be between the supply and demand of teachers and the requirements for entering the teaching profession? What attitude should teachers take toward raising the requirements for members of their profession? Would raising those requirements be helpful to teachers as well as to the schools? Explain.

5. Should teachers be certificated by state or by local authorities? Why? Should any teacher be given a life certificate? Explain.

Should every teacher be required to pass an examination before certification? Why or why not?

6. What provision for the preparation of teachers does your state make? Do you regard these facilities adequate and of a sufficiently high standard? In your state how do the provisions made for the preparation of teachers compare with those made for the preparation of members of other professions, for example, medicine, law, and engineering? What supervision, if any, do you believe the state should give to private colleges which prepare teachers? Discuss.

7. How many years of preparation beyond the secondary school should the teacher have? Should a distinction be made between the amount of preparation for the elementary school and for the secondary school? Discuss. Should the teacher be required to have as much preparation as the physician? Why or why not? Account for the much smaller amount of preparation which teachers have, compared with physicians. Would increasing the amount of preparation required of teachers cause a better type of person to enter the profession? Explain.

8. Should the teacher go beyond the minimum requirement in securing preparation? Should he work for the master's degree and the doctor's degree when they are not required? Discuss.

9. Do you believe that if a teacher knows his subject matter, he can teach it? Discuss.

10. Is there such a thing as a "teaching personality"? If so, what do you regard as some of its chief characteristics? Do you believe those characteristics are innate or acquired or both? Explain. What are some traits which can be modified?

11. What health requirements should be made of teachers? Should they be required to submit to health examinations periodically? Discuss.

12. Many school systems, especially the city systems, require one or two years of teaching experience before employing a new teacher. Is such a requirement reasonable? Explain.

13. Do you believe that school systems are justified in barring married women teachers from positions? Why or why not?

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Chapter XIX

EDUCATION IN SERVICE OF SCHOOL EMPLOYEES

IMPORTANCE OF EDUCATION IN SERVICE

The preceding chapter pointed out the importance of the preservice preparation of school employees. Although this preservice education can never be neglected, education in service is of even greater importance. The validity of this conclusion will be accepted if it is remembered that the school has the prospective employee under its tutelage only a few years, whereas the school of experience "teaches" the employee as long as he lives. While the prospective employee is securing his preservice preparation is not too early for him to direct his attention to the importance of preparation in service and to the means which he may use in securing this preparation. Moreover, before any person decides to enter an educational career, he should be informed upon the demands which his profession and society will make upon him for continuing his preparation.

What has just been said applies to other persons as well as to school employees. Although the school performs a large and a necessary service, only a small percentage of the education of the typical person comes through it; by far the largest percentage comes through the school of experience. The fundamental purposes of the school are to provide the individual with the tools and the sources of learning, and to give him an abiding interest in the use of those tools and sources. If these purposes are accomplished, the individual will be qualified and disposed to continue his education as long as he lives.

That it is possible for a person—particularly a person with good intelligence and ample ambition—to secure an

education with little or no schooling is seen in the lives of such persons as Benjamin Franklin and Abraham Lincoln. These eminent Americans had the advantage of only a few weeks of schooling; yet they were well educated. They were self-educated; the school of experience, of life, of "hard knocks" was their school.

Preparation in service is necessary for school employees who have had a large amount of formal education as well as for those who have had little or no formal education; such preparation is, however, especially necessary for the latter type of employee. By proper efforts, although much educational malpractice would ensue in the beginning, it would be possible for persons with little formal preparation to become efficient school employees. One of the best teachers whom the present writer has ever known had not advanced beyond the eighth grade; he had become an excellent teacher through thirty years of experience and through constant and well-directed efforts at self-education. Unlike many teachers, who repeat in animal-like fashion the experience of the previous year or years, this teacher critically "reconstructed his experience." He separated the wheat from the chaff, hence he had thirty years of invigorating and educative experience instead of having merely one experience which he repeated thirty times.

Preparation in service for school employees is necessary because efficiency cannot remain static. Professional education is a rapidly developing science and art; moreover, social changes are being made constantly. Although a school employee may have graduated from a renowned institution, there is danger that he will become a "back number" or an old fogy within a very few years if he does not take steps to keep abreast of constant changes in his profession and in society. Educational research is constantly ascertaining improved techniques of teaching, more valuable subject matter, and better educational aims, materials, and processes in general. It is a pre-eminent obligation of the school employee to maintain the spirit of the learner, and to keep in touch with the various improvements in his profession and with the rapidly changing society. A person who is not a

constant learner can never accomplish his potentialities in any endeavor.

It is an unfortunate commentary that many teachers do not maintain the spirit of the learner; they degenerate into teaching automatons. Many of them early permit themselves to fall into a rut where they remain throughout their professional lives. In fact, many of them fall into the rut and then proceed to dig the rut deeper; they regress rather than egress. Whereas education is potentially one of the most inspiring and intellectualizing professions, many employees neglect the opportunity to learn which is ever present; they forget that they are dealing with the most stimulating and precious, yet baffling, materials in the world, namely, the minds of pupils. School employees must constantly battle that most frequently found and devastating disease of all institutions, namely, "institutional paralysis"; although the disease "creeps" and is painless, it will eventually kill its victims if it is not eliminated.

NEEDED ASPECTS OF EDUCATION IN SERVICE

The school employee must keep in mind two aspects of his preparation. In the first place, he must be familiar with developments and discoveries in the field of professional education; in the second place, he must know what is happening in such worlds as those of commerce, politics, art, religion, and international relations. He should keep both of these aspects in mind in his preservice preparation as well as in his preparation in service.

If the teacher is familiar with changes in fields outside education as well as developments in education, he is more likely to be expert in instructing and in guiding his pupils and is more likely to be highly regarded by the community. A teacher should be able to discuss intelligently with other adults what is happening in the world about him; moreover, he should be able to use this information in instructing and in guiding his pupils. He cannot even be the best citizen without such information, not to mention being the best teacher. To be the most efficient, the teacher must live in

the world of affairs instead of in a cloister; he must be able to speak the language of the people rather than the language of the cloistered pedagogue—a language which has been facetiously dubbed *pedaguese*. He must be a real human being, and not be, as Mark Twain once said, a member of a "third sex."

AGENCIES FOR EDUCATION IN SERVICE

The agencies which the school employee may use in preparing in service are myriad. Many of these agencies are free to him, and those that are not free are relatively inexpensive. All of them are readily available to employees who desire to use them. In the following paragraphs the more important and the more available of the agencies will be discussed.

Reading. Since the invention and the development of printing, reading has been the greatest intellectualizing agency in the world, and thanks to the public schools, the people of the United States have become the most avid readers in the world. In the United States, thousands of newspapers, magazines, pamphlets, bulletins, books, and other reading matter are published annually. In the United States, approximately two hundred pedagogical magazines are published, and several hundred new books on the subject of professional education are published annually. There is scarcely a school subject which does not have at least one magazine; likewise, there is scarcely a subject which does not have at least one book dealing with it. There are magazines and books for all types of school employees. As might be guessed, these magazines and books range from poor to excellent, and the school employee must learn to select the best.

New theories and new discoveries are being constantly chronicled in the better pedagogical magazines and in the new pedagogical books, and it is difficult to see how the school employee can keep entirely up to date on these theories and discoveries without reading regularly one or more of those magazines, and a few of the new books each

year. It is, however, an unfortunate commentary that many employees do not subscribe for even one pedagogical magazine, and that many do not read even one pedagogical book during the year. Almost as unfortunate as reading no pedagogical magazine or book would be the limitation of one's reading to *one* magazine or book which presented only one view or philosophy of education and of the social order. Such a diet of reading would be likely to indoctrinate one hopelessly and to aid one in committing intellectual suicide.

The reading of a school employee should not, however, be of a purely professional sort; such emphasis would likely make the employee a "queer pedagogue." The best magazines and books on other subjects with which intellectual leaders such as educational employees should be acquainted should be read. Educational employees must be broadly cultured persons.

In many schools and school systems, the employees have organized a reading club, to which each employee annually contributes a few dollars for the purchase of magazines and books for the members of the club. In some school systems the board of education cooperates with the employees by annually making a financial contribution to the employees' library. The magazines and books are placed on a certain shelf in the office of the principal or in another appropriate place where each employee may have ready access to them.

Daily preparation. One of the most valuable agencies which the teacher may utilize in improving his proficiency is found in the regular preparation and planning for meeting his classes. Although the teacher may have secured his bachelor's, his master's, or his doctor's degree from a renowned university and may have taught several years, he should not be guilty of meeting his classes without having made some special preparation for them. Such daily preparation will give the teacher greater confidence in himself, make him poised, and give the proper direction to his tutelage.

It is not recommended, of course, that the teacher spend all of the day in the classroom, shop, or laboratory, then devote his evenings and Saturdays and Sundays in prepar-

ing and planning to meet his classes the next day or the next week. Life under such a procedure would be drudgery indeed. Moreover, because it might sap the teacher's vitality, such procedure would likely decrease teaching efficiency rather than increase it. All that is here recommended is that a quantum of time be devoted to daily preparation, even though it can be only a few minutes. The teacher who does not devote any time to daily preparation is apt to exemplify the expression of the street, "We don't know where we're going, but we're on our way." An artist teacher will be imbued with the spirit of Thomas Arnold, eminent teacher at Rugby. Arnold was once asked why he spent so much of his time in preparing to meet his classes, and his reply was: "I prefer that my students should drink from a running stream, rather than a stagnant pool."

Supervision. In practically every school and school system, classroom supervision of some kind and amount is provided. The supervision is usually given by the school principal, the superintendent of schools, or assistants to these officials. Frequently, though, and especially in the larger school systems, subject, grade, or department supervisors are provided.

Not always, of course, will this supervision be all that it should be; that unfortunate result obtains because supervisors are not always all that they should be. Often it will go no further than inspection and will not be, in fact, supervision. Often it will be arbitrary and expressed in mandates from above; often it will be "snoopervision" rather than supervision; often it will be unfriendly and destructive rather than friendly and constructive. Generally, though, in spite of deficiencies, the wide-awake and sympathetic teacher will be able to profit much from it; this is especially true of the young, the inadequately prepared, and the inexperienced teacher.

Rating by school officials. The teacher cannot expect to escape being rated and having his services evaluated. Whether he likes it or not, he is constantly being rated and evaluated by his pupils, patrons, school officials, and the general public. In the estimation of the members of these

groups he is an excellent, an inferior, or a mediocre teacher. Of course, these ratings and evaluations are subjective and are therefore not likely to possess high validity. Nevertheless, they *are* ratings and evaluations, and accurate or inaccurate, they are being used largely to determine the teacher's salary and promotion, and his retention or dismissal.

During recent years an attempt has been made by members of the teaching profession to develop more objective methods of measuring educational efficiency to supplant the general-impression and subjective method just described. Numerous score cards and rating scales have been formulated, and ratings have been given according to the progress made by the teacher's pupils. Although none of these methods of rating has reached the stage of perfection, teachers can nevertheless profit much from them. They can especially profit when the ratings are made by sympathetic and intelligent administrative and supervisory officers. Prospective teachers should know that only a few school administrators and supervisors are "Simon Legrees."

Ratings have the advantage of pointing out to the teacher both his merits and his shortcomings. They should, therefore, lead to the eradication or the amelioration of the shortcomings and the retention of the merits. The teacher cannot completely see his merits or his shortcomings, but must have someone apprise him of them. Few persons have a highly developed power of self-appraisal.

Introspection and self-measurement. Difficult though the role is, the school employee should try to be his own most severe critic. He should examine himself from time to time to ascertain any shortcomings in order that he may correct them. This introspection should continue throughout life, but the process will be most valuable when the employee is young; it will be most valuable at that time because shortcomings are more easily corrected in the plastic age of youth, and the handicap which the shortcomings entail will be early eliminated and not be permitted to become a lifetime incubus. Of course, such introspection should not be carried so far as to cause the employee to become an extreme

ntrovert or to lose confidence in himself; the employee should remember that he has merits as well as shortcomings.

In self-measurement the employee may use any or all of the measuring instruments and devices which superintendents, principals, and other school officials are accustomed to use in measuring him and his work, or he may devise his own rating instruments or criteria. Indeed, authorities are agreed that most of the objections to rating by school officials can be obviated through the practice of the employee rating himself.

School visitation. In educational practice the factor of imitation has always been very potent. School employees secure much of their methods from observing other employees, although many of them unfortunately imitate in a blind and aimless manner without attempting to exercise their critical and constructive faculties on the merit of what they are imitating. Observing something first hand is better than seeing a picture of it, reading about it, or hearing about it. Observing the work of other excellent schools may, therefore, be advantageously utilized by employees who wish to keep abreast of the profession. Such schools may be within or without the local system. Many schools and school systems consider school visitation to be so beneficial that they set aside a certain day or days each year for the purpose of permitting employees to visit other schools and school systems. In many school systems employees are paid their regular salaries for the time spent in this visitation.

When visitation is made, it should be made to the *best* schools or school systems available. It is more beneficial to observe a model or an ideal than merely a sample or a mediocre practice. Before planning a school visit, the employee should make inquiry from his principal, superintendent, supervisor, fellow teachers, and other competent persons about the best schools to visit; usually, too, he should secure the approval of his administrative and supervisory officials regarding the schools which he desires to visit, and he should especially secure this approval when he is paid for the time spent in the visitation.

In many school systems, demonstration and observation lessons in the various subjects of instruction are arranged. For example, a certain school arranges a demonstration and observation lesson in sixth-grade geography, to which the sixth-grade teachers of geography of the whole school system are invited. These lessons are usually conducted on Saturday morning or during the late afternoon of a school day in order that teachers will not have to dismiss their classes in order to attend them.

Participation in school administration. The tendency in school administration is toward greater democracy between officials and employees; there is more sharing of views and a greater willingness on the part of all to sacrifice for the common good. Superintendents, principals, and other school officials are more and more calling upon teachers and the other employees for suggestions regarding, and assistance in, the administration of the school or school system. They are more and more assigning various administrative duties to the employees; these duties are exercised by the employees as individuals or as members of committees such as those on the curriculum, student welfare, employee welfare, community relations, school supplies, and textbooks.

This tendency toward democracy in school administration is commendable for two reasons. In the first place, it energizes and makes school employees more cooperative, because employees like to know that they are a vital, recognized, and respected part of the school organization and not merely neglected cogs in it. School employees like to know that they have a part in the thinking and in the planning for the schools. In the second place, democracy in school administration is helpful to the school or school system. Superintendents, principals, and other school officials cannot be omnipotent; they need the criticisms and the suggestions of their co-workers. These co-workers will often be able to detect a flaw in the thinking and the planning of school officials, which if not corrected is likely to harm not only the schools but the school officials. Loyalty of a school employee to his administrative and supervisory superiors does not demand that the employee be an eternal "yes-

man"; it requires that he be a "no-man" when such a position would prevent his superiors from making a mistake. It must be sorrowfully remarked, however, that many school officials insist upon all employees always being "yes-men."

School employees should be looking constantly for ways and means not only of improving their own work but for improving the work of the whole school or school system. Practically all principals, superintendents, supervisors, and other administrative and supervisory officers will be glad to have these suggestions, especially if they are made in a spirit of helpfulness and cooperation and not in the spirit of carping criticism. Unfortunately, however, there will probably always be a few administrative and supervisory officers who regard themselves as educational Solomons, and who believe that they do not need the suggestions or criticisms of anyone. If the employee is so unlucky as to have an administrative or supervisory officer of that sort, it will, of course, be difficult, if not impossible, to make suggestions or criticisms. In such instances suggestions need not be proffered; if given sufficient "rope," autocratic officials will soon "hang themselves." Moreover, excellent school employees are not bound to the galleys of one position; they need not work for autocrats, because they can go to other and more democratic and better school systems.

Institutes and other types of meetings. Institutes, conventions, group conferences, and similar types of meetings have been among the most potent agencies for the preparing of school employees in service. Although these agencies do not always realize their potentialities, and although they are frequently criticized as being boresome by employees, it cannot be gainsaid that when employees meet together to discuss educational theories, problems, and practices, or to hear lectures on educational topics, they are benefited. It is widely believed that the monthly institutes which school systems of the State of Indiana have held for many years have been largely responsible for making the Hoosier schoolmaster so well known for his quality and his ubiquity.

One important professional obligation of the school employee will have been met when he has become a member of

his local and his state education associations, and of the National Education Association. The employee should have membership in these organizations not only because he will receive large benefit from them, but will be lending his aid toward promoting the excellent work which these organizations are doing to advance the welfare of the profession, and the cause of education. When the small membership fee is considered, it is difficult to understand why a larger percentage of the educational employees of the United States do not have membership in their state education association and in the National Education Association. Membership in the National Education Association is only two dollars a year, and the *Journal of the National Education Association* which comes monthly to every member of the National Education Association is in itself worth much more than the annual fee; this splendid magazine is only one of the many advantages which membership in this association brings.

It is an unfortunate commentary that only approximately one fourth of the educational employees of the nation are members of the National Education Association which is the foremost educational organization in the world. When this membership is compared with the membership which other professional groups have in their national organizations, our chagrin is even greater. Approximately two thirds of the physicians are members of the American Medical Association, and about two thirds of the dentists are members of the American Dental Association.

Enrollments in the state education associations are much more numerous than in the National Education Association. The state education associations report a membership which is approximately four fifths of all the educational employees of the nation. Each of the state associations gives a year's subscription to its magazine with each annual enrollment; as a rule, the annual enrollment fee does not exceed one or two dollars. Each association has an annual convention, or district conventions in various parts of the state, or both. These conventions are held for the improvement of school employees and to advance the welfare of the profession and the cause of education. All of the state associations

maintain a headquarters, usually in the capital city of the state; most of them employ a full-time secretary, and many of them employ other personnel such as research directors, public-relations agents, and teacher appointment officers. These employees are usually permanent, and together with the officers of the association, which are usually elected annually, they spend their time promoting the interests of the profession and the cause of education.

By far the more frequent of employees' meetings are those which are held by the local school or school system. In practically all school systems, these are held regularly, for example, weekly, bi-weekly, monthly, or at another regular interval. In other school systems, the meetings are held only occasionally, usually upon the call of the principal or the superintendent. In some instances, the meetings are held for all members of the educational staff of the school system; that is, they are general meetings. In other instances, particularly in the large school systems, the employees meet in smaller groups, these groups being determined by the type of work which the employees are doing.

Local meetings have two purposes: first, to assist in the routine administration of the school; and second, to give professional preparation to the employees. While meetings for the first purpose are occasionally necessary, meetings for the second purpose are much more important. The more progressive principals and superintendents frown upon the "bulletin-board" type of employees' meeting which is so often represented under the first purpose. They, moreover, frown upon meetings of the grumbling or grievance type. More and more they are making their announcements, not through meetings, but through typewritten and mimeographed notices, which are handed to the employees or posted on the bulletin board. They are reserving meetings for discussion of live educational problems—discussion which is calculated to increase the efficiency of the employees and of the local school or school system. They are discussing such problems as the following: a guidance program for the local schools, teacher's marks, the curriculum, extraclassroom activities, the selection of textbooks, the improvement

of school attendance, ways and means of reducing pupil failure, ways and means of reducing elimination, and ways and means of meeting individual differences among pupils. At these meetings, also, demonstration lessons in the teaching of a certain subject or subjects are frequently conducted by a teacher and a regular class of pupils.

