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INTRODUCTION TO

AMERICAN PUBLIC EDUCATION

BY

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SECOND EDITION
FOURTH IMPRESSION

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INTRODUCTION TO AMERICAN PUBLIC EDUCATION

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To My Wife

MARION EDNA DE YOUNG

PREFACE

This book is designed as an introduction to American public education, which is interpreted to include schools, colleges, universities, and all other forms of education conducted for the public and supported in whole or in part by the public. For example, although the educational program for the veterans of the Second World War is not open to all youth, yet it is one form of publicly financed education. The volume, *Introduction to American Public Education*, therefore, provides an overview of all education in which the American public invests its time or money or both. Naturally the public schools, which are for all the children of all the people and which are supported by public funds, constitute the backbone of American public education. Education, however, is broader than mere schooling. Because of the wide reach of American public education, the volume presents basic features rather than minute details. It aims at orienting the prospective teacher or the layman without confusing him with a bewildering mass of minutiae.

This book, which may serve as a handy reference for teachers, principals, supervisors, superintendents, and laymen, is intended primarily for education courses for prospective teachers. It is organized on the basis of teaching-learning units which are components of five major aspects of American public education:

1. Organization and administration of public education
2. Areas of public education
3. Personnel in public education
4. Provisions for educational materials and environment
5. Interpretation of education

1. The organization of the book is flexible, permitting a variety of approaches. The student may start with the broad overview of American public education, provided through Unit I, National Program of Education. Or the student may begin with his recent experience in a local school system and then progress outward to the larger areas: the township, county, state, and nation. In that case Unit IV, Local School Districts, is used for the initial approach.

2. The prospective teacher may then study the internal structure and program of American public education on *all* levels, despite the fact that he may teach in a specific area, such as the secondary school. Lifelong learning starts with birth, advances through the pre-elementary stages of the nursery school and kindergarten, and continues through elementary

secondary, and higher education. It includes also education for out-of-school youth. The capstone of adult education makes real the cherished goal of continuous learning for modern Americans.

3. The next group of units deals with the personnel involved in American public education. The reader adds to his growing knowledge of the pupils. He analyzes some problems of the classroom teacher and learns of the challenge of the teaching profession. He discovers the diversity of educational work, as he studies school personnel other than classroom teachers, such as deans, visiting nurses, attendance officers, county and state school officials, business managers, clerks, principals, *et al.*

4. The personnel cannot function effectively without materials and equipment with which to work; hence the next section is devoted to provisions for educational materials and environment. The curriculum today, as broad as life itself, is reinforced by cocurricular activities. The success of curricular and cocurricular activities is conditioned by educational supplies and equipment and by other aspects of the educational environment, such as school sites and buildings. These facilities are made available through educational leadership and financial support.

5. The concluding section, which also may be used as an initial problem approach or collaterally with each unit, deals with an interpretation of education. Here the student is given the opportunity to analyze many of the educational issues, to evaluate the trends, and to synthesize his information and thinking into clearer concepts of the functions of American public education.

CHRIS A. DE YOUNG

NORMAL, ILLINOIS
April, 1950

SUGGESTIONS FOR USING THIS BOOK

The author makes the following suggestions for the use of this material, which has been subjected to experimental tryouts in typical college classes:

1. This volume may serve as the basal textbook but not as the only source of information. The best way to orient students in education is to expose them to extensive reading of many references and to significant experiences with a wide variety of materials. To this end, each unit contains a descriptive bibliography and aids, with specific chapter or page references to books, and a list of current pertinent periodicals and publications, which may be consulted for up-to-date material. *The Annals, Education Digest, History of Education Journal, Educator's Washington Dispatch, Educational Summary, Encyclopedia of Educational Research, Dictionary of Education, Dictionary of Psychology, Educational Index,* and *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* contain leads to valuable source materials for each unit. Helpful biographical information on American educators is found in such references as *Who's Who in American Education* and *Leaders in Education.* Listings of numerous schools and colleges are available in such works as *American Educational Directory, Educational Directory, American Junior Colleges, American Universities and Colleges, A Handbook of Private Schools,* etc. Students and teachers should be encouraged to survey the ideas and contributions of many authors.

2. The descriptive bibliography and aids also include audio-visual aids. Some of the sources where these multisensory aids can be purchased or rented are indicated. Many illustrations and diagrams in the book help students to visualize the contents.

3. American public education is not mere formal instruction; hence its study should not be a static recitation procedure or a rehash of factual matter. Modern curriculum guides list suggested activities as well as subject matter. These activities help to ensure learning since they encourage the reader to study pupils, schools, and the community as well as books. Therefore each unit contains suggested activities in order that the course may function in the lives of the prospective teachers now and later. Individual differences among students may be met by their selecting from these suggested activities individual or committee projects. Each prospective teacher need not perform all these activities, nor should all students necessarily do the same ones. For instance, it may prove difficult for an entire class to visit a nursery school. A representative or committee from the class may make the actual observations and report to the group.

4. The previews constitute a tool for correlating and organizing the materials in this volume. The preview for each of the five major groups

of units is a factor that binds together the various related parts. Thus the Preview for Organization and Administration of Public Education relates the four components—national, state, county, and local systems. Furthermore, the Preview facing the first page of each of the 17 units is an organic part of the presentation. The running description of the content that is to follow and the organized outline give the student and the teacher a general frame for the picture of the unit. The instructor may find it helpful to place on the blackboard the points in the skeletal outline, or a modification thereof, as pegs on which to hang the crucial ideas of the unit.

5. Several of the units contain handy historical calendars which present in chronological order some of the notable educational events, paralleled with outstanding high lights in the political, social, and economic world. The calendars are not designed as *memoriter* exercises, although some dates are well worth remembering. Rather, the calendars serve as a handy chart or time line of the evolution and development of specific areas in American public education.

6. The Appendixes contain supplementary material for each unit. Each item in the functional Appendixes is keyed to the various units by identical numbers. Thus material at the back of the book for Unit I, National Program of Education, is labeled Appendix I.

7. Because of the wide variation in educational practice between and within states, the content of each unit is general, although it is frequently punctuated with specific illustrations. The state in which the text is used has its own educational background and peculiarities. Therefore, the instructor may wish to supplement this volume with concrete data and specific problems for a particular state.

The alert teacher, with the cooperation of the students, will discover many additional ways in which the book, *Introduction to American Public Education*, can orient students in education and develop a critical understanding of the teaching profession.

CHRIS A. DE YOUNG

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EDITOR'S INTRODUCTION TO THE SECOND EDITION

Few education textbooks have had so wide an acceptance by the profession as had the first edition of this book. It was published at the beginning of a new era in world education, an era in which the prestige and the influence of the American school system were to be rapidly and colorfully extended. It was used from 1942 onward in universities and colleges for the preparation of a new generation of American schoolteachers, young men and women whose destiny it was to live in a world very different in educational challenges and problems from the world of 1932, 1922, or 1912. It was employed on a large scale by the armed forces. It has served its country in occupied areas overseas. It has traveled as ambassador of American education to many lands.

Even if Dean De Young were not the author of the first edition of this book, he would have high qualifications for preparing the second edition. His wide experience in and comprehensive knowledge of schools and teaching in the United States, together with his distinguished record in international education, combine to fit him uniquely for presenting the total picture of American education to Americans and to that growing number of persons in other countries who want to know about American education.

HAROLD BENJAMIN

UNIVERSITY OF MARYLAND
April, 1950

EDITOR'S INTRODUCTION TO FIRST EDITION

Primitive man probably first measured the length of his journeys by grunts of weariness and described the size of his fish by exclamations of pride and wonder. Later, his desire for greater precision drove him to further gestures of comparison. He swung an arm from east to west until he had counted off the number of elapsed suns in a journey. He showed the bigness of the fish he had actually caught by distance between outstretched hands or, better yet, by tail and head notches on his fishing pole. Thus he came at length to the place where he referred many matters of distance and weight to generally agreed-upon, relatively unchanging units like millimeters and light-years, grams and tons.

National programs of education are still commonly measured by the grunt system. It may be that they have to be so measured. Perhaps they are at once too big in scope and too small in detail, too simple in purpose and too complex in procedure, too far from a single observer and too close to all observers to be evaluated readily by another method. Perhaps the conscious and systematic changing of a people's ways is so fraught with possibilities of tragic consequence that men shrink from the task of judging its worth. Or perhaps nations have merely not yet hit upon a workable system of appraising culture changes in simple terms of the new needs, new wants, new problems, and new goals which have given rise to these changes.

Because of a tendency in the United States to confuse the terms "national" and "federal," it should be emphasized that all the educational agencies of this country—federal, state, and local, public and private, school and nonschool agencies— constitute the national system of education. The very fact that even educators think of a national system of education in the United States as meaning a federal system indicates the difficulty of envisaging the country's total pattern of education. But whatever may be the causes of this naïve attitude toward the question of the worth of a country's education system, it is true that the operators of the system, the educators, are often more naïve than the laymen in this regard. Professional as well as national pride holds them to the grunt level of evaluation. They exclaim over the details of their educational machinery and then go on turning its cranks and greasing its cogwheels with unquestioning fidelity.

It is, therefore, particularly important that a broad view of the country's total system of education should be achieved by those whose daily work requires them to pay close attention to the details of the system. Pros-

pective teachers need to acquire this over-all view early in their professional preparation. This is a *technical* necessity. A young teacher may enter the profession without knowing whether the additive method of subtraction is superior to the take-away method and still be able to reach very promptly a high level of technical skill, but one who begins teaching with no adequate means of looking critically at all the methods, all the materials, all the personnel, and all the agencies whereby the nation seeks to change its culture can only imitate technical skills. The greatest technical fault in any profession is to use a method or device without knowing why it is used. It is an especially grievous and dangerous fault in that profession which calls for all the studied craft and inspired artistry, all the precise knowledge and controlled action, all the shrewd planning and glowing faith which a nation can devote to an activity that holds and foreshadows all its future.

The prospective teacher needs early to acquire this broad view; the experienced teacher must cultivate it both early and late. The present book is designed to help give a basis for this acquisition and retention. It provides well-arranged units on organization and administration of public education, the areas of education, the personnel, and the physical facilities and equipment of the schools. Then, as a final or accompanying unit, it provides for the identification and study of educational issues and trends. It is in the area of this master unit that the book must be subjected to its severest test. Meeting that test, it will aid the growth in understanding and technical power of a profession whose members can appraise their country's educational efforts on a level higher than that of the prideful grunt or a scornful swing of the arms.

HAROLD BENJAMIN

UNIVERSITY OF MARYLAND
January, 1942

Part I

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

Preview of Part I

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

American public education is presented in five main sections, the first of which is Organization and Administration. The first and highest unit in the hierarchy of organizations is the national, which is vitally related to the state, county, and local educational systems (see Fig. 1-2).

Although the Constitution does not mention education or schools, the federal government has a direct and indirect interest in public education. The chief educational agency of the United States is the Office of Education, with its Commissioner of Education, in the Federal Security Agency. During the Second World War and in the postwar period, the United States Office of Education expanded its staff greatly to meet new needs and demands. Many national activities are connected with those of other countries, especially in UNESCO (Unit I).

The adoption of the Tenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States made education primarily a state function. Although the state may delegate some of its authority to the local or intermediate districts, the state commissioner of education serves as the chief centralizing agent for public education within the state (Unit II).

The postwar period has witnessed a marked trend toward larger school units. Some school units are as large as a township or county. These may be intermediate units between the state and local districts (Unit III).

American public education has its local application in the public-school district, which is usually administered by an elected board of education and an appointed superintendent of schools. School administration in a dynamic democracy calls for a high order of educational statesmanship. Organization and administration should be the servants and not the masters of education (Unit IV).

Part I

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

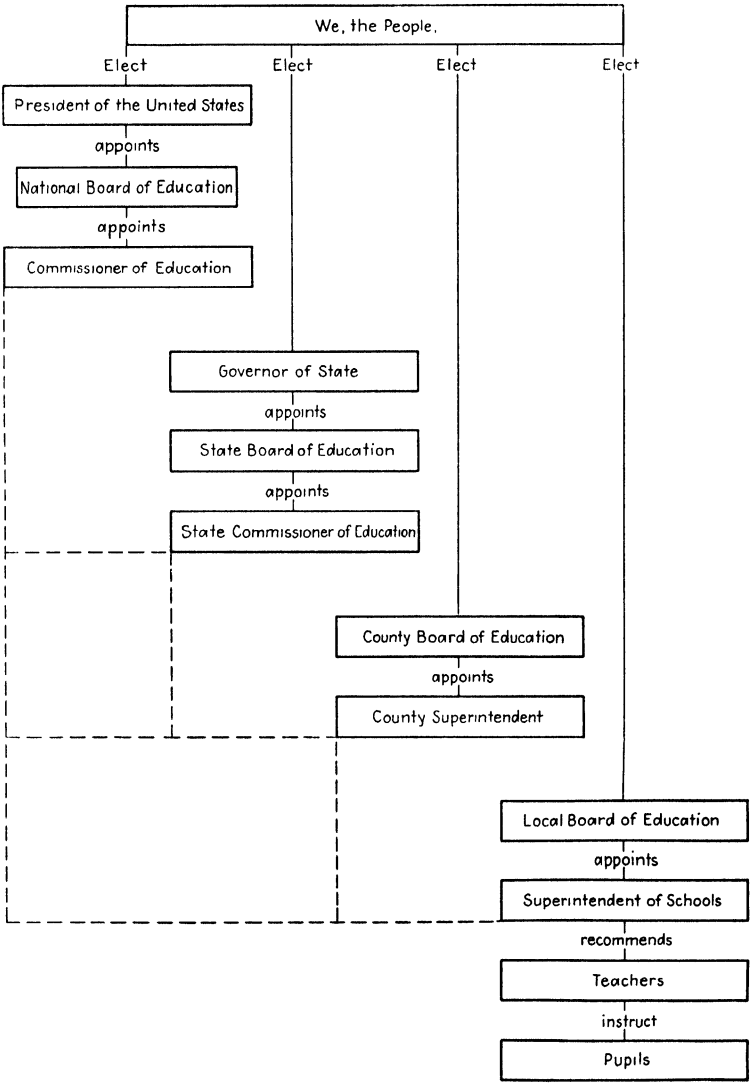


FIG. 1-2. Proposed organization—national, state, county, and local.

PREVIEW OF UNIT I

NATIONAL PROGRAM OF EDUCATION

The Constitution of the United States does not contain the word "schools" or the word "education." Despite this omission, the federal government, starting with the Northwest Ordinance in 1787, has evinced directly and indirectly its interest in a national program for improving education.

The centralizing agency is the United States Office of Education. Its main function is to promote education.

The Office is headed by the United States Commissioner of Education. His duties are numerous and varied.

Federal education is conducted in special jurisdictions, such as the District of Columbia, Alaska and Hawaii, and many dependencies. Other national efforts in education include schools for special groups, such as the American Indians, and cooperation with federal departments and national organizations. International activities in education are increasing.

A national system of education is slowly evolving. Many proposals have been advanced for its improvement.

Outline of Contents

Introduction
- Education and American democracy
- Need for federal participation in education
- Federal control undesirable and unnecessary

Development of Federal Activities in Education
- Historical calendar
- Basic federal legislation
- Education for national defense
- Federal grants—nonvocational
- Grants for vocational education
- Other federal provisions for education

United States Office of Education
- Evolution of Office
- Appropriations for federal Office
- Activities of Office of Education
- Organization of federal Office

United States Commissioner of Education
- History of commissionership
- Duties of commissioner

Other Federal Activities in Education
- Education in special federal jurisdictions
- Education of special groups
- Departmental programs of education
- Role of United States in international education

An Evolving National System of Education
- Principles and proposals for improvement of national system

UNIT I

NATIONAL PROGRAM OF EDUCATION

James Truslow Adams in describing the growth of America wrote:

> But there has been also the American dream, that dream of a land in which life should be better and richer and fuller for every man, with opportunity for each according to his ability or achievement. . . . If we are to make the dream come true we must all work together, no longer to build bigger, but to build better. There is a time for quantity and a time for quality. There is a time when quantity may become a menace and the law of diminishing returns begins to operate, but not so with quality. By working together . . . I mean a genuine individual search and striving for the abiding values of life.[1]

The abiding values in the American dream can be attained through individual and collective striving for perfection. A potent instrument for improving the quality of personal and group living is American public education, which embraces the national program of education, state organizations, large units within the state, and local districts—all dedicated to the promotion of American democracy. As stated by the eleventh United States Commissioner of Education, Earl J. McGrath, "A democratic nation needs to develop its human resources no less than its natural resources. This is chiefly the task of the schools. . . . Education is the road to personal and political freedom."[2]

Education and American Democracy. Education is indispensable to democracy, and democracy is a necessity for education. President Harry S. Truman in one of his budget messages to Congress stated, "The American people have long recognized that provision of an adequate education for everyone is essential in a democratic system of government." The basic goal in American education is equal educational opportunity. This has been defined as follows by the President's Commission on Higher Education:

> Equal educational opportunity for all persons, to the maximum of their individual abilities and without regard to economic status, race, creed, color, sex, national origin, or ancestry is a major goal of American democracy. Only an informed, thoughtful, tolerant people can maintain and develop free society.
>
> Equal opportunity for education does not mean equal or identical education

[1] James Truslow Adams, *The Epic of America*, pp. 404, 411–412, Little, Brown, 1932.

[2] Earl J. McGrath, "Education Is the Road to Freedom," *National Education Association Journal*, April, 1949, p. 258.

for all individuals. It means, rather, that education at all levels shall be available to every qualified person.[3]

President James B. Conant of Harvard University said:

> We believe in providing education for *all* American children and *all* American youth, not a privileged few, and have deep concern to make them all men and women imbued with a high sense of dignity as individuals and devoted to the historic freedom of this nation. Our educational goal is admittedly ambitious—first-rate free education for all future citizens of this country. . . .
>
> Our educational system reflects the social structure of this free and fluid nation. Our free tax-supported schools are the sinews of our society; they are the product of our special history, a concrete manifestation of our ideals, and the instrument by which the American concept of democracy may be transmitted to our future citizens.[4]

Need for Federal Participation in Education. Federal participation is necessary in order to implement these basic principles of education, *viz.*, equality of educational opportunity and first-rate free education. Federal attention may well be brought to bear upon many pressing related problems, such as the Americanization of immigrants, the relatively high percentage of illiteracy compared with other nations, the coordination of all educational work in the various federal departments, and cooperation with other nations in world-wide educational endeavor.

Cooperation between state school systems under aggressive federal leadership will help solve many problems. Since it has been characteristic of Americans to migrate from the state where they were born and educated, what is done in the field of education by the individual states concerns the nation as a whole more vitally than any other activity in American life.[5] Federal headquarters for education are thus necessary even though the administration of the public schools is a responsibility of the states. National interest in education, however, should not be accompanied by federal control.

Federal Control Undesirable and Unnecessary. Much discussion these days relates to federal control, particularly of education. The experience of other countries emphasizes the desirability of decentralization in education in the United States. The totalitarian nations have disastrously demonstrated the propulsive power of education in shaping or misshaping

[3] President's Commission on Higher Education, *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Volume II, "Equalizing and Expanding Individual Opportunity," p. 3, Superintendent of Documents, 1947.

[4] James B. Conant, "Strengthen Education to Strengthen Democracy in a Divided World," *School Life*, January, 1949, p. 13.

[5] F. P. Graves, *The Administration of American Education*, p. 567, Macmillan, 1932.

the thoughts and deeds of men. A noncentralized administration of the schools will help to safeguard freedom of speech and thought.

Past experience with programs of vocational education supported in whole or part by federal funds has led school administrators to be critical and suspicious of regimentation from Washington, D.C. A joint committee of distinguished educators has issued a warning against federalization in their publication, *Federal-State Relations in Education:*

> The first purpose of this document is to warn the American people of the insidious and ominous trend in the control and management of education in the United States. . . . For more than a quarter of a century and especially during the past decade, education in the United States, like a ship caught in a powerful tide, has drifted ever farther into the dangerous waters of federal control and domination. This drift continued at an accelerated rate during World War II. Present signs indicate that, unless it is sharply checked by an alert citizenry, it will continue ever more rapidly after the war.[6]

Legislation positively should forbid and prevent federal control of education. Federal control of education is not only undesirable—it is unnecessary, as shown by the fact that during the earlier years of the nation's history grants of money and land were made to the states in support of education without any semblance of regulation on the part of the national government.

DEVELOPMENT OF FEDERAL ACTIVITIES IN EDUCATION

Historical Calendar—Federal Activities in Education and Contemporaneous Events

The following historical calendar contains significant events in the evolution of federal interest in education and also contemporaneous national happenings of political, economic, and social importance. The educational events listed are notable milestones on the highway leading toward a national plan of education; the general contemporaneous history marks other varied lanes of national progress. Although the educational calendar does not chronicle all the significant events, it does designate certain outstanding dates in the development of a national program of public education during more than one hundred and fifty years. Several of these events have implications for state, county, and local administration of public education. Most of the events listed in the right column of the calendar are not related directly to the educational achievements.

[6] Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, and the Problems and Policies Commission of the American Council on Education, *Federal-State Relations in Education*, p. 7, National Education Association, 1945.

HISTORICAL CALENDAR

Federal Activities in Education	Contemporaneous Events
1787—"Schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged" (Northwest Ordinance)	1787—Northwest Ordinance adopted by Continental Congress for territory northwest of Ohio
1788—"To promote the general welfare" (United States Constitution)	1788—Ratification of the Constitution of the United States
1791—Education reserved to states (Tenth Amendment)	1791—Bank of United States established
1802—School for army officers established at West Point	1800—District of Columbia established
1802—First saline land grants made	1801—Thomas Jefferson inaugurated President of United States
1803—Section 16 given for education in Ohio	1803—Louisiana purchased from France
1818—Five per cent fund distributed (first money grant to states)	1818—Pensions granted Revolutionary soldiers
1841—Internal improvement grants made by Congress to the various states	1841—Brook Farm experiment started by Transcendentalists including Ralph Waldo Emerson, Margaret Fuller
1845—School for naval training started at Annapolis	1845—Texas and Florida admitted to Union
1862—First Morrill Act passed (land-grant colleges)	1862—Robert E. Lee made commander of Confederate army
1865—Freedman's Bureau created	1865—President Lincoln assassinated
1867—Department of Education created	1867—Alaska purchased from Russia
1887—Hatch Act passed (agricultural experiment farms)	1887—Interstate Commerce Commission created
1908—Forest Reserve returns started by Congress	1908—Conference of governors called to discuss conservation
1914—Smith-Lever Act passed (agriculture extension)	1914—Federal Reserve Banks established
1917—Smith-Hughes Act passed (vocational education)	1917—War with Germany declared by the United States
1920—Nonmetallic royalties paid to states	1920—Woman suffrage ratified (Nineteenth Amendment)
1931—Report of National Advisory Committee on Education published	1931—White House Conference Report on Child Health and Protection published

HISTORICAL CALENDAR—(*Continued*)

FEDERAL ACTIVITIES IN EDUCATION (*Continued*)	CONTEMPORANEOUS EVENTS (*Continued*)
1933—Emergency education grants started	1933—"Lame Duck" Amendment officially adopted (Twentieth Amendment)
1936—George-Deen Act passed (vocational education)	1936—Tennessee Valley Administration Act declared constitutional
1939—Office of Education transferred from Department of Interior to Federal Security Agency	1939—Ruling by Supreme Court that federal and state governments may tax salaries of each other's employees
1941—Funds appropriated by Congress for schools, recreation centers, sanitary facilities, and hospitals in defense areas	1941—War against Axis powers declared by the United States as it officially enters the Second World War.
1944—G. I. Bill for veterans' education passed by Congress	1944—Task of organizing to preserve peace begun at Dumbarton Oaks
1945—UNESCO organized by 44 nations meeting in London	1945—Membership of United States in United Nations approved
1946—Membership of United States in UNESCO approved by Congress	1946—World disarmament resolution adopted by United Nations Assembly
1946—Citizens' Federal Committee organized to advise United States Office of Education	1946—Five-man Atomic Energy Commission named by President Harry S. Truman
1947—National School Lunch Act passed to provide federal funds on permanent basis	1947—Army, navy, and air forces combined through adoption of National Security Act
1948—Mundt law for permanent global program in education adopted by Congress	1948—Bill adopted by Congress to admit over 200,000 displaced persons in two years
1949—National Citizens Commission for Public Schools created by laymen	1949—Global program of technical assistance for underdeveloped countries approved by United Nations General Assembly
1950—Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth called by President Harry S. Truman	1950—Plans made for Sesquicentennial Celebration of founding of nation's capital in Washington, D. C.
1950—United States Armed Forces Institute transferred from military to civilian management as a permanent peacetime institution	1950—Seventeenth decennial census recorded for the United States

The former merely link the latter to some significant event that occurred at approximately the same time in American political, economic, or social history.

The events listed in the calendar, and others, are described under (1) basic federal legislation, (2) education for national defense, (3) federal grants—nonvocational, (4) grants for vocational education, (5) other federal provisions for education, including veterans' education, the White House Conferences on Children, the work of both the National Advisory Committee and the Advisory Committee on Education, the President's Commission on Higher Education, and the establishment of the United States Office of Education.

Basic Federal Legislation

Northwest Ordinance and Education. Between the official ending of the Revolutionary War in 1783 and the establishment of the Union in 1789, the Congress of the Confederation was faced with many problems, one of which was the westward movement into the new territory ceded by the states to the central government. Congress adopted in 1785 a system of rectangular surveys for its new territory, by which the land was divided into townships, 6 miles square, to be further subdivided into 36 sections, 1 mile square. This ordinance of 1785, reaffirmed two years later, ended with the significant words: "There shall be reserved the lot number sixteen of every township for the maintenance of public schools within the said township." Thus the foundation was laid for a future land and school policy.

Two years later the famous "Ordinance for the Government of the territory of the United States northwest of the River Ohio" postulated that the following important principle should be applied to states to be carved from the territory: "Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged." Although it is customary to consider this statement in the Northwest Ordinance as a philanthropic gesture on the part of Congress, the bald facts are that mercenary motives actuated the proposal. The Continental Congress, which needed money urgently, wanted to sell land rather than aid education; Manasseh Cutler, who "lobbied" for the inclusion of this statement, was interested primarily in reselling the land to speculators rather than in building schoolhouses for children. Ten days after the adoption of this oft-quoted proposal for the encouragement of education, Congress sold 1,500,000 acres of land along the Ohio to the "Ohio Company of Associates" through Manasseh Cutler, who was the nation's

first real-estate promoter. The ordinance authorizing the sale contained this provision for education:

> The lot No. 16 in each township, or fractional part of a township, to be given perpetually for the purposes contained in the said (1785) Ordinance. . . . Not more than two complete townships to be given perpetually for the purpose of a university....

Thus, in addition to the two townships given in each state for university purposes, section 16 in every township or one thirty-sixth of the entire Northwest Territory was legally set aside for the maintenance of public schools. The first actual application of this land-grant policy for education was not made until the admission of the state of Ohio in 1803.

Constitutional Provisions for Education. In the meantime the members of the Constitutional Convention had drafted their document and the required nine states had ratified it, so that in 1789 the Constitution of the United States went into effect. This great document, which Gladstone said "was the most wonderful work ever struck off at a given time by the brain and purpose of man," is silent upon the subject of education. The Constitution contains neither the word "education" nor "schools."

Why was education omitted from this famous document? Several answers to the question might be proposed. The framers of the Constitution were undoubtedly afraid of a centralized control, for they had just fought a war for freedom from external domination. The prevailing view was that of state rights. Furthermore, education in those days was the function of the church, the home, and private agencies. The majority of the signers of the Constitution were themselves products of the old aristocratic doctrine that education was for those who could afford to pay for it, and they probably had very little or no sympathy with the idea of schooling for all. Cubberley adds this reason for the omission:

> Even the theory of education, aside from that relating to instruction in Latin secondary schools and colleges, had not been thought out and formulated at the time the Federal Constitution was framed. Pestalozzi had not yet done his great work in Switzerland, or written out his ideas as to the educational process. Herbart was a small child at the time, and Froebel a mere infant in arms. The work which the French Revolutionary theorists and enthusiasts did for education in France was as yet undone.[7]

Then, too, at the time, there were weightier problems than education. The wilderness had to be wrested from the Indians, and a new economic

[7] E. P. Cubberley, *State School Administration*, p. 10, Houghton, 1927.

and political order had to be established. Minor problems gave way to the larger aims of national unity, in the face of at least one threatened disruption of the Convention. Aside from the question put by Charles Pinckney of South Carolina, which dealt mainly with the founding of a national university, there was little discussion of education in the Constitutional Convention.

Despite the fact that education is not mentioned in the United States Constitution, indirect justification for a national program of instruction may be found in several of its provisions, as indicated later. The general welfare clauses, in the preamble and in the section on taxation, are the closest approach to an authorization. The preamble reads:

> We the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect Union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquility, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

Certainly the promotion of "the general welfare" entails the federal obligation to advance public education.

That the central government is not to control education is evident from the Tenth Amendment to the Constitution. The First to the Tenth Amendments enacted by the first Congress and declared in force December 15, 1791, were prompted by the fact that the Constitution contained no code of fundamental civil rights and no statement that the states retained the powers not expressly conferred on the national government. The Tenth Amendment by implication definitely left the subject of education to the individual states: "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." The implied prohibition against the establishment of a centralized system has markedly influenced the direction and scope of federal participation in education.

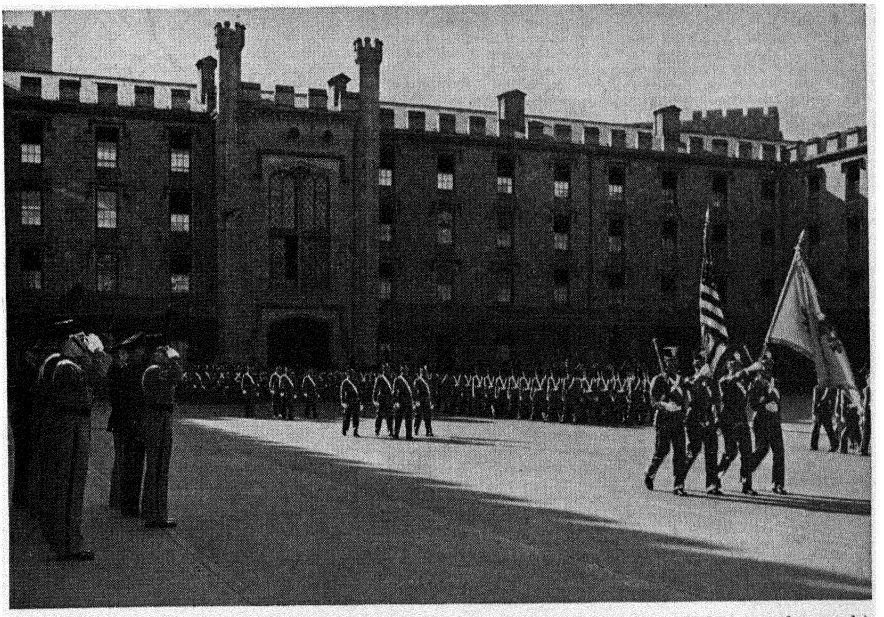
Education for National Defense

From the days of the earliest settlements through the modern age of atomic energy and supersonic speeds, the people of the United States have been interested in defense. During and after the Second World War, the preparation for defense assumed a distinct educational emphasis. General Dwight D. Eisenhower, upon his inauguration as President of Columbia University, said:

> If this were a land where the military profession is a weapon of tyranny or aggression—its members an elite caste dedicated to its own perpetuation—a lifelong

soldier could hardly assume my present role. But in our nation the army is the servant of the people, designed and trained exclusively to protect our way of life. Duty in its ranks is an exercise of citizenship. Hence, among us, the soldier who becomes an educator or the teacher who becomes a soldier enters no foreign field but finds himself instead engaged in a new phase of his fundamental life purpose —the protection and perpetuation of basic human freedoms.

This educational accent has continued under the Reorganization Act of 1947, which unified the services under a Secretary of Defense, to whom the Secretaries of the Army, Navy, and Air Force are all responsible. Some



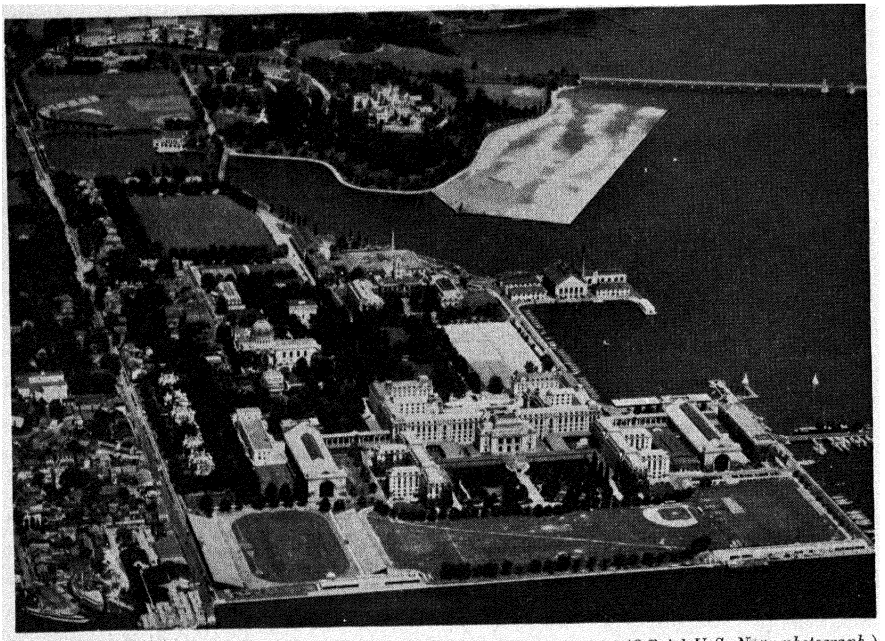
(U.S. Army photograph.)

FIG. 1-3. Cadets passing in "bandbox" review in central area at the United States Military Academy, West Point, New York.

of the various educational activities of these three departments are tersely mentioned here.