Research. Although it is not recommended that the school employee turn his classroom, shop, laboratory, or office into an experimental laboratory to investigate all sorts of theories and "isms," it is recommended that he always keep an open mind toward plausible educational theories and practices, and occasionally do some experimentation or investigation on practical school problems. This interest in research will have a twofold benefit. In the first place, it will benefit the employee by keeping him constantly growing. Nothing is so fatal to the employee as for him to secure the impression that there are no unsolved problems in education or that he already knows everything about education. In the second place, an interest in the results of research and an occasional attempt to do research will be of value to education by adding something to the total of human knowledge regarding education. Few theories and practices of education have been scientifically tested and evaluated, and there are few theories and practices concerning which anyone can be sure. If employees cannot answer some of the questions or solve some of the problems, they can at least contribute much information on them which eventually may lead to a solution.

The classroom teacher has one of the best opportunities of any member of the profession to conduct research, especially on problems of teaching method and learning. He has the pupils in an environment which is normal—a condition that does not obtain even in the best experimental laboratories of the colleges or universities. In many respects the teacher is in a better situation to conduct research than the professor in the college or the university.

Summer schools and extension courses. One of the most significant educational developments during recent years is the large growth of summer schools for college and uni-

versity students. The growth of these schools has been caused primarily by the increased enrollments of school employees. Approximately two hundred and fifty thousand students are enrolled each summer in education courses in the teacher-preparing institutions of the United States, and most of these students are experienced teachers who choose to spend their so-called "vacations" in preparing themselves better for their work. Statistics on enrollments in extension and correspondence courses are not available, but observation shows that such courses are popular with school employees.

This large attendance at summer schools and in extension and correspondence courses speaks well for the desire of the school employees of the United States to improve their qualifications. Represented in this huge army of students are persons who are trying to bring their preparation up to standard, and students who are working beyond standards which are normally set for members of the profession. Large numbers of members of the profession are studying for graduate degrees, because more and more a graduate degree or the equivalent is the immediate goal toward which school employees are striving.

It would be possible, of course, for the school employee to pursue summer courses, correspondence courses, and extension courses to the detriment of his health, or to the injury of his vocational efficiency. During the school year, extension courses and correspondence courses are no doubt occasionally pursued on Saturdays and during evenings when the employee should be spending that time in resting, in recreation, or in preparing to meet his classes or to do his other work the next day or the next week.

Many school systems, particularly the larger ones, encourage summer-school study by giving a financial reward for it. This reward is usually given on the basis of the number of credits earned, and there is unfortunately no attempt to ascertain whether the credits actually contribute to vocational efficiency. Many school systems give a bonus of, say, $50, $75, or $100 for educational employees who earn a given number of credits at summer school. In

other school systems, employees who are enrolled in summer school are given permanent salary increases. Some school systems also give a financial reward to employees who take extension courses or correspondence courses during the school year; the amount of financial reward is usually determined by the number of credits secured by such study.

Exchange teaching. A few school systems permit their teachers, under the rules and regulations of the board of education, to exchange positions with teachers in other school systems for a given period of time, usually a year. For many years the practice of exchanging teachers has been fairly common in the colleges and the universities, and is beginning to appear in the elementary and the secondary schools. It is a practice which should be encouraged, because the experience is often a stimulus to the teacher, particularly to one who has been in the same position for several years. Such a teacher can hardly fail to learn much which he could use in improving his own teaching and in improving the local school system.

Travel. In the process of learning there is no full substitute for seeing a thing with one's own eyes. Travel gives the individual that opportunity. By means of the automobile, the railroad, the steamship, and the airplane, school employees are traveling more and more, and are becoming acquainted with geography, history, and other aspects of civilization much more completely than their predecessors could have ever dreamed. Their instruction can hardly fail to be enriched and vitalized from this experience.

Participation in community life. Through the proper type and the proper amount of participation in churches, clubs, parent-teacher associations, and other activities of community life, the school employee may learn much which will assist him in developing the proper emotional tone and life perspective which are so essential. Such participation should enable the employee to make another contribution to community welfare and progress. The employee should not live in a cloister; he should get acquainted with people. To know his fellow employees is necessary, but his social and professional contacts should not be limited to school

employees; he needs to "rub elbows" with members of other community groups.

It would be possible for the school employee, of course, to spend too much time in participating in community life. The teacher should never carry such participation so far as to prevent him from spending an ample amount of time in preparing for his classes, nor should he permit it to absorb energy and enthusiasm requisite for meeting his classes.

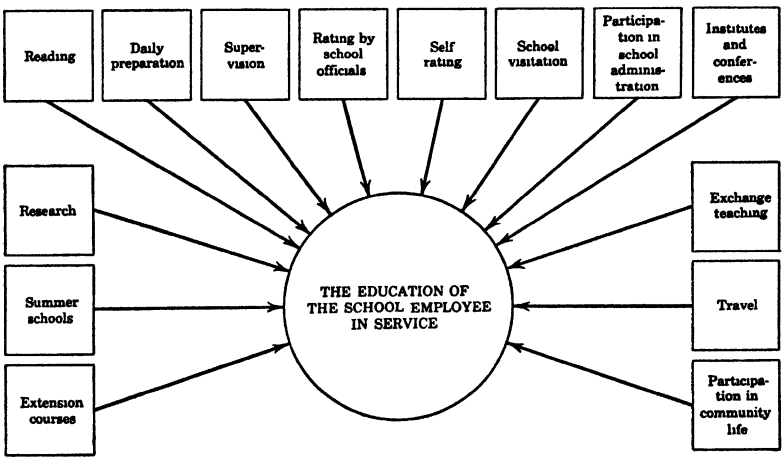

FIG. 65. The chief agencies contributing to the in-service education of the school employee.

The first obligation of the teacher is to his pupils; his obligation to participate in community life is secondary. Not even so worthy an institution as the church should be permitted by the teacher to take energy and time which may be needed by his pupils. If the teaching of a Sunday-school class, for example, would keep the teacher from doing his best work with his regular school pupils, he should not obligate himself to teach a Sunday-school class.

Miscellaneous agencies. It has already been remarked that the agencies which the school employee may use in trying to keep abreast of his profession are legion; manifestly every new experience is educational. Within the limits set for this chapter, it has been possible to discuss here only a few of the more important and readily available of

those agencies. It has not been possible to discuss such important intellectualizing agencies as the radio, public lectures, and the theater. It is obvious, however, that these agencies are very potent, and they are available to every school employee who cares to make use of them.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What percentage of your experiences and ideas do you estimate that you have secured from the institutional school, and what percentage from the school of experience?

2. Do you believe the schools are giving pupils enough preparation for continuing their education after they have left school? Discuss. Briefly outline a school program which you believe would give that preparation.

3. In view of the teacher's association with the immature minds of his pupils, is there danger of the teacher's mind retrogressing? If there is such a danger, how may it be guarded against? Discuss.

4. Account for the fact that some of the best teachers have had little college preparation. Would such preparation have made them even better teachers? Discuss.

5. It has been charged that most school employees reach their maximum efficiency within a few years, say, six to eight years. Do you believe this is true? Is it easier for the school employee to get into a rut than the workers in other vocations? Explain.

6. Discuss the importance of introspection, self-criticism, and self-measurement in improving personal efficiency. Discuss also the importance of having the frank criticism of a good friend in correcting one's shortcomings.

7. As a teacher, assume that you have $150 to spend each year in self-improvement. Make a budget for this expenditure.

8. Do you believe that the dismissing of school for teachers' meetings or for visiting days for teachers is justifiable? Discuss. Should teachers be paid their regular salaries for such time? Explain. Should school officials indicate the schools which teachers shall visit on visiting days? Why or why not?

9. How do you explain the fact that so small a percentage of the teachers are members of the National Education Association? Is this small percentage a mark against the profession?

10. In many schools and school systems, daily lesson plans are required of teachers. Do you regard such plans as contributing to teacher improvement? Why or why not? How much time do you believe the teacher should spend in preparing to meet his classes the next day? Discuss.

11. Make a list of what you consider to be the ten best magazines

for elementary-school teachers. Do the same for secondary-school teachers. Also make a list of the ten best general magazines from which teachers would profit greatly by reading.

12. It has often been charged that research and literary work cause the teacher to neglect his teaching duties and make him a poorer teacher. Do you agree with such a point of view? Explain.

13. Teachers have been criticized for talking "shop" too much outside school hours. Do you believe that this is a just criticism? Discuss.

14. Has it been your observation that school employees are "thin-skinned" and resent or are "crushed" by criticism of their work? Discuss.

15. Would you favor a state law which required every school employee to attend summer school from time to time? Why or why not? Should employees be given extra pay for such attendance? Explain. Should school officials be permitted to choose the college or the university which the employee shall attend? Why or why not?

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Chapter XX

THE SCHOOL AND PUBLIC RELATIONS

Public-school relations has for its purpose the keeping of the public informed regarding the aims, progress, plans, and needs of the school. When the public possesses such information, it is more competent and more willing to cooperate with the school. Moreover, when the school assumes the responsibility of providing the information, it inevitably becomes better acquainted with the community. Since school employees are expected to do all that they can to maintain and to improve the public relations of their profession and their school, an introductory discussion of their public-relations responsibilities is here included.

Although the term *public-school relations* is often used interchangeably with the term *school publicity,* the former is a more appropriate term to use. In the first place, public-school relations has a broader and more accurate connotation because a large portion of the work of public-school relations falls outside the realm of school publicity. In the second place, the term is more appropriate, because in many quarters the term, *school publicity,* has acquired an unsavory connotation. To many people, *publicity* implies selfishness, a cover-up policy, propaganda, press-agentry, or always-putting-the-best-foot-forward irrespective of merit, truth, or ethics.

IMPORTANCE OF DESIRABLE PUBLIC-SCHOOL RELATIONSHIPS

Many school employees neglect to perform their public-relations functions because they are not aware of their importance. Many others deem that what the school does is none of the business of the public. The latter employees

act as if they *owned* the schools. Such an attitude occasionally resembles the public-be-damned attitude, but more often it may be characterized as the public-be-shunned attitude. In the following paragraphs the importance of the school promoting intelligent and harmonious relationships with the home and all other parts of the community will be discussed.

Ownership of the schools. The foundation of any worthwhile public-relations program consists in providing accurate and complete information concerning the school. In providing this information school employees might profitably take some lesson from the practice of private businesses in providing information to their stockholders, their employees, and the public. Every well-managed private business is providing this information largely through advertising, but other means are not being neglected. Companies which are owned by stockholders, as most companies are, are taking steps toward keeping the stockholders informed regarding the earnings and the financial condition of the business; they are giving this information through periodic reports, because they realize that companies which do not make periodic reports of their earnings and their financial condition are likely to be regarded with suspicion by stockholders.

In school affairs all the people are the stockholders, and they have the same right to have accurate, complete, and continuous information regarding the aims, progress, plans, and needs of the school as do the stockholders of private businesses. The welfare and progress of the school are determined largely by how the people regard the school. How the people regard the school is determined largely by what they know about it.

The schools were established by the people, have always been financed by the people, and therefore belong to the people. They are regarded by the people as their most precious public possession—a possession concerning which they desire continuous information. In consequence, it is more than an opportunity which school employees have of keeping the people informed about their most precious possession; it is their *duty* to provide this information. To fail

to provide it becomes almost a species of unethical practice on the part of school employees.

Pupil progress. Since the school exists for the pupils, the test of its efficiency is the extent to which the pupils attain their educational potentialities. To have the most efficient school, there must be cooperation between the school and all community groups. In particular, there must be cooperation between the home and the school. The home should be made to know that the school is working assiduously to advance the welfare of the pupils; it should not be permitted to believe that school employees are demons. Likewise, school employees should keep in mind always the point of view of the home and should realize that children are the most precious possession of the home. The basis of such cooperation is sympathy with each other's point of view. And the basis of sympathy is information.

Support of the schools. Expenditures for schools have increased by leaps and bounds. They have increased much more rapidly than school enrollment and the wealth and income of the people. Since public information regarding the schools has not kept pace with school expenditures, a large percentage of the public is disgruntled over these expenditures. Many critics of the schools have affirmed that school employees have engaged in an orgy of expenditure and that there is danger of public bankruptcy unless a halt is called. If school employees had studiously taken the public into their confidence and had informed it regarding such matters as the importance of education and how the school money was being spent, there would not have been so much adverse criticism of expenditures.

For the public's moral and financial support of the schools, a public-relations program is necessary at all times. Such a program is necessary in prosperous times as well as in times of adversity. It is especially necessary in times of financial stress or other difficulty. Because of the growing difficulty of securing money for the schools, it will likely be more necessary in the future than it has been in the past.

To summarize, it may be said that the public desires to be informed about the school, and that it is entitled to be

informed. Furthermore, the public *will* be informed in some manner. School employees, therefore, must choose between whether they will systematically provide such information, or whether they will permit the public to secure the information through hearsay, rumor, or other unreliable sources. School employees should not forget that they serve the public as well as the pupils.

GROWING DIFFICULTIES IN PROVIDING SCHOOL INFORMATION

At the same time that the task of providing school information has been becoming more important, it has also been growing more difficult. The reasons for this increasing difficulty are not far to seek.

Increasing size and complexity of education. Education is not only the largest public business, but it is also one of the most complex businesses—public or private, and it is constantly growing larger and more complex. The growing size of education is shown by statistics which may be readily secured from any local, state, or federal school report. Regarding the complexity of education, it may be stated that, contrary to common belief, education is an exceedingly technical and complex enterprise. Education is concerned with the human mind—at once the most baffling and the most precious mechanism in the world. Persons who have studied the educative process over a period of many years readily admit that the greater their study, the more baffled they become.

In the early days making provision for schooling was fairly easy. Schooling then was provided in the "little red schoolhouse" having one teacher, a few pupils, and a meager curriculum consisting in many instances of only the "three R's." It is a far cry from those simple provisions to the palatial school buildings of today with their hundreds of teachers, their thousands of pupils, and their curricula of dozens of subjects. This development has added numerous tasks to the work day of school employees and has made it more difficult for the public to keep informed

about the school. In brief, there is much more about the school of modern times to give information concerning, and to secure information concerning, than ever before, and as the work of the school grows in size and in complexity, this difficulty increases.

Increasing competition with other interests. At the same time that education has grown in size and in complexity, other phases of life have broadened, intensified, and become more complex. Mr. Average Citizen of today has infinitely more interests than his parents and grandparents had. This is the era of the automobile and the airplane, not the oxcart and the horse and buggy. This is the day of hundreds of activities which were unknown only a few years ago. The individual must keep informed on each of the activities if he is to keep abreast of the world of affairs.

School employees should realize that school information competes with the many other types of activities and information, and they must take steps to see that it receives the proper share of the time of the individual. They must keep in mind that by far the major portion of the waking hours of the average person must be used in providing for food, clothing, shelter, and recreation, and in meeting other responsibilities. They must remember that only a small percentage of those waking hours can be spent by the individual in keeping himself informed and that school information must compete with information on economics, inventions, science, sports, amusements, religion, international relations, and myriad other topics.

STANDARDS FOR SCHOOL INFORMATION

Truthful. The first criterion which information concerning the school should meet is truthfulness. Untruthful information is worse than no information, because it is almost certain to lessen the confidence of the people in their schools and in school employees. If the people are once given untruthful information, there is danger that they will thereafter be skeptical of the veracity of persons who

were responsible for disseminating such information. The people do not like to be "fooled."

The truth, though, does not need to be shouted from the housetops. Some types of information may be ethically withheld. In deciding whether to release certain information concerning the school, the welfare of the pupils should be the criterion. If presenting the information would injure the welfare of any pupil or other individual and would serve no useful public purpose, it should not be presented.

There are several types of information pertaining to pupil and employee personnel which should not be disseminated. Among these confidential types of information are the following: information which school employees have secured concerning individual pupils and their homes, the marks of individual teachers on examinations, and the suspension or expulsion of individual pupils. The dissemination of such information would not serve any public purpose except, perhaps, to satisfy idle curiosity; moreover, its dissemination might embarrass persons unnecessarily. The policy of determining what information to present and what not to present might well be patterned after the motto of an eminent newspaper, namely, *"All the news that is fit to print."*

Continuous. School information consists of two kinds: (1) continuous, and (2) spasmodic. The latter kind is usually provided in publicity campaigns when the schools are making a request for something. Although publicity campaigns are occasionally necessary for the adoption of a new tax rate, a bond issue, or for some other purpose, the emphasis should be on continuous information. If the people are kept in ignorance of their schools until something is wanted from them, they are likely to be suspicious not only of any request which is made but of the persons who make the request. On the other hand, if the people have been taken into the confidence of school employees and have been provided with continuous information concerning the schools, they are likely to support the school during foul as well as fair weather.

In performing their public-relations function, school em-

ployees might well take a lesson from the astute candidate for public office. Such a candidate is likely to be campaigning throughout the 365 days of the year, whereas his less discerning opponent is likely to be ignoring the electorate until a few days or weeks before the election. The latter type of candidate is more likely to have something done *to* him rather than *for* him.

Humanized. School information should be presented in such manner that all community groups can understand it and would be interested in it. School information, in short, should be humanized. With the proper attention given to its presentation, even somewhat technical information can be presented in such manner that it will meet this criterion.

In presenting information, school employees should keep in mind the many interests, the various culture patterns, and the different levels of education which are found among the people. In an attempt to meet various culture patterns many schools of the large cities send out notices and reports written in different languages. There is always danger that information which would be interesting to and understood by a given group would not be interesting to and understood by other groups.

Proper amount and desirable balance. Although most schools and school systems fail to provide the people with ample information concerning their activities, some school employees spend too much time and energy in providing it. The latter sort of school employees would be more highly regarded by the people if they spent more of their time and energy in performance rather than in publicizing what they have done, are doing, or are planning to do. School information should never appear to be advertising or press-agenting.

In addition to possessing the proper quantity, school information should be balanced, that is, no department or phase of the work of the school should receive more information than that to which it is entitled, and no department or phase of the work of the school should be slighted. In a study made by Belmont M. Farley, it was found that in their public-relations programs school employees have

tended to emphasize types of information in which the people are only secondarily interested, and to neglect providing them with information in which they are primarily interested. Farley found that the newspapers gave extracurricular activities 47.1 per cent of the space devoted to school information and that this item ranked first in amount of space; on the contrary, the parents ranked this item at the bottom in their desires for information.[1]

PUBLIC-SCHOOL RELATIONS AGENTS AND AGENCIES

Public-school relations agents are the persons who are responsible for planning and for carrying out the program of public-school relations. Among such agents are the members of the board of education, the superintendent of schools and his assistants, the principals, the teachers, and the janitors. The persons who have just been mentioned may be classified as *active* agents in the public-school relations program. In addition to these active agents, there are several more or less *passive* agents; among these passive agents are the alumni organizations, mothers' clubs, and parent-teacher associations. Sometimes, though, these passive agents become very active.

Public-school relations agencies are the means or instruments of public-school relations agents in carrying out the public-school relations program. Among the more widely used of these agencies are the following: student newspapers and magazines, community newspapers, school house organs (that is, employees' magazines), pupils' and teachers' handbooks, school bulletins, letters to pupils and parents, school catalogues, courses of study, school exhibits, the cinema, the school plant, radio talks, talks before various groups, and social contacts.

We shall have to be content to discuss the place of a few of the more important agents and agencies. Since teachers constitute by far the largest group of school employees, they will be emphasized. Teachers have the pupils

[1] B. M. Farley, *What to Tell the People about the Public Schools,* Columbia University, 1929, pp. 35, 49.

under their immediate jurisdiction, and the pupils are the connecting link between the school and the home and the community.

Work of the school. The first requisite for a desirable public-relations program is an efficient school, and the teacher makes the school largely what it is. If the school is efficient, it will receive desirable word-of-mouth publicity which is the most valuable type of publicity to secure. On the other hand, if the work of the school is inefficient, all of the publicity imaginable cannot make the people believe that it is efficient. To paraphrase an old saying, the people cannot hear what is said about the school, when what the school is constantly dins their ears.

In disseminating information concerning the school, the pupil—at least when taken collectively—is unquestionably the most potent agent. He disseminates such information from the first day of school to the last day. He hears much, sees much, and says much. At the close of the first day of school, when the pupil reaches home, his parents and other members of his family are certain to ask him how he liked his teacher, and how he liked school. Moreover, they will repeat the question numerous times during the school year, and the same question will be asked by other relatives and acquaintances. In answering the question, the pupil will compliment the school, or he will condemn it. Since the school is a large part of his world, the pupil will talk about it even though he has not been questioned. He will say that he likes the school, or that he doesn't like it. Moreover, he will be specific; he will relate what goes on in the classroom, on the playground, and in other school activities and affairs.

Since the pupil is the chief dispenser of word-of-mouth information concerning the school, school employees should not only conduct the best school possible but should attempt to give the pupil appropriate information concerning the aims and progress of the school. The types and amount of information which the school gives the pupils will be determined by the educational level of the pupils. Information might well be presented on such matters as the fol-

lowing: school expenditures, school curriculum, provisions of the compulsory-attendance laws, and rules and regulations pertaining to discipline. If pupils are given such information, they will be more efficient and cooperative in the school, and when they become parents and voters, they are likely to continue to be cooperative.

School visitation. In many schools and school systems, particularly those of the larger cities, parents and school employees do not become acquainted. Thousands of parents never enter the school building. This lack of acquaintance is unfortunate because the school and the home are working for the same aim—namely, the education of the child. This aim can be accomplished only through full cooperation between the home and the school. That cooperation can best be effected when the school and the home are acquainted. There is an old adage which says that "familiarity breeds contempt," but it can be as truly said that lack of acquaintance breeds suspicion if not contempt.

School employees should, therefore, encourage visitation to the school. "The latchstring is always out" should be the announced policy of the school. Because of their vital interest in the school, parents should be especially encouraged to visit the school. If they are invited and know that they are welcome, many parents will visit the school, but there will be a large percentage which cannot or will not visit unless special inducements are made. Many schools and school systems are making special inducements for visitation through such means as the following: special visiting days, night sessions of school, school exhibits, and school programs.

Home visitation. In the early days the practice was for the teacher to visit every home at least once during the school year; in fact, to visit the home was a part of the contract of the teacher, and the teacher did not object to this stipulation because these visits provided him with his living accommodations. In those days the teacher "boarded around," staying at one home a few days, then going to another home. Although the plan of "boarding around" had many disadvantages, it had the advantage of permitting the

members of the home and the school to become acquainted. All parties concerned liked the plan.

In more recent years, contrary to early practice, home visitation by teachers has been little practiced. There would, however, be distinct advantages in such visitation. In fact, many school systems consider such visitation so important that they require teachers to visit, at least once a year, every home represented among their pupils.

In such visitation the aim is not to spy on the home, but merely to become acquainted with the parents and to secure and to give information in order that greater and better service may be given the pupil. Any teacher with intelligence and tact should be able to make such a visit not only enjoyable and profitable to himself, but helpful to the home and the pupil as well.

Parent-teacher association. The parent-teacher association has for its fundamental purpose the bringing of the school and the home into closer acquaintance with the hope that cooperation will be secured. Parent-teacher associations on a national basis date back to the National Congress of Mothers, which was founded in 1897. That name was changed in 1907 to the National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations. The name of the present national organization is the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, and was adopted in 1924. The national organization publishes a monthly magazine entitled, *The National Parent-Teacher Magazine,* and this contains much vital information of interest to both teachers and parents.

Local units of parent-teacher associations now exist in thousands of communities and are found in every state of the United States, and in many foreign countries. Anyone who is interested in schools and the education of children is eligible for membership, although the bulk of the membership is made up of school officials, school employees, and parents of school children. Membership in the organization has increased very rapidly, going from 31,642 in 1912 to approximately 2,000,000 today.

The basic ideals of the organization are altruistic, nonpolitical, nonsectarian, and noncommercial. The aims of the

organization as stated in the National By-Laws, Article II, are as follows:

First, to promote child welfare in home, school, church, and community; to raise the standards of home life; to secure more adequate laws for the care and protection of children.

Second, to bring into closer relation the home and the school, that parents and teachers may cooperate intelligently in the training of the child; and to develop between educators and the general public such united efforts as will secure for every child the highest advantages in physical, mental, moral, and spiritual education.

In addition to making parents and school employees and officials acquainted with one another, and in addition to providing the various members of these groups with vital information and desirable viewpoints, the parent-teacher association can forge ahead and gain other achievements. The following are a few of the achievements which such an organization might have to its credit:

1. Health education may be promoted, particularly in the elementary school. In many schools hot lunches have been sponsored by the association. In many schools, also, the association has promoted campaigns for cleanliness, balanced diets, better teeth, safety, thrift, etc.

2. Many associations have aided the school in securing new equipment, supplies, or other materials, conveniences, and facilities. The associations have sometimes secured the funds for such purposes from entertainments, and other private sources; and at other times, they have stimulated boards of education to provide the funds.

3. When the school system must ask the voters to approve tax levies for the school system, the parent-teacher association or associations can do heroic work. The endorsement of the parent-teacher association of a proposal for school funds or for other school purposes should be secured if at all possible as one of the first, if not the first, acts in a publicity campaign.

Adult-education programs. The largest school development during recent years has been the establishment of adult-education programs. Thousands of schools and school systems now sponsor these programs in the evening for the adults of the community, and in the whole nation millions of adults are enrolled in the programs. In many school systems, the enrollment of adults in the evening-

school program is higher than the enrollment of regular pupils in the day schools. In addition to aiding the adult population to extend its education, these programs enable the school better to acquaint its adult constituency with its purposes and procedures. Schools and school systems which have sponsored excellent programs of adult education have found the voters more willing to grant ample school revenue

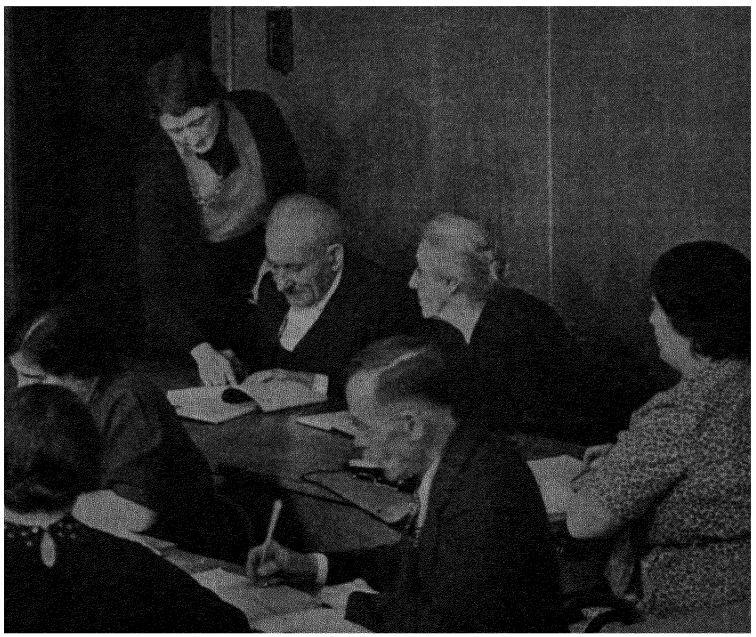

FIG. 66. Learning to read English in a class for foreign-born adults. (Courtesy of the Detroit, Michigan, Public Schools.) Adult classes in practically all of the day-school subjects are now organized in small as well as large school systems.

and to cooperate in other ways. Prospective school employees must prepare themselves to aid, if called upon, in the adult-education program of the school.

School employee participation in community life. Many school employees are dubbed as failures because they do not know how to participate in community life; in fact, this is one of the largest causes of failure. Many fail because they do not participate at all; others fail because they overparticipate; and still others fail because certain phases of

their participation are offensive to the community or a portion of it. The problem, therefore, which comes to every school employee is that of participating in the correct amount and in the proper manner.

More and more, the school employee is expected to participate in the various phases of community life. When in Rome, people are expected to live as Romans. The school employee cannot always live his life as he would like. He must keep in mind that communities have their mores and their idiosyncrasies, and that each community expects at least a certain amount of conformity to its manners and customs; the Romans do not live exactly as the Athenians.

Shall the school employee dance, play cards, or engage in other types of recreation and amusement over which persons and communities differ? His decision on these matters cannot be based entirely upon his own desires; it must take into account also the mores of the community and the welfare of the school. No employee has the right to live his life in such a way that his opportunity to secure the best results with his pupils is injured. If the employee feels that he must have certain forms of recreation or amusement, and the community in which he is working frowns upon those forms of recreation or amusement, he should consider the advisability of transferring to a community which is in agreement with his beliefs. Better still, of course, the employee should know those matters before he accepts employment in what later turns out to be a provincial community.

Overparticipation in the life of the community is as harmful to the teacher's success as underparticipation. The teacher has only a certain amount of time and energy, and the first drain upon that time and energy should be his school work. To permit the work of his pupils to suffer because of outside activities is an unpardonable sin. In fact, such a worthy project as teaching a Sunday-school class should not be undertaken by the teacher if the time and energy devoted to the project resulted in robbing his regular pupils.

Another warning should be mentioned. The teacher

should be tactful and discreet in all his language and actions. If he is untactful or indiscreet, he will injure not only his own prestige, but the prestige of his profession and of his school and school system. If he gossips, does not pay his bills promptly, or in other ways does not live appropriately, he will injure not only himself, but the whole cause of education. In the language of the Code of Ethics of the National Education Association, "His personal conduct should not needlessly offend the accepted pattern of behavior of the community in which he serves."

Student publications. Among the more important types of publicity media of a school are the student publications, such as the daily or weekly paper, the monthly magazine, the annual or yearbook, and the handbook. In addition to their value in mirroring the school's ideals, aspirations, and accomplishments, student publications can be to the teaching of English what the laboratory is to chemistry or physics, or what a farm plot is to agriculture. Still more, these publications may become one of the most effective agencies in developing and sustaining an excellent morale among the student body of the school.

Most of the student publications are found, as would be expected, in the larger high schools. The elementary schools and the smaller high schools obviously find it more difficult to edit, to prepare, and to finance them. Because lithographed or mimeographed editions are cheaper, many of the smaller schools have substituted them for printed editions.

In all types of schools, especially in the smaller ones, the tendency during recent years has been away from the publication of school annuals and magazines and toward the publication of school newspapers which appear more frequently. In rural communities many of the high schools, which formerly published separate annuals, are now cooperating in the publication of a county annual; by this plan the expense for each school is greatly reduced. Other small high schools bind each year the various copies of the school newspaper and make this volume serve as a school annual.

Most of the large high schools, and many of the small

ones, provide each student with a handbook of the school. A handbook serves the purpose of answering questions regarding the curriculums, the requirements, the traditions, the organizations, and other features of the school. It should be one of the first student publications, because it is a great saver of time both for the students and for the faculty.

In practically all schools the supervision of the student publications is delegated to one or more of the teachers of the school. Because of their preparation in English composition, teachers of English and of journalism are usually delegated the responsibility. Teachers who are qualified to supervise this work are more likely to secure positions. They can prepare for the work through such means as taking courses in journalism, serving on the editorial boards of college publications, and reading about student publications.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What is social intelligence? Discuss its importance to the school employee.
2. Compare the public-relations problem of the school employee in the small community with that in the large community. Which is more difficult?
3. Discuss the relative importance of each of the following groups as public-relations agents of the school: teachers, pupils, and parents.
4. Outline your concept of a reasonable social and recreational program for the school employee.
5. What is meant by *community personality?* Are communities noted primarily for their similarities or their dissimilarities? Explain.
6. Should the school employee contribute to community projects such as the Red Cross, community chest, the Y.M.C.A., the Salvation Army, and the churches? Explain.
7. Should the school employee try to "educate" the community to his point of view? Explain. To what extent, if any, is the school employee justified in being a propagandist? Discuss. Is he ever justified in being a propagandist with his pupils? Is propaganda always bad? Discuss.
8. Discuss the importance of the school employees' dress in public-school relations. Discuss also the importance of his personal habits. Should the school employee smoke? Why or why not?

9. Should the school employee teach a Sunday-school class, be a candidate for public office, join the W.C.T.U., play Sunday baseball, or dance? Discuss.

10. What are some ways in which a parent-teacher association may assist the school?

11. Should the school employee live in the community in which he works? Explain. Should he do his shopping in that community?

12. Do you believe pupils know enough about the school as an institution? Explain. By what means could they be made better informed?

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Chapter XXI

THE ETHICS OF TEACHERS AND OF COLLEGE STUDENTS

ETHICS AND ETHICAL CONDUCT

Much as he might wish that privilege, no person can live his life as he pleases. Whether he likes it or not, everyone is an inescapable member of society and must keep in mind the welfare of society as well as his individual welfare. "Live and let live" must be his motto. The rule of the tooth and the claw is inevitable with the beasts of the jungle, but will not suffice to govern the lives of human beings in a civilized society. A society in which each person did as he pleased, or in which each group did as it pleased, would soon fall into anarchy and could not long survive.

Even primitive man saw the need for rules to govern the more friction-causing relations among the members of his group and among his group and other groups. He soon learned that the ignorant members of the group must be educated and that the selfish members must be throttled in order to make more certain the happiness and safety of all the group, and he soon discovered that the protection of his group against other groups could be best found in group solidarity. He developed many primitive ethics. For example, the punishment which his code of justice decreed for evil doers was "an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth." And in dealing with other groups his guiding ethic was: "Thou shalt not betray one of thine own to the forces of that other world." His rules, laws, and ethics were brutally realistic; they had not yet been tempered with the spirit of the Golden Rule and the other lofty principles of Christianity; according to modern standards, they were paganistic.

As he falteringly marched through the dark and devious corridors of time toward the flickering light of civilization, man progressively discovered that he could not have safety and happiness without sweat and tears and without altruistic cooperation with his group and with other groups. His practices and his laws came more and more to have an ethical basis, and constantly the plane of this basis has been raised according to the principles of Christianity. That plane, of course, needs to be raised much further under the tutelage of the home, the school, the church, and the other educational agencies of society. Too many differences between individuals, between capital and labor, between nations, and between other groups are still being resolved by jungle and gangster methods. Members of the teaching profession cannot make their greatest contribution to raising the ethical plane of human relations unless their own ethics are on a high plane. As the old adage says, the physician must first cure himself before pretending to cure others; he must be a good example.

If teachers are not well qualified for their work or are not actuated by lofty ideals, society is bound to suffer. To make more realistic the service which they must render to society, teachers have formulated codes of ethics to guide them into paths of loyal cooperation with others where abnegation of self becomes the controlling factor. It is the chief purpose of this chapter to give prospective teachers a first acquaintance with codes of ethics of their profession, especially with the code of the National Education Association. Another purpose is to make college students more conscious of their responsibility for following ethical principles and to present a code of ethics for them.

Definition of ethics. The term *ethics* is derived from the Greek word *ethos* meaning "the character, sentiment, or disposition of a community or people." According to the original meaning of the term, ethical conduct was *customary* conduct. During modern times, though, ethics has come to comprehend more than the customary, that is, more than what is and what has been. It has come to comprehend the *ideal,* or what ought to be. It now signifies moral duty. It

is the highest type of law and should be the basis of all individual and group conduct. Therefore, to define *ethics* as "the science of moral duty" would be in conformity with enlightened theory today.

Criteria of ethical conduct. The preceding paragraph has defined ethics as "the science of moral duty." What constitutes moral duty? In other words, what is ethical conduct, and what is unethical conduct? Conduct is ethical if it makes for normal human relations, regards the rights of other persons, and advances the well-being of society. Conversely, conduct which begets friction and social loss is unethical. It is the function of a code of ethics, taking the aforementioned criteria as a guide, to recommend practices which are ethical and to condemn practices which result in injury to society.

Whether an act is ethical or unethical must be determined, therefore, by the effect which the act has upon the well-being of society. Manifestly the setting of the act has much to do with determining whether the act is ethical or unethical. An act which is ethical under one set of conditions may not be ethical under slightly different conditions. Conversely, an act which is unethical under one set of conditions may be ethical under slightly different conditions. This is only a way of saying that the consequences of an act, that is, the effect upon society, determine the moral quality of behavior. Valuable codes of ethics can, therefore, be written only by critical students of experience; they cannot be produced by "armchair" philosophers who ignore experience.

DEFINITION AND PURPOSES OF CODES OF ETHICS

Definition. A code of ethics is simply a list of some of the more important "thou shall's" and "thou shall not's" for the members of a particular vocation, organization, or other group. It points out examples of ethical and of unethical practice. It states the standard of conduct, for which the group as a whole stands. Although it presents rules or principles of conduct, it is not designed to supplant the deca-

logue, nor to take the place of statutory law; neither is it designed to cover every practice of the members of the group. There are, of course, thousands of practices for any group, and no usable code of ethics could mention all of the practices.

Purposes. A code of ethics serves two purposes. In the first place, it informs the members of the group regarding some of the more common unethical practices which should be avoided, and regarding ethical practices which should be followed. In the teaching profession, for example, the need for serving this purpose becomes more clear when it is realized that many members of the profession are guilty of unprofessional practices because they are not informed on what constitutes ethical and unethical practice. What has just been said applies particularly to beginning teachers. These neophytes often engage in practices which they would not follow if they were informed. They often apply for positions, for instance, without first ascertaining whether the positions are vacant; they are not aware that to engage in such practice might not only undermine a fellow member of the profession but injure the prestige of the profession.

In the second place, a code of ethics serves to warn any venal members of the group who, knowing the difference between ethical and unethical practice might yet be inclined to engage in unethical practice, that the whole group frowns upon unethical practices. Every profession has its quota of Judas Iscariots, and the teaching profession is no exception. A code of ethics serves as a silent though potent warning to any traitors of the profession and of society. It deters such adders and asps, although it may not always thwart them. It is a moral law.

It would be possible, of course, for a group to make selfishness rather than altruism the motive of its code. For example, the code might be used as a charter for giving members of the group too many rights; it might be used as an instrument for robbing the public in order that the selfish interests of the members of the group might be advanced. Gangsters often have codes which serve their nefarious purposes the same as righteous groups have codes

which point the way to personal sacrifice and service to society.

The fact that few groups which have adopted codes of ethics have abandoned them would seem to be evidence that such codes have served and are serving useful purposes. Codes of ethics have frequently been amended or reformulated to keep them up to date and otherwise to improve them, but few groups have abandoned them. Moreover, the rapidly developing tendency for various trades, businesses, professions, and other groups to formulate and adopt codes of ethics gives further evidence that such codes are serving a useful purpose.

EVOLUTION OF CODES OF ETHICS IN OTHER GROUPS

The first codes. The germ of modern codes of ethics dates back at least to the fourth century B.C. In that century the ancient physician, Hippocrates, promulgated his famous *Oath*. The influence of this oath is realized when it is known that the Principles of Medical Ethics of the American Medical Association embody the lofty ideals which the oath expressed. Because of its unusual altruism, the ending of the oath is quoted herewith:

> While I continue to keep this oath unviolated, may it be granted to me to enjoy life and the practice of the art, respected by all men in all times! But should I trespass and violate this oath, may the reverse be my lot!