Army Training. The first educational institution authorized by the federal government was the United States Military Academy at West Point, New York, a site of great strategic importance during the Revolutionary War. It was established by the Congressional Act signed by President Jefferson in 1802. Supported entirely by the federal government, and conducted under the auspices of the Department of War, this collegiate institution provides theoretical and practical training for prospective officers in the regular army. The entrance requirements and

standards are very high. Upon completion of the 4-year course, the men are given commissions as army officers. In order that the government may have some return on its investment, the cadets pledge that they will continue in service for a period of at least 8 years from the time of entering West Point. Many graduates have won distinction in civil life as engineers. In addition to the United States Military Academy, two groups of army schools have developed: the general service schools, including the Command and General Staff School, the Army Industrial College, and the Army War College; and the special service schools, such



(Official U.S. Navy photograph.)

FIG. 1-4. Air view of the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis, Maryland.

as the Army Dental School and the School of Aviation Medicine. Furthermore, thousands of army men participate in the Army Education Program in various parts of the world.[8]

Navy Training. Congress decided in 1845 that an institution was needed to accomplish for the navy what West Point was doing fo army, so a naval training school was established at Annapolis, Maryland, the site of the first Federal Constitutional Convention. In 1850 this school became known as the United States Naval Academy. Under the

[8] Harry C. Eckhoff, "The Army Education Program," *School and Society*, April 24, 1948, pp. 305-308.

auspices of the Bureau of Navigation in the Navy Department, it is supported entirely by federal funds. As at West Point, the course is usually 4 years in length, and the graduates are commissioned as ensigns. Postgraduate work and special training fields also have been added. The navy holds annual nation-wide competitions for its scholarship program, under the so-called Holloway Plan, whereby successful candidates are assigned to colleges having Naval ROTC units.

The Navy, Marine Corps, and the Merchant Marine have, from their earliest history, been joined by an inseparable relationship. The Merchant Marine or "commercial" marine, which consists of the vessels carrying on the water-borne trade of the nation, sprang up in wartime when the great need for transporting American goods all over the world developed a parallel need for officers. The Merchant Marine Academy, located at Kings Point, Long Island, New York, was authorized by Congress to confer a bachelor of science degree beginning with the class of 1950. The graduates are commissioned reserve ensigns, USNR, as well as ensigns in the United States Maritime Service. Like the students at the Naval Academy, "their campus is the seven seas."[9] Another branch is the Coast Guard. Following the Second World War it was transferred to the Treasury Department.

Air Force Training. In 1947, for the first time in the history of the United States, a separate department was created for the air force. The educational program of the air force, formerly a part of the army and navy, now is independent in a new age of rocket-fired, jet-propelled, push-button planes. The Air University provides advanced professional work in constituent schools from the time of commissioning to retirement. There has been proposed a government-financed Air Force Academy, comparable with the United States Military and Naval Academies, to provide training and education for air officers for the three services.

Many other phases of military education have evolved under the aegis of the federal government. There are, for example, the Naval War College at Newport, Rhode Island; the Submarine School at New London, Connecticut; the Heavier-than-air Training School at Pensacola, Florida; and the Lighter-than-air Training School at Lakehurst, New Jersey. The government furnishes officers to serve at land-grant colleges; it cooperates with the Reserve Officers' Training Corps (ROTC); and it trains men for the arine Reserve Corps and for numerous other military and semimilitary duties.

Mention should be made of the varied educational programs of defense, such as the army's Specialized Training Program (ASTP), the navy's

[9] Robert M. Yoder, "Their Campus Is the Seven Seas," *Saturday Evening Post*, August 23, 1947.

V-12 Program, the air force's Preflight Schools, and the women's services, which included the Women's Army Corps (WAC), the Women's Reserve of the Naval Reserve (WAVES), the Women's Reserve of the Coast Guard (SPAR), and others. These have many valuable implications for civilian programs of today and for the participation of the federal government in various civilian and defense activities of tomorrow.[10]

High-ranking officers of the army, air force, and navy, as well as members of the foreign service and Department of State, study the problems of national defense in a college organized under the authority of the Joint Chiefs of Staff and located at the Army War College in Washington, D.C. This institution promotes close integration between the armed services and the Department of State. It is in harmony with the recommendation of the Hoover Commission on the Reorganization of the Executive Branch of Government that "the education of officers should be more definitely aimed at instilling a greater sense of mutual interdependence," and that a military education board be established to give special attention to policies for the joint training of military personnel.

Related to defense education are the fellowship programs established by the Atomic Energy Commission to promote scholarly achievement in the field of atomic energy. Numerous other educational and defense efforts are being financed completely or partly by the federal government.

Federal Grants—Nonvocational

Land Grants for Education. With the admission of the seventeenth state, Ohio, to the Union in 1803, the federal government actually inaugurated its epoch-making practice of giving land for general educational purposes. In the enabling act for the admission of Ohio, Congress gave the sixteenth section of land, 1 mile square, in each township "to the inhabitants thereof" for schools. With certain exceptions and variations, this practice was continued with each new state admitted. With the admission of California in 1850, the gift consisted of two sections, 16 and 36. Three states—Utah, Arizona, and New Mexico—received four sections by the addition of those numbered 2 and 32. The total of these land grants to schools, including Alaska, has been estimated at 90,000,000 acres, or almost 150,000 square miles. The extent of this area is not usually appreciated. It is larger than the combined territory of the three adjacent states of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. The funds derived from the sale and lease of these original "school lands" form the major part of the permanent school funds of several states. Although some of the funds were poorly managed, these gifts of the federal government to education have been extremely significant.

[10] Alonzo G. Grace, *Educational Lessons from Wartime Training*, Chap. XVIII, American Council on Education, 1948.

Besides these lands, many other federal land grants have been made, both conditional and unconditional, including the saline lands, the swamplands, and the internal improvement grants. There have been donations to seminaries of learning, normal schools, universities, and other types of educational institutions, including especially the land-grant colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts, as established by the First Morrill Act and expanded by subsequent enactments.

Money Grants for Education. The federal government has also aided the public schools by money grants at different times. The first of these subventions followed the admission of Ohio, when 5 per cent of the sales of all public lands in the states was turned back to them. Some of this money was spent for schools. About half the commonwealths receiving the small fund from the so-called "surplus revenue" act of 1836 used it for schools. Other money grants, which in part or whole have gone to schools, have included the Direct War Tax Refund of 1891, which was devoted to education in three states; the Forest Reserve Income Act of 1908, according to which 25 per cent of the money received from each forest reserve goes to the schools or the roads of the county containing the reserve; and the Mineral Royalty Act of 1920, by which the federal government returns to each state a proportion of the royalties on the production of nonmetallic mineral deposits on public lands. One reason why California has developed such a superior system of junior colleges is that all its proceeds from the Mineral Royalty Act go to institutions of that special type. A few states have benefited from the Taylor Grazing Act of 1934 and from other specialized funds.

Among the nonvocational money grants has been that for school lunches. This grant, which began in the depression era of the 1930's, was put on a permanent basis in 1947. The enactment in 1944 of Public Laws 346 and 16—the historic "G.I. Bill of Rights"—provided perhaps the largest expenditure of federal funds ever made for any educational purpose.

Grants for Vocational Education

Land-grant Colleges and Universities.[11] The United States has always been very aggressive in promoting vocational education through both land and money grants. By the First Morrill Act in 1862 each state received 30,000 acres for each senator and representative then in Congress. All proceeds from the sale of these lands were to be invested at 5 per cent and the proceeds in each state to be used for "the endowment, maintenance, and support of at least one college where the leading object shall be, without excluding other scientific and classical studies and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and

[11] Additional information on these colleges and universities is found in Unit VIII.

the mechanic arts." These colleges, 69 in number, have been very influential in the fields of agriculture, engineering, and home economics.[12] The original act has been supplemented by other grants in the Second Morrill Act, the Nelson Amendment, and the Bankhead-Jones Act of 1935.[13]

Agricultural Experiment Stations. Further federal impetus was given vocational education through the Hatch Act of 1887, which appropriated $15,000 annually to each state and territory having an agricultural college. The purpose expressed in the law was "to promote scientific investigation respecting the principles and applications of agriculture science." Thus the agricultural experiment stations were established. The Adams Act subsequently increased these appropriations, as did the Purnell and Bankhead-Jones Acts.

Agricultural Extension Services. Although the United States government had established agricultural colleges and experimental stations, it felt that the vocational work was still incomplete because the results were not reaching the consumers—the farmers and the housewives. So Congress passed in 1914 what is known as the Smith-Lever or Agricultural Extension Act. The proceeds from this annual grant are used for conferences, meetings, institutes, classes, traveling demonstrators, and county agents—a man to work among the farmers and a woman to help the housewives, especially in the rural communities. In the Smith-Lever Act was applied for the first time the practice, now under severe criticism, of "matching" federal and state aid. Additional grants for agricultural extension have been provided through such acts as the Capper-Ketcham, Clark-McNary, Bankhead-Jones, Norris-Doxey, and Bankhead-Flanagan Acts, and through direct appropriations.

Smith-Hughes Act for Vocational Education in Secondary Schools. The movement for federal aid to vocational education at the secondary school level did not develop until the twentieth century.

During the years between 1900 and 1910 a number of organizations, notably the National Association of Manufacturers, the National Metal Trades Association, certain agricultural organizations, and the National Education Association, began to advocate extended facilities for vocational education in the public schools. The American Federation of Labor, always a strong friend of public education, urged that vocational training be provided under public auspices. The various individuals and groups interested in this problem met in 1906 and

[12] See Appendix VIII-B for a list of these institutions.

[13] For current data on these and other grants, see the periodic reports, *Federal Government Funds for Education*, published by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C.

established the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education. . . . In 1914 Congress by resolution authorized the appointment of a Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education.[14]

In 1917 President Woodrow Wilson signed the Smith-Hughes Act, which provided annual federal funds for distribution to the states for vocational education in public schools of less than college grade.[15] These appropriations, again on the matching basis, were for teachers and supervisors of agriculture, home economics, trade and industrial subjects; for teacher training in these subjects; and for studies in vocational education. Supplemental legislation extended the benefits to some of the dependencies of the United States. The George-Reed Act (1929), increasing the appropriations, was followed by the George-Ellzey Act (1934), and the George-Deen Act (1936).

George-Deen Act and Aid in Distributive Occupations. This act, which became effective in 1937, provided "for the further development of vocational education in the several states and territories," and more than doubled the amount of money previously available for vocational education. Prior to this, only four fields were given federal support: agriculture, trades and industries, home economics, and the training of teachers in these subjects. This act recognized as worthy of federal aid a new field of vocational training, the distributive occupations, such as selling; it gave a somewhat indirect recognition to another field, the public service occupations, such as the position of school janitors. It broke the precedent in the financing of vocational education which required that federal funds be matched dollar for dollar by state and local funds.[16]

Vocational Rehabilitation. After some experimentation, the federal government adopted in 1920 the Vocational Rehabilitation Act, which appropriated money to the states for the training of handicapped persons so that they may, whenever possible, be placed in self-supporting, remunerative employment. This service and that for vocational education have been extended to some of the dependencies through the George-Reed and George-Ellzey Acts.

Other legislation dealing with vocational rehabilitation is the Social Security Act of 1935. The Federal Office of Education and the Social Security Board cooperate in occupational research and in the formulation of state plans for physically handicapped persons who have become permanently disabled through accident or disease or who have been born with

[14] John D. Russell *et al.*, *Vocational Education*, p. 16, Advisory Committee on Education, Superintendent of Documents, 1938.

[15] For the wording of this act, see *ibid.*, pp. 291–300.

[16] For the wording of this act, see *ibid.*, pp. 302–304.

serious physical defects. The program is carried out by the case-work technique rather than by the public schools; nevertheless it is a public educational service. Most significant is that federal rehabilitation act for war veterans popularly known as Public Law 16. Thousands of veterans, including paraplegics, have been rehabilitated. Through vocational rehabilitation, millions of handicapped persons have been helped to a life of usefulness and independence.

Vocational Guidance and Placement. In its general evaluation of the federally aided programs of vocational education, the Advisory Committee stated that the services of guidance and placement had not received adequate emphasis. The George-Barden amendment has helped to remedy the situation. Under this act, federal funds were made available for the first time for counseling youth, training vocational counselors, and conducting allied activities, including research in guidance and placement. The Veterans Administration has rendered vocational services "beyond the call of duty."

Vocational Education and National Defense. Prior to the official entry of the United States into the Second World War, the federal government launched its defense training, which developed into a huge war program. Congress in 1938 established the Civil Aeronautics Authority, which in the following year inaugurated a pilot training program. In 1940 the first appropriations were made by the federal government for summer training programs in schools and colleges for workers essential in national defense. In the same year the United States Office of Education was allotted several million dollars for a program under which state boards of vocational education and local school officials offered vocational training facilities through the National Youth Administration (NYA), now defunct.

During the 5 years of its existence, the war training program, supported by federal funds and directed by the Office of Education, trained 12,000,000 men and women for essential war jobs. In an editorial of June 24, 1945, at the close of the program, the *New York Times* commented thus on the project:

> It reached into virtually every school community in the country. More than 200 colleges and universities participated in the project. . . . Perhaps never before in our history have educational institutions been called upon to undertake such a Herculean task. Schools and college centers remained open on a 24-hour basis, offering hundreds of different courses ranging from airplane construction to welding.

The Second World War caused the nation as a whole to overaccent vocational education, which still represents the most important special field of federal activity in education.

Other Federal Provisions for Education

Numerous other significant and interesting subventions and activities have become a part of federal legislation on behalf of education. Some of the agencies created thereby are no longer in existence, as is the case of the Freedman's Bureau, through which the government undertook some work independently of the states. The Freedman's Bureau aided schools in the South for Negro children, spending more than $5,000,000 in 4 years. It helped to establish in Virginia the Hampton Normal Institute, a pattern for Negro education.

Annual Appropriations to Privately Controlled Institutions. The federal government has given financial support to some institutions not under its control. It donated land to Tuskegee Institute and now makes annual appropriations to the following three institutions, which are privately controlled:

1. The American Printing House for the Blind was incorporated by the legislature of Kentucky in 1858. This institution, which is located in Louisville, Kentucky, prints books and makes apparatus for the instruction of the blind of the United States. The functions with respect to the administration of the appropriations were transferred to the Federal Security Agency in 1939.
2. The Columbia Institution for the Deaf, located in the District of Columbia, was incorporated by Congress in 1857. The Federal Security Administrator is charged with the supervision of this Institution, controlled by a board of ten directors, two of whom are Congressmen. This Institution consists of Gallaudet College; Kendall School, a primary and grammar department; a teacher education division; and a research department.
3. Howard University, located in the District of Columbia, was incorporated by Congress in 1867. Originally planned for the education of Negro youth for the ministry, it now includes nearly all branches of higher education. The president and the board of directors must report annually to the Federal Security Administrator, and the Office of Education is required to inspect the university at least once a year and report to Congress.[17]

Making annual appropriations to privately controlled institutions, however; is not a regular routine with Congress.

The G.I. Bill of Rights. The greatest single venture of the federal government in education has been the education of veterans of the Second World War under Public Laws 346 and 16. Less than one tenth of the veterans have been under Public Law 16, which provides vocational rehabilitation for disabled veterans. Public Law 346 offers education and/or

[17] Adapted from Educational Policies Commission, and Problems and Policy Committee, *op. cit.*, pp. 136–137.

training to veterans who are not disabled. Any man or woman who was in military service for the United States as long as 90 days between September 16, 1940, and July 25, 1947, is entitled to a year of training or schooling, with an additional month for each month of service up to 48 months. Since most academic years are 9 months, the federal government pays $500 a year for tuition and educational supplies for more than 5 school years, plus an allowance toward subsistence. The United States may spend a potential amount of twenty to thirty billion dollars on education for G.I. Joes and Jills who interrupted or postponed their studies in order to help win the Second World War.

Concerning this bill, Chancellor Robert M. Hutchins of the University of Chicago wrote in his "State of the University" message:

> The G.I. Bill of Rights is a historic enactment because it makes it possible for the veteran to go to college even if his parents have no money. It thus removes, for a large class of our citizens, the greatest, the most unjust, and the most unwise limitation on higher education.

The G.I. Bill has enabled millions of young men and women to attend high schools, colleges, universities, specialized schools, and adult education classes throughout the land. Several hundreds also have studied abroad under its provisions. The quantitative and qualitative impact upon American education of the federal G.I. scholarships cannot be estimated.

Additional Federal Activities in Education. Several temporary subventions were granted during the depression era of the 1930's. These included the Civilian Conservation Corps, National Youth Administration, Works Progress Administration, Public Works Administration, and other agencies.

Although most federal activities in education are conducted by regular agencies of the national government, several special committees and conferences are created periodically to consider problems in education and related areas. For example, White House Conferences are held at intervals of approximately ten years to study the welfare of children. These conferences are described in further detail in Unit X.

Three advisory committees have been authorized by Congress to study the relationship of the federal government to education. The first, the National Advisory Committee on Education, was appointed by President Hoover in 1929. This committee made its final report in 1931 under the caption *Federal Relations to Education.* One of its recommendations was that a Secretary of Education be appointed as a regular member of the President's Cabinet. In 1936 President Franklin Delano Roosevelt appointed the second Advisory Committee on Education. Initially its function was to study the program of vocational education, but its task was enlarged to embrace the whole subject of federal relationships to local and

state programs of education. The main volume, entitled *Report of the Committee*, was supplemented by related publications. The major recommendations were the continuance of existing grants to the states and the creation of new federal grants for certain types of educational service. The third committee was the Commission on Higher Education appointed by President Harry S. Truman in 1946. The comprehensive report, *Higher Education in American Democracy*, is considered later in Unit VIII.

The main channel through which have flowed the various appropriations made by Congress for the development of a national program of education is the United States Office of Education.

UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION

Evolution of Office

The "common-school revival," championed by Horace Mann in the 1840's in Massachusetts, caused people all through the then settled portions of the United States to think in terms of schools. Other educational statesmen came forward, notably Henry Barnard, who led the movement for a national agency for education. The dire effects of the Civil War in the sixties and the reunion of the states gave rise to a new interest in national education. In 1866 a proposal of the National Association of State and City School Superintendents (now the American Association of School Administrators) for a federal bureau of education was presented to Congress by James A. Garfield. The "Department of Education" bill was finally approved March 2, 1867.

The Basic Law. The original act as adopted during the presidency of Andrew Johnson is as follows:

> Be it enacted *by the Senate and the 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 otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country.
>
> 39th Congress, 2nd Session
> Approved by President Andrew Johnson
> March 2, 1867

Thus was the legal foundation laid.

Subsequent Changes. Two years later, owing primarily to opposition by some of the states, the department was made an "Office of Education"

in the Department of Interior. The title, changed in 1870 to "Bureau of Education," was restored in 1929, and is now officially the "Office of Education." The duties and activities of the Office have accumulated like a rolling snowball until now the Office is a huge national clearinghouse for education.

On July 1, 1939, in connection with the general governmental reorganization plans, the United States Office of Education was transferred from the Department of the Interior to the Federal Security Agency.[18] In his message to Congress approving the transfer, the late President F. D. Roosevelt stated: "Because of the relationship of the educational opportunities of the country to the security of its citizens, the Office of Education, including, of course, its administration of federal-state aid for vocational education, is transferred from the Department of Interior to the Federal Security Agency." This transfer marks an important milestone in the history of federal education.

Appropriations for Federal Office

A significant change in the federal Office has been the growth in appropriations. The funds are of two general types: (1) regular expenditures for administration of the Office of Education itself, and (2) grants-in-aid for distribution to the states through the Office.

Appropriations for Administration. The administration of the national headquarters at Washington requires an outlay for personnel, equipment, necessary travel, printing, and other items. From a meager appropriation in 1867 of about $50,000, the annual expenditures have gradually increased to almost two million dollars. The amount used for actual administration expenses for the federal Office is only a small percentage of the total amount appropriated for federal activities in education.

Grants-in-aid to the States. The federal Office is a channel through which flow the annual grants-in-aid to be distributed to the states, territories, and outlying possessions for educational purposes. These funds are almost one hundred times larger than those for the direct use of the United States Office of Education. The money is primarily for land-grant colleges, vocational education, vocational rehabilitation, and defense education.

Activities of Office of Education

The three main duties enumerated in the basic law creating the commissionership are (1) collecting statistics and facts, (2) diffusing information about schools, and (3) otherwise promoting the cause of education.

[18] For a description of the educational activities of the agency see annual reports of Federal Security Administrator.

Collection of Statistics and Facts. The collection of educational data and facts, in a country as far-flung and as full of school districts as the United States, is extremely onerous. The publication of these data is naturally delayed, often as much as two years. The preparation of the *Annual Reports* and *Biennial Surveys* is treated later under Duties of Commissioner. The collecting, sifting, and organizing of the data constitute a colossal task.

Diffusion of Information. The Office diffuses information in several ways, through its many publications, exhibits, conferences called by the

FIG. 1-5. Headquarters of the United States Office of Education. The Office is located in the Federal Security Building on Independence Avenue, Washington, D.C.

Commissioner of Education, letters answering inquiries, addresses by staff members, radio broadcasts, surplus property information center, and exchange of books, radio scripts, and transcriptions. The printed publications are available free or at a nominal cost from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.; others, such as mimeographed circulars, are obtainable from the Office of Education. The value of these publications, particularly the monthly periodical, *School Life*, is not adequately appreciated by laymen and educators.

Promoting the Cause of Education. The third major duty of the Office —"and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country"

—is an obligation as broad as the country itself. Besides being the national bookkeeper of American education and the official dispenser of information, the Office promotes vocational education, vocational rehabilitation, and other phases of education; conducts investigations; makes research studies and loans theses on important school problems; and maintains a national information center and a library on all phases of American education. Upon request the Office also conducts educational surveys. It administers funds appropriated by Congress for special activities, such as land-grant colleges, vocational education, and vocational rehabilitation.

In recent years, the Office of Education has developed numerous other projects. It has given financial assistance to several states to undertake a study of local school units and to promote public forums for adult civic education. The Office also sponsors the Future Farmers of America, a national organization of boys who are studying vocational agriculture in rural high schools.

According to *School Life*, the "clientele" of the Office of Education consists of the following major groups:

State school systems	Educational associations
Local school districts	Labor groups
Schools, colleges, and universities	Social-civic organizations
Public libraries	Business and professional clubs
Foreign students and educators	Patriotic societies
Radio broadcasting stations	Farmers' associations
State parent-teacher associations	Service clubs
Local parent-teacher associations	Other organizations

To these might be added thousands of individuals at home and abroad who rely upon the publications and services of the Office.

Organization of Federal Office

Naturally activities so numerous, for an audience so varied, demand a large staff of workers. These are organized in various groups under the general leadership of the United States Commissioner of Education. In Appendix I-B, Organization of Federal Office of Education, are listed the major divisions and fields.[19] Committees also cut across divisional lines, as the Inter-divisional Committee on the Educational Implications of Atomic Energy.

Office Staff. The regular full-time staff of the Office has increased from five workers in 1867 to several hundred. Many additional helpers are needed, since some important fields are undeveloped or placed on a tem-

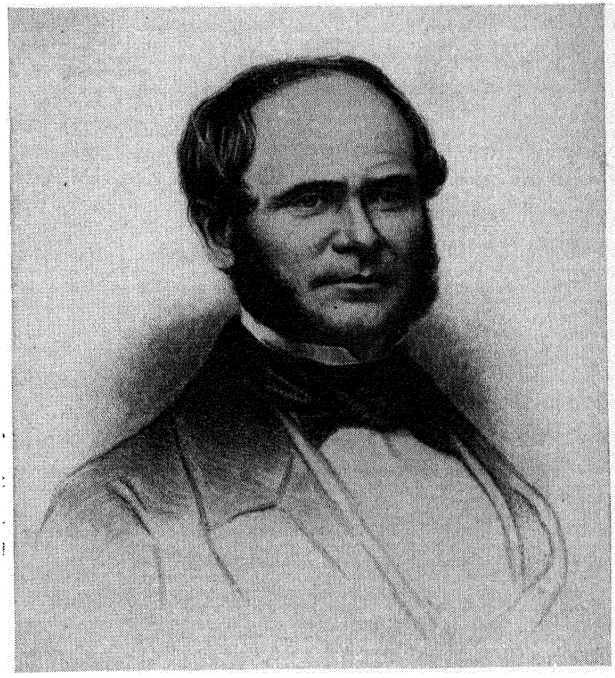
[19] The number of each item in the Appendixes is identical with the number of the related unit. Where there is more than one Appendix for a unit, the numbers are supplemented by alphabetical notations.

porary basis. The United States Commissioner of Education has been seriously handicapped by lack of an adequate permanent staff.

UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION

History of Commissionership

In 1838 Henry Barnard came to Washington, D.C., in search of reliable facts on the schools of the nation; he found none. For 30 years he led



(Steel engraving courtesy of United States Office of Education.)

Fig. 1-6. Henry Barnard, the first United States Commissioner of Education. He was the author of about 75 volumes and reports, including the monumental work, the *American Journal of Education* in 32 bound volumes. His most widely quoted statement is this: "The common school should be as common as the light and the air because its blessings are open to all and enjoyed by all."

the movement for a federal fact-finding agency, which culminated in the Congressional Act, already quoted, creating the Federal Department of Education in 1867. It was indeed fitting that Henry Barnard was selected as the first United States Commissioner of Education. The first principal of the New Britain Normal School, the first state superintendent of schools for Rhode Island, and a former state superintendent for Connecticut, he brought to this new national office a rich experience in public education. He pioneered in this field from 1867 to 1870.

List of Commissioners. Eleven men have held the office of United States Commissioner of Education, a title that has not changed. Their names and the years in office are indicated in the accompanying table.

Commissioner	Appointed by President	Years in office	Tenure in office, years
Henry Barnard	Andrew Johnson	1867–1870	3
John Eaton	Ulysses S. Grant	1870–1886	16
N. H. R. Dawson	Grover Cleveland	1886–1889	3
William T. Harris	Benjamin Harrison	1889–1906	17
Elmer E. Brown	Theodore Roosevelt	1906–1911	5
Philander P. Claxton	William H. Taft	1911–1921	10
John J. Tigert	Warren G. Harding	1921–1928	7
William J. Cooper	Herbert Hoover	1929–1933	4½
George F. Zook	Franklin D. Roosevelt	1933–1934	1
John W. Studebaker	Franklin D. Roosevelt	1934–1949	15
Earl J. McGrath	Harry S. Truman	1949–	

Term of Office. The commissioner, appointed by the President of the United States with the consent of the Senate, serves an indefinite term. Sometimes a change in Presidents is followed by the appointment of a new commissioner, although only 11 men served under 17 Presidents. The terms have ranged from 17 years to approximately 1 year.

Duties of Commissioner

Main Duties. The duties of the commissioner, as originally prescribed by law, are "to collect such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several states and territories"; to diffuse such "information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems and methods of teaching as shall aid the people in the maintenance of efficient school systems and otherwise promote the cause of education"; and also "to present annually to Congress a report embodying the result of his investigation and labors, together with a statement of such facts and recommendations, as will, in his judgment, subserve the purpose for which the department is established."

Preparation of Annual Reports and Biennial Surveys. A significant duty of the commissioner is the last one listed, *viz.*, that of taking soundings to determine the progress of the educational ship of state. The annual reports and biennial surveys are replete with information and, as standard works of educational reference, are distributed in large numbers to libraries and professional workers. These reports contain many interesting side lights on educational history.

After 1917 the *Report of the Commissioner of Education* was changed to the *Biennial Survey of Education*; the *Annual Report* became a concise summary of the activities of the Office of Education and of educational conditions in general.

Other Activities. In addition to the original duties already mentioned as belonging to the commissioner and the Office of Education, many others have accumulated over the years. Among these may be listed voluntary cooperation with numerous educational agencies, as in the promotion of American Education Week and Zeal for American Democracy; special tasks assigned by the President of the United States, as the request for the federal Office to act in an advisory educational capacity; duties imposed by Congressional enactments, as by the George-Barden Act; and the surveillance of film service and radio, assigned to the Office by one of the presidential reorganization plans. The Office has also been called upon to extend and expand its services in the territories and dependencies of the United States.

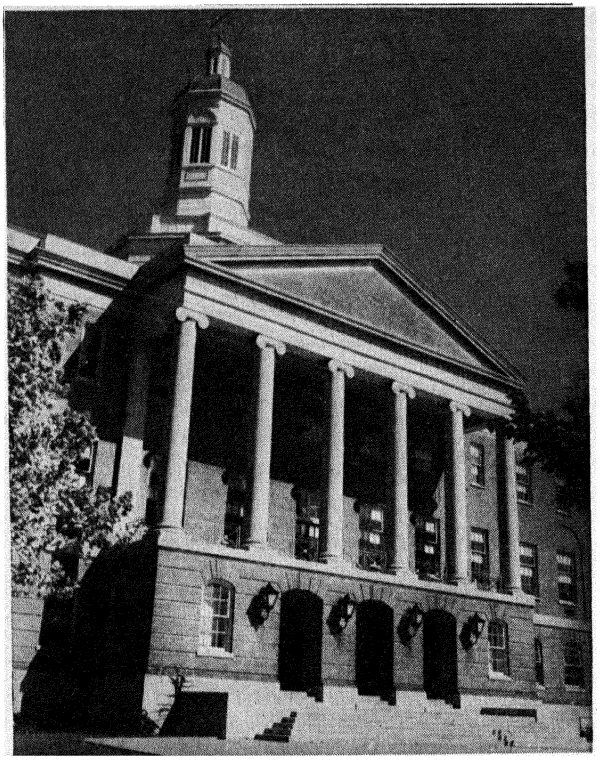
OTHER FEDERAL ACTIVITIES IN EDUCATION

Education in Special Federal Jurisdictions

The national government assists in promoting education in (1) the special school district of Washington, D.C., (2) the territories, (3) the outlying possessions, (4) the Trust Territory, and (5) the federal reservations. These districts, excluding the reservations and small islands, are listed in the accompanying table with their date of annexation and approximate area in square miles. (The Philippines, formerly a United States dependency, was granted its independence in 1946.) The importance of education in such widespread and strategic areas is obvious. Because of the unique needs of these disparate groups, their educational problems are difficult but challenging.

In addition to the educational systems in these overseas areas are the Ex-Japanese Mandated Islands, now called the Trust Territory, and transferred in 1947 to the United States by the United Nations Security Council. They comprise the Marshall, Caroline, Palau, and Marianas Islands (with the exception of Guam).[20] The population of approximately 50,000 is scattered over 3,000,000 square miles of land and water. The United States has done more than conduct experiments in atomic energy on its atolls of Bikini and Eniwetok; it has unleashed in the whole Trust Territory the power of educational energy that transforms rather than destroys. The chain reaction from this significant educational experiment may spread from atolls to islands and mainlands.

[20] John L. Taylor, "The Educational Program for the American Trust Territory in the Pacific," *School and Society*, January 22, 1949, pp. 49–53.



(Photograph by Merin Studios, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.)

FIG. 1-7. Calvin Coolidge High School, Washington, D.C. Under authority granted by the United States Constitution, Congress has provided for a board of education which has charge of this high school, other public schools, and two teachers colleges in the District of Columbia.

Territories and dependencies	Date of annexation	Area, square miles
District of Columbia	1790	72
Alaska	1867	590,884
Hawaii	1898	6,449
Guam	1899	210
Puerto Rico	1899	3,435
American Samoa	1900	77
Panama Canal Zone	1904	527
Virgin Islands	1917	132
Total	....	601,786

Owing to the excellent and inexpensive reports available on the educational systems in these various federal jurisdictions, and owing to the limitations imposed by the nature of an introductory volume in education, descriptions are not presented here. There are many references where the reader may obtain detailed information.[21]

Education of Special Groups

Education of the Indians.[22] In a social-science class in a Michigan high school, students were asked to write an essay entitled, "Who Is a True

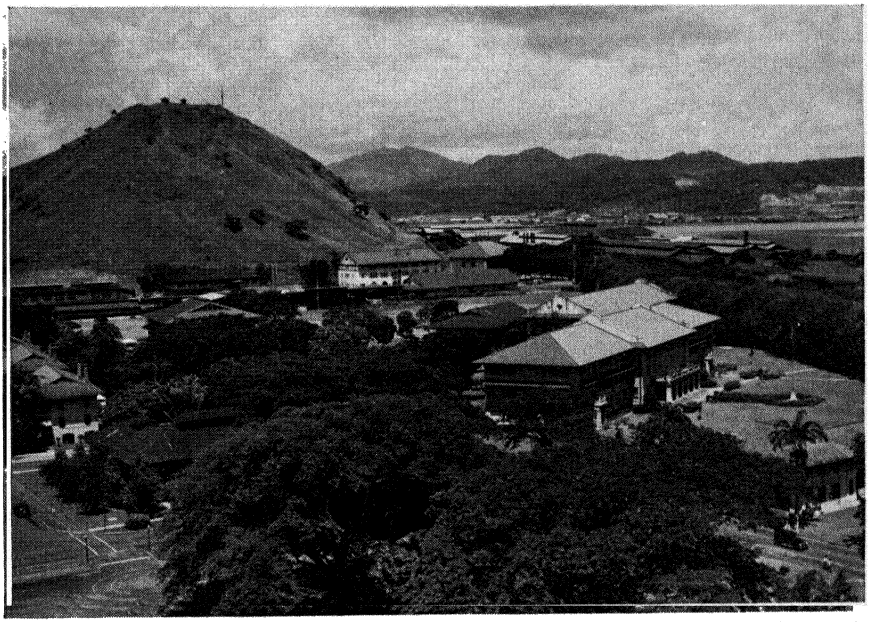


Fig. 1-8. School buildings in the Panama Canal Zone. In the right center is a cluster of buildings including the Balboa Senior High School, adjoining the Junior College, and Junior High School. In the lower left is visible part of the lighted baseball and football field. Sosa Hill stands in the upper left, and the Panama Canal flows in the upper right.

American?" A member of the class, a young full-blooded Ottawa Indian, wrote just two words, "I am." The Indians were the first Americans. In an early report of a United States Commissioner of Education, the whites are referred to as "Anglo-Americans." For a long time the issue was Indian education vs. Indian destruction. In 1870 the commissioner stated

[21] A single reference is C. F. Reid, *Education in the Territories and Outlying Possessions of the United States*, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941, 600 pp.

[22] L. E. Blauch, *Educational Service for Indians*, Advisory Committee on Education, Superintendent of Documents, 1939, 136 pp.

that up to that time $8,000,000 had been spent for educating Indians and at least $500,000,000 for killing them.

The early missions are credited with starting schools for Indians. The first federal appropriation for this purpose was made in the early 1800's. Private funds also went to Indian education. The origin of Dartmouth College can be traced to Moore's Indian School for the education of Indians.

By the Act of June 2, 1924, every American Indian now born in the United States is a citizen of this country. Approximately one third of a million Indians live in the United States. It is significant that the Indians, although less than one half of 1 per cent of the total population, are increasing—they are not a dying race. They usually live in concentrated areas and exhibit strong ethnic characteristics. The largest tribal groups are the Navaho, Sioux, and Chippewa. The largest Indian settlements are located in Oklahoma, Arizona, New Mexico, and South Dakota. Some Indian reservations cannot support all their inhabitants. The problems of Indian welfare and education, as in the case of Negroes, are more acute in some states than in others.

The administration of Indian education in the United States is under the Office of Indian Affairs. The children attend different types of schools: government-reservation and nonreservation boarding schools, government day schools, state public schools, and mission and private schools. The majority go to the public schools; the federal government pays their tuition if they are not residents of the school district. In addition to federal appropriations for Indian service, large sums are expended from Indian tribal funds for education. Many schools are community centers for adults as well as children. Certainly the Indian—the first American and the first of America's forgotten men—is entitled to the best in education, but he generally does not get the best. He often lives in "that cultural void between two civilizations."[23]

Negro Education. Negroes constitute almost one tenth of the population of the United States. The education of this large group is of major concern to the nation, as well as to the Southern states where the majority of Negroes reside. Seventeen states and the District of Columbia maintain separate schools for white and Negro pupils. A critical comment on conditions in these states is made by the Advisory Committee on Education:

> In most of the states where there are separate schools for Negroes, the schools for white children are below the national average, yet Negro schools are only about half as well supported as the white schools. . . . All the statistics for length of school term, average attendance, educational qualifications of teachers, type of

[23] Erna Gunther, "The Education of American Indians," *Pi Lambda Theta Journal*, May, 1948, pp. 195–200.

school buildings, and other factors indicate that a wasteful neglect is characteristic of the treatment of Negro school children in most of the areas where they are required to attend separate schools.[24]

The low level of education among most Negroes is a detriment to the nation.

An important feature of the Second Morrill Act in 1890 was the recognition by Congress of separate land-grant colleges for "white and colored students." A year earlier the federal government voted its first grant to Howard University, a privately controlled institution for Negroes which today enrolls several thousand students in its many graduate and undergraduate schools. Founded immediately after the Civil War, this institution was named after its first president, General Howard of the Freedman's Bureau.

The Office of Education has conducted several surveys of Negro education, including colleges and universities, secondary education, and vocational education and guidance. In 1949 it reactivated the National Advisory Committee on Education of Negroes. Although their schooling is primarily a responsibility of the states, the federal government can, through equalization funds and other means, supplement these efforts on behalf of one tenth of the nation's population.

Other Ethnic Groups. Mexicans comprise about 1 per cent of the population of the United States. Some communities in the southwestern part of the United States are predominantly Mexican.

Large numbers of white people in the United States are foreign born, but, aside from Americanization classes, not much has been done on a national scale for their education. Numerous racial groups of children and adults, including displaced persons, many of whom have difficulty with the English language and the American way of life, have not been given the special care and education necessary for their role as citizens in a democracy.

Other Special Groups. The education of children of federal employees residing on government reservations, in dependencies, and at foreign stations is a unique problem facing the national government. Children in these areas are assured of free public schooling only if the federal government makes special provision therefor. During the Second World War, Congress provided financial aid to schools overburdened with war-caused enrollments. Since then the Lanham Act also provided school-district assistance where it was needed because of reactivation or establishment of defense activities. Partial support is given to some schools at naval sta-

[24] Advisory Committee on Education, *Report of the Committee*, p. 11, Superintendent of Documents, 1938.

tions. Government buildings and cars sometimes lend indirect assistance to schools on reservations. The Tennessee Valley Authority maintains public schools and other educational facilities for children and adults. Where there is a concentration of children of federal employees abroad, as in the countries of Germany and Japan, special schools have been established under federal auspices. Federal personnel in foreign lands, however, often face the necessity of enrolling their children in private or foreign schools, or of sending them back to the United States for their education. It has been recommended that Congress establish a permanent policy by which all children of federal employees residing on a federal reservation or at a foreign station will be assured the right of free education.

Equality of educational opportunity means that each child should be educated in terms of his needs, interests, abilities, and limitations. Special attention is needed by several million children—blind and partially blind, deaf and hard of hearing, crippled, defective in speech, delicate, mentally gifted, mentally retarded, socially maladjusted, and otherwise handicapped.[25] The federal government aids atypical children and adults through general grants such as that for vocational rehabilitation and by specific projects such as the American Printing House for the Blind in Louisville, Kentucky, and the Columbia Institute for the Deaf in Washington, D.C. The latter receives its collegiate students from all the states and territories.

Departmental Programs of Education

Federal programs of education are conducted also by (1) the executive departments, each under a secretary in the President's cabinet, and (2) other departments, such as the Federal Security Agency.

Executive Departments and Their Programs of Education. Several educational and semieducational agencies and services are sponsored by the major executive departments of the United States. Illustrative of these are the military academies in the Department of Defense, prison education in the Department of Justice, and the school for postal inspectors in the Post Office Department. Directly under the President of the United States are several agencies that have direct educational significance, as, for example, the Bureau of the Budget, which prepares estimates for educational expenditures.

The chief organization is, of course, the Federal Security Agency, which contains many educational divisions, most important of which is the Office of Education. The federal government has distributed through the Federal Security Agency several million dollars for such purposes as research, training of personnel, and development of local mental health programs.

[25] See Unit X for a more complete discussion of exceptional children.

Other Federal Departments and Their Programs of Education. Every branch of the federal government conducts several educational activities either directly or indirectly, either in cooperation with the Office of Education or independently. Only a few of these agencies and their activities can be catalogued here. Congress has its committees on education in both the House and Senate. The Supreme Court renders its interpretations in the form of decisions affecting education, as in the Dartmouth College Case, and the McCollum vs. Board of Education Case in Champaign, Illi-

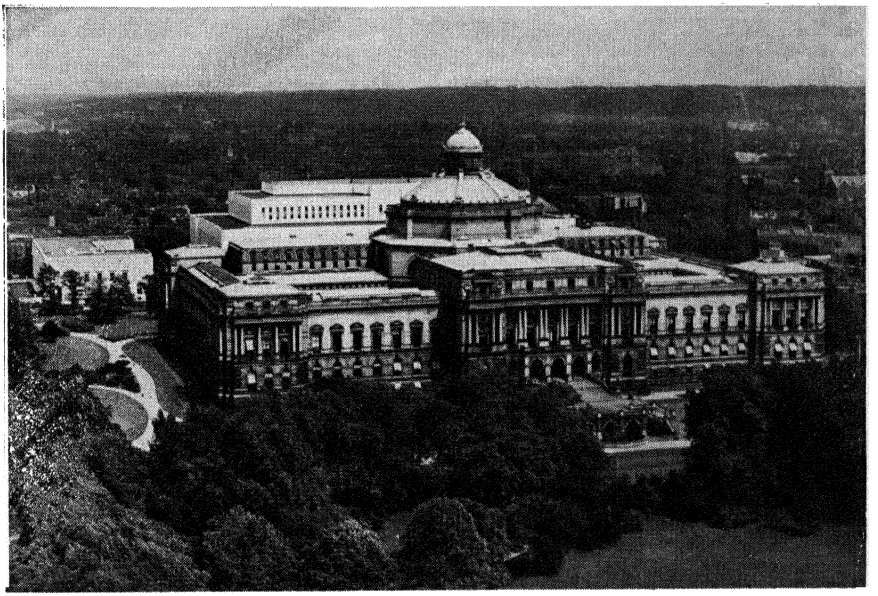


FIG. 1-9. Library of Congress, Washington, D.C. One of the educational institutions supported by the United States Government is the Library of Congress. Founded in 1800, the Library of Congress moved into its present quarters in 1897. Behind the main building in the foreground is the annex. The library maintains a National Union Catalog for recording every book of research value in library collections of the United States.

nois. Independent federal establishments that furnish educational service include the Library of Congress, the Copyright Office, the Government Printing Office, the Pan-American Union, the Smithsonian Institution, the National Museum, the National Gallery of Art, the National Academy of Sciences, and the Commission of Fine Arts. Much educational research is conducted in the nation's capital.[26]

The number of federal activities is ample evidence that the government of the United States is seeking "to promote the general welfare" of its citizens through public education.

[26] Neil R. Lovelace and John D. Frost, *Educational Research in the Nation's Capital*, Educational Research Bureau, 1948, 48 pp.

Role of United States in International Education

The general welfare of citizens in the United States and other countries includes the well-being and education of all peoples in a global, atomic age. The United States government, as a member of the United Nations, and especially the American teachers, are intensely interested in education throughout the world. The total teacher of today and tomorrow needs to be a cosmopolitan—a world citizen who is at home both in his own country and abroad—in an age of interdependence. This interest of American educators in international education is twofold: (1) in sharing with other countries the democratic way of life as taught and lived in these United States, and (2) in learning from other democratic countries, most of which are much older than the United States, how to prolong and enrich education. Educational reciprocity is the goal.

Efforts at International Cooperation in Education. The Office of Education in the United States—a "human melting pot"—has long maintained a special department for comparative education, which later became the Division of International Educational Relations. Through the Pan-American Union, the United States has for years cooperated in educational and cultural activities with the American republics. In 1941 the Office of Inter-American Affairs was created by the United States to stimulate and coordinate certain inter-American activities, including education. In 1944 a joint Canada–United States Committee on Education was appointed. At Endicott, New York, in 1946, the United States was host to the First World Conference on Education attended by delegates from 30 nations. Illustrative of the many world-minded commissions and committees in the United States are the Commission on Occupied Areas (Germany, Austria, and Japan), and the Committee on International Aspects of Teacher Education, of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. Numerous efforts are described in I. L. Kandel's report *United States Activities in International Cultural Relations*[27] and in *Education for International Understanding in American Schools*.[28] The teachers of the United States are active in the World Organization of the Teaching Profession (See Appendix XI-B.). Many American educators have served as educational consultants in Germany, Austria, Japan, Korea, and in other lands. Thousands have participated in teacher-exchange programs. Among the post-

[27] I. L. Kandel, *United States Activities in International Cultural Relations*, American Council on Education, 1945, 102 pp.

[28] Committee on International Relations of the National Education Association, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, and the National Council for the Social Studies, *Education for International Understanding in American Schools*, National Education Association, 1948, 241 pp.

war federal laws for educational exchange have been the Fulbright Act of 1946, the more permanent Smith-Mundt Act of 1948, and the joint resolution providing for participation in UNESCO.

UNESCO. Official and striking evidence that educational isolationsim is dying both here and abroad is found in the organization and program of UNESCO—the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, founded in 1945. UNESCO is one of the specialized agencies provided in the charter of the United Nations and affiliated with the Economic and Social Council. Its broad purpose is "to contribute to peace and security by promoting collaboration among the nations through education, science, and culture."

As indicated in the Preamble to the UNESCO Constitution, found in Appendix I-A, "Since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defenses of peace must be constructed." Alexander Meiklejohn said of the organization:

> It is an agency of study and of teaching rather than of external action. UNESCO will have none of the responsibilities or powers of the Security Council, of the Economic and Social Council, of the World Food Administration, or of the International Labor Office. And yet it is concerned with them all. It is essential to them all. In a fundamental sense, it is prior to them all. Its aim is the development of that international intelligence upon which the success of any United Nations activity depends.

The historical roots of UNESCO lie deep in history; its genesis is in the medieval community of scholars. The "menace of psychopathic nationalism and advanced military technology" are the immediate factors which brought it into existence.[29] The beginnings of this international organization are sketched briefly here.

The definite origin of UNESCO can be traced to the Conference of Allied Ministers of Education in 1942. The United States was not present but sent observers for the meeting the next year. In 1944 the United States Government sent to London a delegation for educational and cultural reconstruction. An American delegate, the late Grayson Kefauver, remained in London to maintain liaison with the Conference of Allied Ministers of Education.

In the meantime, the San Francisco Conference, which adopted the Constitution of the United Nations, passed a resolution favoring the idea of an international organization for education, science, and culture. The Conference of Allied Ministers of Education modified their plans, which served as the basis for discussion at a United Nations meeting in London in Novem-

[29] Richard A. Johnson, "The Origin of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization," *International Conciliation*, October. 1946, p. 441.

ber, 1945. Forty-four governments were represented at this Conference and seven international organizations sent observers. The United States delegation, headed by Archibald MacLeish, cooperated with the other nations in preparing a new draft constitution and establishing a preparatory commission. The first meeting of the General Conference of UNESCO was held in Paris in November, 1946.

Official approval by the United States came in July, 1946, when both houses of Congress passed a joint resolution providing for membership and participation by the United States in UNESCO, and authorizing an appropriation therefor. In signing the joint resolution President Harry S. Truman said:

> UNESCO will summon to service in the cause of peace the forces of education, science, learning, and the creative arts and the agencies of the film, the radio, and the printed word through which knowledge and ideas are diffused among mankind. The government of the United States will work with and through UNESCO to the end that the minds of all people may be freed from ignorance, prejudice, suspicion, and fear and that men may be educated for justice, liberty, and peace. If peace is to endure, education must establish the moral unity of mankind.

United States National Commission for UNESCO. The United States Congress, in officially approving its active membership, established a National Commission for UNESCO in 1946. This commission of 100 educational leaders is entrusted with the responsibility of formulating policies for the United States as a member of the group. Thus the government and its citizenry are cooperating on an international scale to help education win the inexorable race with disaster.

Archibald MacLeish, an American delegate to the first session of UNESCO in Paris, said:

> History may be about to teach us that the Parliament of Mankind can only be attained through the Republic of Letters. If that is the lesson we are to be taught, then the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization will be more important to the international evolution of our time than any other part of the United Nations. For it is precisely the function of UNESCO to realize the ancient dream of the Republic of Letters.

UNESCO aims to help end educational isolationism and promote intellectual interdependence. In a highly scientific age which splits atoms, it helps unite peoples of the world. An ancient Chinese proverb says, "The journey of a thousand miles begins with but a single step." The organization of UNESCO may prove to be the single step in education's long journey to lasting peace.

AN EVOLVING NATIONAL SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

A democracy is not static; it either advances or dies. Certainly education in a democracy strives to advance; thus a national system of education is slowly evolving in America.

Henry W. Holmes, former dean of the Harvard Graduate School, wrote in answer to his own question, "What do you mean by a *national* system of education?":

> I do not mean a system run from Washington. The bogey of federal control has been raised for years to head off federal aid to schools. . . . It means a system that can do a national job. A national job in education is compatible with immense variation in local patterns; such variation is, indeed, a necessary element in making American education national. . . . The first business of a national system of education is to carry the whole youthful population of the country to the point of its entrance into adult life—and to do so in such wise that every boy and girl is ready for a job or for further education leading toward a job, ready for citizenship in a democracy, and equipped with wholesome personal resources for the "pursuit of happiness."[30]

From the highest educational official in the land down to the youngest member of a student council in an elementary school, there is the desire to perfect American education. This striving toward perfection is furthered collectively by many nongovernmental groups. These organizations, through their nation-wide membership and numerous activities, assist especially in formulating policies, in implementing goals, and in evaluating programs.

Principles and Proposals for Improvement of National System

Basic Policies and Proposals. The Problems and Policies Committee and the Educational Policies Commission created a joint committee to study federal and state relations in education, which has enumerated five basic policies and principles to guide the future developments of the federal program in education:

> 1. The federal government in its relations to education should recognize that this is a service of primary importance, which makes its greatest contribution in the general welfare as a well-organized, integrated enterprise designed to develop well-balanced citizens for democracy, rather than as a means of advancing unrelated aims or special interests.

[30] Henry W. Holmes, "The Nation Challenges the Schools," *The Atlantic*, January, 1940, p. 24.

2. The decentralized pattern of public educational organization developed in the United States during a period of more than a century and a half, involving basic control and administration of education by the states and localities, is sound policy and should be continued.

3. The nation as a whole, as well as the states and localities, has a stake in education, and the federal government should continue to exercise, within properly defined limits, educational functions demanded by changing national conditions and needs.

4. In its relations to education in the states, the federal government should limit its action to two broad functions: financial assistance and leadership of a stimulating but noncoercive character.

5. The federal government should limit such direct control and administration of education as it exercises in certain special enterprises. Examples are the academies at West Point and Annapolis.[31]

Specific Proposals. This joint commission made two specific recommendations for implementing the policies mentioned: (1) creating a national educational commission or board, composed of 12 to 15 outstanding citizens, to provide a catalytic agent for education; and (2) establishing an adequate federal educational agency as an independent office of the federal government, since the existing Office of Education is inadequate.

Other suggestions by various groups and individuals for improving the national system of education in the United States include (3) establishing a separate department of education, with a Secretary of Education in the President's cabinet; (4) creating an executive department of health, education, and security, headed by a secretary of cabinet rank; (5) coordinating federal activities in education through a federal council on education, consisting of one representative from each of the several executive departments; (6) coordinating federal-state programs through a national council on public education, composed of the several state superintendents, under the chairmanship of a secretary or commissioner of education; (7) coordinating governmental and nongovernmental educational agencies through a national conference on education; (8) creating a federal fund for aiding general education and equalizing educational opportunity and burden through the United States; (9) providing federal funds or loans for specific purposes, such as school buildings; (10) increasing the grant to the United States Office of Education; (11) establishing a science foundation to promote basic research and scientific education; (12) providing federal scholarships and fellowships; (13) granting subsidies for a national theater; and (14) founding a national university at Washington, D.C., similar to the Australian National University at Canberra.[32]

[31] Educational Policies Commission, and Problems and Policies Commission, *op. cit.*, p. 7.

[32] Some of these proposals are considered further in Unit XVII.

Dozens of other recommendations affecting national education have been proposed by various groups and commissions, such as the Hoover Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of Government. In its quest for the best the nation will ever seek improvement in education.

Conclusion

The present decentralized system of American public education does not and should not exclude the possibility of an improved federal program of leadership and cooperation. The Advisory Committee on Education, instructed to examine the general relationship of the federal government to education, states:

> Education is in a large sense an individual matter. But individuals compose neighborhoods and communities, communities compose states, and in the United States, the states compose the nation. As are the neighborhoods, so will be the states and nation.
>
> Since the formation of the Union, Americans have been citizens both of the states and of the nation. Most Americans now feel that their federal government is their agent as much as is their state government. Our sense of national citizenship has developed rapidly in recent years. For better or for worse, it is becoming more and more evident that all citizens face a common responsibility and that they share a common destiny.[33]

From this common destiny a national school system is slowly evolving. It is not a new concept. Certainly it was in the minds of the statesmen who wrote the Declaration of Independence. It is today in the minds and hearts of educational statesmen who are perfecting an unwritten Declaration of Educational Interdependence. This growing knowledge and feeling of educational interdependence between state systems of education, and between them and the national government, are the bases for helping boys and girls, men and women, to live a fuller life, as envisioned in the great American dream.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Examine the report of a recent meeting of UNESCO. Evaluate its work.
2. Describe the participation of the United States in the education of one of the occupied countries, such as Germany, Austria, Japan, or Korea.
3. Review the ways in which the government encouraged schools in the early history of the United States.
4. Explain why the words "schools" and "public education" were omitted from the Constitution of the United States.
5. Discuss the implications for education in the Tenth Amendment to the Constitution.
6. Compare or contrast the national school system in the United States with that in some foreign country.

[33] Advisory Committee on Education, *op. cit.*, p. 35.

7. Give a brief history of the federal Office of Education.
8. Draw a diagram showing the internal organization of the Office of Education.
9. List the duties of the federal Commissioner of Education.
10. Examine an *Annual Report of the United States Commissioner of Education.*
11. Prepare a brief history of the life and work of an early United States Commissioner of Education.
12. Discuss the types of aid granted to school districts by the federal government during and since the Second World War.
13. Debate the issue: "Resolved that there should be a Secretary of Education in the cabinet of the President of the United States."
14. List the geographical areas, other than the 48 states, where the federal Office of Education assists in promoting education.
15. Describe the major features of the educational system in one of the United States dependencies.
16. Report on how the public schools in Washington, D.C., are conducted.
17. Prepare an exhibit of the different types of literature issued under the auspices of the federal Office of Education.
18. Read several articles in a recent issue of *School Life.*
19. Review the activities of the federal government in vocational education.
20. Describe one of the newer federal activities in education of special interest to you.

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Published since the days of Henry Barnard.

Annual reports (1)

Among the many other helpful reports dealing with American public education: *Annual Report of the Library of Congress*, *Report of the United States National Museum*, and *Annual Report of Federal Security Agency*.

Biennial Survey of Education

Issued as bulletins every 2 years since 1917 by the Office of Education.

Educator's Washington Dispatch (24)

Fortnightly newsletter, plus special supplements.

Education Summary (24)

Fortnightly newsletter and information service

Hawaii Educational Review (10)

Published in Honolulu.

Journal of the Department of Education of Puerto Rico (9)

Publication issued by the Department of Education at San Juan.

[34] Also consult *Education Index*, *Education Digest*, *Education News*, and *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature*.

[35] The figures following the titles of the publications indicate the number of issues annually.

Journal of the Education Association (5)

Periodical of the District of Columbia Education Association.

List of Publications of the Office of Education

Official lists, published periodically, of free and inexpensive publications available from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C.

March of Education

Interesting newsletter published periodically by the federal Office of Education.

National Surveys

Numerous surveys, such as finance, secondary education, teacher education, and Negro education, conducted by the Office of Education and other agencies.

Proceedings (1)

Issued by many nation-wide educational associations, such as the National Education Association, following their annual meetings.

School Life (10)

Published monthly as the official organ of the federal Office of Education. The best periodical for current educational developments, particularly those conducted under federal auspices.

UNESCO Publications

Numerous reports issued by UNESCO, by U.S. National Commission for UNESCO, by Department of State, etc.

Yearbook of the United Nations (1)

A United Nations publication containing information on UNESCO and other activities related to education.

Audio-visual Aids[36]

Annapolis — Eleven minutes, 16 mm., sound

Life in the United States Naval Academy, an educational institution supported entirely by federal funds, is depicted in this film. Available from Teaching Film Custodians, New York.

Does It Pay to Be Ignorant? — Radio script, five minutes

This was prepared by experienced script writers for American Education Week. Available from the National Education Association, Washington, D.C.

Education — Slidefilm, color

This strip is one in a series entitled "The Nature of Democracy." It is a discussional slidefilm on education, available from the Jam Handy Organization, Detroit, Michigan.

Founding of the American Public School System — Microfilms, 35 mm., silent

Several hundred selections of source material in a scholarly survey of the establishment and growth of American education to the close of the Civil War are available in microfilm form for projection and intensive study. A textbook, *Founding of the American Public School System*, written by Paul Monroe and published by the Macmillan Company, is available for use with the films. Es-

[36] In this unit and subsequent ones are found lists of audio-visual aids, including films, filmstrips, slides, radio scripts, and recordings. They may be rented usually from several distributors, but only one is indicated here. A printed or mimeographed syllabus in pamphlet form accompanies some audio-visual aids as an outline for study. Unless indicated as color, the films are black and white.

pecially helpful here are Chaps. VIII and IX. The microfilm is published by University Films, Ann Arbor, Michigan. Several sets have been deposited by the Carnegie Foundation in some of the larger and more important public and university libraries.

REPORT CARD — Transcription, one hour

A transcription on records of a CBS broadcast by the same title. The program covers a broad survey of education in the United States, indicating the need for linking the classroom with life's realistic needs. Permissions are restricted to off-the-air use. Available from the U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C., without charge.

TERRITORIAL POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED STATES — Twenty-two minutes, 16 mm., sound

This film shows the growth of the United States through the acquisition of Alaska, the insular possessions, the Canal Zone, and the various islands. The history leading up to the acquisitions is covered. Animated maps are used to familiarize the student with the location and size of possessions. Available from International Geography Pictures, New York.

TOWARD BETTER SCHOOLS FOR ALL CHILDREN — Filmstrip, 55 frames, 35 mm.

This filmstrip shows that the difficulties of the public schools are increasing, that the costs of school supplies have advanced more rapidly than revenue, and that federal aid is needed. Available with lecture guide from the National Education Association, Washington, D.C.

WEST POINT—SYMBOL OF OUR ARMY — 16 mm., sound and silent

Life at the United States Military Academy at West Point, New York, a federally supported educational institution, is shown in this film. Available from Castle Films, New York.

PREVIEW OF UNIT II

STATE SYSTEMS OF EDUCATION

The adoption of the Tenth Amendment to the national Constitution made education primarily a state function. Although this power may be delegated in part to lower units, the state serves as the chief centralizing agency for public education. Including the territories and dependencies, the United States has a large variety of individual state school systems.

With a few exceptions, all states have a central board of education. Its duties vary with the state constitution and statutes. This agency is usually supplemented by other educational and semieducational boards.

The chief school officer in each state is the superintendent or commissioner of education. His manifold duties and close relationships with others present him with opportunities for varied and vital leadership.

The state department of education, under the superintendent, consists of a well-organized staff of professional and nonprofessional workers.

In cooperation with laymen and educators, the state board of education, the superintendent, and his staff seek to develop a state program of education.

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Introduction
- Education primarily a state function
- Evolution of state education
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- Qualifications of state board members
- Duties of state boards
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UNIT II

STATE SYSTEMS OF EDUCATION

In a letter to General Breckenridge in 1821, Thomas Jefferson said of the schools which he envisioned for the state of Virginia: "Let us keep our eye steadily on the whole system." Jefferson saw the need for a system of public education in Virginia so organized and coordinated that the elementary schools and the institutions of higher learning could "go hand in hand forever." This challenge has been met in part by the various states through the establishment of state-wide educational systems.

Education Primarily a State Function. According to the Tenth Amendment to the Constitution, ratified in 1791: "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." By implication, therefore, education, one of the unmentioned powers thus reserved, is a state function. Judge-made laws in the form of numerous court decisions bear out this inference. It must be recalled that many states existed before the national government came into being and that, when the states formed a federated union, they surrendered but a portion of their sovereign rights to the central government.

More recent evidence that education is a function of the individual states is found in the provisions of the so-called G.I. Bill of Rights, in which Congress specified that only the individual states can decide what schools, colleges, or employers are qualified to train veterans receiving money from the federal government.

M. M. Chambers, an expert in school laws, writes:

> Our form of government was never intended to mean either local decentralization of authority to the point of paralysis or national centralization to the point of apoplexy. In large part the achievement of the "golden mean" lies in the strengthening of state legislative responsibility.[1]

The state must be the most powerful factor in implementing American public education.[2]

Of course the federal government may "promote the general welfare" and may contract with the states. It may, indeed, establish and support schools or offer contributions in aid of such education; but its legal status seems to be that of an outside or private party contracting with the state,

[1] M. M. Chambers, "Court Decisions on Reorganization," *Nation's Schools*, January, 1949, p. 46.

[2] Council of State Governments, *The Forty-eight State School Systems*, pp. 163–164, The Council, 1949.

for it may not levy upon state property for the support of such schools, nor may it attempt to guide the state-approved machinery in their administration. The federal government has, however, enforced certain stipulations regarding the use of the land which it gave to the states and has exercised control over vocational agriculture and home economics instruction through the granting of land and funds. These functions it has acquired gradually with the cooperation of the states.[3] Collectively the state systems are the educational lifeblood of America.

Since education is a responsibility of the various commonwealths, its control is said to be decentralized. Obviously the absence of a strong centralizing agency does not promote uniformity among the states, and certainly not within the states. Although the power to enact laws may be centered in the state government, the administration of such laws may be decentralized in that they are enforced by scores of county and local superintendents and boards of education. Dissimilarity, the most striking characteristic of the state school systems, naturally produces marked inequalities.

Evolution of State Education. Even earlier than the national Constitution, the principles of public education had developed in some Eastern states.

> Early in the seventeenth century educational legislation was already formulated in Connecticut and Massachusetts. Before the end of the century Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and Maryland had established the beginnings of state systems of education. . . . The history of the beginnings of American education in all the states shows that local cooperative effort paved the way, laying the foundation which made state legislation necessary.[4]

The first provisional constitution of Pennsylvania in 1776 contained this item, which may be of interest today to teachers who complain about low salaries: "A school or schools shall be established in each county by the legislature for the correct instruction of youth, with such salaries paid to the master by the public as may enable them to instruct youth at low prices, and all useful learning should be duly encouraged and promoted in one or more universities." Although most early state constitutions were as silent on education as was the national Constitution, some of them did provide expressly for the education of the "poor." For example, the Pennsylvania

[3] Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, and the Problems and Policies Committee of the American Council on Education, *Federal-State Relations in Education*, p. 7, National Education Association, 1945.

[4] S. T. Dutton and D. Snedden, *The Administration of Public Education in the United States*. p. 56, Macmillan, 1908.

constitution of 1790 stated: "The legislature shall, as soon as conveniently may be, provide for the establishment of schools throughout the state in such manner that the poor may be taught gratis." A school system free to paupers gradually developed into a public school free to all.

Most states have general constitutional provisions for the establishing of schools. A typical statement is Article XII from the constitution of Rhode Island, part of which reads: "The diffusion of knowledge, as well as of virtue, among the people, being essential to the preservation of their rights and liberties, it shall be the duty of the general assembly to promote public schools, and to adopt all means which they may deem necessary and proper to secure to the people the advantages and opportunities of education." Some state constitutions contain very specific sections on education; usually, however, under a general mandate, the legislature, reinforced by the courts, determines the organization and administration of the schools.

Role of State Education. From his long experience F. P. Graves, former New York State Commissioner of Education, concluded that the state administrative agency should render the educational opportunities of the state more effective by holding the local communities up to a high standard of attainment and by encouraging them to rise above this level through new achievements:

> Of the two varieties of service—compulsion and stimulation—the latter is far the more lasting and valuable. The state department of education should seek to be a counselor rather than a bureaucrat, and its main efforts should be devoted to constructive service and professional leadership. It is a happy development of the twentieth century to place the emphasis in state control upon functional rather than structural achievement.[5]

The Educational Policies Commission affirms that the function of state administration includes primarily the development of the framework within which the local community is authorized to operate; the provision of support that will guarantee an acceptable minimum program to the people of all administrative areas within the state, while equalizing the burden of supporting education; and the organization of a department of education.[6] In order that the state program of education may function, the work must be properly organized.

State Organization and Administration. No state has undertaken to administer and supervise public education directly through constitutional

[5] F. P. Graves, *The Administration of American Education*, pp. 557–558, Macmillan, 1932.

[6] Educational Policies Commission, *The Structure and Administration of Public Education in the United States*, pp. 11–12, National Education Association, December, 1937.

provisions or legislative action; instead, each one has delegated at least some of these responsibilities to state or institutional boards.[7] Although a state board of education is general, the powers and duties of these boards differ markedly. One central agency or several boards may be in charge of public schools and other educational institutions, as explained later.

The usual pattern consists of (1) the state board of education, which is the policy-making body, (2) the state superintendent of public instruction, who is the chief executive of the board, and (3) the state department of education with its staff members, who carry out the policies of the board of education under the immediate direction of the superintendent. Together these three forces are responsible for developing a state program of education.

STATE BOARDS OF EDUCATION

In order to develop a broad program of education, the state had to create an agency through which it could act. Just as a local community has a board of education to determine policies to be carried out by its chief executive officer, as discussed in Unit IV, so too the state has a central body to plan for education.

But for more than a century and a half after the Massachusetts law of 1647, by which public schools were first required in all communities, this state agency, now considered so essential, was not anywhere established because of the fear that autocracy would result from such a centralization of authority and power. It was only in the course of time that the evolution of permanent "literary" funds, state taxation for education, and a body of school law made a definite organization necessary.[8]

As a result, either state boards of education or state school officials, or both, came into being.

Evolution of State Boards of Education

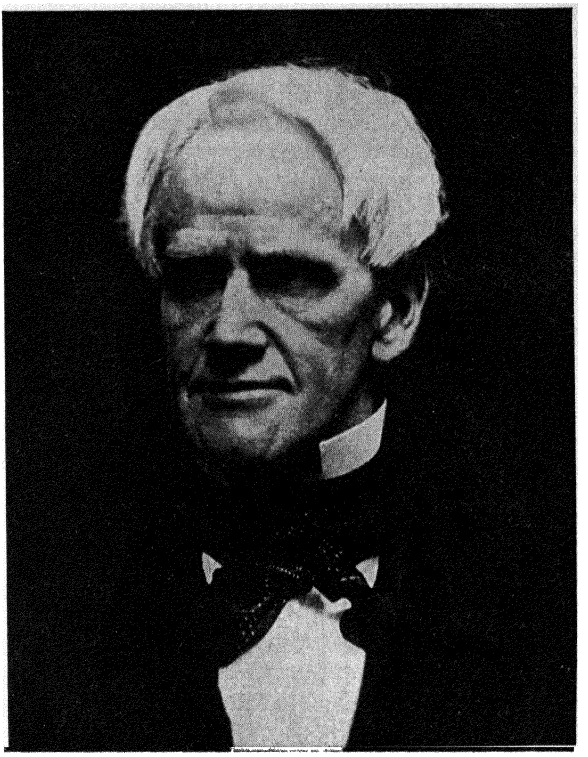
Of the beginnings of state boards of education, F. P. Graves wrote:

Looking first to the state school board, we find that the earliest foundation was that of the Board of Regents for New York in 1784. To this body was granted supervision over collegiate and academic education throughout the state, and the institutions incorporated under its control have ever since been jointly known as the University of the State of New York. There was no other state board

[7] National Society for the Study of Education, *American Education in the Postwar Period*, Part II, "Structural Reorganization," p. 121, University of Chicago Press, 1945.