The second profession to adopt a code of ethics was the profession of law. In 1836, David Hoffman, of Baltimore, drew up a set of resolutions which were based on the philosophy of Blackstone, eminent English jurist. The present canons of ethics of the American Bar Association are based largely upon the Hoffman resolutions.

In 1852, the American Pharmaceutical Association formulated its code which, with certain revisions, is still in use. In 1866, the American Veterinary Medical Association adopted a code which, with certain amendments, it still follows.

The period of greatest growth of codes. Following 1866, few groups adopted codes of ethics until the opening of the twentieth century. Whether the relation was casual or fortuitous is not known, but there was a large movement toward the adoption of such codes immediately following World War I. Perhaps it was the soaring altruism following that war which gave the code-of-ethics movement maximum force, or perhaps it was the business depression of 1921–22 which immediately followed the war and which brought world-wide unemployment, wage and price cutting, and unfair business practices, that caused codes of ethics to be developed to control business and professional relations. Both causes in all likelihood played a part. Whatever the cause of the impetus toward the code-of-ethics movement immediately following that war, certain it is that there was an impetus at that time. In 1921, at least seventeen national groups adopted codes; in 1922, at least twenty-six; and in 1923, at least sixty.

Another large impetus was given the code-of-ethics movement by the National Industrial Recovery Act, voted by the United States Congress and signed by President Franklin D. Roosevelt in 1933. This act was called forth by the severe business depression which started in the latter part of 1929. It permitted each industry or business to formulate a code of fair business practice which, when it had secured the approval of the President of the United States, became binding upon all firms or companies doing business in that particular line. The act was declared unconstitutional by the United States Supreme Court in 1935, but during the two years of its life hundreds of industries and businesses adopted codes of business practice designed to stop unfair price and wage cutting, to reduce hours of labor, and to eliminate other examples of unfair competition. Many of these agreements or codes have been continued, despite the adverse decision, through friendly agreement and cooperation among the members of business groups. Of course, such agreements are not supposed to create monopolies or to violate the anti-trust laws of the United States in any manner.

To summarize, hundreds of industries, trades, professions, and other groups are now known to have some sort of creed, rules of action, or code of ethics. In fact, there are few groups, especially of any size and cohesion, which do not have such a document. Many of the groups which do not have such codes are considering the formulation and adoption of them.

EVOLUTION OF TEACHERS' CODES OF ETHICS

State and local codes. Compared with other groups, and particularly with other professions, the teaching profession was tardy in developing codes of ethics. The first codes were developed by state and local education associations. The first state education association to formulate a code for the teachers of the whole state was that of Georgia. On July 14, 1896, the state teachers' association met in annual convention at Cumberland, Georgia, and adopted a code of ethics for the teachers of that state. The preamble of the Georgia code affirmed the purpose of the code to be as follows:

> To assist teachers in settling delicate and difficult questions of professional conduct and propriety, to quicken their sympathies for each other, and for all who are engaged in the work of teaching, to exalt their professional ideals and increase their love for the profession, this code is devised.

California was the second state whose state education association adopted a code of ethics, such action being taken at the annual meeting of the association in December, 1904. Alabama took similar action in 1908, being the third state. Gradually the good leaven spread to other states and local communities, and by 1925, twenty-seven state education associations and many local associations had adopted codes of ethics, and several other states and local communities had appointed committees for the formulation of such codes. An analysis of the various codes shows that there are many matters upon which most of the codes deem it necessary to have pronouncements. The ethical teacher,

according to those pronouncements, will engage in the following practices:

A. Preparation and professional growth:
   1. Keep in mind the necessity for professional growth.
   2. Maintain an open mind toward educational theories and methods of teaching, etc.
   3. Have membership in, and cooperate with, teachers' organizations.

B. Salary and advancement in the profession:
   1. Apply only for vacant positions, and refrain from applying for numerous positions simultaneously.
   2. Refrain from helping to create vacancies.
   3. Avoid creating prejudice against competitors for a position and from the use of other unfair competition.
   4. Refuse the offer of unsavory positions.
   5. Avoid the use of unprofessional influence in securing and keeping a position.
   6. Apply for a position to the proper person, usually the superintendent if there is a superintendent.
   7. Avoid self-advertising except through work well performed.
   8. Help worthy teachers to secure positions and promotions.
   9. Refuse pay for helping teachers to secure positions or promotions.
   10. Give only truthful testimonials.
   11. Avoid the giving or the using of "to-whom-it-may-concern" testimonials.
   12. Insist upon adequate compensation but refuse to limit service because of low compensation.
   13. Refrain from underbidding for positions.
   14. Insist upon equal pay for equal service.

C. Contracts and tenure:
   1. Keep a contract inviolate until released by the second party to it.
   2. Refrain from employment of teachers already under contract.
   3. Give early notice of resignation or of dismissal.
   4. Work for permanent tenure for efficient employees.

D. Relations between teachers and school officials:
   1. Cooperate with administrative officials.
   2. Refrain from "going over the heads" of one's administrative superiors.
   3. Encourage more and better democracy in school administration.
   4. Avoid nepotism and all other practices of taking unfair

5. Refrain from extending special favors to the children of school officials or other forms of pandering.
6. Avoid unjust criticism of predecessors or of associates, but expose corrupt or otherwise unprofessional practice.
7. Refrain from interfering with the work of other teachers in matters such as discipline or marking.
8. Leave ample reports for one's successor.
9. Assist colleagues in every legitimate way.
10. Avoid spite and jealousy, and especially the showing of such before pupils.
11. Refrain from breaking professional confidences.

E. Relations with pupils:
1. Deal with pupils in a spirit of kindness and democracy.
2. Refrain from tutoring one's regular pupils for extra pay. Refuse also any other extra remuneration.
3. Avoid receiving expelled pupils from other schools until all pertinent facts are known.
4. Refrain from imposing one's religious, political, or other private beliefs upon pupils.
5. Protect the rights of pupils against selfish interests.
6. Inculcate in pupils respect for law and order and love for democracy.
7. Avoid embarrassing pupils and parents by the careless using of confidential information concerning them.

F. Relations with parents and the community:
1. Make the acquaintance of parents and take desirable steps to maintain cordial relations with them.
2. Take part in activities for the improvement of the community, but attend to school duties first of all.
3. Avoid participation in community factions and other activities which would harm one's teaching efficiency.

G. Relations with publishing and supply houses, teachers' agencies, and business in general:
1. Refrain from accepting unearned commissions and royalties.
2. Avoid unwarranted soliciting of sample textbooks.
3. Refrain from writing testimonials for salesmen and agents.

H. Miscellaneous duties and obligations:
1. Show by personal conduct that education makes better citizens and neighbors.
2. Encourage the best qualified persons to enter the profession and to remain in it.
3. Avoid disparaging the profession but work for its improvement wherever needed.
4. Be willing to assume the responsibility which goes with position.

Code of the National Education Association. At the Washington, D. C., meeting of the National Education Association in 1924, a report on a code of ethics for teachers was presented to the representative assembly of the National Education Association on behalf of the California State Council of Education. The report memorialized the National Education Association with the following request among others, "To appoint a committee to formulate and adopt an official body of ethical principles." Acting upon the request just stated, the representative assembly adopted a motion "providing for the appointment of a committee to formulate for the National Education Association a code of ethics for teachers." [1] This committee was appointed in November, 1924, and its continuance was authorized by the representative assembly at the 1925, 1926, 1927, and 1928 meetings of the association.

After extensive investigations of the codes of ethics of state and local education associations, and of other professions, and after a questionnaire study of what members of the profession consider to be the more frequent unethical practices, the Committee on Ethics of the National Education Association formulated a Code of Ethics. This code was recommended for adoption to the representative assembly of the National Education Association which met in Atlanta, Georgia, in 1929. It was unanimously adopted by the representative assembly and took effect immediately.

The 1929 code was in effect until 1941 when a slightly revised code was adopted at the Boston meeting of the association. The latter code is still in effect. Although it is not perfect—probably no code could ever be made perfect—it may be regarded as a code worthy of the loyalty of the profession. It should be read critically and constructively by every member of the profession. Equally, each member of the profession should lend his efforts to the improvement of the code where improvement is needed.

Rules of ethics are not as inviolable as the laws of the

[1] May Wade, "Report of Committee on a Code of Professional Ethics for Teachers," *Addresses and Proceedings,* National Education Association, 1924, pp. 285–288.

Medes and the Persians; they always need interpretation according to what is best for society, and sometimes they need to be revised.

CODE OF ETHICS FOR THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

*PREAMBLE

BELIEVING: That true democracy can best be achieved by a process of free public education made available to all the children of all the people;

That the teachers in the United States have a large and inescapable responsibility in fashioning the ideals of children and youth;

That such responsibility requires the services of men and women of high ideals, broad education, and profound human understanding; and, in order that the aims of democratic education may be realized more fully, that the welfare of the teaching profession may be promoted, and;

That teachers may observe proper standards of conduct in their professional relations, the National Education Association of the United States proposes this code of ethics for its members.

The term "teacher" as used in this code shall include all persons directly engaged in educational work, whether in a teaching, an administrative, or a supervisory capacity.

ARTICLE I. RELATIONS TO PUPILS AND THE HOME

Section 1. It is the duty of the teacher to be just, courteous, and professional in all his relations with pupils. He should consider their individual differences, needs, interests, temperaments, aptitudes, and environments.

Section 2. He should refrain from tutoring pupils of his classes for pay, and from referring such pupils to any member of his immediate family for tutoring.

Section 3. The professional relations of a teacher with his pupils demand the same scrupulous care that is required in the confidential relations of one teacher with another. A teacher, therefore, should not disclose any information obtained confidentially from his pupils, unless it is for the best interest of the child and the public.

Section 4. A teacher should seek to establish friendly and intelligent cooperation between home and school, ever keeping in mind the dignity of his profession and the welfare of the pupils. He should do or say nothing that would undermine the confidence and respect of his pupils for their parents. He should inform the pupils and parents re-

garding the importance, purposes, accomplishments, and needs of the schools.

ARTICLE II. RELATIONS TO CIVIC AFFAIRS

Section 1. It is the obligation of every teacher to inculcate in his pupils an appreciation of the principles of democracy. He should direct full and free discussion of appropriate controversial issues with the expectation that comparisons, contrasts, and interpretations will lead to an understanding, appreciation, acceptance, and practice of the principles of democracy. A teacher should refrain from using his classroom privileges and prestige to promote partisan politics, sectarian religious views, or selfish propaganda of any kind.

Section 2. A teacher should recognize and perform all the duties of citizenship. He should subordinate his personal desires to the best interests of the public good. He should be loyal to the school system, the state, and the nation, but should exercise his right to give constructive criticisms.

Section 3. A teacher's life should show that education makes people better citizens and better neighbors. His personal conduct should not needlessly offend the accepted pattern of behavior of the community in which he serves.

ARTICLE III. RELATIONS TO THE PROFESSION

Section 1. Each member of the teaching profession should dignify his calling on all occasions and should uphold the importance of his services to society. On the other hand, he should not indulge in personal exploitation.

Section 2. A teacher should encourage able and sincere individuals to enter the teaching profession and discourage those who plan to use this profession merely as a stepping stone to some other vocation.

Section 3. It is the duty of the teacher to maintain his own efficiency by study, by travel, and by other means which keep him abreast of the trends in education and the world in which he lives.

Section 4. Every teacher should have membership in his local, state, and national professional organizations, and should participate actively and unselfishly in them. Professional growth and personality development are the natural product of such professional activity. Teachers should avoid the promotion of organization rivalry and divisive competition which weaken the cause of education.

Section 5. While not limiting their services by reason of small salary, teachers should insist upon a salary scale commensurate with the social demands laid upon them by society. They should not knowingly underbid a rival or agree to accept a salary lower than that provided by a recognized schedule. They should not apply for positions for the sole purpose of forcing an increase in salary in their present positions; correspondingly, school officials should not refuse to give

deserved salary-increases to efficient employees until offers from other school authorities have forced them so to do.

Section 6. A teacher should not apply for a specific position currently held by another teacher. Unless the rules of a school system otherwise prescribe, he should file his application with the chief executive officer.

Section 7. Since qualification should be the sole determining factor in appointment and promotion, the use of pressure on school officials to secure a position or to obtain other favors is unethical.

Section 8. Testimonials regarding teachers should be truthful and confidential, and should be treated as confidential information by the school authorities receiving them.

Section 9. A contract, once signed, should be faithfully adhered to until it is dissolved by mutual consent. Ample notification should be given both by school officials and teachers in case a change in position is to be made.

Section 10. Democratic procedures should be practiced by members of the teaching profession. Cooperation should be predicated upon the recognition of the worth and the dignity of individual personality. All teachers should observe the professional courtesy of transacting official business with the properly designated authority.

Section 11. School officials should encourage and nurture the professional growth of all teachers by promotion or by other appropriate methods of recognition. School officials who fail to recommend a worthy teacher for a better position outside their school system because they do not desire to lose his services are acting unethically.

Section 12. A teacher should avoid unfavorable criticism of other teachers except that formally presented to a school official for the welfare of the school. It is unethical to fail to report to the duly constituted authority any matters which are detrimental to the welfare of the school.

Section 13. Except when called upon for counsel or other assistance, a teacher should not interfere in any matter between another teacher and a pupil.

Section 14. A teacher should not act as an agent, or accept a commission, royalty, or other compensation, for endorsing books or other school materials in the selection or purchase of which he can exert influence, or concerning which he can exercise the right of decision; nor should he accept a commission or other compensation for helping another teacher to secure a position.

SECURING COOPERATION WITH CODES

Importance of cooperation. It would be of small avail for a group to have even a perfect code of ethics if the

members of the group were unfamiliar with the provisions of the code, or if they were familiar with the provisions and did not abide by them. The group has the obligation of seeing that all of its members become familiar with the provisions of its code of ethics and of securing the cooperation of all of its members in abiding by the provisions set forth in the code. Failure of even a small percentage of the group to know those provisions, and failure to follow them, is likely to bring both the code and the group into considerable disrepute. The group has the responsibility among its members of educating the ignorant and of thwarting the vicious.

What other groups are doing. Other trades, businesses, and professions might profitably take many suggestions from the medical profession in the matter of making their codes of ethics known to all members. For many years the schools or colleges of medicine have followed the practice of teaching "The Principles of Medical Ethics of the American Medical Association" to all neophyte physicians before graduation. Not only is formal instruction in the provisions of the physicians' code given early in the course of study, but at every opportunity throughout the course of study the members of the faculty of the school or college of medicine attempt to inculcate the ideals of this code in the neophyte physician. In consequence, the members of the medical profession probably know and follow the provisions of their code better than the members of any other profession, trade, business, or other group. Schools and colleges of nursing, and of law, during recent years have followed the practice of the schools and colleges of medicine in making known the provisions of their codes.

What teachers might do. It is a sad commentary that the provisions of the Code of Ethics of the National Education Association are not known by a large percentage of the members of the profession; in fact, there are thousands of members who have never even heard of this code or of the code of their state education association. This lack of acquaintance may be explained by the failure of the profession to take proper steps to familiarize its members with

the provisions of the code. There is, therefore, a large work before the profession in making the provisions of the code known to every member of the profession and in securing the cooperation of every member of the profession in abiding by the provisions.[1] In submitting the Code of Ethics to the representative assembly of the National Education Association at the Atlanta meeting in 1929, the Committee on Ethics recommended that certain steps be taken to acquaint each member of the profession with the provisions of the code. The revised code which was adopted at the Boston meeting of the association in 1941 made the following recommendations regarding publicizing and enforcing the provisions of the code:

There is hereby established a Commission on Professional Ethics operating under the Board of Directors of the National Education Association. This commission shall consist of five members of the Association to be appointed by its president for terms of five years each, the term of one member expiring on July first of each year.

In order that the Commission may begin functioning at once, it is recommended that the president for 1941–42 appoint five members who will draw for one, two, three, four, and five year terms, respectively. Thereafter one member shall be appointed each year for a five year period. The Commission will select its own chairman.

It shall be the duty of the Commission to study and to take appropriate action on such cases of violation of this Code as may be referred to it. The Commission shall be responsible also for publicizing this Code, promoting its use in institutions for the preparation of teachers, and recommending needed modifications.

If, when a case is reported, it is found to come from a state which has a Code Commission, such case shall immediately be referred to said State Commission for investigation and action. In the case of a violation reported from a state which has neither a code nor a code commission, or from a state which has a code but no code commission, the N.E.A. Code Commission shall take such action as seems wise and reasonable and will impress members with the importance of respect for proper professional conduct. Such action shall be reported to the chief school officers of the community and the state from which the violation is reported.

The Commission is further vested with authority to expel a mem-

[1] The tendency in practice is toward the use of the case method in the teaching of ethics; that is, actual cases are discussed and conclusions are made on whether the practice in the case is ethical or unethical. For a sample case, see question 13, page 591, of this book.

ber from the National Education Association for flagrant violation of this Code.

The Commission on Professional Ethics of the National Education Association has been at work since 1941 putting into operation the recommendations made in the above paragraphs. Moreover, most of the state education associations have created State Code Commissions in accordance with those recommendations.

ETHICS AND THE COLLEGE STUDENT

People do not inherit principles of ethics, but must learn them through precept and example. This learning process continues throughout life; through the process some persons come to possess high ethical standards whereas others come to have low ones. Persons who possess the latter standards usually do not acquire them premeditatively; as a rule, they are victims of their environment—of the unwholesome tutelage of homes, schools, churches, and other agencies which sometimes have lax and low standards. Would that all persons could be taught and could follow high ethical standards, because only through the ubiquity of such standards can the selfishness and the strife of the world be abolished. The several million present and former college students should accept the challenge of living by, and of inculcating in other less fortunate persons, those high standards; they should constantly demonstrate that education does ennoble.

Among college students, as among the general population, students of lax ethical standards as well as students of high ethical standards are found. Where lax standards among college students are found, they are usually concerned with cheating on examinations, plagiarism in term papers and other work, poor sportsmanship in athletic and other contests, and neglect of scholastic responsibilities. These and other evidences of perverted vision are, of course, more common among certain colleges than among others, and they sometimes exist among college faculties as well as among college students. They are the greatest blight upon

college life and should be eliminated through faculty and student cooperation. Not every student can be a great scholar, but every student can be upright and can earn that most valuable sobriquet which any person can receive, namely, "lady" or "gentleman."

Persons who do not maintain a high regard for ethics when they are college students are not likely to be recommended for, or to be successful in, teaching positions. Students, therefore, who are preparing to enter the teaching profession should be especially solicitous concerning their ethics as students; they should remember that a devil of today is not likely to be promoted to a saint tomorrow. In attempting to develop a higher regard for ethics students will be helped by reading the following "Code of Ethics for College Students" which has been prepared by Professor Harold H. Titus and his students at Denison University. Professor Titus properly suggests, however, that greatest value from the code will come to students who constructively criticize it, revise it where needed, and always adapt it to their local situation.

A CODE OF ETHICS FOR COLLEGE STUDENTS

GENERAL STATEMENT

1. The purpose of education is development, which includes intellectual, spiritual, social, and physical enrichment. While emphasis upon any one phase of life to the exclusion of others is undesirable, the primary purpose of a college is intellectual development; hence this should take precedence over social life, athletics, and mere grades. If a student is not in college for this purpose, his position is ethically indefensible, since he is wasting both his own and other's time and money.

2. The college student should keep mentally alert and be open-minded and tolerant, not only in his studies and classes, but in following the affairs of the world at large.

I. PERSONAL FACTORS

1. A student should regard his personal honor as of supreme importance. He should avoid the philosophy that any means are justifiable to procure good grades. He should be honest and fair, during examinations as at all other times, to himself, to his fellow students, to his professors, and to the school.