[8] F. P. Graves, *op. cit.*, p. 535.

organized until 1825, when North Carolina created a body known as the President and Directors of the Literary (or permanent school) Fund. Other boards were then started in various states for special purposes, but not until Massachusetts established its State Board of Education in 1837 were many powers and duties assigned to any of them.[9]



(From daguerreotype owned by E. I. F. Williams and used as frontispiece in his Horace Mann: Educational Statesman, Macmillan, 1937.)

FIG. 2-1. Horace Mann. He was one of the educators honored in a series of commemorative stamps. He earned this honor by spearheading the "common-school revival."

The bill for establishing this important board in Massachusetts was written by James G. Carter, a staunch friend of better schools, and was officially signed by Horace Mann, who was then president of the senate. The act called for a board of ten members, consisting of the governor and the lieutenant governor as ex officio members, and eight additional persons to be appointed by the governor with the consent of the council. Upon the official announcement of the membership of the board, Horace Mann, one

[9] *Ibid.*, pp. 535–536.

of the appointees, who sensed its importance in Massachusetts and its potential influence throughout the land, wrote in his diary under the date of May 27, 1837:

> This I believe to be like a spring, almost imperceptible, flowing from the highest table land, between oceans, which is destined to deepen and widen as it descends, diffusing fertility and beauty in its course; and nations shall dwell upon its banks. It is the first great movement toward an organized system of common education, which shall at once be thorough and universal. Every civilized state is as imperfectly organized, without a minister or secretary of instruction, as it would be without ministers or secretaries of State, Finance, War or the Navy.[10]

This board was empowered to appoint a secretary and to fix a reasonable salary, not to exceed $1000 a year, which was increased in 1838 to $1500. Although he did not seek the office, Horace Mann was appointed the first secretary. On the day he communicated his acceptance, he wrote in his journal: "Henceforth so long as I hold this office I devote myself to the supremest welfare of mankind upon earth. An inconceivably great labor is undertaken. With the highest degree of prosperity, results will manifest themselves but slowly. The harvest is far from the seedtime."[11] From the perspective of a hundred and more years, it is easy to see that the pioneering efforts of the inspired and indefatigable Horace Mann as secretary of the state board in Massachusetts rightfully earned him the title, "father of public-school education." Other leaders, such as Henry Barnard, DeWitt Clinton, Thaddeus Stevens, Caleb Mills, and John Swett, also helped to develop American public education through their harmonious and productive relationships with state agencies.

Today all but nine states maintain the equivalent of a state board of education, usually designated as such, although variations in nomenclature exist.

States with and without a State Board of Education. W. G. Reeder distinguishes two types of state boards of education: "(1) those special boards which have control and supervision over limited and separate phases of education; and (2) those state boards which possess at least some control and supervision over the elementary-and secondary-school systems of the state."[12] Every commonwealth in the United States has the first type, dealing with special aspects of education. For example, the federal government required some type of state board before it would grant aid for voca-

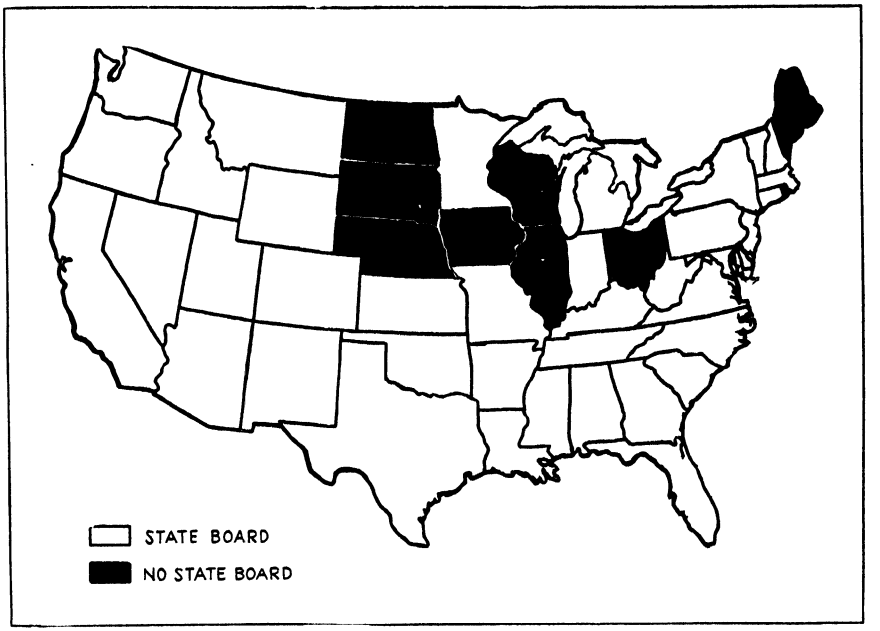
[10] Mary Peabody Mann, *Life of Horace Mann* (Centennial Edition), p. 72, National Education Association, 1937.

[11] *Ibid.*, pp. 80–81.

[12] W. G. Reeder, *The State Board and State Department of Education*, p. 5, Ohio Education Association, 1939.

tional education. Some states have special boards, dealing with a small area of education, such as public institutions of higher learning (Rhode Island), and a selected phase of higher education, such as state teachers colleges (Nebraska).

The second type, with some control and supervision of elementary-and secondary-school systems, is organized in only 39 commonwealths. As indicated (Fig. 2-2), the nine states that do not have these full-fledged state



(Based upon data from the Forty-eight State School Systems, p. 183, Council of State Government, 1949.)

FIG. 2-2. States with and without a state board of education. "State board of education" is here interpreted as meaning one that possesses at least some control over the elementary- and secondary-school systems of the state.

boards of education are Illinois, Iowa, Maine, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, Rhode Island, South Dakota, and Wisconsin.

Why a State Board of Education? For the same reasons that the county and local school systems need a board of education, the state as a whole should maintain such a group. This board, as the chief educational authority, helps to develop policies and programs for the state department of education.[13] The type of board determines in a measure the nature of its long-term and short-term planning.

[13] Educational Policies Commission, and Problems and Policies Committee, *op. cit.*, p. 31.

Selection of Boards of Education

The major modes of determining membership on the state boards of education are by (1) ex officio status, (2) election, and (3) appointment.

Ex Officio Members. These persons hold other state offices and because of that status are automatically members of the board of education. The state superintendent usually holds such membership. In one third of the states the governor, by virtue of his high office, serves as a member of one or more governing boards in education, including the state board. Florida is an illustration of a state in which the entire board of education is ex officio, consisting of the superintendent of public instruction, the attorney general, the secretary of state, the state treasurer, and the governor. The terms of their regular offices determine the length of their membership on the board of education. The trend over the past fifty years has been away from boards wholly or chiefly ex officio.

Elected Boards. In some states boards are elected. In Michigan the main tasks of the elected state board of education, consisting of three members, are the supervision of the four state teachers colleges, the School for the Deaf, and the School for the Blind. The board also has complete jurisdiction over the granting of teachers' certificates and has final control over school bus routes. The state superintendent of public instruction is the only ex officio member of the board. Utah was the first state in which local school board members, assembled in convention, selected the state board members.

Appointed Boards. Usually all or the majority of the central board of education are appointed. All are appointed in New York by the legislature, and in Wyoming, by the state superintendent of public instruction with the approval of the governor. Another illustration is Oklahoma where the board consists of seven members—the elected superintendent, who is president, and six members appointed for a period of 6 years by the governor by and with the advice and consent of the senate. The governor also appoints the state textbook commission. In Arkansas the governor is chairman of the state board of education. He appoints seven members, one from each congressional district, and this board selects the state commissioner of education.

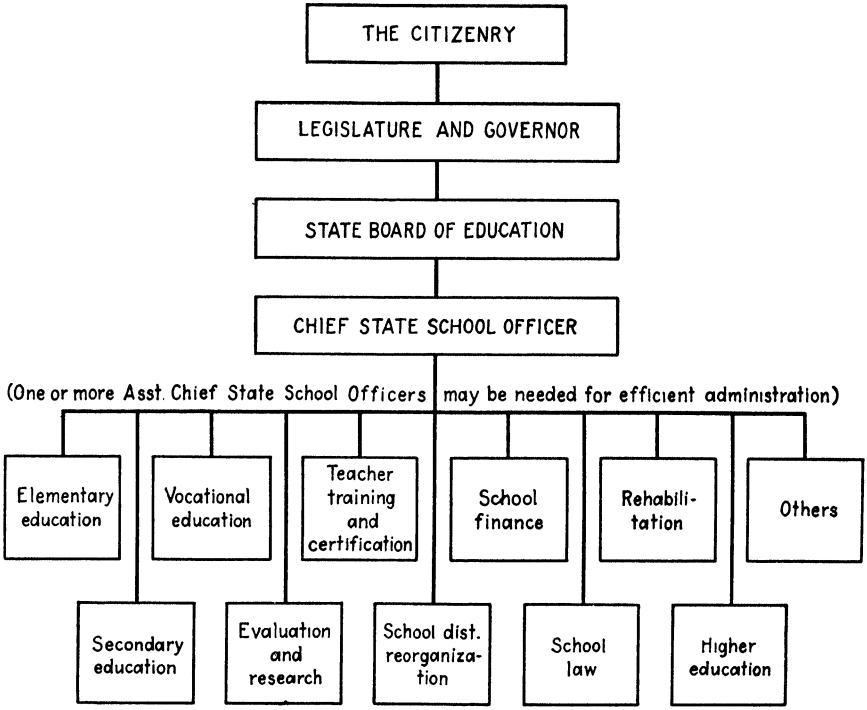
Recommended Procedures. The Problems and Policies Committee and the Educational Policies Commission recommend "the appointment by the governor or election by popular vote of a state board of education of outstanding citizens of broad vision to replace the ineffective ex officio state boards which exist in some states."[14] In the model organization recommended by the United States Chamber of Commerce "authority stems from

[14] *Ibid.*

the people through the legislature and governor to a single board of education" (Fig. 2-3).

Qualifications of State Board Members

The question of professional qualifications of board members is a controversial one. There are those who insist that the board be composed en-



(*From Responsibility of the States in Education—the Fourth R, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, 1947, p. 8.*)

Fig. 2-3. Proposed organization for implementing state responsibility in education. A model state department of education organized on a sound administrative basis is a workable organization whose authority stems from the people, through the legislature and governor, to a single state board of education. A consensus of educational authorities is that the chief state school officer should be chosen by the board to act as its executive officer. He, in turn, should choose, with the approval of the board, the directors of the various divisions. These administrators would be directly responsible to the chief state school officer, while he in turn would answer to the state board of education, which would report directly to the governor and the legislature. Coordinated administration from kindergarten through higher education is the goal.

tirely of laymen. For example, the Kentucky law states that no member at the time of his appointment or during the term of his service shall be engaged as a professional educator. A few states require that some of the members be educators. In Oklahoma, for example, at least two members must be "practical schoolmen who shall have had at least four years' ex-

perience in actual school work, two years of which shall have been in the state of Oklahoma." Wyoming laws stipulate that of the seven members "at least two shall be persons actively engaged in educational work." Most states, however, omit any specific reference to professional qualifications as a prerequisite to board membership.

A qualifying clause in a few states where members are appointed is that "different parts of the state shall be represented." In Wyoming "not more than four members of such board shall be from one political party." That state adds the important general qualifications, which should be applied in all states, that the members "shall be appointed solely because of their character and fitness. All members of the board shall be persons of mature years, known for integrity, culture, public spirit, business ability, and interest in public education." The legal qualifications for members of the state board of education take on significance only as public-spirited citizens demand the best.

Duties of State Boards

A state may have many boards for specific educational purposes. In most instances, however, the major educational responsibilities are assigned to one central agency which is usually the general state board of education. Originally its chief task was the distribution of state "literary" funds and kindred duties. Today this board is invested with greatly enlarged powers, including the general oversight of the entire state public-school system. Like the school board in the local district, it is usually the policy-forming body. Its major task in some states is the appointment of a state superintendent who serves as the chief executive officer of the board. Like city boards, it also makes appointments recommended by the superintendent and approves budgets prepared by him.

Other State Educational Boards

Many commonwealths assign to bodies other than the state board of education the various aspects of the educational program. Among the several hundred state educational boards are: the textbook commission, which selects textbooks to be used in schools throughout the state; the board of trustees or regents, which manages the state university; the teachers college board, which presides over the affairs of the state teachers colleges; the board or boards of control, which have charge of one or more institutions of higher learning; the board for vocational rehabilitation, which collaborates with the federal board in reestablishing in industry persons injured or otherwise handicapped; the board for vocational education, which works with the federal government especially in promoting

Smith-Hughes activities; the board of examiners, which prepares and conducts examinations for teachers seeking to be certified; the retirement or pension board, which collects the receipts and controls the distributions for teachers' pensions; and the board of charities and corrections, which takes charge of and provides for the proper training of feeble-minded, deaf, blind, crippled, and other handicapped persons.

In recent years one notes a tendency toward reducing the number of ancillary state boards and centralizing the control of educational affairs in the hands of a state board of education, which has general supervision of all the schools. This may be supplemented by another board, which has charge of the institutions of higher learning in the state. One also detects a trend toward making the state superintendent the coordinator of all educational activities in the commonwealth.

STATE SUPERINTENDENTS AND COMMISSIONERS

In several instances the president or secretary of the state board of education is the chief educational executive of the state. The evolution of this central office often antedated that of the state board of education.

Evolution of State Superintendencies

As Sidney B. Hall, former superintendent of Virginia, has pointed out, administration grew out of instruction; in the earliest schools in this country there were no administrative positions, only pupils and teachers.[15] The establishment of city superintendencies was preceded by the creation of a chief state official for education.

New York was the first state (1812) to have a state school officer, but the first continuous office of the kind was established in Michigan in 1829. The example of the Massachusetts State Board of Education in engaging Horace Mann as its secretary in 1837 exerted a great deal of influence.[16]

Even before the Civil War each state employed a chief school officer, designated by various titles. In 1913 Delaware reestablished the office after abandoning it for a quarter of a century. Since then all states have had the office as a separate and continuous one.[17]

Official Designation. Appendix II lists the current titles of the chief

[15] Sidney B. Hall, "The Relation of Administration to Instruction," *Official Report*, American Association of School Administrators, National Education Association, 1939, p. 50.

[16] W. A. Cook, *Federal and State School Administration*, p. 142, Crowell, 1927.

[17] W. G. Reeder, *op. cit.*, p. 16.

state educational officer in the various states and dependencies. The most common designation is state superintendent of public instruction. The term commissioner of education is also widely used, especially in the eastern states. Wyoming has both a state superintendent of public instruction and a commissioner of education. The former is elected and is entrusted with the general supervision of the public schools; the latter is appointed by the state board of education and is charged with executing the educational policies of the state board of education under the general supervision of the superintendent.

Nomenclature and practices differ decidedly between states. For example, in California the chief official is designated the superintendent of public instruction and director of education, whereas in Illinois these two offices are separated. The superintendent of public instruction, an elected person, heads the state school system, and another official, the director of education and registration, an appointee of the governor, directs the teachers colleges and the registration of barbers, beauty parlor operators, and others. A title in harmony with the concept of public *education* rather than mere *schooling* is that used by Louisiana, *viz.*, state superintendent of public education. In line with the trend toward cooperation among educational agencies—public, private, and parochial—the term state superintendent (commissioner) of education seems the best. The name, however, is not so significant as the manner in which the official is selected and his qualifications for the all-important task of providing strong educational leadership in the state.

Selection of Chief Educational Officer

The Educational Policies Commission discusses three practices in the selection of the chief state school official: (1) popular election, (2) appointment by the governor, and (3) appointment by the state board of education.[18]

Popular Election. It is unfortunate, writes the commision, that in the majority of states the chief school officer is elected by popular vote. In a recent caucus, one political party selected its candidate for state superintendent on the basis of geography, since the political leaders wanted their candidates for the various offices to be distributed throughout the state. Many a state superintendent in office has to spend his energy, during the latter part of each term, building political fences for reelection. He is likely to think more of the next election than of the next generation.

[18] Educational Policies Commission, *op. cit.*, pp. 83–85.

Appointment by Governor. This method of selecting the chief state school official is employed in nine states. Opinion may be divided as to whether the state board of education should be elected by popular vote or appointed by the governor, but the preponderance of expert opinion is against the appointment of the state superintendent by the governor.

Appointment by State Board of Education. The third method is the best—appointment, but by the state board of education. Appointment by the state board has its disadvantages, of course; no system will work pefectly because of the human element involved. It is better, however, that the important office of state superintendent of public instruction should depend on selection by a few interested competent persons on an official board of education rather than on party election by a large populace.[19] Upon this board devolves the responsibility of choosing the best qualified man or woman as state superintendent or commissioner.

Qualifications and Term of Office

The qualifications and term of office of the chief educational official, like those of other officeholders, are usually stipulated specifically in the laws, although in a few cases, where the board of education appoints the state superintendent, the board is given some latitude.

Qualifications. Two examples, from the school laws of Georgia and Maryland, respectively, indicate the general tenor of the requirements for state superintendent:

> To render a person eligible to hold the office of state superintendent of schools he shall be a man of good moral character, of high educational standing, have had at least three years' practical experience as a teacher, or in lieu thereof shall have a diploma from a reputable college or normal school or shall have had five years' experience in the actual supervision of schools, and be at least thirty years of age.
>
> He shall be an experienced and competent educator; a graduate of a standard college, have not less than two years of specific academic and professional graduate preparation in a standard university, and not less than seven years' experience in teaching and administration.

Most legal definitions of qualifications are general, and rightly so; however, they should be specific enough to provide a pattern by which the electors, or the group or person selecting the superintendent, may be guided in the quest for the most competent person.

[19] Educational Policies Commission, and Problems and Policies Committee, *op. cit.*, p. 31.

Term of Office, Tenure, and Salary. The median legal term of office for the superintendent or commissioner is between 3 and 4 years. The specified term may be as short as 1 year (Delaware), and as long as 6 years (Minnesota), and in a few states tenure is indefinite in the sense that the incumbent serves as long as his work is satisfactory to the appointing agency. The length of time in office averages about 5 or 6 years, with a resultant high degree of turnover. This is due partly to the political manner in which the superintendent is elected or selected, and occasionally to the legal stipulation that an incumbent is inelegible to reelection after serving a few years. Tenure is longer when the superintendent is appointed by the state board than when he is elected or appointed gubernatorially. Sound educational administration suggests that the term of office be many years, subject to the best judgment of the state board, in order to ensure continuity in policy and staff personnel. Furthermore, the salary must be commensurate with the importance and labors of the office. Many cities pay their local superintendents more than the state gives its chief educational official. Naturally this does not draw the best talent into the state office.

Duties of State Superintendents

Most duties of the state superintendents fall into a few main categories: statistical—compiling data on the schools of the state; advisory and judicial—giving advice to school boards and county superintendents, and interpreting the laws; supervisory—promoting means for improving the schools and instruction; administrative—distributing state moneys and certificating teachers; integrative—attending meetings of various state boards and coalescing the various educational elements in the state; and special—such as filling vacancies in county superintendencies.

Superintendent's Relationships with Others

A state superintendent may be talented, well educated, and industrious and yet not be a success in office because of his inability to work and get along with others. He needs to be able and willing to confer with officials from other states, to integrate the disparate efforts of the numerous educational workers within the state, and to cooperate with his subordinates.

Nation-wide Relationships. No state can exist by itself economically, nor can it do so educationally. The state superintendent therefore seeks to learn from other departments of education and to pool his interests and achievements with others. To this end he affiliates himself with other state superintendents and commissioners in their national organiza-

tion, the National Council of Chief State School Officers. Occasionally he and other officials may be called by the United States Commissioner of Education into conference on nation-wide problems, as shown in Unit I. As indicated in Fig. 1-2, which prefaces Part I of this volume, the state superintendent is connected with the United States Office of Education, to which he sends statistics and other data and from which he receives federal grants for vocational education and other assistance.

State-wide Relationships. The state superintendent also has important working relationships within the state he serves. First of all comes his relationship to the state board of education, if such a board exists. Usually the superintendent serves as secretary or president, or at least as an ex officio member. He may also belong to other state boards, which have numerous educational and semieducational duties. Here, serving as a coordinator, he tries to integrate the work of all the boards. He comes into close contact with many other state officials in the health, highway, safety, buildings, legal, and other departments, and with the officers of the state education association.

County and Local Relationships. Naturally the state superintendent, in the hierarchic form of organization, can demand that certain duties be fulfilled by subordinates. In Georgia, for example: "He shall have the right to require county superintendents of schools to make such reports as he may prescribe and in default of complying, as far as may be practical, with this requirement the county superintendent shall not be entitled to compensation for his official services." In a sense the county superintendent of schools is a member of the state department, representing it in dealing with the local boards of his county. Many a state superintendent calls an annual conference of all county superintendents and local school directors to promote better relationships and to improve the schools. Naturally the state superintendent will have to depend largely on his headquarters staff to represent him in many of these vital relationships.

STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

Evolution of State Departments

In the days when Gideon Hawley was the state superintendent of schools in New York, and Horace Mann the secretary of the state board of education in Massachusetts, each was the state department of education. But, as the concept of the state's function in education broadened, no single official, even in a small commonwealth, could handle all the work; gradually there was an increase in staff personnel. As late as 1890, however, the median number of staff members was only two. After

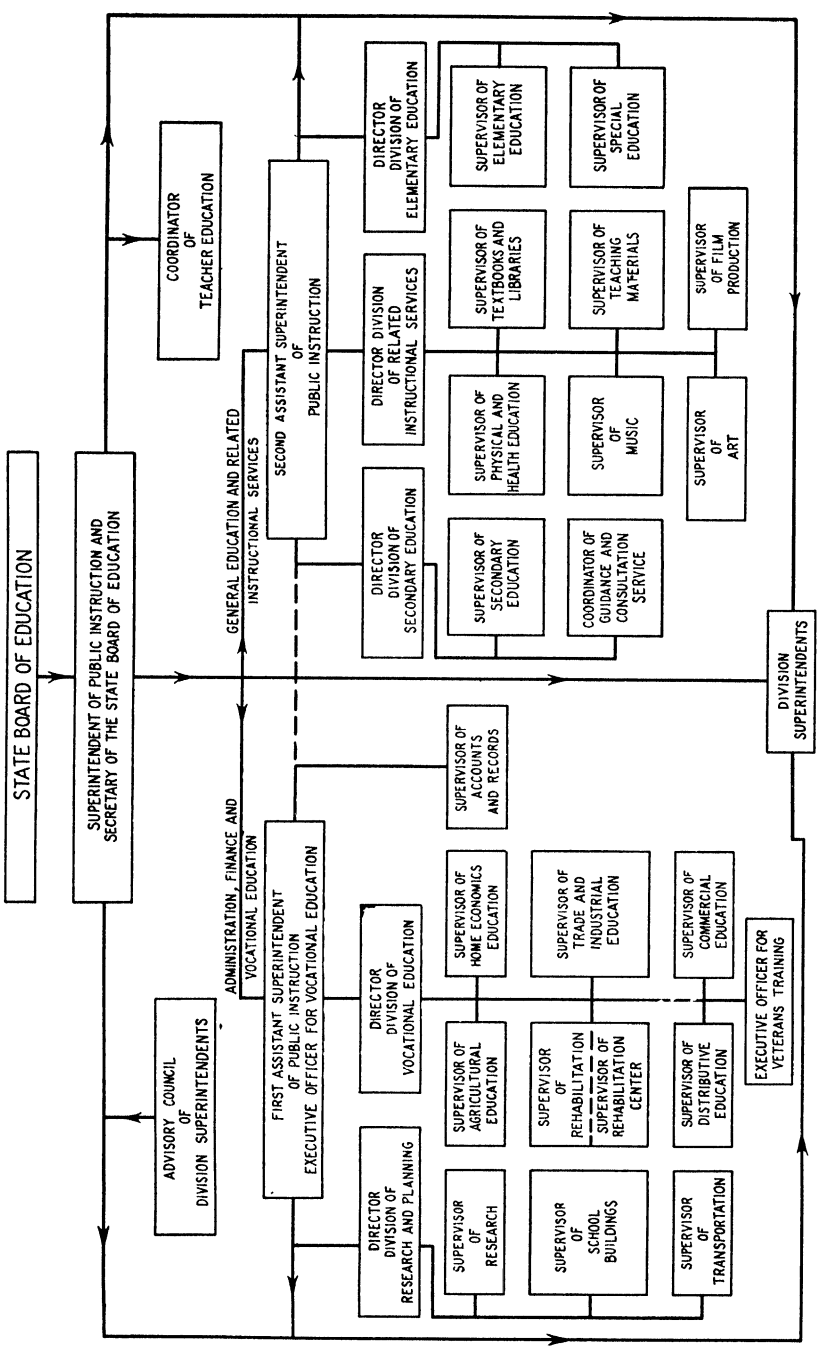


FIG. 2-4. Organization of State Department of Education, Virginia.

1917 came a rapid growth in department personnel owing to three major causes: the new duties devolving upon the department as a result of the passage of the Smith-Hughes vocational education law; the startling revelations from physical, mental, and literacy tests administered during the First World War; and the growing appreciation of the need for a strong state program of education to meet present-day needs. Today every state provides its chief school officer with an organization and staff, usually known as the state department of education. This department is not to be confused with the state board of education. For example, Maine has no state board of education, but has a department of education under the direction of the commissioner of education.

Organization of State Departments

At the head of this department is the state superintendent or commissioner of education. Next in line are the first assistant state superintendent or associate commissioner, the other assistants, supervisors, and staff members.

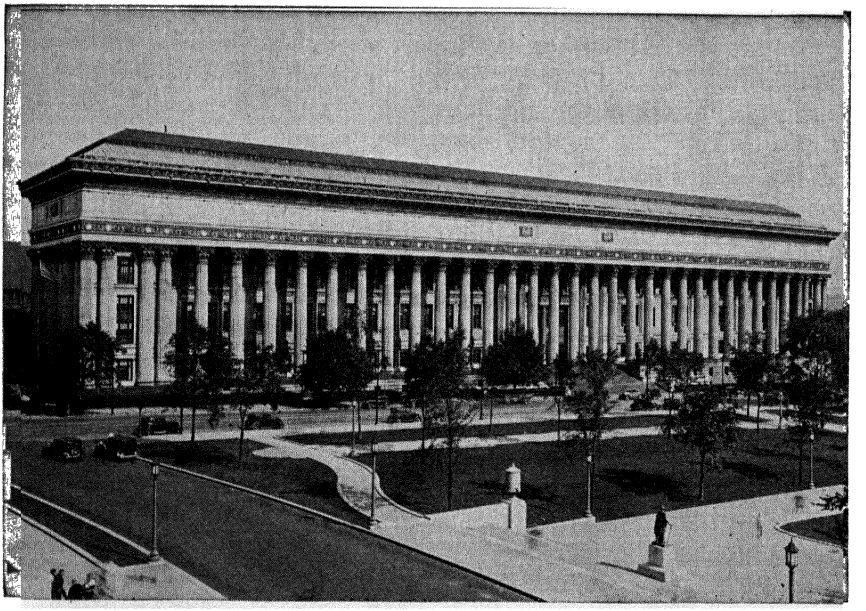
Examples of Internal Organization. The state department of Virginia may be taken as one example of a functional organization. Portrayed in Fig. 2-4 are the relationships in Virginia among the divisions of the state department, which stems from the state board of education and operates under the guidance of the superintendent of public instruction, who also serves as secretary of the state board.

Many state departments have been reorganized to meet the challenges of modern developments. For example, California consolidated its Department of Education by creating five new divisions as follows: department administration; public-school organization, administration, and finance; instruction; teacher education; and state special schools and services. The other divisions of libraries (state library) and of schoolhouse planning had been previously created by special law.

Housing of Department. The department of education is usually located in the state capital and housed in the capitol building. With the increasing complexity of their work and the numerous additions to their staff, most departments are cramped in small quarters designed many years ago. In large states a separate building, as shown in the photographs of the state educational buildings at Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, and Albany, New York, contains the numerous offices of the state superintendent, his assistants, and other members of the staff. New York, the first to have a state superintendent of schools, in the person of Gideon Hawley, was also the first to erect a building for education. "Central schoolhouses," such as these in Harrisburg and Albany, are needed in other states.

(Courtesy of Pennsylvania Highway Department.)

FIG. 2-5. State Education Building, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania. This beautiful structure houses the State Department of Public Instruction and other state educational agencies, such as the State Library and Forum. The decorations, based upon history, literature, and art, reflect the growth of education in that state and its significance in the social organism.



(From New York State Education.)

FIG. 2-6. State Education Building, Albany, New York. New York was the first state to erect a separate building for education. Beside the administrative offices of the State Education Department, this structure houses the New York State Museum and New York State Library.

State Staff Personnel

Function of the State Staff. The staff members of the department of education are not mere machine operators; they are educational servants:

> The state department of education that is well staffed should be thought of as a great service organization to which any local administrative officer or group of teachers may apply for guidance. The state office should be prepared to give counsel and advice, based on the results of scientific inquiry and experimentation. They should be sufficiently well acquainted with the best work that is carried on by the various schools and school systems within the state to act as a clearing-house to distribute to all members of the profession adequate reports of the best practice.[20]

In order to meet these needs many state departments have added specialists in various fields.

Personnel and Activities. The staff of the state department may be divided into two main types according to function:

> These may be roughly designated as the professional and the nonprofessional groups, although such a discrimination is somewhat arbitrary and at times inconsistent. Generally speaking, the former group would include all officers whose activities are related to the executive, administrative, supervisory and research phases of education; and the latter, all clerks, stenographers, draftsmen, messengers, and similar employees.[21]

These groups are usually assigned specific tasks in terms of qualifications and experience.

Each year the federal Office of Education, through the Superintendent of Documents, publishes a list of all the principal state school officers.[22] This directory reveals an amazing variety of titles, indicative of the broad program conducted by the departments.

Recent years have brought significant changes in and extensions of the educational services rendered by most state departments. Among them are:

Adult education
Audio-visual education
Community colleges
Curriculum
Foundation program
General education
Guidance
Human relations
Pre-elementary education
Public relations
Radio and television
Schoolhouse planning
School-lunch programs
Surplus property
Teacher welfare
Transportation
Veterans' education
Veterans' rehabilitation

[20] Educational Policies Commission, *op. cit.*, p. 89.

[21] F. P. Graves, *op. cit.*, p. 552.

[22] *Educational Directory: State and County School Officers, Part I,* Superintendent of Documents, published annually.

More than one hundred different services are reflected in the official designations of state staff personnel.

The report *Federal-State Relations in Education* recommends "the development of an adequate state department of education, both as to function and personnel, under the general control of the state board of education and the administrative direction of the state commissioner of education."[23] This recommendation by educators is reinforced by the excellent study of the departments of education in the 48 states prepared by the United States Chamber of Commerce, which further advises "the reorganization of the state department of education if it operates under the impediment of an obsolete structure."[24]

The Council of State Governments in its study, *The Forty-eight State School Systems*, made this evaluation of state departments:

> In some states the services are quite comprehensive; in others they are so meager that local school systems can expect but little in the way of information or advice.
>
> Relatively few states have established conditions which make positions in the state departments of education attractive to persons of professional competence sufficient to make them valuable as consultants to local school systems. Salaries in line with superintendencies of the larger school systems tend to be the exception rather than the rule.
>
> All state departments need competent research and statistical staffs to furnish information needed for determination of state policy and for guidance of local school systems. Very few state departments have enough personnel to gather the wide range of information needed, to maintain adequate records, or to make studies of various types of school construction, equipment, supplies, and procedures.[25]

Many groups, including the Hoover Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government, have favored special grants for the administration of state departments of education. Unless the state departments are given more financial assistance than they have received in the past, they cannot do their part in developing broad programs of education.

STATE PROGRAMS OF EDUCATION

Units III and IV emphasize the important role played by the educational subdivisions within the state. However, in a hierarchic form of organization, authority flows from the head or source. Upon the individual state, therefore, rests the grave responsibility of developing

[23] Educational Policies Commission, and Problems and Policies Committee, *op. cit.*, p. 31.

[24] Committee on Education, *Responsibility of the States in Education—the fourth R*, p. 45, United States Chamber of Commerce, 1947.

[25] Council of State Governments, *op. cit.*, p. 50.

a program of instruction for all its people. Supreme Court decisions reinforce constitutional and legislative provisions for establishing state programs of education.

Procedures in Formulating State Programs

Each commonwealth is faced with the direct responsibility of organizing and promoting a functional state-wide system of public education which should extend from kindergarten through college and adult life. In the development of this program, certain principles or procedures ought to be adopted as a tentative guide, as for example those suggested for the state of Ohio:

> First, the staff of the state department of education should take the initiative in planning studies, in collecting and interpreting data, and in developing programs which will meet the needs of the children of the state. Second, the cooperation of all educational agencies in the state should be secured and preserved at all times to further the objectives of education. Third, assistance should be sought and secured from noneducational agencies on related matters. Fourth, the cooperation of leading citizens and civic organizations of the state is essential in developing various programs. They should understand the underlying principles of programs and many of the technical phases. Fifth, the cooperation of professional and lay leaders should be secured in defining objectives, formulating standards, recommending procedures, and so on. Sixth, the better the plans and procedures for securing direct or indirect participation of various individuals and agencies and the more nearly all influential individuals and agencies participate, the more democratically will the policies be developed.[26]

In line with these principles, under the direction of the state department, all the people and agencies of the state participate in developing the plans.

Elements in State-wide Programs

Many basic ingredients make up a state program of education. A few of these are presented here with illustrative material.

Development of Educational Goals. Many leaders have relied too heavily upon educational machinery and have not given sufficient thought to educational policies. These policies or philosophies should underlie all education. Several states have worked out basic goals, as for example, the Goals of Education, developed in Michigan by the Michigan Public Education Study Commission.[27]

[26] E. L. Bowsher, "State School Administration," *Educational Research Bulletin*, September 15, 1937, p. 141.

[27] Research Division, *Research Bulletin*, "Statutory Bases of State Foundation Programs for Schools," pp. 43-100, National Education Association, April, 1948.