2. The student should be prompt in keeping appointments and in class attendance, since delays cause loss of time and inconvenience to others. Promptness in completing assigned work is important for one's own character and self-respect and is also essential for the efficient conduct of a class.

3. Students should remember that they represent a large investment of time and money, which only efficient public service will justify. Later on, human lives may depend upon their knowledge and skill.

4. The college student should, at all times and in every way in his power, keep physically fit, realizing that the best kind of creative living is made possible by good health. A reasonable amount of attention should be given to personal appearance.

II. INTER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS

1. Students should recognize the need for student government and should co-operate with the officers of such organizations. Students should realize the purpose of rules and regulations and aid in their enforcement. Where the duties and responsibilities of office call for the enforcement of rules, students should support an officer for rigidly living up to the duties of office. Laxness, rather than faithfulness, should lead to censure.

2. Rules set up by student associations or administrative orders should be respected and obeyed. A student is free to voice his opposition to such rules and to propose changes at any time. His only honorable courses of action are: (1) To obey a rule. (2) While obeying the rule, if he considers it to be unwise or unjust, and of sufficient importance, to study its effect and to present relevant facts, and his own views, to the proper officers of the student association or to the administration of the school, and ask for a reconsideration of the rule. (3) To leave the school and register at an institution where he can be happy and retain his self-respect. He should not resort to the demoralizing practices of secrecy and evasion.

3. A student may help another student where the help is for the purpose of instructing or of clarifying the work. In no case should a student do another's lesson where this merely relieves the other of work and prevents him from receiving the discipline and training which such work brings. It is dishonorable to assist or to permit others to receive help from one's papers.

4. A student should recognize the value of a wide and deep circle of college friendships. He should not judge another student on the basis of money or of clothes, nor let fraternity lines prejudice his opinion. Class, fraternity, or sorority prejudice must be avoided. Individuals must be judged on the basis of personal and intrinsic worth alone.

5. Relationships between fraternities and sororities should be that of cordiality and friendly co-operation. A student should not speak disparagingly of another social group; especially should he refrain from talking to prospective students about other social groups in such a manner as to lower them in the eyes of the prospective student. To discriminate against students because of membership or lack of membership in any social group is unethical.

III. STUDENTS AND EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

1. A student should take responsibilities and co-operate in his college or class activities in so far as these do not jeopardize his scholastic advancement. If he accepts responsibility or membership in a group, he should contribute to it the best of his ability.

2. A student should not accept more employment or "student aid" than he can adequately handle along with his studies and extra-curricular activities. He must be thoroughly honest in recording his time.

3. Students should not accept "student aid" if they do not need such financial help, especially if another person who needs the help is thereby deprived of it.

4. Where scholarships and fellowships are granted on the basis of need, and are not merely a recognition of superior scholarship, a student who does not need such help should refrain from applying for it.

5. A student should maintain a high ideal of sportsmanship at athletic contests, whether as a spectator or as a participant, realizing that clean sport and fair play are more important than victories. The decision of referees should be respected by players and by spectators.

6. A student should not play politics in school affairs. Organizations and teams should be free from group politics.

IV. STUDENTS AND THE UNIVERSITY (INCLUDING FACULTY AND ADMINISTRATION)

1. A student should be courteous and respectful to members of the faculty and regard them as fellow students and advisers. He should, however, have and exercise the right of free thought and open discussion in and out of the class room.

2. When choosing a course, the subject matter of the course and his own immediate or future need of it should be a student's first consideration, not the fact that it is considered "a snap" or that he may be able to make good grades in it.

3. College property, laboratory equipment, and library books should be handled with the same care that he would give to his own property. Since he is only one of many who may need such books and material, regulations regarding their use should be rigidly observed.

4. The student should refrain from destructive criticism, but he

may make any necessary constructive criticism to the responsible parties. He should not criticize the school or its members in public unless real grievances continue which private criticism and discussions have failed to remedy. He should keep the welfare of the school always in mind, and neither by word nor by act reflect upon the good character and high standing of the college.

5. Efforts should be made to cultivate a relationship of mutual friendliness between students and members of the faculty.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What do you regard as the characteristics of ethical conduct and conversely those of unethical conduct?

2. Do members of the teaching profession need a code of ethics as much as members of other groups? Are teachers more ethical than members of other groups?

3. Many persons are opposed to codes of ethics because they believe that they place a stricture upon thinking. Do you agree with that view? Explain. Can ethical principles be taught like something as inviolable as the multiplication table? Why or why not?

4. According to your observation, what are a few of the most frequent unethical practices of teachers?

5. To what extent should practices be sanctioned by custom before they are placed in a code of ethics? Explain.

6. What is the difference between an ethical code and a legal code?

7. Do you favor a long or a short code of ethics? A general or a specific one? To what extent may it be assumed that a code of ethics covers *all* duties and obligations of the members of a group? Explain.

8. Compared with other professions, how may the tardiness of the teaching profession in developing a code of ethics be explained?

9. Discuss the comparative advantages of a local, a state, and a national code of ethics for teachers. Since the National Education Association has adopted a code of ethics, is there further need for state and local codes? Why or why not?

10. Does the Code of Ethics of the National Education Association contain any provisions with which you disagree? Does it contain any omissions?

11. How do you account for the fact that physicians always know the provisions of their code of ethics and follow them much more religiously than the members of most other groups follow their codes?

12. What means can you suggest whereby members of the teaching profession may be made familiar with the provisions of the Code of Ethics of the National Education Association? By what means may such a code be enforced? What punishment, if any, should be given to violators of the code?

13. Two weeks before the beginning of the school term a teacher received an offer of another position at an increase in salary of $300 annually. She desired to accept the offer, but her employers would not release her from her contract. Should the teacher have broken her contract and accepted the other position?

A student sees another student cheating during an examination. Should he report the student to the instructor or take any other action on the matter?

Make a list of a few other cases concerned with the ethics of the teaching profession, and indicate the action which you believe the member of the profession in the case should have taken.

14. Does "A Code of Ethics for College Students," pages 587–590 of this book, contain any statements with which you disagree? Does it contain any omissions?

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Chapter XXII

LOOKING AHEAD TO A TEACHING POSITION

As soon as the college student has made his decision to prepare for the teaching profession, he begins to wonder whether he will be able to secure a desirable position and how he should go about securing it. As the day for his graduation approaches, these problems grow increasingly urgent and wearisome for the student, but they give him some concern from the day of his decision to enter teaching. This chapter is designed, therefore, to make the student more aware of these problems and of proper procedures to use in meeting the problems. These problems should be *briefly* discussed in the first course in education; they should be *more intensively* discussed in some course early in the last year of the student's college program. Early knowledge of the problems and procedures will enable the student to pursue his preparation with greater confidence and purpose, although he may not be immediately concerned with the task of securing a position.

THE INCREASING COMPETITION FOR TEACHING POSITIONS

During most of the recent years the supply of teachers graduating from the colleges and universities has greatly exceeded the demand.[1] The result has been that many of these graduates have been compelled to wait one or more years before they were able to secure positions. This tendency toward an oversupply of teachers has been caused by many factors, among which the following are particularly prominent: (1) the improving opportunities (better

[1] During the emergency of World War II there has been, however, a large shortage of teachers, especially in the secondary-school subjects.

salaries, pensions, tenure, etc.) in the teaching profession, which have caused more persons to desire to enter the profession; (2) the increasing amount of technological unemployment, which has caused more persons to seek public positions; (3) the decline in the birth rate, which has resulted in a smaller number of pupils entering the schools and in a smaller number of teachers being needed, especially in the elementary schools; (4) the closer approach to the saturation point of school enrollment, which means less rapid increase in the number of teaching positions; and (5) the increase in the pupil-teacher ratio, which has resulted in fewer teachers being needed. In certain teaching areas, however, as was pointed out in preceding chapters, the oversupply is much greater than in other areas, and in a few areas there is an undersupply.

During recent years thousands of the graduates of even our most renowned colleges and departments of education have been unable to secure positions. Many of these graduates no doubt have failed to secure employment because they did not know how to proceed; many of them failed in spite of the fact that they were much better qualified for positions than certain candidates who received the positions.

Mere qualifications for a position, therefore, do not guarantee the offer of one. The position will not necessarily "come to him who waits." The world will not beat a path to the door of the builder of the best "mousetrap" unless the world knows who that builder is and where he lives. The teacher's qualifications and services must be marketed the same as "mousetraps" of Emerson lore. It is the obligation of the candidate for a teaching position to follow an effective and ethical procedure in trying to secure a position. When the candidate has followed such a procedure, he has accomplished all that he can and will not be blamed even though his quest for a position is unsuccessful.

STEPS IN SECURING A TEACHING POSITION

Making an early start. There is an old saying to the ef-

saying may be inappropriate in connection with the discussion of securing a teaching position, candidates should be reminded that school officials usually know several months before the beginning of the next school term whether they will have any vacancies to fill and that they early begin to take steps to fill them. Wide-awake school officials begin to search out desirable candidates as early as possible; they realize that any delay in the search may result in the loss of a blue-ribbon candidate to another school system. Wide-awake and ethical school officials are not primarily concerned with securing *a* teacher—they are primarily concerned with securing *the best* teacher for the salary available. They believe that their first obligation is to the pupils and the public, not to candidates for school positions.

Since information on many vacancies for the next school year—usually beginning in September—becomes known as early as January, February, or March, and since many school officials take immediate steps to fill those vacancies, that time is not too early for the candidate to begin to explore the field of opportunities. Of course, most positions become available in the late spring and in summer months, but it is also true that the competition for those positions becomes more keen—in fact, almost desperate—as the time for the opening of the next school year approaches. An early start in the search for a position will give the candidate an opportunity to receive a position early and thereby to avoid the rush of later months. Assuming that the candidate will be graduated in the following spring or summer, January, February, or March is not too early, therefore, for him to enroll in the appointments division of his college or university and to take other steps toward making contacts with available positions. These steps will have to be taken sometime, and for the most effective results they should be taken early; to take the steps early will not only be more likely to assure the teacher a position but *the most desirable* position under the circumstances.

Locating vacancies. It would be ideal if the position always sought the teacher and the teacher did not have to take

the initiative in seeking the position. Such an ideal is, however, far from realization, and teachers must continue to assume a large part of the responsibility of ascertaining where the vacancies exist and of promoting their candidacies by effective and ethical means; the college which the teacher attended or is attending must also assume its share of this responsibility. The locating of a desirable vacancy is, therefore, the first step in securing a position. To take this step is not always easy, particularly in years when positions are no more plentiful than they have been during the years preceding World War II. The following suggestions should prove helpful in locating vacancies:

1. Enroll with teachers' appointment agencies or bureaus. Most normal schools, colleges, and universities have such offices, and occasionally state teachers' associations and state departments of education maintain such offices; also there are numerous private teachers' agencies, and registration with one or more of them should be considered.[1]

2. Make direct inquiries of school officials concerning vacancies in their schools or school systems. Such inquiries should be well selected and in good taste. The broadcasting of inquiries through a form letter is regarded as bad taste.

3. Make inquiries of former teachers, employers, and other acquaintances concerning vacancies.

4. Make inquiry of the appointments bureau of your college or university if you desire information regarding securing a position in Alaska, the Panama Canal Zone, Virgin Islands, Hawaiian Islands, or other territorial possessions. The same source may be used in securing information regarding the positions in Indian schools; these schools are supported by the federal government and are fairly numerous in the western states. At the close of World War II there is a good chance that the United States will exercise a protectorate over many islands in the Pacific and this will require thousands of additional teachers in those islands.

Applying only for vacant positions. To apply for a specific position, unless it is known that a vacancy exists, might result in displacing a fellow teacher from his position; such a practice should, therefore, be avoided by all members

[1] Inquiry of the student from his professors will secure the names of private teachers' agencies with which he might enroll. Most of these agencies charge a commission of 5 per cent of the first year's salary for helping the candidate to secure a position.

of the teaching profession. In fact, the codes of ethics of all teachers' organizations condemn the practice of applying for a position until it is definitely known that a vacancy exists. The code of the National Education Association states that "A teacher should not apply for a specific position currently held by another teacher" (Section 6, Article III). Even an apparently well-founded rumor of a vacancy should be officially checked before an application is made for the position.

Teachers have the right, of course, to make inquiries of school officials regarding the existence, or the probability, of vacancies. Such an inquiry, however, should be no more than an inquiry; it should not be an application and should never be permitted to embarrass the present occupant of the position.

The written application. When the candidate has authentic information that a vacancy in a position exists, assuming that he is interested in the position and is qualified for it, he is privileged to present a formal application. Formal application may be made through a personal interview, through a written communication, or by means of the telephone or the telegraph. The usual practice is, however, to make the application, especially the first application, through a written communication. Employers usually prefer this practice because it seems to be more businesslike and gives them a permanent record of the salient qualifications of the applicant; moreover, the practice is usually more convenient and less expensive to the applicant than to telephone, telegraph, or make a personal application.

Most school systems have adopted a formal application blank which candidates are required to fill out. This blank usually requests information on such matters as the candidate's experience, schooling, references, age, and other characteristics. Unless the candidate has definite information that the school system does not use a formal application blank, his first letter should be largely an inquiry regarding whether such a blank is used by the system and a request for a copy of it. If a blank is received, it should be filled out accurately, completely, and promptly; if the candi-

date deems that other information would be useful to the employer, he may send that in a letter which will accompany the application blank. A small and otherwise appropriate photograph of the candidate should be enclosed with the application.

When the school system does not use a formal application blank, the candidate is obliged to write a letter of application. Needless to say, *a good letter should be prepared.* Faulty English, poor mechanical form, indefiniteness, boasting, and insufficient or irrelevant information are among the factors which are likely to be noticed by the recipient of the letter and to cause the application to be unsuccessful. Although the writer of a magnetic letter may not necessarily be an excellent teacher, "style is usually the man." Employers are prone to begin the process of separating the wheat from the chaff on the basis of the letter of application. A good letter always helps a candidate, whereas a poor letter is certain to be a handicap to him.

References. As a part of their applications for positions, teachers are usually requested to give the names, positions, and addresses of a few persons who are acquainted with their personal and professional qualifications and who will provide confidential information upon the request of the employer. The application blank usually requests the teacher to give a few references, but when it does not make the request, the teacher should present them in the letter of application. From two to six references will usually suffice.

In formulating a list of references the applicant should include persons who are in the best position to speak of his qualifications; usually such persons are former teachers and employers, but the list need not be limited to these persons. The list should not give the employer the impression that the applicant is trying to exercise a "pull" through his acquaintance with prominent politicians or other well-known persons; to give that impression is likely to blast the applicant's chances of appointment. In brief, all references should be competent to speak of the qualifications of the applicant as a teacher; any other consideration is extraneous and objectionable and is likely to be a boomerang.

Letters of recommendation. The "to-whom-it-may-concern" letter of recommendation—often called the "open letter of recommendation"—should neither be requested nor used. To request or to use such a letter is usually regarded as bad taste and is rapidly coming to be regarded as unethical; in fact, the codes of ethics of several of the state and local education associations pronounce the use of such letters as unethical practice. Employers desire *confidential* information regarding candidates, and they therefore disdain the open letter of recommendation. To use such a letter is almost certain to handicap the applicant.

The objection to the open letter of recommendation is that it is not confidential and is, therefore, not likely to be entirely reliable. While the applicant should neither request nor use an open letter of recommendation, he may properly request and use a letter of introduction to a particular employer. He may also request his former teachers and employers to write confidential letters in his behalf. Of course, he should never impose upon the good nature of his friends by making unjustified requests for confidential letters. He should not make such requests too often, especially when he has registered with a teachers' appointment bureau or agency, because one of the chief functions of such an office is to send copies of such letters and other confidential information to employers.

To whom to apply. Since the welfare of the school and the progress of the pupils are largely determined by the qualifications of the teachers, the selection of the best qualified teachers is one of the most important and most difficult functions of school administrators. Because of the growing recognition of the difficulty of performing the function, the tendency during recent years has been toward permitting or requiring professionally prepared school officials to perform the function; thus, the tendency has been for boards of education to delegate to the superintendent of schools the function of investigating the qualifications of candidates and of recommending the best qualified candidates for appointment. It is only in some of the rural districts and the few "politically" administered city school sys-

tems that boards of education still select the teachers without consulting with the superintendent.

In school systems, therefore, in which the board of education has delegated to the superintendent the function of selecting teachers, applications for teaching positions should be made to him and all negotiations should be conducted through his office; in such systems, candidates should not interview or otherwise bother board members, except upon the instruction of the superintendent. When the board of education is the sole selecting agency, teachers are required, of course, to make their applications to it and not to the superintendent. Many small school systems do not employ a superintendent and in such instances applications must be made to the board of education.

Teaching in one's home community. Beginning teachers are frequently advised not to accept positions in their home community for the reason that their acquaintance with the pupils, parents, and other adults of the community would tend to make the pupil-discipline and public-relations functions unduly difficult to perform. Such advice is applied especially to beginning teachers and to the rural and village community. Persons who give the advice readily admit that it does not have much merit when applied to experienced teachers and to the larger communities.

The question, then, remains whether such advice has merit when applied to the beginning teacher and to the small community. The answer to the question would seem to depend on the particular circumstances, and especially upon the qualifications of the teacher. Assuming that the teacher has proper qualifications, his local acquaintance and local residence should not unduly militate against him. Indeed, such acquaintance could be used advantageously by him in making the pupil-discipline and the public-relations problems easier, because the nature of such problems would already be known by him.

Avoidance of nepotism. *Nepotism* may be defined as favoritism of an employer toward his relatives. Public officials are frequently criticized for practicing nepotism, and school officials usually get their share of that criticism. In many

states the antagonism toward the practice of nepotism by school-board members has crystallized into statutes which prohibit such practice. A representative statute is that of Ohio which reads as follows:

> Whoever, being a local director or member of a board of education, votes for or participates in the making of a contract with a person as a teacher or instructor in a public school to whom he or she is related as father or brother, mother or sister, or acts in a matter in which he or she is pecuniarily interested, shall be fined not less than twenty-five dollars or imprisoned not more than six months, or both (Section 12932).

Although the state in which the teacher may be seeking employment may not have a statute prohibiting boards of education from employing relatives, the teacher should hesitate before accepting a position over which a relative, particularly a near relative, has jurisdiction. He should hesitate because of his regard for the welfare of the school, of his relative, and of himself. The teacher may be eminently qualified for the position and may have secured it without the assistance of his relative; yet there is always the danger that both he and his relative will be subjected to the charge of favoritism; worst of all, the school may be injured by such criticism. It is worth keeping in mind, too, that many school officials who have relatives in their employment do not promote such relatives as rapidly as their merit deserves because they are afraid of inviting public criticism.

The personal interview. Although there is little or no evidence to indicate that the personal interview enables school officials to select better teachers than could be selected without the interview, practically all school officials insist upon an interview before they will employ a teacher. Few persons will employ an unseen candidate for any position. In fact, it may be said that of all the employment techniques, the personal interview is the most frequently used. The chief arguments advanced for the personal interview in teacher selection are the following:

1. Although most school officials have an exaggerated confidence in their ability to "size up" candidates through the interview, the pro-

cedure provides them an opportunity to secure further information regarding the candidate and to attempt to evaluate at close range certain traits and qualifications that may or may not be revealed through other sources of data.

2. The interview furnishes an excellent opportunity to acquaint the candidate with the qualifications necessary for the position as well as the opportunities for advancement which the position affords. It helps the candidate to decide whether he wants or doesn't want the position.