Constructing a Foundation Program. The translation of the educational goals into daily practice necessitates a state foundation program. Such a plan, often known as the state's minimum program, consists of a careful formulation of minimal essentials for local communities, and a raising of such requirements from time to time as resources and conditions permit.

The Council of State Governments listed the following six essentials for the sound administration and operation of state school systems:

1. Provision for systematically obtaining and studying the facts as a basis for policy decisions.
2. A state policy-making agency for education through which the will of the people may be voiced and the interests of the state protected.
3. Local administrative units of sufficient size to promote effective local control and to provide appropriate educational opportunities at a reasonable cost.
4. Provisions calculated to assure high-quality professional leadership for both state and local agencies.
5. Conditions conducive to maintaining well-qualified staffs of teachers for all phases of elementry and secondary education.
6. A system of financing that will provide sufficient funds and distribute them in such a way as to assure adequate educational opportunities for all and to encourage both sound administration and a high degree of local initiative.[28]

The evidence in the council's report seems to indicate that several states have fallen short in nearly all these essentials, and that all states are falling short to some extent in at least one. Items 3 and 5 are often Achilles' heels.

Reorganization of Local Administration.[29] The effective working of a foundation program often calls for the reorganization of administrative areas, as indicated in Unit III. Helpful principles and procedures are found in the report of the National Commission on School District Reorganization.[30]

State Financial Support. A problem basic to both the realignment of administrative units and the development of a stable state-wide program of education is that of financial support, considered in detail in Unit XVI. The National Survey of School Finance, in an appraisal of state-aid systems, found that not a single state had attained a desirable status with respect to the financing of public education. Nowhere, however, is the

[28] Council of State Governments, *op. cit.*, p. 7.

[29] For additional information on minimal standards for schools, see Unit III and Appendix III.

[30] National Commission on School District Reorganization, *Your School District*, National Education Association, Department of Rural Education, 1948, 286 pp.

entire burden of school support left to the local school districts; the relative amount of the total cost borne by the state treasury varies from less than 1 to over 90 per cent. Delaware adopted in 1921 the policy of paying for the entire state-approved cost of all public schools. The general plan of paying for the foundation program with funds derived from state-wide sources was followed by North Carolina (1931), West Virginia (1933), and numerous other states.

A marked trend in the financing of education in recent years has been the establishment of a fund for equalizing the educational opportunities and burden within the state. These funds, discussed in Unit XVI, are based on the important principle of collecting the school money where it is and distributing it where the pupils are. The establishing of an equalization fund which is scientifically sound and administratively feasible demands a searching survey of the educational needs, a careful estimate of the costs, and an accurate analysis of the ability of the state to support education and other activities.

State Surveys of Education

Many revised educational programs have originated in a state survey which calls specific attention to the basic need for complete reorganization of the archaic district systems as the initial step toward developing better schools. Helpful check lists and handbooks for a self-survey plan for school systems, such as *Guides to County and Local Studies of Education in Florida*, have been prepared. All phases of state-wide education should be subjected to close analysis in order to determine both the *status in quo* and the distance to be traveled in order to reach minimum standards. The state department of education may well help schoolmen and laymen to conduct resurveys and develop continuous self-surveys. The governors of the various commonwealths, assembled in the Council of State Governments, agreed that "education of the youth of the land is one of the fundamental duties of government, and . . . the provision of adequate and efficient machinery for that purpose is one of the principal costs of government."[31] It therefore launched a series of studies of education—the first ever to be conducted by an agency of all the states in the Union. Utilization of the survey data and recommendations is important. Most reports, prepared by dint of much effort and expense, collect annual layers of dust upon obscure shelves. Occasionally the results are interpreted in public meetings and discussions throughout the state. The acid test of a satisfactory survey is its implementation through an improved program of education for all.

[31] Francis S. Chase, "Education Research by State Governments Confirms the Need for Action," *Nation's Schools*, April, 1949, pp. 23–25.

Cooperative State-wide Long-term Planning

In developing these programs, many agencies other than the state school officials exercise a tremendous power. The educational associations through their committees, the presidents of institutions of higher learning, the county superintendents, the association of school-board members, the parent-teacher association, the women's and businessmen's groups—these and many others help to prepare the way. For example, many agencies interested in public education are represented in the Florida's Citizens Committee on Education.

Unfortunately there is a large amount of duplication and lost motion in an eccentric program. More scientific and concentric methods are needed if state systems are to be rescued from the doldrums of short-lived planning. All states must have a long-term planning commission to plot the course for education and other social services for years to come. Several states, beginning with Kansas in 1933, have established a legislative commission that drafts model laws and recommends changes to the legislatures. Education laws in the various states should have a greater degree of uniformity.

A state program for the continuous development of education, like any worth-while reform, calls for four basic steps: education, agitation, legislation, and dedication. Education of school people and laymen as to the need for progress requires months and years devoted to local, state-wide, and national programs of study and analysis. Agitation for change should not precede educating the public and the legislature but should either follow or accompany it. Legislation is not the final goal, for it does not guarantee successful educational results. Dedication to the perennial problems of school improvement will pave the way for state-wide and national progress in education.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Prepare an interesting biography of Horace Mann, the first secretary of the Massachusetts State Board of Education. Similar reports may be made about Henry Barnard, Thaddeus Stevens, Caleb Mills, John Swett, and John D. Pierce.
2. Review the lives and works of persons who helped develop education in your state.
3. Collect statistics for your state, such as the total number of school districts and elementary and secondary teachers.
4. Consult the latest catalogues of your state-supported institutions of higher learning for information as to their functions and control.
5. Draw an organization diagram of your state, showing the educational boards and the relationships that exist between them.
6. Read the basic school laws of your state.
7. Find out the following in regard to your state superintendent of education: term of office, qualifications, salary, and duties.

8. Debate the issue: "Resolved that the office of state superintendent should be appointive rather than elective."

9. Examine the last annual report of your state superintendent of public instruction.

10. Visit a state department of education and make a diagram of its organization.

11. Secure a member of the state department of education as a special speaker for the class or a group of classes.

12. Make an exhibit of recent educational publications issued by the state office.

13. Discuss the desirability of state adoption of textbooks for all schools.

14. Define what is meant by a foundation or minimum program for a state.

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A carefully prepared publication, with excerpts from and interpretations of court decisions, developing the sound conclusion that the public schools are state institutions.

CURRENT PERTINENT PERIODICALS AND PUBLICATIONS

Annual Reports

Various official publications of state departments of education.

Curriculum Bulletins

Publications issued in connection with state-wide curriculum programs.

Educational Directory, Principal State and County School Officers, Part I

A directory, published annually by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C., listing the principal state officers, their titles, addresses.

Publications of National Council of Chief State School Officers

Periodic statements of policies on state educational problems.

Publications of United States Office of Education

A series of 16 monographs has been prepared on administrative, supervisory, and advisory services of state departments of education.

State Directory

A directory, published annually by the department of education of many states, containing a list of all districts in the state, administrators, school-board officials, publishers' representatives, *et al.*

State Education Association Publications

Many reports and publications, including the official journal, published by state associations of education. An example is the *California Journal of Educational Research.*

State School Laws

Periodical publications by the state departments of education, with annual supplements.

State School Legislation

Summaries, published periodically by the Research Division of the National Education Association, containing state-by-state résumés of legislation adopted.

Surveys

Publications by state departments. Also *Biennial Survey of Education*, with sections on state school systems.

Yearbooks and Official Reports

Documents such as the state "blue" book, printed annually in many states by the state printing department, with much material on educational institutions and the boards that control them.

Audio-visual Aids

Collection of State Educational Publications

The students and instructor can assemble an interesting and useful exhibit of various publications issued by the state department of education and the state educational association.

In Illinois Schools — Filmstrip, 50 frames

This filmstrip, illustrative of those produced by many states, shows scenes of Illinois school programs from kindergarten to junior college. Speech notes have been prepared by the Illinois Education Association, Springfield, Illinois.

Life of Horace Mann — Two-by-two slides

The author of this volume has collected a series of slides on the life of Horace Mann, pioneer in state education in America, who served for 12 years as secretary of the State Board of Education in Massachusetts.

University of California—Seven Campuses — Five reels, 16 mm., silent

This film, which can also be used in connection with Unit VIII, gives an excellent overview of what a state government has done to build a great publicly supported institution of higher learning spread over several campuses. Available from University of California, Berkeley.

Wisconsin Makes Its Laws — Thirty minutes, 16 mm., sound, color

A complete photographic and sound record of how one of the 48 states makes its laws. The film develops the need, passage, and test of Bill 108A—an imaginary bill to educate people to prevent forest fires. Available from University of Wisconsin, Madison.

PREVIEW OF UNIT III

COUNTY AND INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL UNITS

The state educational system embraces county, township, town, and local school districts. Several of these are units interposed between the state and local districts as intermediate agencies in public-school organization and administration.

The county-unit states vary in the degree of county-wide educational administration. Usually authority is vested in a county board of education and a county superintendent of schools who is elected or appointed. The best practice is appointment of a well-qualified man or woman by the board of education. In most counties the superintendent or commissioner is assisted by a staff of educators. One of the main duties of the staff is to improve rural education and thereby community living.

The usual unit of administration in the New England states is the town, which may embrace both rural and urban districts. The township high school and complete township districts are found in several states.

A local district may be a part of or identical with a large unit, such as the county, township, town, or community district.

Thousands of undersized and underprivileged school districts still struggle for existence in rural areas. But consolidation is a twentieth-century password. The second half of this century may see the number of school districts halved. Cooperation, consolidation, and coordination can enhance education for all.

Outline of Contents

Introduction
- State, county, and local units
- Intermediate units
- Classification of states by types of units

County School Units
- County organization
- County superintendent of schools
- Rural education

Township and Town Units
- Township school districts
- Town school districts

Reorganization of School Administrative Areas
- Cooperation between units
- Consolidation of areas
- Coordination of administrative units

UNIT III

COUNTY AND INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL UNITS

A county superintendent in a Midwestern state described thus his varied activities in campaigning for election to office:

I was elected to the office of county superintendent of schools, with the landslide. I drove 14,000 miles in the campaign from June 1 to November 8; called on 3000 farm families and took their names and addresses; called on over 3000 city homes; gave away 17,000 personal cards and wrote cards to 2000 families. This cost me over $1200, and I won by 1650 votes. I gave an official white cane to each person in the county receiving a blind pension. After the election, I had enough people call on me trying to sell life insurance and other things to take all of my salary for the next four years if I had bought from them. For any of my fellow teachers contemplating becoming a county superintendent I submit this information.

This frank statement reveals one of the many angles in the administration of county education systems.

State, County, and Local Units. The state educational organization may include smaller administrative units, such as the county, township, town, and local school districts. Sometimes the local unit is the county, as in Maryland; or the township, as in Indiana; or a combination of types, as in Kentucky where the local districts may be "subdistricts."

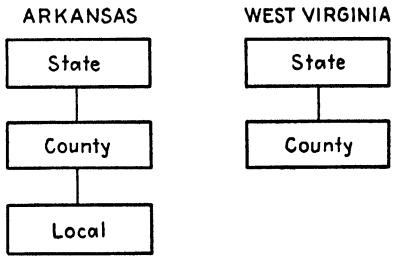


FIG. 3-1. Counties as intermediate and local districts.

Intermediate Units. In West Virginia, as indicated in Fig. 3-1, the county is the local unit. In Arkansas the county is interposed between the local school district and the state. The most common area between the local and county districts is the township. A township likewise may be either an intermediate unit or the local district. Where the county or township is the local unit of school organization and administration, the area and population in the district are larger than in the typically small local school district treated in Unit IV.

On the function of the intermediate units, F. P. Graves, former commissioner of education for the state of New York, said:

Between the level of local control and the highest authority of the state there may be some sort of intermediate unit, with certain vaguely defined powers and duties of its own. . . . This intermediate unit can be made to serve as a medium for inter-

preting the ideals of the higher authority vested in the state to the lower level of the local districts, especially those in the country. . . . A strong intermediate control, sensitive to the atmosphere of the community and conversant with the life of its people, may have great weight in securing voluntary acceptance of beneficial changes by the local unit on one hand, and sympathy and cooperation from the state control on the other.[1]

Julian E. Butterworth, professor of rural education at Cornell University, listed the following essentials of an intermediate unit:

1. A board of education to represent the people of the intermediate district in the determination of policy for the district.
2. A superintendent fully competent to act as leader of the constituent districts and as executive officer of the board.
3. A sufficiently clear definition of functions in the state law so that the intermediate district may confidently exercise progressive leadership without fear of interfering with local boards.
4. Sufficient financial resources available to the intermediate district board to carry out its function.[2]

As a means of coordinating its various local districts, New York State has permissive legislation creating an intermediate district council, composed of all trustees and school-board members of constituent districts. The future may see a marked development of intermediate units as an abridgment of the gap between local autonomy and state centralization. Thus some weaknesses of consolidation will be overcome and many benefits that accrue from a larger unit will be gained.

Classification of States by Types of Units. The types of organizations distinguished on the basis of their size and their identity with civil units are (1) the state, (2) the county, (3) the township or town, and (4) the local school district. The following is a tabulation of the 48 states under the predominating type of administrative organization:

STATE SYSTEM

Delaware (also city of Wilmington and special districts)

COUNTY SYSTEM

Alabama	Louisiana (parish)	Tennessee
Florida	Maryland	Utah
Georgia	New Mexico	Virginia
Kentucky	North Carolina	West Virginia

[1] F. P. Graves, *The Administration of American Education*, pp. 509–510, Macmillan, 1932.

[2] Adapted from Julian E. Butterworth, "Essentials of the Intermediate District," *Nation's Schools*, May, 1948, pp. 24–26.

TOWNSHIP OR TOWN SYSTEM

Connecticut	Massachusetts	Pennsylvania
Indiana	New Hampshire	Rhode Island
Maine	New Jersey	Vermont

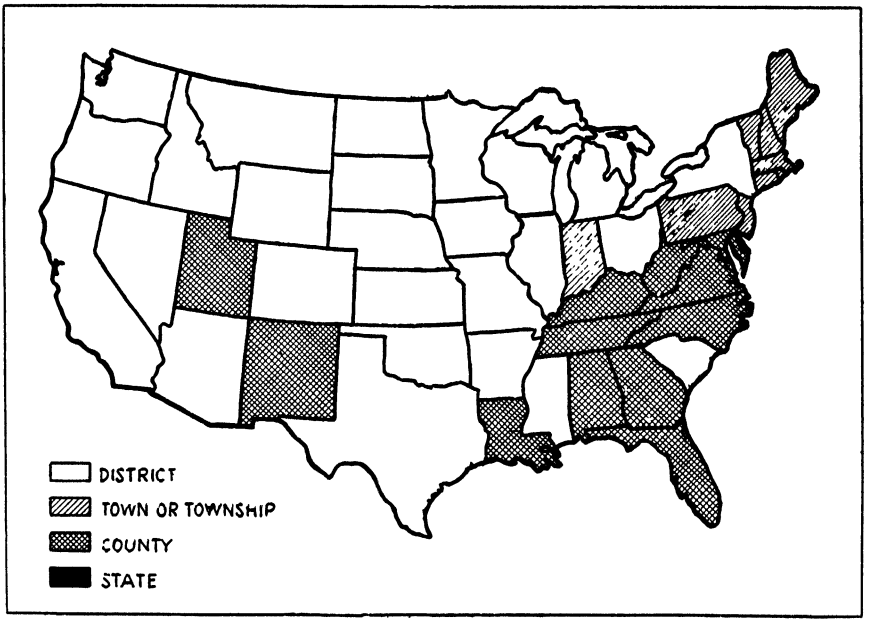


FIG. 3-2. Prevailing type of school district in each state.

DISTRICT SYSTEM

Arizona	Minnesota	Oklahoma
Arkansas	Mississippi	Oregon
California	Missouri	South Carolina
Colorado	Montana	South Dakota
Idaho	Nebraska	Texas
Illinois	Nevada	Washington
Iowa	New York	Wisconsin
Kansas	North Dakota	Wyoming
Michigan	Ohio	

These districts total approximately 90,000 administrative units in the United States.

Figure 3-2 reveals the prevailing type of school district in each state. The location of these districts is described as follows:

The geographical distribution of school districts follows a fairly regular pattern. The county-unit states stretch from Virginia to Florida and into the south central

region as far as Tennessee and Kentucky. New Mexico and Utah also have the county unit. The town-unit system exists in the New England States, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Indiana. From New York west, one finds mainly the district system.[3]

Obviously some states have combinations of types. For example, the county unit of school administration may be established by vote of the qualified electors in any county of Oregon, even though this is considered a district state.

The state educational organization is presented in Unit II, and the local district system in Unit IV. Between these are found the county and smaller school districts including the township and the town, which are all described here.

COUNTY SCHOOL UNITS

County Organization

The United States has more than 3000 counties. These vary in size from New York County, New York, with 22 square miles, to San Bernardino County, California, with 20,175; and in population from Armstrong County, South Dakota, with about 50 people, to Cook County, Illinois, with about 5,000,000.

The county is the unit for all or some school administrative functions in most states. The degree to which counties are organized for school administrative purposes correlates rather closely with the percentage of the total school revenue derived from county sources. A comparison of legislation in regard to county control of schools places the states in three groups: (1) those which in no way utilize the county as a unit of local school control; (2) those which make the town, township, or district the principal unit of control but delegate some powers to the county organization; (3) those which make the county the principal unit of control.[4]

The New England states use the town unit; they do not have a county board of education or county superintendent of schools. Delaware, with its three counties, is in reality a state unit, controlling its districts from the office of the state superintendent of instruction. Nevada, owing to its sparsity of population, employs deputy state superintendents who perform the work usually assigned to county superintendents in other states.

[3] Adapted from William Anderson, *The Units of Government in the United States*, p. 34, Public Administration Service, 1934.

[4] F. W. Hart and L. H. Peterson, "The County Unit of School Administration in Theory and Practice," *California Quarterly of Secondary Administration*, January, 1934, pp. 151–154.

In Illinois all areas not organized for high-school purposes come under the jurisdiction of non-high-school boards of education. This county board of education raises taxes to help defray the tuition of pupils in that district who desire to go to high school. This board employs no teachers and controls no school; its sole function is to provide tuition money for its pupils who attend high school in a neighboring district. The county superintendent of schools is the technical adviser to these boards. In Pennsylvania under the merger law, communities supervised by county superintendents continue to administer their local schools under the direction of the county board of directors. This body, elected by the school directors of the county in convention, is chosen from the membership of local boards and functions under the guidance of the county superintendent of schools.

The third group of states, 12 in all, is known as those with strong county units. Included in the list is Louisiana, the only state in which the schools are organized on the basis of parishes, somewhat similar to counties. In the parishes, as in the strong county units, much power is lodged with the central boards of education.

County Boards. In most states, including those with so-called "weak" county units, usually some type of county board is in control of education. Michigan is an example of one of the states where the civil administrative board for the county, *viz.*, the board of supervisors, looks after the schools as well as the roads, the county jail, and other agencies. Thus education is only one function of the supervisors rather than their unique responsibility, as is the case with a strong county board of education. The latter is elected or appointed for the sole purpose of administering the schools, just like a single-purpose board of education in a city.[5] Boards in strong county units have enlarged powers and duties akin to those described later for a district board of education.

County Superintendent of Schools

Evolution of County Superintendency. The development of the chief county school office has been described thus by Cubberley:

> As education began to evolve into a state interest in our country, the need for developing some subordinate form of state control became evident. . . . Hence a county school officer, known as a county superintendent of education, a county school superintendent, or a county superintendent of public instruction, was gradually provided for, sometimes by amendment of or during a revision of the constitution of the state, and sometimes by statute laws. Sometimes, too, the

[5] In this connection, see, in Unit XVII, the discussion of the issue: "Is the county the most satisfactory unit for school organization and administration?"

office was gradually evolved out of some other county office, such as auditor, or treasurer, or probate judge. In Iowa and in some of the Southern states the office evolved out of the presidency or executive officer of the county board of education, an organization which in some states preceded the county superintendency. In New York and Michigan too, the township superintendency preceded the county superintendency. The office of county superintendent of schools began about 1835, and by about 1870 was common in most of the older states. In the newer states to the west the office was frequently created in the territorial period.[6]

At first, since his tasks were clerical and statistical and required little or no professional training, the county superintendent was chosen like any other county official. Although his duties have now elevated him to the highest educational rank in the county, this important office is still a "political job" in most states.

Election or Appointment. In the majority of the states that maintain a county educational office, the county superintendent is still elected by the people at popular elections. Usually he is chosen for a 2-year term and is subject to reelection, but in one or two states he is ineligible after 4 years in office. The position of county superintendent is one of importance, but as long as he is elected rather than appointed, and is rewarded with a small salary, the office cannot attract the best talent in the profession.

Qualifications of County Superintendent. Most states require teaching experience and a supervisory or teaching certificate. Some add that he must be engaged in educational work and be of good character. Where the county superintendent competes for election, the *sine qua non* seems to be a master's degree in political strategy, as evidenced by the letter at the beginning of this unit. Despite the handicap of an election campaign, usually on a party ticket, many an elected county superintendent meets the necessary professional qualifications surprisingly well. His minimum professional education should be a master's degree or its equivalent; his experiential background should include teaching, especially on the elementary level; and his personal qualifications should be those innate in the successful school administrator.[7]

His Powers and Duties. The important role of the county superintendent in all the schools of the county, particularly the rural ones, is sometimes underestimated by beginning teachers and by the general public. His office is usually the channel through which flows much of the school money—the economic lifeblood of the educational system. He is often the certificating agent of the state; without his sanction no one is

[6] E. P. Cubberley, *Public School Administration*, pp. 45–46, Houghton, 1929.

[7] In Unit XII the qualifications of county superintendents are considered further.

legally qualified to teach. As a legal representative of the state he interprets the school laws. He is the technical adviser to the local boards of education. He is frequently the umpire in contests between the rural schoolteacher and the board of education. He is the keyman in the movement toward larger educational units, for with his advice and consent many small districts may be absorbed into or consolidated with larger school administrative areas. He is the "kingpin" in the supervisory and school accrediting program in many states. He is the direct representative of the state department of education in his county. The duties of the county

FIG. 3-3. County "bookmobile." This library on wheels makes periodic visits to the rural school children of Spartanburg County, South Carolina.

superintendent vary widely from state to state. In a strong county unit state where there is a county board of education, as in West Virginia, the county superintendent is the chief executive officer of the board.

County Educational Staff. The county superintendents in large areas are aided by several professional and clerical assistants, but in many small counties there is only one educational worker, *viz.*, the superintendent. One-half of the county superintendents in the United States do not have clerical help. The result is a high-salaried man may be spending most of his time doing clerical work. Obviously this is false economy, from which the child in school suffers. In counties of medium size the usual staff consists of a deputy superintendent, attendance officer, field

supervisor, clerk, and a stenographer. Most counties need a curriculum director to assist in enriching the traditional course of study. Also urgently needed are county librarians.

Rural Education

The most important duty of the county superintendent and his staff is to help rural people educationally, socially, and economically, for on their development, happiness, and prosperity the welfare of the nation depends in a large measure. Such factors as the relative number of children, the migration of population, income of farmers, farm taxes, farm homes and conveniences, decentralization of industry, and the occupational changes and expectations of rural people are of vital import to making satisfactory educational facilities available to them. The importance of rural education is obvious. Schools really count in country life.[8]

A Charter of Education for Rural Children. Approximately one half of the children in the United States live in rural areas. It is imperative, therefore, that their needs, interests, and abilities be met quantitatively and qualitatively. The first White House Conference on Rural Education adopted a Charter of Education for Rural Children, which is reproduced in Appendix X. This charter lists the "rights of the rural child because they are the rights of every child regardless of race, or color, or situation, wherever he may live under the United States flag." To achieve these goals is a perennial challenge to all educators and laymen concerned with the education of *all* American children.

A Program of Education for Rural Children. A Charter of Education for Rural Children must be implemented by an appropriate program of dynamic education. Despite the recent trend toward larger units of administration, there will always be thousands of small schools. As stated by Howard A. Dawson, secretary of the Department of Rural Education, at the White House Conference on Rural Education, "Rural schools are a fundamental and indispensable means of building and maintaining in America the most glorious rural life anywhere in the world." Unfortunately many country schools have serious limitations:

> The rural schools, as designated, are never large enough to provide the special facilities essential to a well-balanced educational program. As a result, the smaller schools of a county must go without the special services provided in the city systems or else such services must be provided on a collective basis by some central agency.[9]

Such services cost money. The laws of California provide for a "county service fund" for each pupil in average daily attendance from kindergarten

[8] Effie G. Bathurst, *Schools Count in Country Life*, Superintendent of Documents, 1947, 61 pp.

[9] James H. Williams, "County Superintendency Grows Up," *Nation's Schools*, December, 1948, p. 47.

through junior college. This money enables the county superintendent of schools to supplement and enrich rural educational programs. Most rural pupils, in the words of the charter, need such special aids as "health services, educational and vocational guidance, library facilities, recreational activities, school lunches, and pupil transportation services." This program raises the pertinent question of the role of the township school districts, which are smaller than the county ones.

TOWNSHIP AND TOWN UNITS

Township School Districts

Organization. Civil townships, which number about twenty thousand in the United States, are smaller than the county and usually larger than the towns. Advantages which the county has over the old district system in the matter of economical school administration apply also but in a lesser degree to the township area. The township school unit, as found in Indiana, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and parts of some other states, contains more taxable wealth and more school children than the small districts.

In most states the original survey of the area within a county divided the land into townships, usually 6 miles square. The "Old Deluder" Act of 1647 ordered every township with 50 householders to appoint a teacher. Later:

> Indiana, one of the first states to adopt this system, provided in its constitution of 1851 that each organized township shall constitute a school district. At an even earlier date the township was the school district in Pennsylvania for all except city and large village schools. The West Virginia magisterial school district system, similar in certain respects to the township system, was adopted with the admission of the state in 1863. By legislative provision the town or township system had gradually supplanted small school districts in the New England States and New Jersey by 1890. Legislation enacted in Michigan in 1891 authorized the voters of any organized township of the Upper Peninsula to organize a school district composed of all the territory of their township; in 1909 the authority was extended to include the entire state.[10]

A so-called township high-school district may overlap several smaller elementary-school administrative units. Since pupils of secondary-school age can travel distances better than younger children and since a smaller number of youth goes to high school than to the lower grades, the former lends itself more readily to larger unit organization than does the elementary school. Under the township system many cities, incorporated villages, and some consolidated schools are set apart as independent school

[10] W. S. Deffenbaugh and T. Covert, *School Administration Units*, p. 7, Superintendent of Documents, 1933.

districts. When the electors of an entire township vote to centralize all their administrative functions into one unit with one board of education, as may be done in Michigan, for example, a complete township district may be created. Illinois has many township high schools.

Administration. The township district, either of the complete or partial type, is usually governed by a township board of education consisting of three or more members, each of whom is elected by the voters of the entire township. The powers of the township boards vary somewhat among the

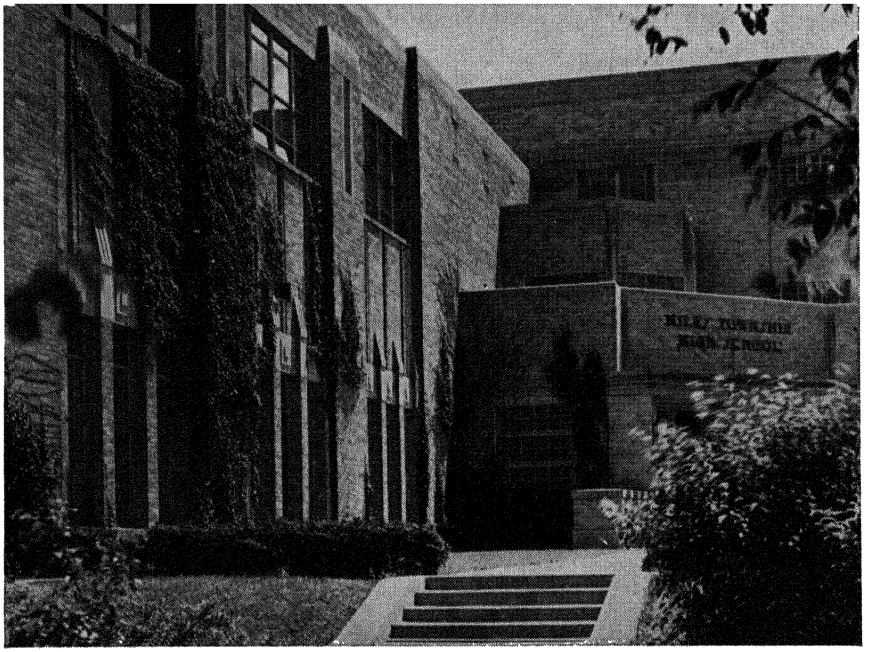


FIG. 3-4. Township high school in Illinois. This township high school is located at Skokie, Cook County—the most heavily populated county in the United States.

states. Usually these groups have the powers and duties listed for boards of education in Unit IV, whereas the township school principal or superintendent fulfills those duties belonging to the local superintendent of schools. Both the township and town school administrators assume on a small scale some duties of a typical county superintendent.

Illustrative Township Organization—Indiana. In the state of Indiana each township is usually a school township. With the exception of consolidated areas and of the Indianapolis system, the schools are under either a single trustee or a multiple-member board of school trustees.

The qualified voters in each township elect a township trustee who holds office for 4 years. This trustee has to see to a proper allocation of all moneys belonging to

the township for road, school, and other purposes. He has charge of the management of all property belonging to the township, including the schoolhouses. He employs teachers and performs the functions of most boards of education.

As to the power of this one-man board of education, a court decision in Indiana states: "The township trustee is clothed with almost autocratic power in all school matters." He is really the school corporation. In the cities and incorporated villages of Indiana more than one person is in control of the schools, since each has a board of trustees. In every county the chairman of the school trustees for each town and city, the trustees of the townships, and the county superintendent constitute a county board of education which meets semiannually to consider "the general wants and needs of the schools." Reorganization laws permit consolidation of schools on a county basis, in adjoining counties, or in adjoining townships.

Town School Districts

Organization. The town is a New England institution, although similar subdivisions are found in New Jersey. The New England town often has natural geographic boundaries and commonly embraces a compact community center. It includes all the area within the civil unit and may cover a small city, suburban communities, villages, and rural areas. These are often designated as supervisory unions or districts.

Administration. The unit of school administration, as well as of school revenue, in New England is subject to one board of education and one administrator:

> The educational affairs of each town are managed as a unit by one town school committee, elected by the people of the whole town, and all of the schools of the town—city, village, and rural—are under its control. . . . A superintendent in Massachusetts thus presides over a small and compact school system, either a city school system or a small county system in type.[11]

For example, in Massachusetts the five towns of Bolton, Carlisle, Harvard, Littleton, and Stow are combined under the direction of a town school committee and a union superintendent of schools. In a town district the latter may also be entitled town and field supervisor, district superintendent, or supervising principal. The town system has produced some degree of centralization and has reduced the number of small districts which formerly prevailed. Frequently, however, the town district represents neither a natural community nor a sufficient area for either economical administration or enriched curriculums.

REORGANIZATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATIVE AREAS

Public education is the direct responsibility of almost 90,000 school districts in the United States. This unnecessarily large number of ad-

[11] E. P. Cubberley, *op. cit.*, pp. 56–57.

ministrative units may be reduced through elimination and consolidation. The eliminating of schools with few pupils and the combining of small districts, however, should be a part of a state-wide program for reform. It must constantly be borne in mind that this reorganization involves not merely land but also people, particularly children. A child-centered administrative unit in a school-centered community places the welfare of the pupil and society above administration. In consolidation, education is not to be subordinated to economy. The reconstruction of small units is necessary for a richer program of education and for the equalization of educational opportunity and financial burden.

In Appendix III are listed criteria for the establishment of larger administrative units, as prepared by the National Commission on School District Reorganization. In its report the Commission states:

> School district reorganization is imperative. It is imperative for the simple reason that a large majority of the school districts now operating in this country cannot give people the kinds of educational programs they need to deal with the complex problems of present-day life, or adequately prepare youth to cope with the problems of the future.[12]

Of course, reorganization or consolidation may create new problems for old and new districts. If the close relation of the schools to the natural community and to the people is sacrificed in the name of efficiency, then something that money cannot buy will be destroyed.

Structural remodeling will not perform miracles; too many educators and laymen cherish false hopes as to what it will accomplish. Furthermore the larger school unit alone cannot solve the problem of reorganizing districts. In large cities like New York and Chicago better education might result from smaller administrative areas. Although the immediate danger is remote, the creation of larger school units may be carried so far that centralization produces more evils than decentralization.

Some specific ways of effecting changes in school administrative units are (1) voluntary cooperation between school districts, (2) legal consolidation of areas closely juxtaposed, and (3) state-wide coordination of school districts through a higher agency, *viz.*, the state department of education in each of the 48 states. The latter step should be a part of a broader movement for reorganizing all governmental units within a state. State planning commissions may well join hands in a national organization in which ideas and experiences are pooled.

Cooperation between Units

People are likely to postpone working for larger school units until legal consolidation can be effected, but active, voluntary cooperation between

[12] National Commission on School District Reorganization, *Your School District*, p. 15, Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1948.

districts will produce immediate benefits. Even where actual consolidation may be remote or impossible, boards of education can join in common tasks without changing district boundary lines.

Examples of Cooperative Projects. Sometimes two or more districts together employ a music teacher or a school superintendent. Another example of cooperation is the union of separate districts in collective school transportation. Another instance is the joint buying of books and supplies on a county-wide basis. This may be extended to a state-wide basis. As early as 1924, Virginia established a state purchasing office, although even today most of its counties do not have an adequate system of centralized purchasing in order to benefit by this act. In New York State a board of cooperative school services may be established by the board members of a supervisory district, with the approval of the Commissioner of Education. This board can carry out a program of shared educational services in the schools and provide instruction in approved special subjects. Furthermore, the boards of cooperative school services in any number of contiguous supervisory districts may cooperate in providing educational services. Although actual mergers have been few, adjacent counties are working jointly in many fields. Numberless educational improvements are being consummated daily throughout the United States by dint of voluntary cooperation.[13]

Consolidation of Areas

The combining of two districts in Massachusetts in 1838 was the beginning of legal consolidation of school areas. Although more than one hundred years have elapsed since that consolidation, progress in this direction is very slow—almost 90,000 separate and independent school districts still exist. Nevertheless, despite the unpleasant connotation of the words "consolidation" and "reorganization" and despite some rural resistance to larger administrative units, the "little red schoolhouse" is disappearing. Hundreds of one-room schools are advertised for sale in local newspapers; many have become family homes.

Constructive consolidation is necessary and inevitable. Reorganization laws in general have the benediction of courts. Witness the decision of a California Court of Appeals:

> It cannot be denied that a school district is for a public purpose, and therefore may be created, altered, or abolished at the will of the legislature acting either directly or indirectly through a local board of supervisors to which the exercise of such powers has been designated.[14]

[13] A specific example is found in the St. Clair River schools in Michigan, where four towns are cooperating in an area vocational and adult education program. See O. A. Maki, "Four Towns Work as One," *Nation's Schools*, May, 1949, pp. 50–51.

[14] *Hammond Lumber Company v. Board of Supervisors of Humboldt County* (Cal. App.), 193 P. 2d 503 (1948).

The letter of the law is reinforced by the spirit of improved service. Substantial savings, greater efficiency, and better opportunities for children and adults will result and have resulted from the adoption of larger units.

A consolidated school may come from combining attendance units within a single school district. That is, the Jefferson and Washington grade schools in a certain city may be united by the local school board. A consolidated district may result from the union of two or more administrative districts. Two types of consolidated districts are here considered briefly, *viz.*, (1) community schools and (2) regional schools.

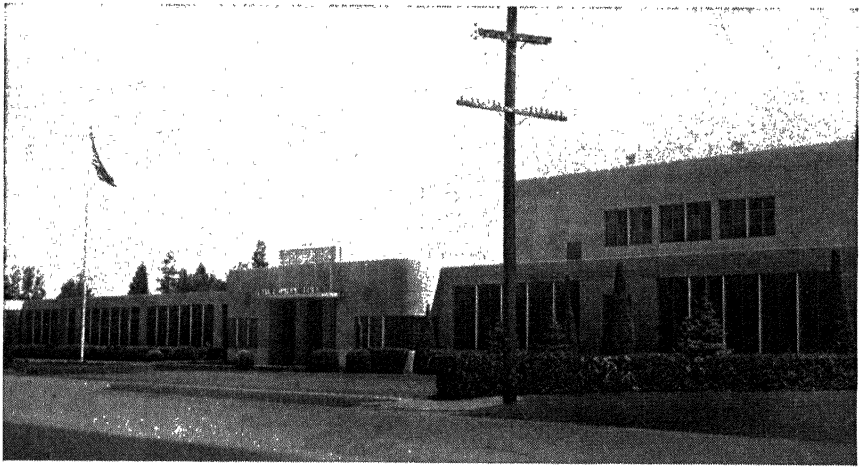


FIG. 3-5. Oakdale Union School in California. Located near Oakdale is this union school, which is an amalgamation of seven former school districts. The pupils are transported by a fleet of busses.

Community Schools.[15] These schools may be effected through voluntary cooperation or through legal consolidation. The community school concept is well described in the following paragraph:

"Community school" may be considered as a descriptive term applying to that type of institutional organization which recognizes the partnership in American public education and the continuity of the educational process on the adult as well as the child level and which is well integrated with the community it serves. It may exist in large as well as small, urban centers, although the most rapid development is taking place in the smaller, more flexible and intimate communities and in those places in which sound structural reorganization is changing the obsolete district system into a grouping of natural educational, economic, and social interests based upon related urban and rural land usage.[16]

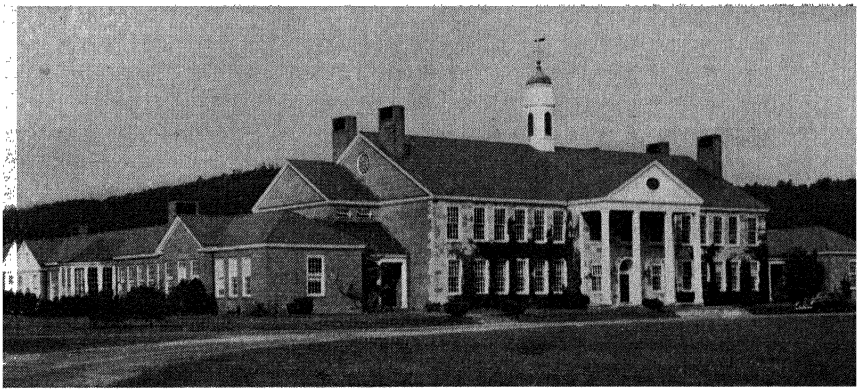
As indicated, sound structural reorganization of school districts promotes the development of community schools in which educational, social, and

[15] See Units IV and XV for further information on community schools.

[16] Editorial, "The Community School," *Nation's Schools*, January, 1940, p. 15.

economic considerations predominate; arbitrary or academic concepts of size, numbers, and financial ability are contributing but distinctly recessive and secondary factors.

Several years ago the rural school survey of New York State brought out the fact that the county is not a community in a real sense, since its boundaries bear no direct relation to church and grange centers, lines of travel, transportation, or to commercial centers. Therefore the county in many cases is too large an administrative unit for an institution so intimate to the life of the community as is the school. Practical experience in that state has shown the need for a unit smaller than the county, as proved by the creation of supervisory districts. According to F. P. Graves, former Commissioner of Education for the state of New York, the setting up of community school units avoids the stranding of small local



(Courtesy of Alonzo G. Grace, former State Commissioner of Education.)

FIG. 3-6. Housatonic Valley Regional School, Canaan, Connecticut. Students from six Connecticut towns attend this regional high school.

districts, takes full advantage of neighborhood interest and initiative, and facilitates the eventual establishment of the county as the local unit, since community units can be merged as attendance areas within a county system if such becomes desirable.[17]

Regional Schools. New York State through its Board of Regents has made progress in the establishment of regional schools—large-area schools for post-high-school education of youth. The first regional high school in New England was opened at Falls Village in the town of Canaan, Connecticut. Called the Housatonic Valley Regional High School, it serves several towns. In many educational ventures the county can be a component part of a regional entity.

County government has been called our greatest national extravagance.

[17] F. P. Graves, *op. cit.*, p. 499.

But many county units of civil and school administration are under pressure for reorganization as a result of several factors, such as the redistribution of population and wealth, the new and larger social groupings, and the increased mobility of goods and persons. It has been said that county seats were organized originally to meet pioneer conditions so that a person traveling by horse and buggy could reach the county seat in one day from any part of the county. When measured in miles, the distance is unchanged today, but, when measured in minutes, it has lessened markedly. Modern means of transportation make communication between counties comparatively simple.

Transportation of Pupils. In a consideration of consolidation and the state minimum program of education for all children, one cannot ignore the important factor of the availability of education:

> The transportation of pupils to and from schools is a necessary service if educational opportunities are to be made available to all pupils in the state. No matter how far a state may go in financing educational enterprises in the local communities, there will be instances where the program will be unprofitable unless transportation is included. A fundamental criterion to be employed in evaluating any minimum state program of education is its availability to the pupils concerned.[18]

At present many rural youth are denied high-school education because they cannot reach the school.

The transporting of children is not a new educational undertaking. Beginning in a Massachusetts district in 1840, it continued without legal authorization until 1869 when Massachusetts passed the nation's first transportation law. This provided that any town in that commonwealth might raise, by taxes or otherwise, and appropriate money to be expended by the school committee at their discretion for the conveyance of pupils to and from public schools.[19] By 1920 pupils were being carried to and from school in all the states, with or without specific legal sanction. Today the provision of transportation facilities for school children is generally mandatory under certain conditions. Several millions of pupils are transported daily at public expense. Although school busses are the usual means of conveyance, the "old gray mare" and the railroads still serve in some communities, especially during the winter months. The problem of transportation is not of equal importance in all the states, and within states wide variations exist in the proportion of pupils carried by bus. Great differences also exist in safety measures. The National Conference on School Transportation has prepared a code of standards for the selection and training of school-bus drivers.

[18] P. R. Mort, *State Support for Public Education*, p. 73, American Council on Education, 1933.

[19] B. K. Farnsworth, "Basic Principles Must Be Established for Pupil Transportation," *Nation's Schools*, August, 1933, pp. 39–42.

The transportation of pupils is more than a local problem. Many state treasuries provide financial assistance in defraying the cost of pupil travel as a means toward equalizing educational opportunity and burden. Several state departments lend technical assistance in the mapping of school-bus routes. Because of the close relationship between the transportation of pupils and the consolidation of districts, each state should make continuous analyses of both matters.

(Courtesy of School Management.)

FIG. 3-7. Pupils entering school bus. These Minnesota children are part of the throng, millions strong, that travels daily to and from school.

COORDINATION OF ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS

Coordination is a general term that covers the integrating activities of legal or extralegal groups, such as a state department or accrediting association, in bringing together small components. These efforts require not only voluntary cooperation and legal consolidation of schools but also a higher authority to appraise existing practices, recommend minimal standards, and integrate the disparate units. Despite practical obstacles, the work of coordinating the various school administrative units within and between states must progress. Upon this task the well-wishers of education everywhere, and especially the state and national authorities, must focus their attention. The maintenance of the individuality of a local school district is important, but even more vital is uniformity in the mini-

mal essentials of sound school organization and administration. This topic is also considered in Unit II.

A program for the reorganization of school units should contain immediate and long-term plans involving three basic elements: (1) the educational plan, which contains a general statement of the philosophy involved and also definite educational specifications for the reorganized units; (2) the spending plan, which involves translating the educational criteria into proposed expenditures; and (3) the financing plan, which proposes means for meeting the cost of the educational program. The last two aspects are treated in Unit XVI. The emphasis here is on the educational program.

Educational Emphasis in Reorganization. The educational plan should form the basis for the whole program of realignment.

> It is necessary to define the educational program which is to be administered This may be done by defining the cost of the desired program, or by formulating the purposes and specifying the facilities and services needed to realize them. The first method has proved itself in state programs of school finance, where an objective measure of educational need is essential to the distribution of state funds. A measure of educational need such as the weighted classroom unit developed by Mort is used. The desired educational program is then determined by the amount which shall be spent per weighted classroom unit to support a minimum state program.[20]

A monetary definition has the advantage of objectiveness, but it fails to define the component elements of the educational program sufficiently for the purposes of constructing an administrative unit. In other words, the content as well as the cost of the educational program must be accurately ascertained:

> How then can this "content" be defined? It should include (1) the basic functions of the educational program, together with (2) the staff facilities and (3) the services necessary to their performance. The first points to the direction and the scope of the program, the second to quality of staff, buildings, and curriculum organization needed, and the last to special services desired such as health, libraries, and supervision.[21]

The educational characteristics of effective districts are further described in the report of the National Commission on School District Reorganization.[22]

The locality in which the child receives his education cannot be ignored in the reforms in school organization and administration.

[20] F. W. Cyr, "Reorganization of the Educational Administrative Structure of Rural Areas as a Field of Research," *Advanced School Digest*, March, 1938, p. 2.
[21] *Ibid.*
[22] National Commission on School District Reorganization, *op. cit.*, Chap. V.

Solutions of the complex problems involved in reorganizing the administrative structure of public education in rural areas must be worked out in terms of the situation found in each region, state, and local community. Basic changes in the present district structure have important implications not only for the school itself but for the whole social structure of which it is an integral part. One single administrative pattern cannot be applied uniformly and mechanically even within a state with an expectation of securing an equally desirable educational program, or equally effective democratic controls in each locality.[23]

Of course the community should not be a law unto itself, but general standards and criteria for a desirable school unit should permit some flexibility in local application.

Some of the firmest strongholds of democracy are found in the smaller school systems described next in Unit IV. Many of these will continue their identity as separate administrative or attendance units or as subdistricts.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Visit the office of a county superintendent of schools in order to learn the nature of his work. A member of the class may be delegated to do this, or the entire class may make the visit if the county office is near by.
2. Ask the county superintendent of schools to address the class on his duties.
3. Examine school laws to learn the exact qualifications and duties of a county or township superintendent of schools.
4. Conduct a debate on the question: "Resolved that the county superintendent of schools should be appointed rather than elected."
5. Examine in the school laws of your state the legal relationships between the local and county school officials and between the latter and the state school officials.
6. Examine the organization of a county that has a strong county board of education.
7. If the county has a course of study, evaluate it.
8. Discuss the role of county institutes as conducted in most states.
9. Procure or prepare a school map of a county. Study its geography and locate the school districts.
10. Visit a rural school, and interview the teacher in order to learn some of the advantages and disadvantages of small schools.
11. Prepare a debate on the topic: "Resolved that all elementary school districts with an enrollment of less than 10 pupils should be abolished or consolidated."
12. Prepare an exhibit of educational materials, bulletins, etc., issued by the county superintendent's office.

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CURRENT PERTINENT PERIODICALS AND PUBLICATIONS

Annual Reports (1)[24]

Town, township, and county boards of education.

Bulletins

Issued periodically by superintendents of county and intermediate school units, and by organizations, such as American Country Life Association.

County Herald (4)

Issued in Jefferson County, Alabama, and illustrative of educational periodicals published by county teachers' associations.

Educational Directory, Principal State and County School Officers, Part I

Published annually by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C., listing the county superintendents of schools.

Novels and plays about land problems and rural life, such as *Giants in the Earth, Marginal Land, Tobacco Road, I Was a Share-cropper, The Grapes of Wrath*, and *Winter Wheat*.

[24] The figures following the titles of the publications indicate the number of issues annually.

Proceedings (1)

Annual reports of meetings such as the National Conference of County and Rural Area Superintendents.

Rural Sociology (4)

Official organ of Rural Sociological Society, devoted to scientific study of country life.

School Surveys

Published periodically by many educational subdivisions of the states. Also *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States*, published every two years by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C., for the United States Office of Education.

Yearbooks (1)

The Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association, and other organizations.

Audio-visual Aids

Better Schools for Rural Wisconsin — Thirty minutes, 16 mm., sound, color

This film dealing with school district reorganization was produced by the University of Wisconsin with the assistance of the *Milwaukee Journal*. Progress through carefully planned reorganization of one-room districts is shown by contrasting the typical rural school in Wisconsin with a rural central district in New York. Available from Bureau of Visual Instruction, Madison, Wisconsin.

Centralized School — Filmstrip, 54 frames

This filmstrip presents the educational activities and program of a modern consolidated school. It accents the important role of the school in the community. Available from American Council on Education, Washington, D.C.

One-teacher School — Filmstrip, 57 frames

This filmstrip depicts the well-conducted one-teacher school as the hub of inspiration and activity for a rural community. Available from American Council on Education, Washington, D.C.

Priceless Cargo — Eighteen minutes, 16 or 35 mm., sound

This film dramatizes past perils and present progress in providing safe transportation for school children. Available free from the Superior Coach Corporation, Lima, Ohio.

Schoolhouse in the Red — Four reels, 16 mm., sound, color

This documentary film, produced by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, deals with the problem of reorganization of school districts, including the psychological and sociological struggles in a small community. Available for loan from state departments of education or for purchase from Agrafilms, Athens, Georgia.

Successful Teaching in a Rural School — Twenty minutes, 16 mm., black and white or color

This film gives illustrations of some principles, techniques, and practices used in a modern rural school to improve the quality of living in a country community. It also depicts parents participating in curriculum planning. Available from National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

PREVIEW OF UNIT IV

LOCAL SCHOOL DISTRICTS

The organization and administration of education had their origin in the district system in early American life. The autonomous school district is essentially an American innovation.

There are numerous types of local school organization, such as attendance and administrative units. School districts vary in size from one-pupil districts to New York City with more than a million pupils.

The administration of the school district is usually vested in an elected board of education and its administrators. The relation of the board of education to the other agencies in the community should be vital and dynamic.

The chief executive of the local board of education is the superintendent of schools, who is the educational expert. His strategic position demands a high degree of statesmanship.

Democratic school administration calls for the development of policies by all professional and lay workers, and for the execution of these policies in an atmosphere of democratic living.

Outline of Contents

Introduction
- Local school districts
- Legal status of districts

Types of Local Schools
- Attendance and administrative units
- Local districts of various sizes
- Other types of districts and schools

Local Board of Education
- Evolution of school boards
- Electorate and school boards
- Size, tenure, and selection of boards of education
- Qualifications of board members
- Functions and powers of boards of education
- Board organization and procedure
- Relationships of boards of education

Local Superintendent of Schools
- Types of internal control
- Evolution of school superintendency
- Legal status of city superintendent
- Qualifications of superintendent
- Duties of superintendent of schools
- Superintendent's relationships with others
- Four-dimensional growth for superintendents
- Democratic administration of education

UNIT IV

LOCAL SCHOOL DISTRICTS

In the seventeenth century a royal governor of Virginia, Sir William Berkeley, scolded colonial citizens with these startling words: "I thank God there are no free schools nor printing [in Virginia], and I hope we shall not have them these hundred years." Within a few years of his death there were printing presses in Virginia, and not long after many localities had free school systems. The local school unit marked the genesis of American public education.

Local School Districts. Parallel with the growth of the principle of education as a state function, there developed in the United States a pattern of distinctly local operation or home rule.

> The greatest value of home rule is in its infinite variation. Schools can mirror the needs of the communities they serve. Great bodies move slowly. Schools operated as a single state system would have great difficulty in changing. Individual school districts, however, are more adaptable. Changes and improvements can be made when necessary.[1]

So home rule has become the predominant pattern in American education.

The United States has more than 140,000 independent units of government, each with the power to spend money and to perform services for the citizenry. These units range in size from the federal government with millions of employees down to the smallest type of school district with one teacher and one pupil. Of these legal units about 90,000 are school districts of various types. The map in Unit III reveals the organizational pattern for all states in the Union.

In the broad sense the local school district is the smallest administrative unit in all these states. The so-called district system is the educational organization that embraces a very small geographical area, as in the district states.

The local school district is usually administered by a board of education, averaging five members, and a superintendent of schools, with his staff. In small districts with but one teacher, the administration of the local school affairs may be handled by four persons, *viz.*, the teacher and three members of the school board. The number of school board members totals nearly 300,000, with an average of about one board member for every four teachers. In some states the board members almost outnumber the teachers.

[1] William S. Vincent, "State Responsibility for Schools," *School Executive*, November, 1948, pp. 11–12.

The autonomous school district, organized as a separate unit, is essentially an American innovation. Although England once had and Canada still has some similar administration, it is chiefly in the United States that the district system, with its local board of education, provides the legal form of school control.

Legal Status of Districts. The Tenth Amendment to the Constitution definitely implies that education is a function of the state and not of the federal government. Usually the states delegate the major responsibilities to the local educational subdivision, which in area may be as small as a rural school district of 5 square miles in Illinois or as large as a county unit of 2000 square miles in Utah. Legally, then, subject to the laws passed by the state legislature, the control of the school system resides in the board of education elected by the people in the district (see Fig. 4-1). The board is both a local and a state instrument.

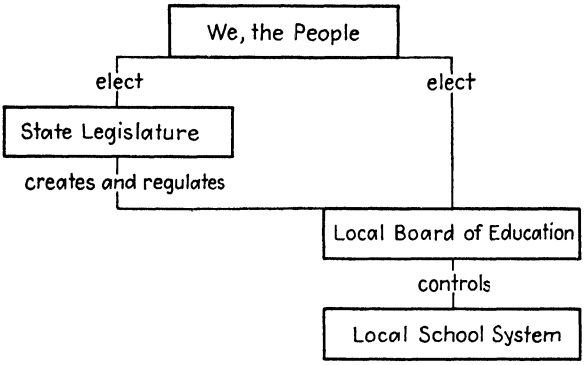


FIG. 4-1. Legal status of local school district.

According to school laws, the board of education is the legal authority representing the state. It is an artificial body created by a general or specific law to maintain a system of public education in a certain territory. A state attorney general says: "A school board is a body politic and corporate. It is purely a creature of the statute. Its power may be enlarged, diminished, modified, or revoked by the legislature." Although there are limitations, the board has broad legal powers, such as the right to buy and sell property, erect buildings, and enter into contracts. It is a quasi corporation, subject to numerous laws.

In this overview of American public education, it is pertinent to emphasize the extreme importance of school law. Many students and teachers do not realize that their daily acts within the school are markedly affected by school laws, many of which have been extant for a long time. Even teachers in service, administrators, and board members reveal an

appalling dearth of knowledge as to the school laws of their own state, copies of which may be obtained from the state superintendent of public instruction or the state capital. The National Education Association makes periodical studies of legislation passed throughout the United States. The basic elements of school law are found in *School Laws of the 48 States*,[2] which has annual supplements. *The Annual Yearbook of School Law*[3] contains a topical summary of decisions of the higher courts in the United States in cases involving school law. Through their decisions in numerous school cases, the higher courts of the various states and the Supreme Court of the United States have established many common-law principles that are exceedingly important. In the exercise of its duty the court cannot do otherwise than go back to first principles: the consideration of the purpose for which the schools were established as indicated in the law or in antecedent custom.

TYPES OF LOCAL SCHOOLS

Attendance and Administrative Units

The legislature creates or makes possible the establishment of school districts of various types. It is desirable to distinguish between units for attendance and those for the administration of education. An attendance unit, usually established by the local board, is defined as the area served by a single school, such as a Horace Mann school in a city system. An administrative unit, usually the legal district, embraces all the area under a single system of control and may include one, two, or over a hundred attendance areas.

Local Districts of Various Sizes

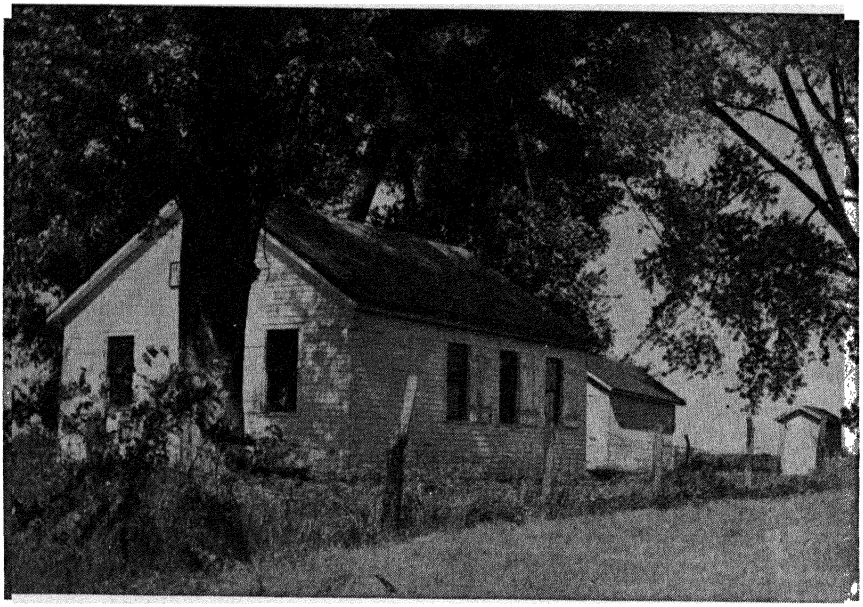
Local administrative units are of many sizes. The National Education Association has frequently used the following classification in its studies of school systems:

Under	2,500 population	From	10,000 to 30,000
From	2,500 to 5,000	From	30,000 to 100,000
From	5,000 to 10,000	Over	100,000 population

According to the federal census tabulations, all areas under 2500 population are rural. County and intermediate school districts are considered in Unit III. Divisions are here classified roughly as: (1) rural, (2) village, and (3) city districts.

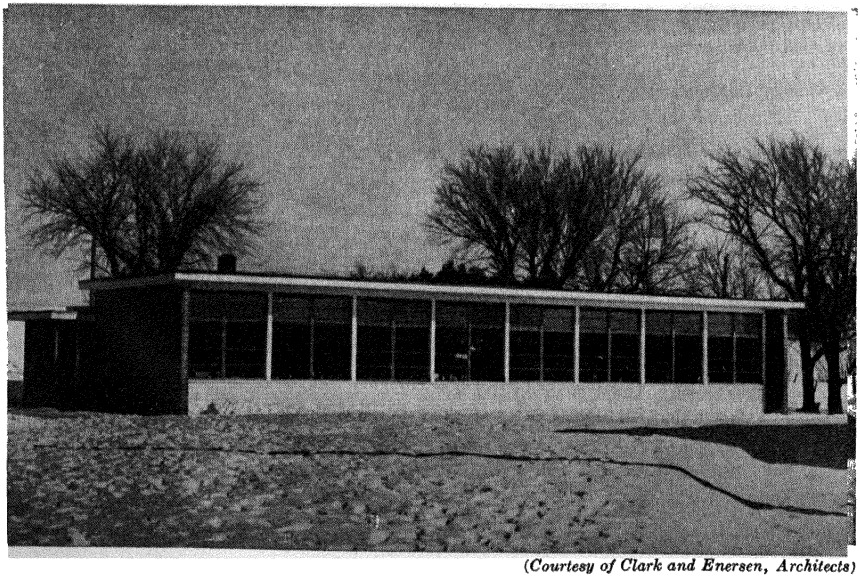
[2] Wendell Houston, *School Laws of the 48 States*, Wendell Houston Company, 1948, 800 pp.

[3] *Yearbook of School Law*, published annually, American Council on Education.



(Courtesy of Public Schools, Galesburg, Illinois)

FIG. 4-2. A traditional rural elementary-school building abandoned in a consolidation program. Many rural school buildings are substandard in facilities.



(Courtesy of Clark and Enersen, Architects)

FIG. 4-3. Modern rural school near Ithaca, Nebraska.

Rural Districts. The smallest district, the one-teacher school, is sometimes one-pupil as well. The one-teacher schools of America, usually one-room also, are disappearing rapidly in favor of the more modern and consolidated schools.

A typical one-teacher district is organized as in Fig. 4-4. Some rural elementary schools have two or more teachers, and most rural high schools have at least three teachers.

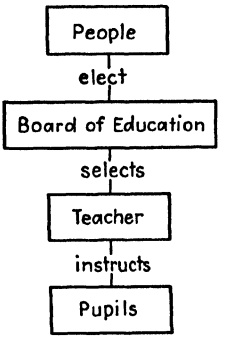


FIG. 4-4. Organization of one-teacher district.

Village Districts. A village school usually has more than one teacher and may have one or more buildings. The organization and administration of village, community, and small city schools is portrayed in Fig. 4-5. Here the board selects an administrator, who is usually known as the superintendent or supervising principal. He may be assisted by a principal or "head teacher" in each building.

City School Districts. This type, because of its compactness and its aggressive educational leaders, is usually the most progressive of the district organizations. The population varies from the small city of 2500 to the New York City school district, which has more than 1,000,000 pupils in its elementary and secondary schools.

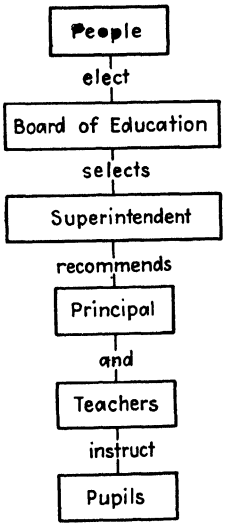


FIG. 4-5. Organization of village school district.

An illustration of a medium-sized school system is that of Santa Monica, California, a city of approximately 52,000 people. Fig. 4-6 reveals that the people, as the electorate, choose the members of the board of education, who in turn select the superintendent of schools, their chief executive officer. Under his direction the schools of that city are administered through a three-department organization: business, including such activities as the preparation of budgets and contracts; professional, with such duties as supervision and research; and instructional, embracing teaching and learning on all levels from elementary schools through the junior college, plus the special services of adult and technical education.

OTHER TYPES OF DISTRICTS AND SCHOOLS

Special Charter School Districts. Some schools have a special charter granted directly to the local district by the state. Although the majority of these districts were established in the early history of the state's educational development, some of them operate

under a special charter or special laws because of the size of the district. In Illinois, for example, Chicago and Peoria are subject to special laws because cities with a population exceeding 100,000 are exceptions to the general school laws. An instance of a special charter school district is quoted from the *School Laws* of Colorado: "The city and county of Denver shall alone always constitute one school district, to be known as District No. 1, but its conduct, affairs and business shall be in the hands of a board of education consisting of such numbers, elected in such manner

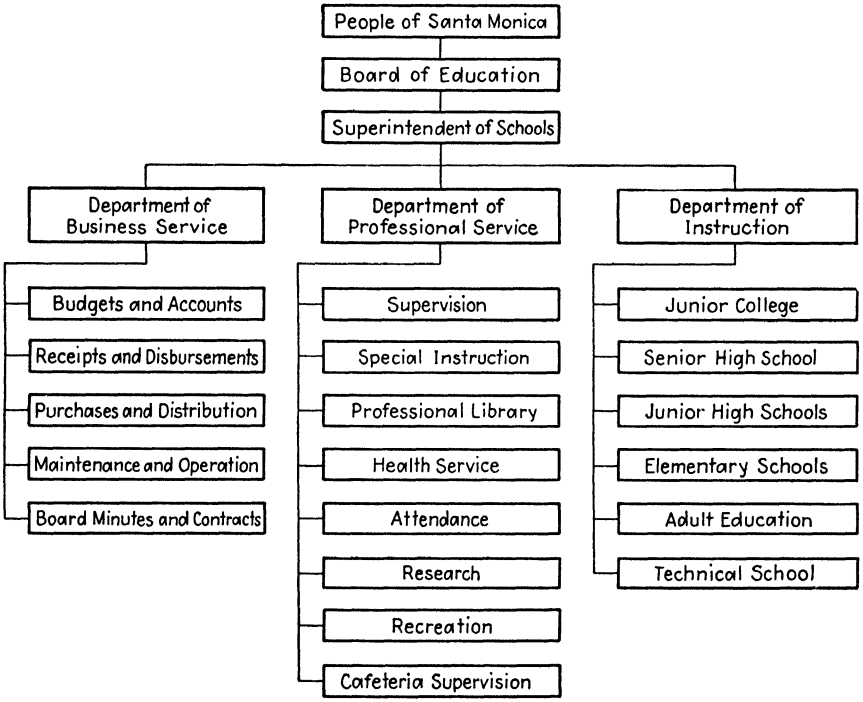


FIG. 4-6. Organization of city school district, Santa Monica, California.

as the general school laws of the state shall provide." The multiplication of especially chartered districts is likely to complicate school administration within the state; hence there is a trend toward bringing all existing school districts under the general school laws.

Other Classifications of School Systems. According to the educational level of the offerings, the two basic classifications are elementary- and high-school districts, to which have been added the junior-college and municipal-university areas. In addition, there are many districts classified on a geographical or civil basis, some of which are described in Unit III. Among

the special types are town, township, county, parish, consolidated, community, and non-high-schoo'. Some states designate districts by sizes, as first or second class. A wide variation in nomenclature of districts is found between states and within states.

The general impression that every square foot of soil in the United States is a part of an organized school district is not valid. Several states have portions unorganized for educational purposes. The school laws usually guarantee free schooling to all pupils residing in such areas.

Laboratory Schools. Many laboratory or experimental schools, on the elementary and secondary levels, are in reality public in that they are practice or training schools for state institutions like teachers colleges. Generally no tuition is required and the pupils are admitted as to a public school, although the limitation of facilities and the experimental nature of the work may restrict the enrollment. The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education has been active in improving the laboratory schools.[4] Numerous laboratory schools are affiliated with or are parts of nonstate or independent institutions. Experimental schools have stimulated profound changes in educational practice throughout the United States and abroad.

Parochial and Private Interest in Public Education. The earliest schools and colleges in America were parochia' and private. Educational advance in the early years of the United States was due primarily to the interest and support of the church, just as today in foreign countries such as India much financial and educational impetus is given to schools from missionary funds and zeal. Today many children do not go to a public school, since it is not compulsory to attend a public institution. The Oregon anti-private-school law, which sought to compel all pupils to attend public schools, was held unconstitutional by the Supreme Court in 1925. In the parochial field, the Roman Catholic Church maintains the largest number of elementary and secondary schools.[5] The parochial schools have been, are, and will be educational and spiritual bulwarks in a nation that practices freedom of religion—one of the basic four freedoms. The private school affects public education:

> Supported for the most part by a clientele which is alert and ready to venture into new pathways if they promise to lead to desired results, the private school,

[4] Committee on Standards and Surveys, *School and Community Laboratory Experiences in Teacher Education*, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1948, 340 pp.

[5] Annual statistics on parochial and private schools are available in such publications as Sargent's *Handbook of Private Schools*, and *Statistics of Nonpublic Elementary and Secondary Schools*, the latter published by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C.

while it must retain a semblance of conformity for the sake of peace, is none the less free to slough off many of the out-worn barnacles, and to venture more or less extensively into new and more promising ways. The private school yields more readily to initiative, is less hampered by the momentum of a standardized routine, and is more likely to receive the effective cooperation of its constituent group. In other words, because of its relative freedom, the private school can be, and often is, the trail-blazer for the public school, in matters of curriculum, method, and organization.[6]

In addition to billions of dollars given to private schools by individuals, many millions have been donated to public schools and colleges. Furthermore, numerous educational foundations and boards have given millions indirectly to public education by furnishing funds for research, experiments, and stimulation of education within the nation, states, and local communities.[7]

Private and parochial interest in education calls for close coordination with the public schools. Only by the cooperation of parochial, private, and public schools can education present a united front against the common foes, ignorance and superstition. The benefits of joint efforts are exemplified in the school laws of Michigan, which provide for a check on school census and attendance by the local board of education through the requirement that private, denominational, and parochial schools must furnish city superintendents with a list of pupils. Thus all educational institutions in the local district join in the effort to build up pupil attendance in all schools.

LOCAL BOARD OF EDUCATION

Nearly every school district in the United States is governed by a group of laymen designated under several names, such as the selectmen, the board of education, the school board, the board of trustees, the school committee, the township board of education, or the county board of education. These board members, who today number almost 300,000, are the direct representatives of the people in the school district.