The initiative in arranging for an interview may be taken by the applicant or by the employer. Always, though, the applicant should respect the wishes of the employer in the matter. If the employer does not wish an interview, nothing could be gained by the applicant in requesting it. On the other hand, if an interview is requested by the employer, it should be arranged for by the applicant, provided, of course, that he is interested in the position. As a rule, employers prefer, through correspondence and other means, to eliminate all candidates except a few, then to arrange for interviews with those few. These interviews are usually arranged at the college or university in which the applicant is a student, in the community in which the candidate is then teaching, or in the community which is considering the applicant's employment.

While the candidate should not regard the personal interview as an inquisition, he should look upon it as a serious and businesslike proceeding which may be the chief factor in determining whether he receives an offer of the position. The employer will practically always want the candidate to be at ease and to make a favorable impression, and there will be no disposition to "place the candidate on the spot."

What can the candidate do during the interview to give a favorable impression and to "sell" himself for what he is really worth? Unfortunately this question cannot be answered categorically for every situation, because interviews are conducted in various ways, and the applicant must be able to adapt himself to the situation as he meets it. Following, however, are a few general suggestions from which it is believed the candidate will be able to profit:

1. Be punctual for the appointment. Do not prolong the interview, and especially do not prolong it after the employer has given a hint that he has received all the information which he needs. In brief, the candidate should possess "terminal facilities."
2. Be meticulously careful of personal appearance.
3. Answer all questions frankly, clearly, and fully, but do not talk too much. Know the art of being a good listener. Have confidence, but do not boast.
4. Although the employer has the responsibility for directing the interview, usually the applicant need not hestitate to ask the employer a few questions concerning such matters as the school, the school system, and the community. The employer usually likes to know whether the applicant is sufficiently interested in the position to secure further information concerning it.
5. Avoid gossiping about other candidates for the position. If you have had teaching experience, avoid complaining about conditions in the last school, school system, or community in which you taught.
6. Do not necessarily expect a decision from the employer at the close of the interview. Usually, too, the applicant will not be expected to make a decision upon an offer at the close of the interview.

Salary considerations. Most school systems have adopted salary schedules for various positions and for various types and amounts of training and experience, and they follow those schedules rigidly. In most teaching positions, therefore, the salary which the applicant would receive is determined automatically. Many of the small school systems, on the other hand, do not have salary schedules, and in these systems the salary of the teacher is determined through bargaining and agreement between the teacher and school officials.

When the salary is determined through bargaining, the teacher should keep in mind not only his own personal needs but the welfare of the profession. He should request an adequate salary, but at the same time he should remember that service cannot be limited on account of small compensation; he should ever keep in mind that the members of a profession are expected to give more than they receive, otherwise they cannot claim that their calling has a professional character. On the importance of teachers insisting upon an adequate salary the Code of Ethics of the

National Education Association says: "While not limiting their services by reason of small salary, teachers should insist upon a salary scale commensurate with the social demands laid upon them by society" (Section 5, Article III).

In making a decision on what constitutes an adequate salary for himself and for a particular position, the teacher should not underbid a salary schedule nor should he underbid a rival for the position. On the question of underbidding for a position the Code of Ethics of the National Education Association affirms that the teacher "should not knowingly underbid a rival or agree to accept a salary lower than that provided by a recognized schedule" (Section 5, Article III).

THE TEACHER'S CONTRACT

Requisites for the contract. According to the American Law Institute, "a contract is a promise or a set of promises for the breach of which the law gives a remedy, or the performance of which the law in some way recognizes as a duty." In order to form a contract there must be two or more parties who are willing to enter and do enter into contractual relations; in the teacher's contract one of these parties is the teacher, and the other party is the employing official or board. Fig. 67 shows a sample contract for teachers.

The consummation of a contract is *prima facie* evidence that the teacher has secured a position; it is the act which transforms him from a mere holder of a teaching certificate into a *bona fide* teacher. Since the contract is the instrument which vests the teacher with most of his rights, duties, and obligations, its importance to him is obvious. He should make certain, therefore, that his contract is in the correct form and that it is legal in every way. The following paragraphs discuss briefly the chief requisites for the teacher's contract:

1. The contract must be *mutual,* that is, all parties to it must accept all of its provisions.

2. It should be *written.* Most states expressly stipulate that it shall be written, and in those instances an oral contract would be un-

enforceable. In case a written contract is not stipulated by law an oral contract would be held to be legal, provided it could be substantiated by sufficient evidence. A written contract is obviously better than an oral one, because it is more easily proved and is less likely to be misunderstood or disputed.

DENVER PUBLIC SCHOOLS
SCHOOL DISTRICT NO 1 IN THE CITY AND COUNTY OF DENVER AND STATE OF COLORADO
OFFICE OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION

NOTICE OF APPOINTMENT 11

Date_____

You are hereby notified that the Board of Education has appointed you to a position in the schools of School District No. 1 in the City and County of Denver and State of Colorado, at an initial salary at the rate of _____ dollars per annum, and thereafter in accordance with the adopted salary schedule of the District, which schedule the District reserves the right to change at the beginning of any District budget year.

Effective _____ if accepted prior to _____

To

This appointment is subject to the laws of the State, and the rules and regulations of the Board of Education. Assignment to work will be made by the superintendent of schools.

_____
Secretary

STATEMENT OF ACCEPTANCE

I hereby accept the above appointment, agree to its terms, and agree to perform such duties and services as may lawfully be required of me, and to comply with all laws of the State and rules and regulations made by the Board of Education of said School District

Denver, Colorado,_____

Name_____

ORIGINAL—Please sign and return to secretary, 414 Fourteenth Street, Denver, Colorado

Address_____

FORM 6050 DSP 4 39 500 C 243-24410

DENVER PUBLIC SCHOOLS
SCHOOL DISTRICT NO 1 IN THE CITY AND COUNTY OF DENVER AND STATE OF COLORADO
OFFICE OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION

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Effective _____ if accepted prior to _____

To

This appointment is subject to the laws of the State, and the rules and regulations of the Board of Education. Assignment to work will be made by the superintendent of schools.

_____
Secretary

STATEMENT OF ACCEPTANCE

I hereby accept the above appointment, agree to its terms, and agree to perform such duties and services as may lawfully be required of me, and to comply with all laws of the State and rules and regulations made by the Board of Education of said School District.

Denver, Colorado,_____

Name_____

DUPLICATE—To be retained by appointee.

Address_____

FORM 6050 DSP 4 39 500 C 243-24410

FIG. 67. A teacher's contract, used in the Denver, Colorado, public schools.

3. It should be *sufficiently inclusive,* that is, its chief terms should be clearly stated. According to Earl W. Anderson, the following are the minimum essentials which should be included:[1] (1) name of the

[1] Earl W. Anderson, *The Teacher's Contract and Other Legal Phases of Teacher Status,* Columbia University, p. 149. By permission of Teachers College, Columbia University, publishers.

school district; (2) name of the teacher; (3) the agreement that he is to teach; (4) amount of salary; (5) time limit for acceptance; (6) signatures of the authorized school officer or officers; (7) agreement to abide by the rules and regulations of the board; and (8) signature of the teacher.

4. It must be *free from illegality*. There are many factors which might make the contract illegal; among these are the following: (1) failure by school officials to follow the form of contract prescribed by law; (2) failure of the teacher to have the proper license; (3) violation by school officials of the taxation limit of the school district; and (4) personal interest of a school official in the contract.

Discharge of the contract. After a contract has been made it can only be terminated in one of the following ways: (1) by agreement of the parties to the contract to change it or to break it; (2) by complete performance of all terms of the contract; (3) by breach of one party of the terms of the contract; (4) by act of God, such as the death or disability of the teacher; and (5) by the discovery that the contract is fraudulent or otherwise illegal.

By virtue of entering into a contract, two or more parties give their sacred promise that they will fulfill all provisions of the contract. When one of the parties to the contract does not fulfill all provisions, and is not excused by the other party or parties from fulfilling those provisions, the contract is broken by that party. The party breaking a contract is liable for damages to the other party or parties to the contract; this liability to damages is assumed by the teacher who breaks a contract just as much as the school official or board that breaks it.

Both teachers and boards of education are occasionally guilty of sharp and unethical practices in their contractual relations; both of them are occasionally guilty of breaking contracts. On the one hand, boards of education are sometimes guilty of trying to wriggle out of a contract or of the unjust and illegal dismissal of teachers under contract. On the other hand, teachers sometimes treat their contracts as "scraps of paper" and do not hesitate to break a contract when a better contract is offered them in another position. In fairness, though, it should be stated that such instances as have just been mentioned are the exception. School of-

ficials and employees are preponderately honest, fair, and ethical. They are more willing to give a "pound of flesh" than to demand it.

It has already been stated that violating a contract makes the party who is responsible for the violation liable to damages which may be assessed by a court; this is true for the employee as well as the employer—for the teacher as well as the board of education. Furthermore, many states have enacted statutes which empower the chief state school official, or a local school official, to revoke the certificate of a teacher who is guilty of breaking his contract. Still more, the Code of Ethics of the National Education Association, and most of the codes of the state education associations, have a pronouncement upon the sacredness of the teacher's contract. The Code of Ethics of the National Education Association has the following to say: "A contract, once signed, should be faithfully adhered to until it is dissolved by mutual consent" (Section 9, Article III).

Notification of change of position. Teachers and school officials have a reciprocal obligation regarding changes in positions, namely, that of *early notification*. On this matter the Code of Ethics of the National Education Association says: "Ample notification should be given both by school officials and teachers in case a change in position is to be made" (Section 9, Article III). The codes of ethics of many of the state education associations express the same sentiment.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Should teachers be "called" to positions, or should they apply for them? Explain. Is there a danger that the large number of applicants for positions will do injury to the profession? Discuss.
2. Should teachers enroll with private teachers' agencies? Why or why not?
3. Should a teacher apply for or accept a position from which the previous occupant was dismissed unjustly? Discuss what would be your attitude toward applying for a position from which the present occupant is about to be dismissed.
4. What types of references should the applicant give? What types should he not give? Explain.

5. What is your opinion of printed, mimeographed, or carbon copies of letters of application? Should such copies ever be used? Discuss.

6. Under what conditions, if any, would a teacher be justified in requesting an open letter of reference? Explain.

7. Do you believe a teacher is justified in accepting a position in a community which has a relative as a school-board member? Why or why not? What are the laws, if any, of your state on this matter?

8. What is your opinion of teachers' application blanks which request information on political party, war record, church affiliation, religious belief, and race? Discuss.

9. What value do you attach to the personal interview (*a*) from the point of view of the applicant, and (*b*) from the point of view of the employer? Discuss. What reliance, if any, should the employer place upon the photograph of the candidate?

10. What advantages may teachers who are local residents have over non-residents? What disadvantages? Explain. To what extent would the size of the community affect your answer? What steps may school officials take to guard against inbreeding?

11. What information would you want about any teaching position before accepting it? Explain.

12. How do you explain the fact that rural boards of education are more accustomed to select teachers without consulting the superintendent or schools, than urban boards of education? What can teachers do to accelerate the tendency away from school board selection of teachers?

13. Under what conditions, if any, would a teacher be justified in breaking his contract? Explain.

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PART VI

METHODS OF STUDYING EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS

Chapter XXIII

THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF EDUCATION

One of the first facts which the prospective educational employees should learn is that progress in education can only be secured by science guided by a proper philosophy of education. The contributions of philosophy to educational progress were discussed in an earlier chapter (Chapter II). In the present chapter the contributions of science to that progress will be discussed.

THE PLACE OF RESEARCH AND SCIENCE IN EDUCATION

Technical and complex nature of education. In addition to being the largest as well as the most important public business, the work of teaching, supervising, and administering the schools is, contrary to common belief, one of the most complex businesses. Because of the size and the complexity of the business, probably no public expenditure presents as many and as large opportunities for waste. No informed and fair-minded person will deny that millions of dollars are wasted annually in the management of the schools—seldom maliciously wasted—but wasted either because of ignorance of the best practices or because of oversight and carelessness in adopting and following those best practices.

Lest myopic and unfair critics of the schools attempt to use this testimony on waste as a weapon with which to injure the schools, it should be remarked that, although waste is never condonable, it is not a characteristic peculiar to the schools. Waste exists in all business, whether public or private, whether large or small. Few persons conduct their private affairs with less proportional waste than the schools are conducted. Only yesterday the writer was informed by

a heating and ventilating engineer that he was wasting at least $50 annually through inefficient methods of firing the furnace of his home, and a few weeks ago he expended $40 for repairs on his automobile, whereas the bill would not have been more than $10 if he had secured the repairs when he first had the warning of need.

Although the amount of financial waste in the schools is large, it is a mere bagatelle compared with the pedagogical waste. By *pedagogical waste* is meant the waste to the pupil —waste resulting from his not securing maximum benefit from the school. Pedagogical waste results from such conditions as teachers not knowing and using the most efficient methods of instruction, the best curriculum, or the best means of classifying and promoting the pupils. If such waste could be measured in dollars and cents, the amount of it would probably stagger the imagination. In spite of the fact that the waste cannot be measured in dollars and cents, it is nevertheless real and is sure to be reflected in the ideals, the attitudes, the habits, and the accomplishments of the boys and girls who will be the citizens of tomorrow. When there is waste in the school, whether the waste is financial or pedagogical, the pupil is being cheated of part of his educational patrimony and that is the unpardonable sin in school management.

Need for educational research. The teaching profession is a long way from knowing the best aims of education and the most effective means of realizing those aims; although it knows much about these matters, its ignorance regarding them greatly excels its knowledge. The profession is far from knowing the most efficient manner in which to spend the huge educational funds which the public entrusts to it; it is far from knowing the way in which the individual pupil learns most effectively and the best teaching procedures to use with the individual pupil. Until two or three decades ago educational procedures were dictated largely by tradition, opinion, and rule-of-thumb methods rather than by the facts and the principles of science and a sound philosophy of education; indeed, the further discoveries of science and a more profound philosophy of education probably will

sometime show that the present profession is largely groping in the dark so far as its knowledge of these matters is concerned. Writing in 1860, Herbert Spencer said:

> If there needs any further evidence of the rude, undeveloped character of our education, we have it in the fact that the comparative worth of different kinds of knowledge have been as yet scarcely even discussed—much less discussed in a methodic way with definite results. Not only is it that no standard of relative values has yet been agreed upon, but the existence of any such standard has not been conceived in any clear manner. And not only is it that the existence of any such standard has not been clearly conceived; but the need for it seems to have been scarcely even felt. Men read books on this topic and attend lectures on that; decide that their children shall be instructed in these branches of knowledge and shall not be instructed in those; and all under the guidance of mere custom, or liking or prejudice; without ever considering the enormous importance of determining in some rational way what things are really most worth learning.[1]

And in 1893, J. M. Rice, sometimes called "the father of the scientific measuring movement in education," wrote:

> Before pedagogy can be recognized as a science, it will be necessary to discover at least some truths in regard to educational processes which, if ignored by the teacher, will make him fully as liable to prosecution for malpractice as the physician who has bungled in setting a bone. Until an accurate standard of measurement is recognized by which such truth may be discovered, ward politicians will continue to wield the baton, and educational anarchy will continue to prevail.[2]

With such subjective procedures as have just been described there could not, or cannot, help being a large waste of public funds—and what is still more unfortunate, a waste of the pupil's time, effort, and opportunity. Here is where educational research comes in to help us, because the function of educational research is to provide information which will assist in preventing the financial and the pedagogical waste just mentioned. Such information is always necessary because our plans and our procedures can

[1] Herbert Spencer, *Education: Intellectual, Moral and Physical,* Appleton, 1860, pp. 7–8.

[2] J. M. Rice, *Forum,* Vol. 22 (December, 1896), p. 389.

never be better than the information upon which they are based. Where information ends, faith, opinion, guessing, and sometimes superstition and prejudice, begin. Research is a method for finding the solutions of problems. Except as knowledge of its techniques is required, it is not a separate subject. It is the essence of every live and growing field of study. Wherever problems are found, research has a place.

Definition of the science of education. Since the essence of science is organized knowledge, it is readily seen that the development of a science is dependent upon research. Without knowledge there is no science, and without research there can be no extensive development of knowledge. The dependence of science upon knowledge is recognized in every definition of science. For example, Webster's *New International Dictionary* defines *science* as "accumulated and accepted knowledge which has been systematized and formulated with reference to the discovery of general truths or the operation of general laws; knowledge classified and made available in work, life, or the search for truth; comprehensive, profound, or philosophical knowledge."

Whether, therefore, there is a science of education must be determined by whether there is any systematized knowledge pertaining to education. There is much of such knowledge, and there is, therefore, a science of education. It is the function of the science of education to collect and to organize information on the work of education in order that such information will be available for the improvement of education.

PROGRESS OF THE SCIENTIFIC METHOD IN EDUCATION

Definition of the scientific method. One of the outstanding movements in education today—indeed, the chief difference between present-day education and education of yesteryears—is the large dependence on the scientific method, that is, the method of research and science, for the solution of educational problems, or for the securing of helpful infor-

mation on those problems. Contrary to the belief of many persons, the characteristics of the scientific method are not mysterious phenomena which only geniuses are competent to comprehend and to acquire. The scientific method is simply a technique for finding the truth. It requires, on the part of the persons who use it, the acumen to discern and to solve problems. A scientist, therefore, is a person who searches for the truth, and who has a degree of success in finding it and in making it known to his fellow men. According to this definition it is obvious that the scientist is not merely a person who works in the laboratory with test tubes and microscopes; the scientist is frequently found in the guise of a common laborer, a farmer, a mechanic, or a clerk.

If this simple definition of the *scientific method* is accepted, it will be agreed that the scientific method in education is not, as has been widely claimed, a recent innovation. It is the product of a gradual evolution—an evolution extending back to the beginning of education. Even a casual knowledge of the history of education will not permit any teacher to conclude that the millions of teachers who have preceded him, and have passed to their great reward, did their work entirely, if even largely, by rule-of-thumb methods. The teacher should prefer to think of his predecessors as possessing, at least to a certain degree, the spirit of inquiry, and as being interested in progress. They were not robots or automatons. He should choose to think of them as being intent upon passing down to the succeeding generation a better school and better educational procedures than their predecessors handed down to them. In brief, he should prefer to believe that his predecessors in the teaching profession did employ the scientific method, at least to a certain extent; he should prefer to believe that many of them were true scientists. How could the school have been constantly improved, as the history of education shows that it has been improved, without the use of scientific method? Progress is seldom a happen-so in any field of endeavor. Guided by a sound philosophy of education, science has al-

ways been the handmaid of progress in education as well as in all other fields of activity.

Recent progress of the scientific method. It may be safely stated, though, that during the last two or three decades the teaching profession has developed and used the scientific method more than at any other period in educational history; during this period the profession has become more science-conscious than ever before. The scientific method in education received its largest impetus from the derivation of the first standardized tests and scales two or three decades ago by such persons as Edward L. Thorndike, Leonard P. Ayres, and Lewis M. Terman. The derivation of standardized tests and scales, both for mental ability and for educational accomplishment, marked the beginning of the so-called *scientific* measuring movement without which the science of education could not have made so large an amount of progress. In addition to the development of standardized tests and scales, dozens of other research techniques and instruments have been developed and used in making thousands of researches of incalculable benefit to the work of the school. Especially noteworthy among these other techniques and instruments has been the development of statistical methods in education which have been valuable in organizing and presenting information. It can be safely stated that through research the teaching profession has learned more about the educative process during the last two or three decades than during all of the previous history of education. Yet in spite of the great progress which has been made, it must be admitted that the science of education is still in its infancy; it is a lusty infant, but it has scarcely outgrown its swaddling clothes. Teachers are still woefully ignorant about the aims, the means, and the processes of education, but it augurs well for education that they are more aware of their ignorance than ever before. Intelligent or known ignorance is never as unfortunate as ignorant or unknown ignorance.