Evolution of School Boards

Historically the board of education developed in the following manner:

During the colonial period, every citizen took direct part in managing school affairs. Every item of school business was brought before the town meeting.

[6] R. A. Schwegler, "The Place of the Private School in the Scheme of Public Education," *The Independent School and Barstow*, Barstow School, Kansas City, Missouri, March 17, 1937, 15 pp.

[7] *Educational Directory: Educational Associations and Directories, Part IV*, Superintendent of Documents, published annually.

As towns became larger, more and more of the business of the town meeting was entrusted to officials known as selectmen. Providing proper schools was one of the duties frequently delegated to these officials. Thus the selectmen became, in reality, the first lay representatives of the community charged with the management of the schools. As towns continued to grow, the selectmen were unable to attend to school business, town business, and church business. Special school committees were then created and with that practice the school board proper came into existence. Colonial practice formed the background for early state laws and by a process of gradual and irregular development, the office of school board members spread to all parts of the nation.[8]

The autonomous school district, organized separately, under an elected board of education, is essentially an American institution.

Electorate and School Boards

Today a notion prevails that in the administration of American public education, as in other public undertakings, all control is far removed from the electorate. Basically the genesis of control resides in the people. "We, the people" elect representatives who, as a board of education, take the place of the unwieldy larger group, the electorate. The board of education is indeed a personalized mechanism of democratic government, yet the electorate has manifested in the past a gross ignorance and a careless neglect of its duties in the conduct of American public education. This attitude of *laissez faire* is revealed in the usually small number of voters who cast their ballots in the election of a school board. Other indexes of popular apathy are the sparseness of attendance at public hearings on educational matters, and the failure of the citizen to be present at board meetings periodically as a part of his civic duties or to attend parent-teacher meetings, or to visit the schools in action. The average citizen seldom checks either on the investment he has made in the public schools or on the persons whom he helped to elect to board membership. The board of education is a kind of unicameral legislature elected and neglected by the public. Yet the schools need the public as much as the public needs the schools.

People must be interested in the schools if they are genuinely concerned about their children and the future of America. In *Middletown in Transition*, one reads:

In a society as heavily oriented toward the future and the next generation as Middletown, a study of the way it trains its young offers one of the surest means of penetrating beneath the surface of life to its dominant values. Middletown

[8] *Research Bulletin*, "The School Board Member," p. 5, National Education Association, January, 1933.

cares about its children. They symbolize to the parent generation a path of release from certain of life's frustrations and a large share of its adult generation's hope of the future. . . . If Middletown sees its own hope for the immediate future as lying in hard work and making money, it has been wont to see in education the open-sesame that will unlock the world for its children.[9]

The public in general, and parents in particular, should select for the local board of education the best human resources of the community.

Size, Tenure, and Selection of Boards of Education

There has been no uniformity in the number of persons on a board of education, or in their term of office:

A few years ago it was possible to find boards of education with a membership as large as forty-six members (Augusta, Georgia about 1922); with terms as short as a single year (certain New England towns and villages); with a membership of only one—a one-man school board of education—(certain cities with a commission form of government, such as St. Paul, Minnesota, and Chattanooga, Tennessee); or with members whose term is for life in boards of education which fill their own vacancies. This last variation in the constitution of the local board of education was found some years ago in such cities as Savannah, Georgia, and Mobile, Alabama. Back in the carpet-bagger days the state legislatures approved city charters which made the board of education a closed corporation. Membership was for life and the board was authorized to fill its own vacancies.[10]

The trend in recent years has been toward boards composed of not more than nine elected members. The publication *School Boards in Action* contains the following recommendations as to size of boards:

A school board should be of such size that (a) no one school election would change the majority of its members; (b) frequent meetings could be called without involving too many people; (c) there would be enough members to represent the different points of view in the community; and (d) there would be enough members so that close friends could not deliberate action.[11]

The three-member board found so often in rural and small-town districts does not meet all these criteria.

Methods of nominating board members vary greatly. They may be nominated by petition, primary election, individual announcements, citizens' committees, mass meetings, or school district meetings. The mem-

[9] R. S. Lynd and H. M. Lynd, *Middletown in Transition*, p. 204, Harcourt, 1937.

[10] J. R. McGaughey, *The Evaluation of the Elementary School*, p. 201, Bobbs-Merrill, 1937.

[11] American Association of School Administrators, *School Boards in Action*, p. 41, National Education Association, 1946.

bers are usually elected, although they may be appointed by the mayor and council, by county commissioners, by city managers, or by self-perpetuating boards.

Terms of office for school-board members cover the median length of 7 years. Terms of office may vary even within the board. For example, in Winona, Minnesota, the board of education is composed of nine members; one person is elected in each of the four wards each biennium for a term of 4 years, and one elected at large for a 2-year term. Authorities in educational administration recommend the election of board members at large rather than by wards. Most boards are elected on a nonpartisan basis.

In Wisconsin, many school districts have two boards of education, one in charge of the regular public schools and the other of the vocational schools. The latter board consists of five members: the superintendent of schools, two employers, and two employees. George S. Counts, in his study of the social composition of city boards of education, found a heavy preponderance of business and professional men to the exclusion of the middle classes, the lesser occupations of life, and labor. Collectively, the members of the board of education should have a variety of vocational experiences generally representative of the community.

Qualifications of Board Members

The magnitude of education as expressed by its annual expenditure of more than three billion dollars emphasizes the need for a careful selection of board members. Among the qualifications usually specified by law are that the candidate shall be over twenty-one years of age, a legal voter, and a resident in the school district. Besides these legal stipulations, however, a member of a board of education should possess many other desirable qualities. He should:

1. Be interested in schools
2. Have children in school
3. Have a forward-looking attitude toward schools
4. Understand the financial status of the district
5. Be able to discuss school affairs in an intelligent manner
6. Have some formal schooling
7. Possess ability in dealing with private and public affairs
8. Be a taxpayer
9. Be a person of good moral qualities who has the respect of the community
10. Have community pride
11. Be willing and able to give energy and time to the office he holds
12. Be a cooperative individual—not a rubber stamp or a headstrong person who seeks to run the school singlehanded

Of greatest benefit is intelligent cooperation among the members of the board and between the board and the community.

Unfortunately board members do not always promote the best welfare of the school: "Hardened politicians, not content with the devastation inflicted on city governments, realize that the schools, employing many people and handling millions of dollars, are tempting objects for despoliation."[12] The school system should be made an uninteresting and unattractive field to political spoilsmen. It is "bad politics for even a corrupt spoils administration to use the schools, and good politics to stay out." By and large, however, the schools are governed honestly.

The public school system, running from the kindergarten to the graduate division of a state university, is the great achievement of our American govern-

FIG. 4-7. Board of education of city school district, Anderson, Indiana. In addition to the five members of the board are shown the school attorney, the superintendent of the school system, and his secretary, who is also clerk of the board.

mental system; and the success of this gigantic experiment in popular education should not escape notice in the training of the oncoming citizen. There are obvious defects in the operation of our schools in many localities, but the outstanding fact, taking the situation in the large and in the country generally, is the remarkable growth, development, and prestige of this branch of the governmental activities, into which so large a proportion of our public expenditures flows.[13]

This progress is due in a large measure to the fact that the majority of board members take seriously their responsibilities and duties.

Distinguished service awards, honorary degrees, and other forms of recognition are given annually by state educational associations, colleges, and other groups to members of boards of education who have rendered

[12] Chris A. De Young, *Budgetary Practices in Public School Administration*, p. 101, Northwestern University, 1932.

[13] Charles E. Merriam, *Civic Education in the United States*, p. 166, Scribner, 1934.

notable service to education in the local community, state, and nation. These tributes are challenges to men and women everywhere to serve their community as members of boards of education.

Functions and Powers of Boards of Education

The board of education is an effective policy-forming and appraisal-making group; its chief task is to select a competent superintendent of schools who will serve as its administrative officer. The board is generally granted broad powers by the state legislature and is invested with much discretionary power in matters of details. The general powers usually conferred are:

> To appoint administrators, supervisors, teachers, and other employees; to adopt courses of study; to purchase supplies; to acquire school sites; to erect school buildings; to levy taxes or to submit estimates to some other body; to make rules and regulations for the management of the schools; to enforce the compulsory school attendance law; and, in general, to perform such duties as are necessary for the attainment of the ends for which the school districts are organized.[14]

Too many boards of education limit their attention to school buildings to be used during school hours by school children on school days during the school months. The modern board of public education places all its facilities at the disposal of all members of the community for education at all hours of the day during the entire year. It is a board of *public education* rather than a *school* board.

Board Organization and Procedure

Most boards of education are organized with a president who presides at the meetings, and a secretary or clerk who may serve as the treasurer. Business is conducted usually in open meetings held in the school once a month, except in large city systems where the board may convene more frequently.

Much business is transacted through committees. Among the typical standing committees are finance, building and grounds, school management, teachers, and public relations. In recent years, however, the tendency is away from standing committees. If the board meets as a committee of the whole, each member will be more thoroughly informed on all school affairs and able to render more intelligent service. As a general rule there should be no standing committees, since too frequently committee action

[14] W. S. Deffenbaugh, *Know Your Board of Education*, p. 6, Superintendent of Documents, 1939.

predetermines board action. If there are committees, certainly the superintendent of schools should serve on all of them as an ex officio member in order to integrate the policies and actions of the board.

Relationships of Boards of Education

The board of education plays a unique role in American life. Its work impinges on so many areas of public interest that it becomes interdependent with many groups. As the elected representatives of the people, the board members must be able to keep in contact with their constituents or at least to gauge their pulse. The importance of such connections is manifested in the increasing prevalence of committees on public relations. This phase of American public education is further detailed in Unit XVI.

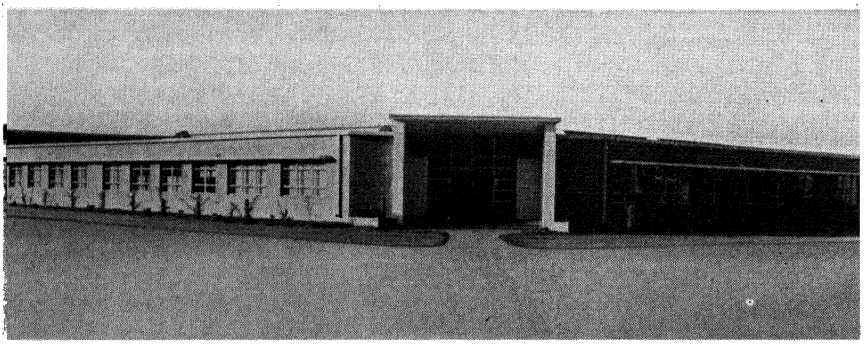


Fig. 4-8. School administration building, Phoenix, Arizona. This one-story structure harmonizes with the native architecture. The office windows have a 2-foot overhang to shield them from the sun.

Among the vital relationships maintained by the local school board with other organizations and officials are those with the city government, with other school boards, in area, state, and national affiliations, such as the National School Boards Association, and with the superintendent of schools, whose work is treated in the last part of this unit.

Fiscal Independence and Dependence. The tendency has been to divide school districts into two categories on the basis of their fiscal relationship to the city government:

1. Those in which the local board of education possesses (within the limitation imposed by the state through charter or general statute) authority over the raising and expenditure of funds necessary to carry on the public schools and other activities under its control, independent of the general municipal government.
2. Those in which the board of education is treated as a department of the municipal government and consequently must submit its annual financial estimates

for approval and revision to that authority of the municipal government which ultimately determines the budget.[15]

It is impossible to draw a clear line of demarcation between these two groups, since there is a gradual shading off from one extreme of positive independence to the other of irrevocable dependence. Authorities in political science usually favor the dependent boards, whereas educational writers in the main agree that the school district should be fiscally independent.[16]

School Board Organizations. An unobtrusive but significant development is the banding together of school boards in the common cause of education. In many states the board members have joined formal organizations, by counties, by groups of counties, or by the entire state. The state associations are linked in the National School Boards Association—a group that is emerging as a potent force in American public education. Many board members have profited by attending the annual conventions of the American Association of School Administrators, which is composed primarily of superintendents of schools.

LOCAL SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS

Types of Internal Control

The internal administration of city schools is (1) unit, (2) dual, or (3) multiple in operation. These are the three main ways in which responsibility is delegated by the board of education.

In the unit type of control, the board of education places the responsibility for the administration of the schools upon the executive officer, the superintendent of schools, who, in large cities, may delegate details to the assistant superintendent, to a business manager, or to others subordinate to him. In the dual and multiple types, responsibility is shared by two or more coordinate officers, such as an attorney and business manager, each answerable directly to the board of education. Modern educational practice favors the unit type of internal control, with the superintendent of schools as the chief administrative officer.

Evolution of School Superintendency

The superintendency of schools evolved in a peculiar manner. The principal was a schoolman, whereas a local person, usually a layman, was elected superintendent to look after the business affairs of the school. Frequently the principal was paid more than the superintendent. The superintendent was often the president of the board of education, a practice

[15] Paul Monroe, *Encyclopedia of Education*, p. 463, Macmillan, 1915.

[16] This is one of the issues discussed in greater detail in Unit XVII.

that continued for years at Beloit, Wisconsin. In most districts today the superintendent serves in a unit-control system.

The history of the city superintendency is an interesting story:

> Before 1837 there were no city school superintendents. That year Buffalo, New York, and Louisville, Kentucky, each established the position of superintendent of schools. Other cities followed their example, but up to 1870 there were school superintendents in only 29 of the 226 cities having a population of 8000 or more. . . . After 1870 when cities began to increase in size the educational problems became so numerous and complex that boards of education could no longer exercise direct supervision over the schools. For some years, however, many boards of education continued to exercise some executive functions, but year by year greater and greater responsibility has been placed in the hands of the superintendent of schools until today his responsibilities and duties are such as make the school superintendency a most important public administrative position.[17]

This office today has developed to a high level of educational statesmanship.

Legal Status of City Superintendent

Unfortunately all superintendents do not have a definite legal status. In many districts, provisions dealing with detailed duties for the superintendent are often covered by the "rules and regulations" adopted by the local boards of education. The legal status of superintendents should include provision for long-term contracts. Unfortunately, the average city superintendent stays in one position only 6 years. This tends to make administration not a profession but a procession.

Qualifications of Superintendent

A superintendent of schools qualifies for his position through his nonprofessional academic preparation, his professional education, his experience in teaching, and his personal attributes. The trend is toward the master's degree as a minimum academic requirement for a superintendency. The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools adopted the following rule in regard to the high schools: "The superintendent or the principal directly in charge of the supervision and administration of the high school shall hold a master's degree from a college belonging to the North Central Association, or the equivalent; and shall have had a minimum of two years of experience in teaching or administration." The academic standards are increasingly being broadened and raised for superintendents, both of high schools and of elementary schools.

The superintendent of schools should be well versed in the field of professional education if he is to be the educational expert.

[17] W. S. Deffenbaugh, *op. cit.*, p. 2.

The superintendent is expected to be an expert on fiscal affairs, including sources of school revenues, theories and practices of taxation, school budgeting, and the intelligent programming of educational expenditures; the evolvement of educational objectives; public relations; personnel administration; legal aspects of school administration; the creation and adaptation of curriculums; supervision of instruction which necessarily includes definite and extensive knowledge of curricular content; professional leadership of the teaching staff; defending the schools against encroachments from special-interest groups; coordination of various interests and departments; stimulation toward definite outcomes; and the rendering of an accurate and authoritative report on the progress and status of the schools.[18]

To meet these numerous demands, the superintendent must possess a breadth of information based on broad nonprofessional background, thorough courses, seminars, and field work in education and school administration, and continuous study on the job.

The following general qualifications of a personal nature are desirable: unblemished character, sound physical and mental health, good speaking voice, endless patience and tact, and sound judgment. A successful school executive should rate high in unselfish motivation, scholarly ability, industry, ability to get along with people, and executive capacity. A board of education expects a superintendent to have leadership, see inherent possibilities in others, assign duties intelligently, delegate authority, know the professional literature of the past and present, have a philosophy of education, beware of popular fads and notions in regard to education, and be an independent thinker.

Duties of Superintendent of Schools

The following are some of the powers and duties usually assigned to the city school superintendent:

1. To serve as the chief executive officer of the board of education in its conduct of the schools and of other agencies and activities in its control.
2. To attend all meetings of the board and of its committees and to exercise the right to speak on all matters before the board or committees, but without vote.
3. To nominate, as needed, assistant superintendents, business manager, supervisors, principals, teachers, custodians, and all other employees authorized by the board of education.
4. To recommend for suspension or discharge any employee whose services are so unsatisfactory as to warrant such action, subject to approval by the board after a hearing of the case.
5. To select, after conferring with supervisors, principals, teachers, and such other persons as the superintendent may designate, texts and all other supplies

[18] C. H. Marple, "The Problem Superintendent," *American School Board Journal*, May, 1938, pp. 21–22.

and appliances needed for the activities of the schools or other agencies under the control of the board.

6. To prepare or have prepared for his approval the content of each course of study authorized by the board of education.

7. To determine the boundaries of school attendance districts, subject to the approval of the board.

8. To have general supervision of the operation and maintenance of the school plant and equipment and the purchase and storage and distribution of textbooks and other supplies.

9. To direct the supervision of the elementary and high schools, of all special schools, and of all extracurriculum activities.

10. To assign principals, custodians, and other employees to the schools and teachers to schools and grades, and to transfer them according to the needs of the service.

11. To prepare, or to have prepared, for his inspection the school budget showing in detail the amount of funds necessary to meet the estimated needs for the ensuing year and submit it to the board for consideration and action.

12. To approve and direct all purchases and expenditures within the limits of the detailed budget approved by the board and to make monthly reports of such expenditures to the board.

13. To keep the board informed as to school building needs and to recommend plans for new buildings and for alterations of old buildings.

14. To grant the use of schoolrooms, auditoriums, and gymnasiums, for such community purposes and under such terms as the school board may establish.

15. To make monthly and annual reports to the board on the condition and needs of the school.

16. To prepare, for the approval of the board, bylaws, rules, and regulations needed for the direction and control of the schools.[19]

The main duty of the superintendent is to serve as the chief executive officer of the board, since he is the educational expert. According to *Recent Social Trends*, the most notable recognition of the principle of expert and permanent nonpolitical service has been in the rapid rise of the city manager and the school superintendent in American cities—a tribute to the interest in and demands for a different type of administrative personnel. With this growth in importance, questions may well be raised as to the relationships of the educational expert to his fellow workers.

Superintendent's Relationships with Others[20]

The superintendent, especially in a large school system with its combrous complexity, cannot discharge singlehanded all the duties just enumerated.

[19] W. S. Deffenbaugh, *op. cit.*, pp. 2–3.

[20] For a "Code of Professional Ethics for Superintendents," see American Association of School Administrators, *Standards for Superintendents of Schools*, pp. 47–49, National Education Association, 1939.

Therefore, the actual performance of many of these acts must be delegated to others, although the superintendent is held responsible and must keep a sharp-eyed perspective of the whole system. He is the professional coordinator of all personnel.

Relationship with Board of Education. Despite the numerous dissimilarties between education and business, the relationship between the superintendent of schools and the board is somewhat similar to that between the executive officer and the board of directors of any private corporation. The stockholders of a private corporation usually elect a board of directors to control the enterprise. These directors adopt certain policies, the execution of which is placed in the hands of the chief executive officer, who also may be called upon to recommend policies that should be adopted. Likewise, the public elects a board of education, which has control over the school system. This board concentrates on the adoption of policies and the appraisal of practices. The board therefore selects as its professional officer a competent superintendent of schools who makes recommendations on all matters including the selection of subordinates.

With Local Administrative Personnel. The large school systems employ administrative officers other than the superintendent. Their number and type depend upon the size and nature of the system. Among these administrative or semiadministrative officers are assistant superintendents of schools, business managers, secretaries of the board, principals, department heads, supervisors, and others, whose duties are considered more completely in Unit XII. The superintendent coordinates the work of all departments.

With Teaching Personnel. Since the administrator must work closely with the teaching staff mentioned in Unit XI, he must develop the philosophy and techniques of group dynamics—working cooperatively and effectively with others. His code of professional ethics ought to include the practice of engaging and promoting teachers on their merit, keeping inviolate their confidential communications, giving them a share in democratic organization, and not criticizing them in the presence of other teachers, patrons, or pupils.

With Pupils. The superintendent in a small system has the advantage of close contact with the pupils; he may even teach some of them in the classroom. In the large schools this is not possible, but the relationship, even though indirect, is vital. The superintendent's first allegiance in any school system is to the pupils. Their needs are detailed in Unit X.

With the Community. Cubberley has stated that the most important individual in any community is the superintendent of schools. To his duty of providing educational leadership in the community is allied the task of promoting a continuous public relations program. This calls for reciprocal relations: the public school has to be interpreted to the public,

and the public has to be understood by the school. Administrators should strive for a high level of community understanding of the educational program.

With Fellow Superintendents. The relationships with other superintendents are primarily professional and social. Numerous gains accrue from intervisitations, conferences, correspondence, and educational exchanges. These exchanges are promoted through county, state, and national organizations of school administrators.

With the American Association of School Administrators. The local superintendent will profit from membership in the American Association of School Administrators. This organization was started in Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, in 1865 under the name of the National Association of School Superintendents. As one of the largest divisions of the National Education Association, its membership numbers several thousand, most of whom are superintendents of schools, school officials, and instructors of school administration. The annual convention is widely attended and is supplemented by an educational exhibit of textbooks, supplies, and equipment which is the largest of its kind. The association publishes a report of the annual convention and a yearbook on various phases of education. It cooperates with the Educational Policies Commission. With the Research Division of the National Education Association it provides the Educational Research Service, a clearinghouse of research on school administration. The platform of this association is found in Appendix IV.

Four-dimensional Growth for Superintendents

For his many-faceted tasks and relationships, the superintendent of schools needs at least four-dimensional growth.

Depth. In Shakespearean language, the preparation of the modern school administrator should be "deeper than e'er plummet sounded." In scriptural language, many an administrator erects his house hurriedly upon sand, and is not "like unto a wise man, which built his house upon a rock." The bedrock of the superintendent's professional salvation is a basic set of principles upon which may be erected the heavy superstructure of school administration. An administrator equipped with a sound philosophy of education and a personal philosophy of living will be able to meet calmly the multiplying minutiae of modern management. He can also help his teachers to develop a philosophy of teaching, a psychology of learning, and a program of personal living.

Width. The preparation of the local superintendent needs to be broad, because his field of work is far-flung. The term "superintendent of schools" should be replaced by "superintendent of education." The former assumes a high fence around the school yard as an isolated private domain; the latter presupposes a program of education for all in the community. The

expanding role of education widens the horizon of the administrator. He is an educational sociologist seeking the improvement of the community and society as a whole.

Length. Most states have recently increased the amount of preparation required for the fully certificated classroom teacher. The professional requirements of the school superintendent, however, have remained static for a long time. Teacher-educating institutions need to plan a new degree, a super Master of Education, which requires 2 years beyond the bachelor's degree. Obviously the quality of preparation must also improve. A new pattern is sorely needed for preparing administrators.

Height. In order that the work of the superintendent may rise in the eyes of the public, his program of growth must have height as well as depth, width, and length. His work needs to be elevated to a high degree not only of educational statesmanship but also of human and social engineering. Many a superintendent cannot "look unto the mountains from whence cometh our help," because his nose is so close to the old grindstone. The genuine administrator grows in professional stature, not by pulling himself up by his bootstraps, not by trampling upon the backs of his fellow workers, but by helping others to climb to greater heights.

Democratic Administration of Education

One of the National Conferences of Professors of School Administration prepared a list of the inward motivations and the outward signs of structure and technique in democratic leadership. The inward convictions of democratic leadership are:

1. The welfare of the group is assured by the welfare of each individual.
2. Decisions reached through the cooperative use of intelligence are, in total, more valid than decisions made by individuals.
3. Every idea is entitled to a fair hearing.
4. Every person can make a unique and important contribution.
5. Growth comes from within the group rather than from without.
6. Democracy is a way of living.
7. Democratic methods are efficient methods.
8. Persons merit love.

The outward signs of democratic leadership are:

1. Its processes increase the powers of the individual to adjust, to solve problems, to gain satisfactory expression, to maintain emotional poise, and to grow in attitudes and to mature in behavior.
2. Its effectiveness is measured by what happens to people.
3. It grows out of the action of a group working on a problem and does not belong to any one individual as a privilege.

4. It comes from within the group and not from some outside source.
5. It develops and uses for the common good the potentialities of each member of the group.
6. It shares the formulation of policies and decisions with every person concerned.
7. It assists the group to determine wants and needs.
8. It assists the group in arriving at consensus.
9. It assists the group in carrying out its objectives.[21]

Upon the board of education and especially upon the superintendent of schools devolves the responsibility of cultivating the inward and outward signs of democratic leadership among teachers and among those taught.

Democratic Administrators. Although there are practical limits to the amount of administrative detail and routine that should be carried to the staff for prolonged deliberation, nevertheless most administrators err in not providing enough opportunities for cooperation in the drafting of basic educational policies.

The old diagrams in books on administration and supervision had arrows going down from the superintendent to the teacher; the modern plans reveal arrows to and from the teachers and the administrators, or show relationships in group planning. The modern superintendent recognizes the contributions of teachers, principals, pupils, and others in the school. He gives full credit to the teaching staff and does not use their efforts for his self-glorification. He pays more than lip service to the ideal of democratic administration. He works with and through teachers, not above them. He gives an opportunity for teachers to preside at meetings, to share cooperatively through a planning and evaluating council, and to organize experiences around the needs, interests, and abilities of students. More and more the administrator uses less and less authority in his work. He deliberately cultivates courteousness in manner. He uses fewer commands and more questions; he avoids the imperative mood and practices the use of the interrogative. He tries to stimulate rather than dictate, knowing that dictatorship is alien to educational administration in a dynamic democracy.

Conclusion—Democratic Organization and Administration Are Essential.[22] At the conclusion of Part I, embracing Units I through IV, it is

[21] National Conference of Professors of School Administration, *Educational Leaders—Their Function and Preparation*, Teachers College, Columbia University, pp. 8–10, 1948.

[22] For further information, read the discussion pamphlet prepared by the Department of Classroom Teachers and the Research Division, *Democracy in School Administration*, National Education Association, 1948, 25 pp. Also read the pamphlets of the American Association of School Administrators, *The School Board Member in Action*, National Education Association, 1949, 20 pp., and *Choosing the Superintendent of Schools*, National Education Association, 1949, 12 pp.

pertinent to emphasize the function of democratic organization and administration.

Public education is the cooperative effort of society to provide learning for its people. Schools must be organized in order to be administered, and they should be organized and administered so as to facilitate the education of all the people. Sometimes school structure and its management are stumbling blocks in the path as the children seek to progress along life's educational highway. An administrative unit may be so formed geographically that its boundary lines prevent a boy or girl from receiving adequate instruction. A school may be so conducted that it does not provide a real challenge for the student to continue his studies.

Administration should be the slave and not the master of education. Schools are not organized and conducted in order to provide a board member, a superintendent, or a teacher with a job; schools are dedicated, in all their functions, to the supreme and worthy purposes of education. In its early, restricted scope, schooling was for children, but modern education is now so broad and extensive that it embraces learning for all. In order to be genuinely democratic, American public education should include the five levels described in Part II: pre-elementary, elementary, secondary, higher education, and education for out-of-school youth and adults.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Visit a local school system. Study its organization and administration.
2. Draw a diagram showing how a local public-school system is organized.
3. Draw a map of a city. Locate on it all the school buildings, public, private, and parochial.
4. Study the relationship between the local school officials and the city officials.
5. Find out when school board elections are held in your district and what the election procedures are.
6. Attend an annual school district meeting or election.
7. Examine the school laws of your state to determine the qualifications and duties of the local board of education and the superintendent of schools.
8. Interview a board member to ascertain his personal interest in board membership and his qualifications for it.
9. Conduct a panel discussion on the subject of qualifications for members of boards of education.
10. Debate the topic: "Resolved that more women should serve as members of the board of education."
11. Bring to class newspaper clippings containing the minutes or actions of a board of education.
12. Make a list of all superintendents who have served in a certain school system during the last 25 or 50 years. Interpret the findings as to tenure of administrators.
13. Arrange for a superintendent to talk to the class about school administration.
14. Visit the office of a local superintendent of schools and report the findings.
15. Visit a business department of a large school system. Report your findings.
16. Debate the statement: "Resolved that all public-school teachers should be

appointed by the board of education upon the recommendation of the superintendent of schools."

17. Prepare an exhibit of educational materials from a local school system.

18. Examine annual reports of school boards and superintendents.

19. Give examples of democratic and undemocratic procedures in schools.

20. Discuss the main functions of educational organization and administration in a democracy.

21. Draw a diagram showing your recommendations for the organization of national, state, county, and local school systems.

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Current Pertinent Periodicals and Publications

American School Board Journal (12)[23]

Many articles dealing with the work of superintendents and boards of education.

Annual Reports of Local School Systems (1)

Helpful material usually of a specific and local nature.

[23] The figures following the titles of the publications indicate the number of issues annually.

Educational Administration and Supervision (9)

Several long articles helpful to administrators and others.

Educational Directory, City School Offices, Part II (1)

Annual publication of the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C., listing the principal educational officers and the superintendents of parochial schools in cities over 2500 in population.

Illinois School Board Journal (4)

A helpful publication issued by one of the dynamic and aggressive state school-board associations.

Journal of Educational Sociology (9)

Periodical that should be widely read by persons interested in education.

Local Journals Issued by City Boards of Education

Numerous publications, such as the *Baltimore Bulletin of Education, Chicago Schools Journal*, and *Pasadena School Review.*

Nation's Schools (12)

Many articles grouped according to various phases of school administration.

Progressive Education (8)

Official organ of United States Section of New Education Fellowship, containing many articles on democratic practices in administration and teaching.

Review of Educational Reseacrh (5)

Review of studies and research with periodic editions devoted to various aspects of school administration and organization.

School Administrator (9)

Brief official publication of the American Association of School Administrators.

School and Society (52)

Only weekly magazine devoted to education—scattered articles on school administration.

School Board Publications

Various reports and journals, such as the *Journal of the New York School Boards Association.*

School Executives (12)

Many articles dealing with the work of school executives.

School Management (10)

School management, supply, and equipment news.

School Surveys

Publications issued periodically by many school systems. Also see the surveys of education prepared by the federal Office of Education and published by the Superintendent of Documents.

Yearbooks and Official Reports

Yearbooks and official proceedings of many organizations, such as the American Association of School Administrators, and the American Council on Education, which publishes the *Yearbook of School Law* containing topical summaries of the decisions of higher courts in the United States in cases involving school law. Also reports of National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration.

Audio-visual Aids

Exhibit of Materials from Local School Systems

The students and the instructor can assemble an interesting and useful exhibit of pictures, newspaper clippings, reports, budgets, and literature issued by local schools.

CHICAGO PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN ACTION — Film, twenty-five minutes

This film shows the general aims and activities of the Chicago public system from nursery school through adult education. It includes sequences from regular day school, evening classes, and summer classes.

EDUCATION IN A DEMOCRACY — Filmstrip, 36 frames

In Fairtown, an ideal democracy, education does more than merely prepare future voters—it allows each citizen to develop his potentialities to the fullest. Available from Eye Gate House, New York.

FOUNDING OF THE AMERICAN PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM — Microfilms, 35 mm., silent

See Unit I for a description of these microfilms.

THE SIXTH CHAIR — Seventeen minutes, 16 mm., sound

This film portrays the price of complacency toward education as represented by the general public in the sixth chair. It dramatizes the tragedy of the attitude of "half the people of the nation" who often fail to vote on the important issues. It is planned to arouse the public to support education in the local community. Available on free loan from state education associations.

Part II

AREAS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

Preview of Part II

AREAS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

American public education spans the lifetime of the individual: it enrolls him at birth and graduates him at death. As indicated in the educational ladder in Fig. 5-1 on the next page, the four major sequential levels of lifelong learning are (1) pre-elementary, (2) elementary, (3) secondary, and (4) higher education; related to these is (5) education for out-of-school youth and adults.

The first, the pre-elementary period, includes prenatal and postnatal care as well as the early nurture and education of the child. The principal agencies for providing care and education at this early level are the home, the nursery school, and the kindergarten (Unit V).

Elementary education lays the firm foundation for all-round growth of the child through developing in him basic skills, habits, attitudes, and knowledges. The elementary schools in the United States enroll almost one sixth of all Americans on the mainland, and are the main instruments for equipping persons with a common general education (Unit VI).

Secondary education is broadened and lengthened to include all the curricular and cocurricular activities of the preadolescent, adolescent, and postadolescent youth. Theoretically it spans the period covering the junior high school, the senior school, and the junior college. It adds to the general education of youth and often provides some degree of specialization (Unit VII).

Higher education includes both undergraduate and postgraduate study. College and university undergraduate life with its crowded activities may be a prelude to intensive postgraduate work, but more often it is the terminus of formal schooling (Unit VIII).

Education for out-of-school youth affords to an ever-increasing number of young Americans the opportunity for intellectual and social growth. Adult education, the final stage in lifelong learning, can yield satisfying fruits through a rich and varied program of activities (Unit IX).