A few significant facts which educational research has ascertained and of which use is being made by thousands of teachers and other educational employees are the following:

1. Research has shown a large amount of pupil failure and has collected much information on the causes of same and the means of preventing and reducing it. This information is being used to the benefit of millions of pupils, and will continue to be used.

2. Research has informed us that it is better to promote the typical pupil to the next grade on trial than to fail him without giving him another chance. Research has shown that approximately three fourths of the pupils who are promoted on trial make good, and are in consequence saved the embarrassment and the discouragement of having to repeat a grade.

3. Many studies have shown the large amount of nonattendance and the causes of same, and have suggested ways by which much of the nonattendance may be eliminated.

4. It has been found that pupils of the same chronological age vary widely in general intelligence, in special abilities, in interests, in aptitudes, and in other regards. This information is being used by thousands of school employees in attempting to meet the needs of the individual pupil.

5. Numerous studies of the curriculum have been made with the aim of ascertaining the subject matter which is most valuable for pupils to master. Among other benefits, such studies have brought to light the large amount of "dead wood" in the curriculum of the typical school and have suggested the elimination of such material.

6. Hundreds of psychological investigations have given us a large amount of useful information concerning how children learn. These studies, though, have served their chief purpose in making us aware of how little we really know about the working of that most baffling thing in the world, namely, the mind, and in suggesting to us the need for painstaking and extensive research on this complexity; compared with what we might know and should know, we still know very little about the learning processes of our pupils.

7. Numerous experiments on different teaching procedures have given us much information which we are now using in improving our teaching procedures. For example, we now know that there are better or best ways of teaching spelling, arithmetic, reading, and the other subjects.

8. Several investigations have found that small classes are only slightly more efficient than large ones—this, in spite of the fact that small classes are much more expensive than large ones. Some administrators are using the results of these experiments as an argument for increasing the size of classes; other administrators, on the other hand, say that these experiments show only what is, not what ought to be.

9. Many investigations have shown large inequalities in educational opportunities among school districts, counties, and states, and steps have been taken to eliminate or to reduce these inequalities.

To list all the truths, discoveries, or information which educational research has given would require several volumes.[1] The facts which have just been mentioned are typical of hundreds of facts which have been reported in the educational literature and are now available to every person. These facts are now known and are being used by thousands of teachers, supervisors, administrators, and other school employees. Facts of this sort have unquestionably been responsible for the prevention or the elimination of millions of dollars of waste annually; moreover, they have improved teaching techniques greatly with the result that pupils are more and more receiving full benefits from the school.

VALUE AND IMPROVEMENT OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Value of educational research. To secure such information as has just been mentioned usually requires the expenditure of extra funds, and someone must provide those funds. Research cannot be financed out of thin air nor on the good wishes of its friends. Either the whole public, through taxation, or private individuals, through free-will contributions, must pay out the coin of the realm for it. It is a matter for congratulations during recent years that hundreds of thousands of dollars from public and private funds have been spent for educational research. Part of this money has been expended for the support of departments or bureaus of educational research in colleges, in universities, and in local and state school systems; other portions of the money have subsidized hundreds of school surveys and thousands of more limited investigations. Thousands of persons are now regularly employed in these research activities. The tendency everywhere is to increase the expenditures for research, and this evinces a greater public interest in research and a growing faith in its efficacy.

No claim is made here that all of the so-called "educational research" is *real* research, nor that all research functions and affects school practice. Indeed, it will be readily admitted that much of the so-called "research" is *not*

[1] For an excellent summary of educational research, see Walter S. Monroe, ed., *Encyclopedia of Educational Research,* Macmillan, 1941.

research, but instead is veritable bunk and quackery; worse still, much of it is vicious in its conclusions and inferences. There is no field of learning which does not have its quota of quacks and incompetents, and there is no denying the fact that education has had its share.

But it is impossible to secure the wheat without being bothered with the chaff. Persons who sponsor and pay for research cannot expect that every investigator will attack worth-while problems nor that the solution of all problems attacked will be ascertained. Although all possible precautions should be taken to reduce the "gamble" in research, it should be realized that all of the "gamble" cannot be eliminated. Even the immortal Edison has testified that in many of his epoch-making researches he was compelled to use the trial-and-error method and that hundreds of his researches proved worthless. In every hundred researches there always has been, and will probably continue to be, a large percentage of waste.

Indeed, it is conceivable that ninety-nine researches in every hundred would be worthless and would show a total loss, but it is also conceivable that the remaining valuable research would pay not only its own way but the way of the ninety-nine worthless ones. One great discovery of an Edison, a Babcock, a Mayo, a Michaelson, a Thorndike, a Binet, a Terman, a Judd, a Bell, a Currie, a Koch, a Marconi, or a Pasteur will pay large dividends on all expenditures for research during several years. The accomplishments of one genius are worth more to society than the efforts of ten thousand feeble hands. But there is no way of selecting the genius except from the crucible of experiment and accomplishment.

Improving educational research. Educational research has abundantly proved its value and should be increasingly planned for and paid for by society. For several reasons, though, educational research today is not realizing its complete potentialities, and certain improvements are needed to make it function more fully. A few improvements which are needed to make educational research function more fully will be discussed herewith.

In the first place, most educational research should be

practical research rather than *pure* research; this suggestion is made particularly for research which is financed by public funds. Practical research is more likely to improve present procedures than is pure research, because practical research has the aims of ascertaining the truth and of making that truth immediately affect practice. In pure research the practical value of the problem is not necessarily a consideration, nor is the making of the solution of the problem to affect practice a consideration. In final analysis, however, pure research must be regarded as practical because its fundamental aim is to ascertain the *truth,* and all truth is sure to be, at some time, useful or practical. Michaelson's calculations of the speed of light were exhibitions of pure research, but they have been of practical value to astronomers and other scientists, and have helped the common man better to understand his world.

In the second place, steps should be taken to make the results of research known to a larger number of school employees and of the general public. Undoubtedly hundreds of the discoveries of educational research—and many of them are outstanding discoveries—are not being used because school employees are not familiar with them. Thousands of school employees do not know, for example, that teachers' marks given to pupils are somewhat subjective, that much of the curriculum does not meet social needs, that pupils vary widely in native ability, that certain methods of presenting subject matter are better than other methods, that trial promotions of pupils are efficacious, that educational inequalities exist, and that there is a close relation between mental and physical health. Someone has suggested that research workers stop conducting research for a few years and spend their time in making people familiar with, and in helping to put into practice, what has already been ascertained. Such a moratorium will not be necessary, however, if research workers will give more attention to the problem of getting their product properly before the consumer.

Educational research could be made to function more fully if the persons who conducted it would take greater

pains in reporting it; the research worker needs to be an efficient "middleman" as well as a producer. Too much research today is not functioning because it is reported in such an uninteresting manner that it cannot be read except with great travail. Research should be reported clearly and interestingly to the end that any person with average intelligence could read, and would enjoy reading it. In other words, the reports of research need to be humanized. Too much of the present educational research consists in collecting information which everyone already knows and in presenting it in such manner that no one can understand it. Many persons could make a real contribution to education, and incidentally make a good living, by taking theses and similar documents written by other research workers, and rewriting them in such a manner that the average person could read and understand them.

In the third place, just as fiat money tends to decrease the value of sound money, so pseudo research tends to cheapen all research in the eyes of the public. The teaching profession will therefore do well to distinguish between *real* research and *pseudo* research, and to place a premium on real research and a penalty or stigma on pseudo research. Justly or unjustly, scientists in other fields charge that the science of education is overrun with quacks and incompetents. Whether that charge be true or not, the teaching profession should do everything possible to make impotent the research quack and the pseudo scientist.

In the fourth place, every school and school system should have a research program each year, and this program should be based upon the most urgent needs of the local situation. Often the program, or at least certain parts of the program, will require several years to consummate. Every teacher, principal, and other school employee should have an interest, and a part, in planning and in carrying through this program. This program of research should be carefully planned and financed regularly. Such a program could not fail to keep alive in every employee the spirit of inquiry, and with this spirit of inquiry the work of the school could not fail to continue to improve. Every prospective

school employee should prepare himself to become an effective participant in the program of research of the school or school system which may employ him.

DEVELOPING A SCIENTIFIC ATTITUDE

Importance of the scientific attitude. One of the most valuable traits that any person can develop is a *scientific attitude,* which may be defined simply as a penchant for "the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth." John Dewey has the following to say of the importance of the scientific attitude:

> One of the only two articles that remain in my creed of life is that the future of our civilization depends upon the widening spread and deepening hold of the scientific habit of mind; and that the problem of problems in our education is therefore to discover how to mature and make effective this scientific habit.[1]

It may be said without fear of contradiction that the percentage of the population which has a well-developed scientific attitude is small. The lack of a scientific attitude is evidenced in numerous ways. It is evidenced in the manner in which the people vote for candidates for public office, make investments, and care for their health. Many people still vote the same political ticket that was voted by their parents and grandparents, or they vote for a candidate for public office because of his religion, his fraternal connections, or another extraneous reason. Black cats, solar eclipses, sunspots, broken mirrors, and similar signs still carry ill or good foreboding to millions of people; soothsayers, mediums, palmists, mind readers, and astrologers still make a good living; and thousands of farmers will not risk planting their crops until the "sign of the moon" is right. Such beliefs and practices indicate that a large percentage of the population does not possess a scientific attitude; they demonstrate that many persons are guided by superstition, tradition, hearsay evidence, and general ignorance or partial truth.

[1] John Dewey, "Science as Subject-Matter and as Method," *Science,* Vol. 21 (January 28, 1910), p. 127.

The lack of a scientific attitude on the part of a large portion of the population, and especially on the part of many persons who have responsible political, social, religious, educational, and economic positions, has caused and is causing most of the woes of civilization; it has ever been the chief incubus to the progress of civilization. It has been responsible for financial panics and unemployment, for political and religious revolutions, for plagues and epidemics, for wars, for famine, and for other woes and miseries. All of these unfortunate happenings can be prevented through straight thinking and acting—in brief, through the use of the scientific attitude in recognizing and in solving problems.

No lesson, therefore, which the teacher can bring to his pupils is of greater importance than the scientific attitude of thinking and of acting. Since the teacher cannot inculcate the scientific attitude in his pupils unless he possesses it himself, a scientific attitude is one of the most valuable traits which he can acquire. If he possesses this trait, the teacher will constantly be trying to push back the frontiers of knowledge and ever trying to teach that knowledge; by precept and by example he will inculcate the scientific attitude into all persons whom he contacts. If he does not possess this trait, the teacher is likely to be completely satisfied with the *status quo* and to be guided wholly by tradition and opinion.

Characteristics of the scientific attitude. Various writers have attempted to state the characteristics of the scientific attitude. Although these statements are not always in agreement, there is considerable agreement on a few characteristics. The characteristics on which there is universal agreement are as follows:

1. **Zeal for accuracy and truth.** A zeal for accuracy and truth is unquestionably the motive force of the scientific attitude. It is the force which constantly drives the true scientist; it stimulates him to take infinite pains, to labor long hours, and to make other sacrifices in the pursuit of truth. The true scientist is never satisfied with partial truth or doubtful accuracy; instead he constantly seeks to ascer-

tain the whole truth and to secure complete accuracy, and when he has found what he considers to be the whole truth and complete accuracy, he is willing to accept and to announce them without fear of the consequences. Truth to the scientist is a burning religion; he believes and follows the Biblical precept that "Ye shall know the truth, and the truth shall make you free."

2. **Habit of open-mindedness and suspended judgment.** A person with the scientific attitude always keeps his mind open for further information on an issue, problem, or question. He tries to see all sides of a question. Not only does he keep his mind open but he avidly seeks new information which will help him to arrive at a better solution or conclusion. He doesn't jump at conclusions and is not influenced by prejudices and preconceived notions; he has hypotheses, but he is willing to change them in the light of further information. If he is a teacher, he doesn't say that intelligence and subject-matter tests, new methods of teaching, trial promotions, the kindergarten, the junior high school, or other new ideas in education are "the bunk" until he has obtained ample information on the issues. He maintains suspended judgment until he has obtained all of the evidence available; even then he will probably state his conclusions as tentative only and will proceed to try to find new evidence. He holds the view expressed by Gotthold Epraim Lessing, eminent German critic and dramatist: "If God were to hold in His right hand all truth, and in His left the single ever-living impulse to seek for truth, though coupled with the condition of eternal error, and should say to me, 'Choose!' I would humbly fall before His left hand, and say, 'Father, give! Pure truth is, after all, for Thee alone!' "[1]

Persons who possess a scientific attitude in one or more fields of learning often fail to retain such an attitude when they make excursions into other fields; their scientific attitude is channelized rather than generalized. Thus, eminent physicians, chemists, teachers, and inventors often become

[1] Translated by Frank Pierrepont Graves in University of the State of New York *Bulletin,* No. 1100 (September 15, 1936), p. 49.

too sure of themselves on issues which are outside their domain; in fact, many of them have been known to be "laughed out of court" because of their statements on certain controversial questions not in their field of specialization. Persons who possess the highest type of scientific attitude maintain an open mind and suspended judgment in *every* field of vital thought and activity, and they are wont to maintain such attitudes especially toward the fields about which they know little or nothing; they agree with Pope that "A little learning is a dangerous thing," and they refrain from exposing their ignorance.

3. **Desire to make knowledge available.** A person with the scientific attitude will desire to share his knowledge with other persons—indeed, he will be willing to make personal sacrifices in order to share his knowledge. He will desire to share it because of his interest in and his desire to improve society. In brief, he will not want to keep his "light under a bushel" but will desire to shed it everywhere.

A test of the scientific attitude. The teacher or prospective teacher may desire to measure the stage of development of his scientific attitude by means of the following questions:

1. Just to be fashionable, do you vote with the majority, although you believe the majority to be wrong? Or do you vote your convictions even though your vote may be unpopular?
2. In school elections do you vote for the best qualified candidates although other candidates might reward you more?
3. Do you ever give a pupil a good mark in a subject because he has a pleasing personality or because his parents are influential?
4. Do you believe everything that is told you or which you read, or do you check such information against the known facts? Do you go back to the original or primary sources of information?
5. Do you "stick to your guns" because you hate to admit that you are wrong even though you know you are? Do you ever change your mind?
6. When your back is turned and some pupil throws a paper wad, do you assume that the "bad boy" of the room has thrown it although you have no evidence that he is guilty?
7. When you are expecting an increase in salary and do not receive it, do you conclude that school officials are prejudiced against you?

8. When you make school reports, do you insist upon complete accuracy in statistics and other information, or is your aim to get the task over as quickly as possible? Do you avoid approximations in data?

9. Do you ever question the social value of the curriculum of the modern school, or do you believe that the curriculum is perfect?

10. Do you always conclude that your methods of teaching are the best methods?

11. Do you indulge in gossip about people without having complete facts?

12. Are you careful to avoid overstatements even though they embellish the story?

13. Do you always want the truth even though it may be contrary to your interests?

14. Do you conclude that, when a school employee entertains a school official, the employee has an "axe to grind"?

15. Are your conclusions qualified and stated tentatively, or are they always stated in a cocksure manner?

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Many persons say that education can never be made a science. Do you agree with their view? Do you believe that education can be made as much a science as physics, chemistry, and other fields? Why or why not?

2. Do you agree with the following statement of Edward L. Thorndike: "Our ideals may be as lofty and subtle as you please, but if they are real ideals, they are ideals for achieving something; and if anything real is ever achieved it can be measured. I am suspicious of educational achievements which are so subtle and refined and spiritual that they cannot be measured. I fear that they do not exist." [1]

3. Do you believe that the placing of education on a scientific basis will give the public a greater respect for education? Explain.

4. How do you account for the fact that so much of the research in education does not sufficiently affect practice?

5. What are a few of the outstanding unsolved problems in education? To what extent have practices in the fields of these problems been determined by opinion and tradition? Of what value, if any, are opinion and tradition?

6. To what extent should elementary- and secondary-school teachers engage in research? List a few practical research problems upon which such teachers might work? What advantages in con-

[1] Edward L. Thorndike, in *Proceedings* of Indiana University Conference on Educational Measurements, 1914.

ducting research do elementary- and secondary-school teachers have over research specialists in colleges and universities?

7. What contributions have each of the following fields of learning made to the study of educational problems: biology, psychology, history of education, and sociology?

8. Recall the teachers whom you have had, and select the one who had the most highly developed scientific attitude. What were the chief characteristics of the scientific attitude of this teacher? Mention a few evidences of the lack of scientific attitude on the part of teachers whom you have known.

9. Compare the amount of scientific attitude of the typical teacher with the amount possessed by the typical physician, physicist, and chemist. Account for the difference, and suggest how it might be corrected.

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Chapter XXIV

DIRECTED OBSERVATION OF SCHOOL PROCEDURES

OBSERVATION AS A REQUIREMENT IN TEACHER PREPARATION

Universality of the requirement. School and classroom observation is a universal requirement in courses for the preparation of teachers; in fact, with the exception of practice teaching, no requirement in these courses is more frequent and valued more highly than school and classroom observation. In view of the universality of this phase of teacher preparation, this chapter is devoted to that subject. The chapter will essay to give the student an acquaintance with the purposes of observation and to suggest plans and procedures for conducting the work.

Since this book is designed for the first course in education, and since practically all institutions require the student to begin his observations during that course, the discussion of the chapter will be focused on those first observations. It is hoped, however, that the discussion will have valuable application to the observations in succeeding courses as well as to the observations conducted in the first course. Since school and classroom observation is one of the best means which the teacher can use in keeping abreast of developments in his profession, it is hoped also that the discussion will be helpful to the teacher throughout his professional career.

The curricula of modern teacher-preparing institutions are constituted of three fundamental bodies of material, namely, (1) *professional courses* (education, psychology, etc.); (2) *subject-matter courses* (especially in the subjects which the student expects to teach, such as mathematics,

English, etc.); and (3) *field and laboratory experiences* (observation, experimentation, practice teaching, internship teaching, etc.). Arthur R. Mead states that five types of school and classroom observation are being used by modern teacher-preparing institutions; these are:

1. Observation as a part of theory courses (e.g., with educational psychology)
2. Observation as a part of subject-matter courses (e.g., with English literature or arithmetic)
3. Observation parallel with student teaching, after student teaching, and immediately previous to student teaching
4. Observation with participation
5. Observation in a graded series of activities as follows: observation, participation, student teaching [1]

The discussion which follows will be focused primarily on the first type of observation mentioned by Mead. Practically all teacher-preparing institutions have their own training schools in which it is expected that as many of their students as possible will do most of their observing and practice teaching.[2] These schools have the advantage of possessing demonstration, critic, or supervisory teachers who are especially qualified to assist in a program of teacher preparation; moreover, they possess equipment and other facilities which are usually above the average in quality and in amount.

In many institutions, though, the training schools are not large enough to provide observation and practice teaching facilities for all the students in the teacher-preparing department. This situation has generally been met by making provisions whereby some of the students may do part or all of their observation and practice teaching in other schools which are conveniently located in the community or in neighboring communities. In fact, most institutions have tried to provide for all students some observation and practice teaching opportunities in these other schools; they have followed this policy because of desiring to give their students

[1] Arthur R. Mead, *Supervised Student-Teaching*, Johnson, 1930, pp. 160–161. By permission of Johnson Publishing Company, publishers.

[2] These so-called *training* schools are also occasionally labeled *model*, *practice*, or *experimental* schools.

an acquaintance with typical conditions which they will confront when they become teachers. Since most teachers begin their service in the rural, village, and small city school systems, attempt is usually made to provide for some of the observation and practice teaching in such systems.

Purposes of the requirement. The belief underlying the observation requirement is that in meeting the requirement the student will learn much from imitation—especially from the imitation of excellent practice—and will be assisted in filling the inevitable gap between theory and practice. What the student sees with his own eyes is more likely to make a lasting impression upon him than what he is told or reads about; in other words, "seeing is believing." Experiences secured by first-hand observation are likely to be clear, complete, and integrated, whereas experiences received vicariously are likely to be vague, lopsided, and wooden. Not even the best written or oral description of excellent schools or of excellent teaching can be a full substitute for *seeing* such schools and such teaching. Although one picture may not be "worth ten thousand words," as the old Chinese bromide claims, the advantage of seeing things with one's own eyes—of having first-hand experience rather than vicarious experience—will not be gainsaid.

Just as no sane person would permit a physician who had never seen an operation to attempt to perform an operation, so the necessity for school and classroom observation as a prerequisite for teaching is also recognized by all thinking persons. The tendency is to begin these observations soon after the student enters the teacher-preparing curriculum and to continue them to the end of the curriculum. Thus, in the first course in education the tendency is to require a certain number—usually two to six—of directed observations; as a rule, these observations are arranged toward the close of the course, but advantages are often claimed for beginning them early in the course and continuing them throughout the course.

The observations which are made in connection with any course should have the same purposes as the course of which the observations are a part; they should work hand in glove

with, and should motivate, the course. Thus, the observations which are a part of the first course in education should contribute to a realization of the announced *orientation* and *guidance* purposes of the course. More specifically the purposes of the observations in this first course should be as follows:

1. *To give the student a better first-hand acquaintance with the school as a whole.* This acquaintance should be broad. It should encompass the school's purposes and procedures. It should include the school site, building, and equipment. It should comprise all grades and as many subjects as possible. It should extend to the organization and administration of the school as well as to teaching. In brief, it should attempt to give a *telescopic* view of the school and to show something of the relation of each part to the whole. It should help to prepare the student for his observations in later courses—observations which generally will require a microscopic view rather than a telescopic view.

2. *To help the student decide upon the type of educational service which he wishes to enter.* This purpose is suggested because many students have but a meager basis for deciding whether they want to be kindergarten, primary, intermediate, upper grade, or secondary teachers, or whether they want to be teachers or administrators; they lack information on the opportunities and the requirements in the several fields of educational service. The student should observe the various grades, departments, and subjects of the school in order that he may secure further information upon which to base his choice of a career. When the student has made his choice, he can emphasize, of course, the observation of that particular grade, department, or subject in order that he may better prepare himself for student teaching in that area; if time permits, this emphasis may be begun in the first course, but it will, as a rule, have to be postponed until later courses.

MAKING OBSERVATIONS MORE VALUABLE

Preparation for observations. Since education is one of the largest and most technical endeavors, it is difficult to observe. In fact, education is so large and so technical that it is almost baffling even to the best prepared and the most experienced observer. What, then, of the neophyte observer! Obviously the neophyte cannot make an intelligent and confident beginning in observation without a quantum of preparation. He must be prepared on what and how to

observe, and he must realize that procedures which are clear to the practiced observer are often beyond the discernment of the beginning observer. He must be given this preparation in spite of the fact that he has been something of an "observer" for twelve years in the elementary and secondary schools. Without this preparation the neophyte is like unto the six blind men of Indostan who went to see the elephant:

> It was six men of Indostan
> To learning much inclined.
> Who went to see the elephant
> (Though all of them were blind),
> That each by observation
> Might satisfy his mind.
>
> . . . . .
>
> So oft in theologic wars,
> The disputants I ween,
> Rant on in utter ignorance
> Of what each other mean,
> *And prate about an elephant*
> *Not one of them has seen.*[1]

According to Arthur R. Mead, two types of information should be possessed by the student before he begins his observation. The first type is calculated to give the student a background of knowledge concerning school aims and procedures; the second type is calculated to instruct him in the techniques of observation, that is, on how to observe, what to observe, and how to analyze, to interpret, and to report the observation. We quote from Mead:

Two types of learning activity are necessary precedents to the study of teaching by observation. The first type is the preliminary learning of facts, principles, etc., in theory and subject-matter courses (in those types of observation in which the data from observation are not made the basis of the course in theory). This study serves to establish apperceptive bases for use in observation as well as to secure outcomes not so dependent on observation. . . . The first is usually secured by completion of units in such courses. For example, one system of observation begins on an apperceptive basis established

[1] John Godfrey Saxe, "The Blind Men and the Elephant (A Hindoo Fable)."

through elementary and secondary education and two and one-half years of college education which includes subject matter and theory. Another system begins the observation in the first year of the college course but after the study of a part of the course. It should not be overlooked, also, that there is another type which starts with observation in the first year rather than after the study of a unit in the first year. In this case preliminary preparation for the work is omitted and the student learns primarily through observation and discussion, and study related to the observation. Here actual school conditions are supposed to be the basis of the course.

The second type of preparation consists of learning how to observe, record data, and make analyses of data derived from such a study of teaching. A general conference of all student observers held at the beginning of the work is often used for this purpose. Printed or mimeographed directions, manuals, and guides are supplied for the study. . . .[1]

In addition to the two steps of preparation which are suggested by Mead in the foregoing quotation a third step, namely, preacquaintance with the work of the school or the class exercise which is to be observed, would seem to be helpful. This third step should acquaint the student with the distinctive purposes of the school or the class exercise, with any unusual teaching procedures, and with any other unusual features. The aim in taking this step should be merely to give information on the practices to be observed; the aim should not be to propagandize for those practices or for any other practice which has not been found to be the best through experimentation. This acquaintance may be secured through a general conference of all student observers before the observation of the school or the class exercise, or the student may find the information in a catalogue, a manual, or a prospectus of the school, provided, of course, the school is fortunate enough to have such a document.

Cooperating with school officials and the training teacher. An observation can be most successful only when the observer cooperates with school officials and the training teacher to secure that result. The observer should remember that he is a *guest* of the school; he should, therefore, practice all the proprieties which are expected any-

[1] Mead, *op. cit.*, pp. 167–168. By permission of Johnson Publishing Company, publishers.

where of a cultured guest. He should remember that the school is run for the pupils of the school, not for its observers. The observer can best cooperate with school officials and the training teacher by being as unobtrusive and as quiet as possible, and he should remember that even under the most favorable conditions the presence of visitors is likely to be slightly disturbing and burdensome to school officials, teachers, and pupils. Looking toward reducing such disturbance and burden to a minimum, and toward further improvement of observations, especially in the first course in education, the following suggestions are made:

1. Unless the arrangements have already been made for you, present yourself at the office of the principal as soon as you enter the building and request permission to observe. Secure there also any directions, and follow them in detail and meticulously.

2. Arrange your schedule so that you can remain in the school as many periods of the day as possible. The purpose of the first observations should be to become acquainted with the school as a whole, and continuous observation throughout the day will contribute much to the realization of that purpose. If possible, eat lunch in the school cafeteria to observe whether this period is being conducted as a part of the educational program of the school; see how intermissions are conducted; visit the library, shops, laboratories, gymnasium, and similar features.

3. When about to visit a class, present yourself to the teacher before the beginning of the class and request the privilege of observing his class, unless these steps have already been taken for you. It is bad taste to stalk into a classroom before receiving permission. Whenever possible, enter and leave a class exercise only during an intermission. If it is necessary to enter or to leave during a class exercise, do so as quietly and as inconspicuously as possible. If possible, avoid passing in front of the children, and try to occupy a seat or to stand where you will not attract the attention of the pupils.

4. Beyond showing a polite interest in the work of the school or a class, refrain from further expression of approval or disapproval while in a classroom or the school. Try to hear and to see everything, but say or do nothing which will convey your appraisal of any part of the work. Remember that you are a neophyte and not an expert practitioner. Do not offer suggestions, especially when they are not solicited.

5. During a class exercise, avoid talking to each other or to the pupils. Likewise avoid laughing, moving about, or similar disturbances.

6. Do your part in trying to make the pupils react in a normal way. If the pupils are distracted by your presence, temporarily turn your attention away from them. Discourage any attempt "to play to the grandstand" by seeming not to notice it.

7. Upon leaving a class exercise, thank the teacher for the privilege of visiting his class, unless this action would interrupt his work. Teachers and school officials will probably not have time to "visit" with you; don't be a poacher on their time.

8. Don't gossip about school officials, teachers, pupils, or the school. To do so would violate the ethics of the teaching profession. Good taste doesn't permit us to gossip about our host or hostess, which in the case here mentioned is the school, its officials, its employees, and its pupils.

Obtaining data from the observation. An observation of a school or of a class exercise may be regarded as having many of the characteristics of a scientific investigation. Just as the scientist must collect, organize, and interpret the data of his investigation, so the observer of a school or of a class exercise must collect, organize, and interpret the data of his observation. And just as the scientist must be on guard lest he fail to secure complete and accurate data, so the school or classroom observer must realize that the complexity of the educational process makes it exceedingly difficult for him to obtain complete and accurate information.

The observer should enter into his work in the spirit of a humble student of the important, huge, and complex enterprise of education. He should assume the attitude of a real student rather than the attitude of a carping critic or of an officious inspector. In attempting to study any phase of the work of a school he should have the attitude of a real scientist who tries always to find the truth; he should exhibit the scientific attitude. He should search assiduously for all facts on a problem and should maintain suspended judgment until all the facts are present.

In brief, he should maintain an open mind toward what he observes. He should not be "taken in" by every new theory, "ism," or practice; on the contrary, he should not look askance at everything that is new. He should worship both the god of what is and the god of what ought to be,

but he should worship more devoutly the god of what ought to be. He should be always interested in progress, but he should know that change is not necessarily progress and that the labeling of a practice as *progressive* or *efficient* does not necessarily make it progressive or efficient.

Alertness to the whole problem of education is a *sine qua non* for the school or classroom observer. Although each observation should be organized especially to see certain things, those things should be seen in relation to other things, and the seeing of them should not preclude the seeing of other things. The student must learn to observe more than the details of a class exercise; he should observe also such things as the organization and administration of the school, the type of curriculum, the mentality and learning readiness of the pupils, classroom management, health and sanitary conditions, and the equipment with which the teacher has to work. He should learn to see the forest in spite of the trees and to see the relation of the individual tree to the whole forest. This will require that the observer's mind be active in its fringe of consciousness as well as in its center of consciousness. Above all, the observer must look for significant principles, because these principles will be his anchor when he becomes a teacher.

In any attempt to observe and to appraise the work of a school or of a class exercise, the observer should proceed first to ascertain whether the work is guided by aims and whether those aims are the most desirable. The presence and the merit of aims having been established, there remains the task of appraising the efficiency with which the aims are being accomplished. And the observer should realize that the taking of these two steps is very difficult because of the difficulty of receiving complete and accurate data. Even the most experienced observers find difficulty in securing complete and accurate data, especially in one observation. What, then, of neophyte observers!

The observation period should be used wholly for the collection of data, reserving for a later time the organization and the interpretation of the data. During the ob-

servation it is, of course, permissible for the observer to take notes.[1] In fact, the taking of notes is suggested, and for subsequent use the notes will be found to be serviceable in proportion to their accuracy, clarity, and completeness. The notes may be taken in various ways, and may vary from brief "running" notes to a complete stenographic record.

In most instances, provided he wants to hear and to see what is going on, the student will have to be satisfied with brief "running" notes which he will take during the observation. After the observation, and before his impressions have become hazy, he should supplement, organize, and edit his notes in order that they may give a more accurate, clear, and complete picture of his impressions. In many instances, the period of the observation will not provide all the data necessary for the observation report, and the student will have to supply the missing data through an individual conference with school officials or the training teacher, or through reading; he should never guess at the missing data.

Most teacher-preparing institutions provide the observer with directions to follow in making observations. Many schools also have a report blank, or a series of report blanks, which the observer is expected to use in reporting his observations.[2] Directions and report blanks, especially directions, are recommended, provided they are not permitted to degenerate into stereotyped affairs and thus to interfere with broad observations and student thinking. Report blanks which contain long lists of rambling and unrelated questions are likely to interfere with broad observations and thinking and are, therefore, to be frowned upon. Such items of information as the following should be secured for each observation:[3]

[1] A few teachers are opposed to the taking of notes during an observation because they claim that it disturbs the teacher and the pupils. The desires of such teachers must, of course, be respected.

[2] For samples of such report blanks, see the Selected References at the close of this chapter; see especially Mead, *op. cit.*, pp. 160–217.

[3] This report blank is based largely upon *The Ohio Teaching Record: Anecdotal Observation Form*, Ohio State University, 1941. By permission of the College of Education, Ohio State University, publishers.

Name of the school ..... Name of the teacher observed ..... Date of observation ..... Hour or period observed ..... Subject or grade ..... Number of pupils in class or group ..... Brief description of the classroom (Adequacy of equipment, decorations, etc.) .....

.....

.....

Brief description of the pupils (age, sex, race, etc.) .....

.....

.....

Other descriptive data .....

.....

.....

Secure answers to as many of the following questions as possible:

1. What were the materials of instruction? What subject matter did the teacher emphasize and what did he neglect? .....

.....

.....

2. *What was the function of the subject matter?* So far as you could see, what was the teacher trying to accomplish? .....

.....

.....

3. *What methods of instruction were emphasized?* What methods were used over and over, and what appropriate methods were neglected? .....

.....

.....

4. *How effective did the teacher's materials and methods seem to be?* .....

.....

.....

5. *How did the teacher help students with their personal problems?* Did he neglect such opportunities? Did he help certain pupils and neglect others? What kinds of problems were emphasized, and how effectively were they handled? .....

.....

.....

6. *What did the teacher do to promote better school-community relations?* What did he emphasize, and what did he overlook? .....

.....

.....

7. *To what extent and by what means were democratic attitudes and relationships fostered?* Did the teacher practice democracy? Did the teacher make the students conscious of democratic and authoritarian tendencies in their daily living? .....

. . . . . .

. . . . . .

8. *What evidence did the teacher show of having specialized training in the subject or area in which he was teaching?* Was the teacher competent or incompetent? Why? . . . . . .

. . . . . .

. . . . . .

Unless the student is an accomplished stenographer, which he will probably not be, he will have difficulty in obtaining a "black-and-white record" of everything seen and heard in the observation. Moreover, an attempt to obtain such a record would probably prevent him from seeing some of the more important matters such as educational principles, the personal relations existing between the teacher and the pupils, and the educational setting or environment; in brief, the attempt to take verbatim notes might well prevent the student from "seeing the forest because of the trees."

A few schools make provision from time to time for an accomplished stenographer to accompany a group of observers to a class exercise and to take a stenographic record of everything that happens, especially everything that is said by teacher and pupils. This record is then mimeographed and placed in the hands of each student, first for individual study and later for group discussion. Although he admits that a stenographic record is nothing more than a "black-and-white lesson" and that it has such limitations as failing to reproduce the personal relations existing between teacher and pupils, Romiett Stevens claims the following advantages for such a record:

> With all these limitations, however, the stenographic report has distinct uses. Shorn thus of all embellishments it is of importance to the student to see what the lesson offers in intellectual and educational substance. It is this residue that furnishes him material for study. It not infrequently happens that groups of students come from a class observation completely dominated by the personality of the teacher, in some instances where there is little to commend except a charming and dramatic manner on the part of the teacher. The stenographic lesson report soon reveals the actual strength or weakness in the content of the lesson and in the psychology of its presentation.

It gives the *facts* of the lesson for analysis and study, and for repeated analysis and study as the student grows in the power to observe; whereas from the general observation he has only *impressions* to work upon, impressions that are easily obscured or effaced. With the manuscript as a basis, or point of departure, it is also possible to do constructive work on content, plan, questioning, application, etc.[1]

Reports and conferences on observations. After the student has collected the data on the observation, he has the further task of organizing, interpreting, evaluating, and reporting the data. Without these steps the value of the observation is largely lost. Most teacher-preparing institutions require student observers to make either an oral or a written report of each observation.

Following each observation most teacher-preparing institutions make provision for group or individual conferences on the observation. The purpose of these conferences is to bring into clearer view the principles and the practices found operating in the school or class-exercise observed. These conferences afford an opportunity for the observer to ask questions, to make suggestions, and to receive suggestions regarding the work of the school or classroom observed. Moreover, the conferences provide opportunity for giving training in the making of further observations and in reporting them. In brief, the conferences are generally regarded as a vital part of the observation program and a wise student will not neglect the opportunity which they afford.

The report of, and any conference on, the observation should follow fairly closely the observation. The longer the delay in writing the report or in holding the conference, the more hazy the impression of the observation is likely to be. On the contrary, there is a possibility that a report made, or a conference held, too soon after the observation will lead to snap judgment. Good practice, therefore, should steer between these two dangers and should recognize that the first danger is far greater.

In making any written reports, the student should always

[1] Romiett Stevens, "Stenographic Reports of High School Lessons," *Teachers College Record,* Vol. 11 (September, 1910), p. 2.

follow an acceptable style regarding footnotes, bibliographies, tables, illustrations, organization, and English; acceptable standards in these details should be regarded as part of his preparation for teaching. Illustrations may be found in this book, and unless the instructor requires other styles, the styles herein illustrated may well be followed by students.

OTHER TYPES OF DIRECT EXPERIENCES

Students who are preparing for some phase of educational service will be helped by supplementing their school and classroom observations with other types of experiences related to education. Many teacher-preparing institutions make provisions for these other types of direct experience, and some of them require the experiences of all students. Such experiences, especially of an observational nature, can be begun early in the student's preservice preparation and can be continued throughout his professional career. Although there are hundreds of others, some of the most ubiquitous and valuable of these experiences are the following:

1. Observation and group leadership in child welfare and similar activities such as Boy and Girl Scouts, Campfire Girls, Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., Sunday school, camps, and playgrounds
2. Case studies of children
3. Visits to governmental, civic, and social agencies such as juvenile courts, detention homes, legislative assemblies, health departments, institutions for mentally deficient or handicapped persons, guidance centers, children's hospitals, and clinics of various kinds
4. Community studies
5. Practice teaching; also internship teaching

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. In the conduct of observation and practice teaching, do you believe that teacher-preparing institutions could learn anything from colleges of medicine? Compare the emphasis upon and the facilities for observation and practice teaching with the emphasis upon and the facilities for clinics and internships in colleges of medicine.
2. In view of the influence of *imitation* in teacher preparation, why

should the observation of the best models be stressed? Would there be any advantage in observing an inefficient school or class exercise? What danger might there be in observing an inefficient example?

3. Do you believe that observations should be begun with a telescopic view, or with a microscopic view? Why?

4. Discuss the importance of the school or classroom observer possessing the scientific attitude. What are some of the chief characteristics of such an attitude?

5. Why do many parents object to having their children taught by practice teachers? Are such objections valid, and how may the objections be minimized? What standards should the student meet before he is permitted to do his practice teaching? Is it legitimate to require him to have a certain standard of scholarship as evidenced by his marks?

6. Compare the advantages of observing in a training school with those of observing in a regular school such as the student will probably find employment in.

7. Discuss the advantages and the shortcomings of complete stenographic reports of class exercises as material for the study of teaching procedures.

8. In making an observation of a school or class exercise, what should be the final test of efficiency?

9. List a few outstanding standards which you would expect an excellent school to meet. List similar standards for a class exercise. Be able to justify each standard.

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