Part II

AREAS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

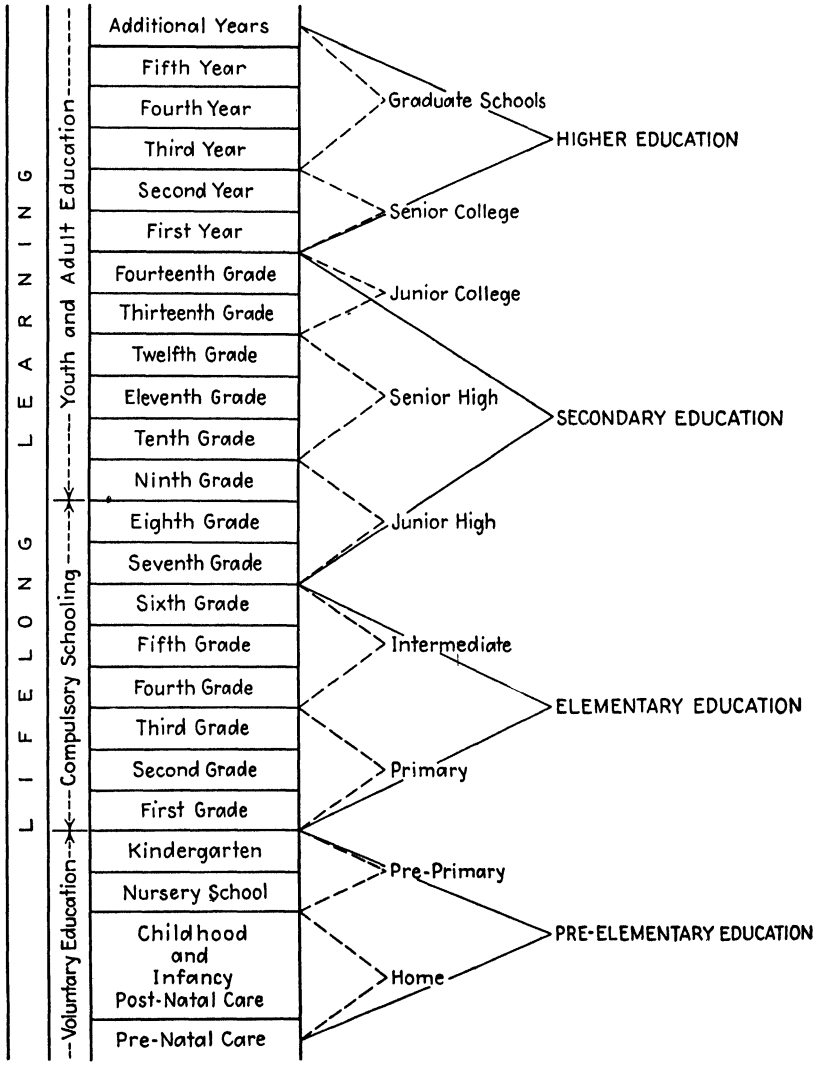

FIG. 5-1. Proposed areas of public education.

PREVIEW OF UNIT V

PRE-ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Pre-elementary education extends from the birth of the child to his entrance at the age of six or seven years into the first grade or year of the elementary school.

The movement for early childhood education outside the home commenced historically with the fearless and sympathetic Froebel, who originated the kindergarten. The three major areas encompassed in this broad field are (1) early home care and training for all children, (2) nursery-school education for some pupils, and (3) kindergarten education for some.

Parental education, prenatal and postnatal care, and early infancy training in the home lay the foundation for later childhood. The significance of this early home training cannot be overestimated.

Some children attend one or both of the organized institutions for pre-elementary education, the first of which is the nursery school. Various types of nursery schools are found in the United States.

The second, the kindergarten, continues the education of the home and other agencies. It usually enrolls children at the age of four or five years during the "readiness period." It serves as a transition from pre-elementary to elementary schooling.

Outline of Contents

Introduction
  Importance of early childhood
Development of Pre-elementary Education
  Historical calendar
  Pioneer work in pre-elementary education
Home Care and Training
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  Early childhood education in the home
Nursery Education
  Scope of nursery education
  Aims of nursery school
  Program and procedures
  Current practices
  Future of nursery schools
Kindergarten Education
  Scope of kindergarten education
  Aims of kindergarten
  Program and procedures
  Current practices in kindergartens
  Future of kindergartens

UNIT V

PRE-ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

After one of his lectures, Francis Wayland Parker, the educator, was interrogated as follows by a woman in his audience:

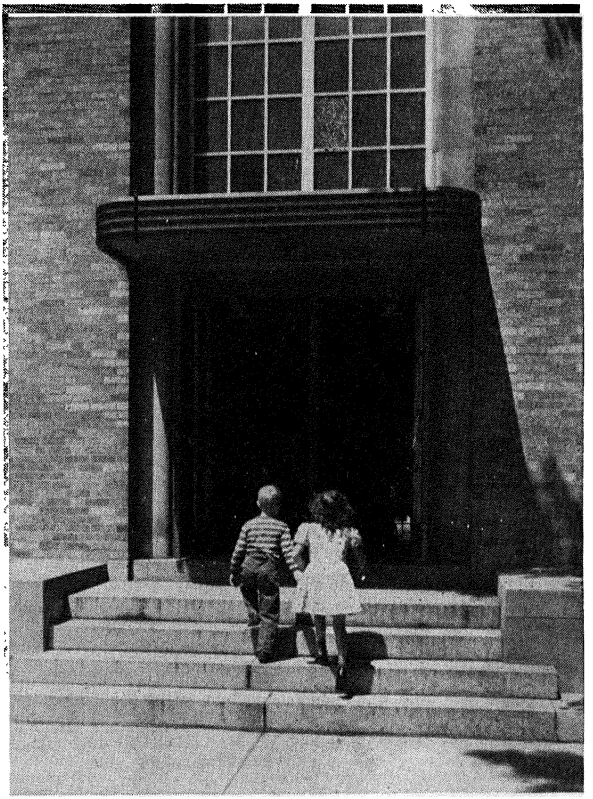
"How early can I begin the education of my child?"

"When will your child be born?" Parker asked.

"Born?" she gasped. "Why, he is already five years old!"

"My goodness, woman," he cried, "don't stand here talking to me—hurry home; you have lost the best five years."

Importance of Early Childhood. Authorities on child life stress the extreme importance of the earliest years in the development of the indi-



(Courtesy Public Schools, Bloomington, Illinois)

FIG. 5-2. Pre-elementary education—two small children start to school.

vidual, since it is during this formative period that the foundation is built for future growth. The findings of children's laboratories and nursery schools suggest that the first half-dozen years of the child's life may be more important for educational purposes than all the other years, since many habits that underlie successful living are formed then. This belief is accented by the Educational Policies Commission in its *Educational Services for Young Children:*

> The growth process during the first six years is foundational and tends to set the pattern of future health and adjustment. Healthy, well-adjusted persons are the product of an orderly process of growth. . . .The play and work of the child during these early years can include all the basic elements of good social life: companionship, sharing, and good will.[1]

The National Society for the Study of Education, in its yearbook *Early Childhood Education,* adds:

> The child is not stationary and fixed but is moving through a growth period, itself imbedded in the larger period that extends from conception to maturity. In turn, this is a part of even a greater period that includes the whole life cycle from birth to death. In growth the organism changes from a single cell to an adult with a complex bodily structure and very involved behavior. . . .
>
> The important issues of our times have their effects upon child life. The deep undercurrents of fear intensified by an atomic age, the growing uncertainties of work, the difficulty of meeting basic family needs, the panorama of mixed cultural ideas passing as if in review before our eyes—all these, sometimes subtly but rather surely, affect the well-being of children.[2]

The basic philosophy toward life itself often has its roots in infancy and early childhood. Therefore, continuous close cooperation between the home and school is necessary, especially during what may be called the preschool or pre-elementary period of a child's life.

Pre-elementary education covers the whole period from the child's birth until his entrance into elementary school at the age of six or seven years. The term pre-elementary seems more appropriate than preschool, since the nursery school and the kindergarten are part of the school system in many cities. Furthermore, pre-elementary concerns the child not only from two to six years old but from birth to entrance into the elementary school.

[1] Educational Policies Commission, *Educational Services for Young Children,* pp. 6–8, National Education Association, 1945.

[2] National Society for the Study of Education, *Early Childhood Education,* Part II, pp. 13 and 71, University of Chicago Press, 1947.

DEVELOPMENT OF PRE-ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

HISTORICAL CALENDAR—PRE-ELEMENTARY EDUCATION AND CONTEMPORANEOUS EVENTS

This calendar contains several significant developments in pre-elementary education and some contemporaneous events of political, social, and economic importance.

HISTORICAL CALENDAR

PRE-ELEMENTARY EDUCATION	CONTEMPORANEOUS EVENTS
1837—First kindergarten started by Froebel (Blankenburg, Germany)	1837—Great commercial panic prevailed in the United States
1856—First kindergarten founded in America (Watertown, Wisconsin)	1857—Dred Scott decision rendered by Supreme Court
1860—First English-speaking kindergarten opened in America (Boston)	1860—South Carolina ordinance for secession from Union adopted
1868—First kindergarten training school started (Boston)	1868—Southern states readmitted to Congress
1873—First kindergarten that endured established as part of public-school system (St. Louis)	1873—Financial panic swept through the country
1877—First church that included kindergarten in parish work (Trinity Church, Toledo)	1877—Phonograph machine invented by Thomas Edison
1880—Kindergarten departments organized in normal schools (Oshkosh, Wisconsin)	1880—Immigration treaty with China adopted
1884—Kindergarten department added to the National Education Association	1885—Grover Cleveland inaugurated President for first term
1892—International Kindergarten Union formed (now Association for Childhood Education)	1892—Bering Sea dispute with Canada referred to arbitration
1893—First settlement house that included kindergartens in its program organized (Northwestern University, Chicago)	1893—Columbian Exposition opened at Chicago
1897—Association of Day Nurseries of New York City organized	1897—William McKinley inaugurated President
1897—National Congress of Mothers called (Washington, D.C.)	1898—Spanish-American War fought

HISTORICAL CALENDAR—(*Continued*)

PRE-ELEMENTARY EDUCATION—(*Continued*)	CONTEMPORANEOUS EVENTS—(*Continued*)
1908—National Congress of Mothers and Parent-teacher Associations adopted as new name (now National Congress of Parents and Teachers)	1909—North Pole discovered by Robert Peary
1912—Federal Children's Bureau established in United States	1912—New Mexico and Arizona admitted as forty-seventh and forty-eighth states
1913—Division of Kindergarten Education created in United States Office of Education	1913—Parcel post system established by United States Post Office
1919—First nursery school established in America	1919—League of Nations proposal rejected by Senate
1921—Sheppard-Towner Maternity and Infant Act adopted by Congress	1921—Washington Arms Conference held
1933—Nursery kindergartens started by Federal Emergency Relief Act (later the Works Progress Administration)	1933—Prohibition Amendment repealed (Twenty-first Amendment)
1936—Legislation adopted by Congress for maternal, child-health, and child-welfare services (Social Security Act)	1936—Joint resolution for peace and security signed by Pan-American Peace Conference at Buenos Aires
1940—White House Conference on Children in a Democracy held	1940—Total population of United States recorded in decennial census as 131,669,275
1945—Idea of extending school services downward through years four and three endorsed by Educational Policies Commission	1945—Atomic bombs first dropped by the United States on Hiroshima and Nagasaki, Japan
1947—More than three million babies born during the year	1947—Taft-Hartley Labor Act passed by Congress
1948—Sixty million dollars voted by Congress for international children's emergency fund of United Nations	1948—Seven billion dollars voted by Congress for military and economic aid to European countries and China
1950—Mid-century White House Conference on Children and Youth called by President Truman	1950—Minimum wage floor of 75 cents per hour made effective in the United States

Pioneer Work in Pre-elementary Education

During the early nineteenth century many efforts were made to protect small children from neglect and overwork. In France Rousseau emphasized nature as a guide in the early education of young children, as pictured in *Émile*. Reverend Jean F. Oberlin instituted schools for very young children, which later developed into the *écoles maternelles* (mother schools). Among the English philanthropists and leaders were Robert Owen, who started the infant school movement, Samuel Wilderspin, James P. Greaves, and Rev. Charles Mayo. In Germany the leader in pre-elementary education was Froebel.

Pioneer Work of Froebel. The year 1837 was rich in important events in education. In America, Horace Mann was beginning his work as secretary of the state board of Massachusetts and Mary Lyon was opening her school for women which was to develop into Mt. Holyoke College; in Blankenburg, Germany, Friedrich Froebel was starting the first kindergarten called *Kleinkinderbeschaftigungsanstalt.* Froebel's school was the first exclusively for pre-elementary children. Not until 1840 was it called by its significant name of *Kindergarten* (children's garden). The kindergarten was his crowning contribution to educational thought and practice. He did not plan kindergartens just for the children of the poor, but for all classes. Froebel had a diversity of educational experience as a teacher in a preparatory school, as a tutor of three boys upon whom he practiced some of Rousseau's ideas, and as a friend living with a group of students at Pestalozzi's unique school at Yverdon where he was a devoted follower but intellectual critic of Pestalozzi.

His book, *The Education of Man,* is the account of his school for boys at Keilhau. This publication was followed by his *Autobiography* and *Mother Play and Nursery Songs.* His heart was broken when in 1851 the arbitrary Prussian Edict closed his kindergartens. He said quietly, "Such opposition throws us back on our principles." He then commenced to plan for the transference of his kindergarten work to America, where, he said, "A new life is freely unfolding itself and a new education of man will find a footing."

Early Kindergartens in America. The history of the early kindergarten in America is tersely presented in the following paragraph:

> The first kindergarten in America was opened in the home of Mrs. Carl Schurz in 1855 at Watertown, Wisconsin. In Boston in 1860, Elizabeth Peabody and her sister, Mrs. Horace Mann, established the work in a house on Pinckney Street. Also in Boston, but about 1868, Madam Kriege and her daughter, from Germany, opened what is believed to be the first training school having both afternoon and evening classes. The first state normal school kindergarten was at Oshkosh

Wisconsin, in 1880. An intimate friend of Miss Peabody, Emma Marwedel, moved to California and helped to establish a kindergarten in Los Angeles; Kate Douglas Wiggin, a student of hers, established the work in San Francisco; her friend, Sarah B. Cooper, became later the first president of the International Kindergarten Union, which later became the Association for Childhood Education. But it was in 1873 at St. Louis, under Supt. Wm. T. Harris, afterward United States Commissioner of Education, that Susan Blow succeeded in opening the first permanent kindergarten under the auspices of the public school.[3]

(Reproduced from School Management, courtesy of Museum of the City of New York.)

FIG. 5-3. Grand march in the free kindergarten established by the Society for Ethical Culture in 1879 in New York City.

The growth of the kindergarten may be divided roughly into four periods. (1) The pioneer stage, which had Boston as its center, stressed a few of the most important of Froebel's teachings. (2) The philanthropic era, which began in Florence, Massachusetts, valued the kindergarten largely as a reformatory or redemptive influence. (3) The strictly educational or national stage, which started in St. Louis, Missouri, accented scientific study of the principles underlying kindergarten education. (4) The fourth period, which started from Chicago and spread over the nation, is the maternal or parental era. Like the third stage, it is still extant. It aims at making the kindergarten a link between the home and the school, and at strengthening the foundations of family life. The kindergarten took on

[3] Sybil Shedd, "Kindergarten Centennial," *Texas Outlook*, October, 1937, p. 48.

an international aspect when the United Nations kindergarten was organized at Lake Success, New York, in 1947.

In connection with the second or philanthropic period, the first church to include the kindergarten in its parish work was the Trinity Church of Toledo, and the first social settlement in slum areas to establish a kindergarten was that of Northwestern University in Chicago. The third stage is an important one, and the credit for its launching goes to Susan E. Blow. Interested in Froebel's philosophy, she had attended training schools for kindergarten teachers in Germany and in New York City, where a young woman taught by Froebel's widow in Germany had started what became a training school for kindergartners. With the cooperation of her superintendent of schools, William T. Harris, Miss Blow opened in St. Louis in 1873 the first public-school kindergarten. About ten years later the school kindergarten movement had won so many adherents that the National Education Association added a kindergarten department. By 1900 many large city schools and several universities and normal schools had set up kindergarten departments. About 1910 the methods of Madame Maria Montessori of Italy gained many adherents in this country. Madame Montessori placed great emphasis upon sense training through special teaching materials and upon the freedom of the child. Others who have greatly influenced the American kindergarten through experimental schools are G. Stanley Hall, John Kraus, Maria Kraus-Bolte, Samuel Chester Parker, John Dewey, William H. Kilpatrick, Anne Moore, Alice Temple, Nina Vandewalker, Laura Zirbes, Patty Smith Hill, Elizabeth Harrison, and Edna Dean Baker.[4]

The federal government, through its Children's Bureau, established in the Department of Labor under Grace Abbott in 1912, and its Kindergarten Division organized a year later in the Office of Education, has given much impetus to the kindergarten movement. It gave substantial aid through the establishment of nursery schools as part of the federal emergency education program.

Beginnings of Parental Education. With the evolution of the kindergarten there gradually developed an interest on the part of parents, particularly mothers, in a study of early childhood. Meetings were started for this purpose. In 1894 a mothers' conference was called by a kindergarten teacher in Chicago. Three years later the National Congress of Mothers was organized in Washington, D.C., by a group interested in little children, the home, the school, and the community. In 1900 a formal charter was granted to this organization, which is now called the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. The parent-teacher associations are local, county, state, national, and international in scope. Their major objective is child welfare.

[4] *Ibid.*

A powerful agent in the development of child health, parental education, and maternal care has been the federal Children's Bureau, already mentioned, which administered what was officially known as the Maternity and Infancy Act of 1921. This law for several years provided federal grants of money to each state accepting the terms of the act and making financial and administrative arrangements for it. It has been supplanted by the Social Security Act of 1936 which, in addition to care for crippled children, provides for maternal care, child health, and child welfare services.[5]

Origin and Development of Nursery Education. The genesis of nursery education is described thus:

> Nursery education is certainly not new. Some time after the dawn of biological history, parents began to foster their young. . . . In primitive life, the parents, or usually one parent, assumed the responsibility for training as well as caring for the young. In primitive man this arrangement still obtains. In Samoa the child is taught in the home. In pioneer civilizations the adult of the family gave what training the child received. With the growth in cultural requirements, and the increasing complexity of socialized living, specialization in function and in vocation appeared. . . . And thus when the problem of formalizing the teaching of the child arose, specialists—teachers, tutors, governesses, nursemaids—were employed "to perform this function." But the responsibility still rests with the parent; the task may be delegated but that is all.[6]

Although the establishment of schools for this delegated task of nursery education is rather new in the educational system of the United States, it has long received attention in other countries.

The founding of nursery schools in the United States illustrates the fact that sometimes the first is last. Although in the chronology of the child's life the nursery school precedes the kindergarten, yet historically the development of the nursery school came last. The major growth of the nursery movement in this country has taken place in the last few decades.

The kindergarten and the nursery school have a common origin in the early infant school, which appears to have been philanthropic in purpose. As early as 1897 the Association of Day Nurseries of New York City was organized. Although the first public nursery school was started in 1919, the United States had less than three hundred nursery schools up to the advent of the federal nursery-school program in 1933, and most of these schools were under private or semiprivate control. The family-life education program of the now defunct WPA, which included nursery schools,

[5] For a description of these services, see Educational Policies Commission, *Federal Activities in Education*, pp. 55–60, National Education Assocation, 1939.

[6] W. E. Blatz, D. Millichamp, and M. Fletcher: *Nursery Education, Theory and Practice*, pp. 3, 8, 9, Morrow, 1935.

parent education, and homemaking, greatly stimulated the development of pre-elementary education during the depression era of the early 1930's.

Many institutions of higher learning have also been active in the education of the pre-elementary school child. The kindergarten-primary department of Teachers College, Columbia University, opened a nursery school in 1921. The Merrill-Palmer School of Homemaking in Detroit established the first nursery school to be used as a laboratory for the education of young girls. The first land-grant college to inaugurate a nursery school in connection with its home economics department was Iowa State College in 1924. The next year Cornell and Ohio State Universities started similar schools. Probably the first nursery school for the use of high-school students in homemaking was in Highland Park, Michigan. The accumulated influence of all these efforts has markedly affected pre-elementary education in (1) the home, (2) the nursery school, and (3) the kindergarten.

HOME CARE AND TRAINING

The modern home has been referred to ironically as a place for boys and girls to park when they have no other place to go. Although this may be partly true, nevertheless most homes are more than mere houses.

The home is the child's first school. It is there that he learns to talk, to walk, to play, to work, and to perform other basic habits. No teacher can afford to underestimate the power of the home, for it is a physical, mental, social, emotional, and spiritual center for the child.

Parental and Family-life Education[7]

The child's first teachers are his parents; hence they should have definite knowledge of and guidance in their responsibilities and duties.

Parental education is any form of education whose primary aim is to help parents deal more effectively and more understandingly with their children. In the earlier stages this movement stressed almost exclusively the study of child care and development on the part of the fathers and mothers. Since 1930, however, the emphasis has shifted; parental education has become "parent-centered" as well as "child-centered."[8]

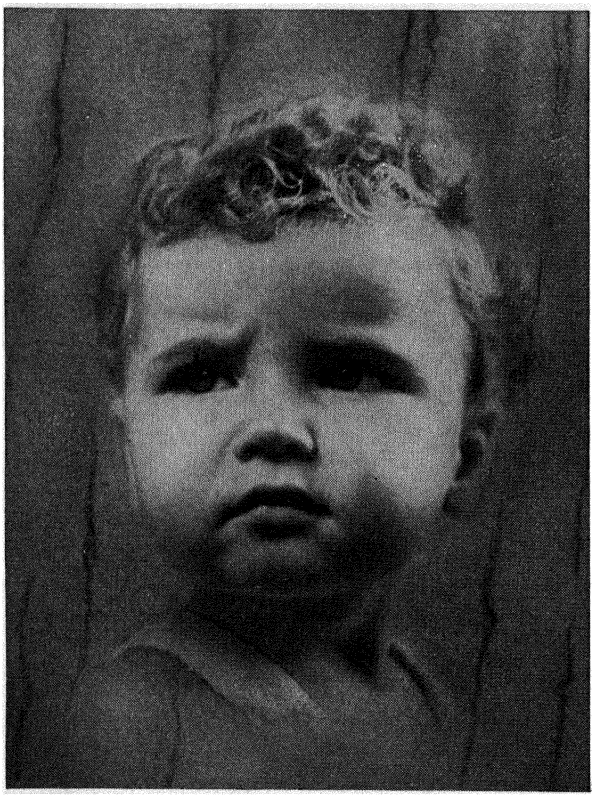
With this dual and immediate objective of better and happier children and also parents is coupled the ultimate aim of a better civilization. This information may be offered to young people long before they marry and have children, while they are still in high school, college, or continuation school. Usually, however, it is given to adults who are already parents, and it may embrace prenatal and postnatal care as well as child study.

The story is told of a visiting nurse who called on an expectant mother

[7] This topic is discussed further in Unit IX.

[8] Adapted from *Encyclopedia of Modern Education*, p. 573, Philosophical Library, 1943.

in a slum district to help her. "So you're tryin' to tell me how to raise my children," the mother shouted, "me what's buried seven of 'em!" Efforts are being bent toward changing such an attitude. Some parent-teacher associations sponsor the project of enrolling expectant mothers in classes that meet with the school nurse or doctor. Many city, county, and state health departments distribute free literature on the care of mothers and



(Courtesy Marble Institute of America)

FIG. 5-4. A young child wonders what it is all about!

babies. Uncle Sam's best seller is a publication of the Government Printing Office entitled *Infant Care.*

Among the organizations which today promote the study of children and family life are the National Council of Parent Education, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, the Child Study Association of America, the American Association of University Women, and the American Home Economics Association. Parent education has also become a part of the regular work of departments in some states. As early as 1926 California created its Bureau of Child Study and Parent Education, using a special

grant of money from the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Foundation. Many universities, as well as state departments of education, have received financial aid for child study from similar foundations.

Colleges and Family-life Education. Many colleges are performing significant services in the fields of preparental and postparental guidance. Vassar College, for example, in 1926 inaugurated an Institute of Euthenics —the improvement of the race through environment. Its initial objective was to offer to Vassar alumnae who were mothers the results of scientific research in learning, human behavior, child development, and the techniques of homemaking. The study of pre-elementary children has been advanced by numerous child institutes, such as the one established at Teachers College, Columbia University, in 1924 under the name Institute for Child Welfare Research. At the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station the plans definitely made for school-parent activities and parental education include conferences during registration, teacher and school contacts, contacts with other staff members, and provisions for the study of child development.[9] Beginning with the enrollment of mothers during pregnancy, the Harvard Center for Research in Child Health and Development has followed for several years the growth and development of over two hundred boys and girls from birth. The Yale Clinic of Child Development and numerous others have been instrumental in stimulating and organizing a number of important studies and experiments particularly relating to the problems of infants and young children. Monographs published by the Society for Research in Child Development of the National Research Council contain many interesting and helpful scientific studies of child development.

Public Schools and Parental and Family-life Education. Of all the various agencies promoting parental education, the public school is probably the one that offers the greatest possibilities for development.

The most important thing the public schools can do is to collaborate with parents, both fathers and mothers, so that all may gain sympathetic understanding of young children and knowledge of how they may help these children grow healthily and happily. Public schools can discharge their responsibilities to young children and their parents in different ways . . . :

1. *Well-baby clinics.* Public schools in either thickly or sparsely settled areas cooperating with public health services may provide space for well-baby clinics for children from birth to two years, and may assist parents and nurses to develop parent education programs as part of the prenatal and well-baby clinic services. This service may be extended to older children and their parents.

2. *Guided observation in play groups.* Small groups of two-, three-, and four-year-old children may be brought together for one morning or one afternoon a week under the guidance of a trained nursery-school teacher. After an hour's

[9] Ruth Updegraff, *Practice in Preschool Education*, p. 273, McGraw-Hill, 1938.

observation, the parents and a person trained in parent education may discuss what they have seen, the meaning of the children's behavior at home and in the play group, and how these children may be guided toward fuller adjustment and development. . . .

3. *Family consultation centers.* In such centers, conferences for individual parents and children may be provided, as well as group opportunities for both children and grownups by means of guidance nurseries, play groups, and study-discussion groups for parents. . . . In these centers the services of specialists in homemaking, health, mental hygiene, dentistry, and nutrition may be coordinated for the benefit of children and their parents.[10]

The public school may become the nucleus of the parental education program in the community, with the cooperation of all the agencies interested in child welfare, especially the home.

Early Childhood Education in the Home

Modern society treasures child life:

> Children are the basic human resource, important in themselves as personalities and important as a prospectus of what society will become. What children experience during their early years strongly affects their value to themselves and to society. . . . Education is concerned with the enhancement of the individual at all ages and with developing the abilities, understandings, and traits which he needs as a happy and contributing member of our society.[11]

Prenatal and postnatal care help the child to get a good start in life. The foundations of life are laid in the home, which is the citadel of early childhood.

Role of the Home. Pestalozzi was intensely interested in home education. His last formal speech, given when he was more than eighty years old, was entitled, "The Simplest Methods Whereby to Educate a Child at Home from the Cradle to the Sixth Year." The chief objectives of the training and education of the child, up to the time he enters upon the period of group living away from parents, are those found in a good home. The Children's Charter pledges for every child a home and that love and security which a home provides; and for that child who must receive foster care, the nearest substitute for his own home.

In the early family life of the child, the home is preeminently the educational and social center: it is both the school, with the parents as teachers, and a social laboratory of human relationships. Consequently the home should be a well-designed and appropriately furnished place for

[10] National Society for the Study of Education, *American Education in the Post-war Period*, Part I, "Curriculum Reconstruction," pp. 12–13, University of Chicago Press, 1945.

[11] Educational Policies Commission, *Educational Services for Young Children, op. cit.*, pp. 5–6.

living and learning. In a world of change, the child should find the home a haven of hope, a place made increasingly secure by local, state, and national efforts in child and maternal welfare.

NURSERY EDUCATION

Scope of Nursery Education

The educational system in the United States was not planned from the bottom up. It is like a long and strong ladder which lacks several rungs at the bottom. To supply these missing rungs, the nursery school and kindergarten are being established. Most adults have never attended either nursery school or kindergarten, since the development of these institutions is of relatively recent date.

The term "nursery" carries many connotations, according to Arnold Gesell:

> It variously suggests the children's room at home, a residential institution for children without a home, a day home for babies with one or both parents working, and more recently the appellation "nursery school" has come to suggest a place where mothers with and mothers without limousines may leave a child of preschool age.[12]

The day nursery and the nursery school are the most common forms of organized education for very early childhood.

> A school for very young children (eighteen months to four years of age) is commonly called a nursery school. This is not to be confused with the day nursery, a much older institution, which is a social welfare agency established to give day care to the child of the working mother.
>
> As its name implies, the nursery school has characteristics of both the nursery and the school. Because the children are so young, many responsibilities, such as feeding, usually associated with the home nursery have to be assumed by the teacher in the nursery school. Nevertheless, the nursery school is more than a home nursery, for its teachers are trained in the field of early childhood education and its procedures are consciously planned in terms of the child's total development.[13]

The nursery school in a sense is a downward extension of the kindergarten so that children at an earlier age may benefit by their removal from home environment for part of the day and by association with others of their own age.

General Types. Obviously no two nursery schools are alike. Some of the types listed in *Educational Services for Young Children* are:

1. *The nursery school within an elementary school.* This arrangement suggests itself, from the experience of the kindergarten, as the most advisable arrangement. The experience of the kindergarten also shows that a "standoffish" attitude on

[12] Arnold Gesell, *The Preschool Child*, p. 38, Houghton, 1923.

[13] *Encyclopedia of Modern Education, op. cit.*, p. 550.

the part of the new unit may retard progress toward coordination. The regular grades of the elementary school need, in turn, to accept the nursery school as they have accepted the kindergarten as an integral part of the education for young children. . . .

2. *The nursery school and secondary school.* Boys and girls of junior-high-school age are much interested in the care and development of very young children. By observing and assisting periodically in the preschool groups or in families having preschool children, the pupils in homemaking classes in the junior high school will find excellent opportunity to increase their understanding of home management, of their own family relations, and of their younger brothers and sisters. Similar advantages are afforded the senior-high-school homemaking and social studies classes. . . .

3. *The nursery school as a part of a new administrative unit of early childhood education.* Many educators would group the nursery-kindergarten-primary grades together as a single administrative unit. These grades include children from three through eight years of age. Certainly these years and the grades they represent—nursery school, kindergarten, and grades 1, 2, and 3—have much in common. These are years when children needed detailed guidance from parents and teachers. . . .

4. *The separate nursery school.* No matter how effective a pattern of articulation of the nursery school and kindergarten with the other units is worked out, there will frequently be separate nursery schools both privately and publicly operated. . . . There are also nursery schools, some of which may be publicly operated, in connection with various housing projects. The private nursery schools will probably continue to increase. . . . Some of them are connected with teachers colleges, universities, research or clinical centers. They may be used as demonstration schools. These nursery schools have made and will make a large contribution to public education.[14]

Unfortunately some private nursery schools are "fly-by-night" agencies, here today and gone next year. Others are day-care centers and cannot properly be called schools. Within these types are many duplications and variations. For example, one may be an open-air school, and another for crippled children as that at Rainbow Hospital in Cleveland, Ohio. Another variable is the length of the school day. Most of them are full-day, although several operate on a half-day schedule. (See Appendix V for Essentials for Nursery Education.)

Another Classification. According to their main source of financial support, nursery schools, as well as kindergartens, may be classified as: (1) public, (2) parochial, (3) private, and (4) federally financed.[15]

The number of nursery schools that are a part of the local public-school system and supported entirely by the local board of education is very small.

[14] Educational Policies Commission, *Educational Services for Young Children, op. cit.*, pp. 21–26.

[15] Mary Dabney Davis, *Schools for Children under Six*, p. 23, Superintendent of Documents, 1947.

When there seemingly is not enough school money available to educate the primary pupils properly, obviously the preprimary children will not be given much consideration.

Aims of Nursery School

Philosophy of Nursery Education. The three main foci in the educational philosophy of nursery education are indicated as follows by the National Association for Nursery Education:

> The very keystone of democracy, respect for individuality, is also the keystone of a good nursery program. The curriculum has as its basis the needs and interests of the children in the group. At very few educational levels are the needs of individuals and the ways of meeting them as well synchronized as they are in the good nursery school.
>
> Since a democratic culture must of necessity be made up of thinking individuals, a second responsibility of our education is to stimulate independent, fearless, creative thinking. The well-planned nursery school offers a myriad of opportunities for investigation, experimentation, problem solving, imaginativeness, and creativeness—activities which require children to develop their intellectual powers.
>
> Another characteristic of the democratic group is its emphasis on cooperative effort in making decisions and solving problems. Here again nursery education can and does lay the groundwork of social attitudes which makes this cooperative effort possible.[16]

This preschool philosophy is shared by both the nursery schools and the kindergartens, although with different points of emphasis. The objectives of the nursery school are somewhat contingent upon the type of follow-up institutions, either the kindergarten, or the first grade, whose objectives are in turn modified by the child's previous experience.

Major Outcomes of Nursery School. The all-round benefits that parents of a normal child can expect from a good nursery school are summarized thus:

> First, the physical effects which will result from a well-planned routine with balanced activity and rest, play out-of-doors, and for the full-day school, nutritious meals.
>
> Second, the mental effects of a rich environment, varied experiences, and contact with adults who are ready to answer the child's questions and to encourage him to find out for himself.
>
> Third, a gain in social maturity as a result of contacts with more adults and with many more children than is possible in most homes.
>
> Fourth, a richer emotional life, perhaps a relief from strained relations in the family, perhaps an encouragement of latent precocity, but surely a gradual learning of what emotional responses are acceptable to others and advance in the understanding of the when, why, and how of emotional expression.

[16] Gertrude E. Chittenden, Margaret Nesbitt, and Betsey Williams, *Essentials of Nursery Education*, pp. 7–8, National Association for Nursery Education, 1948.

Fifth, an increase in appreciation of the home—a heightened interest in his toys, more varied types of play, a happy reunion with his parents when no one is tired out or bored from too prolonged association with the others.[17]

These benefits accrue from a rich program of education for little children.

Program and Procedures

The Curriculum. The curriculum of the nursery school, if one can technically call it such, is broad in scope, for it is planned to meet all the needs of growing youngsters from two to four years of age.

(Courtesy Bureau of Research Service, University of Illinois.)

Fig. 5-5. Young artists washing their hands after painting.

To think first of the needs of the child and then to provide environmentally for these needs is the sequence and *modus operandi* of our curriculum construction. In one sense it may be said that the child is thought of generically, as representing a type of individual whose growth patterns lie within certain limits. In another sense, the school must consider each child as an individual and study not only his similarities to other children but his differences from others of his kind.[18]

In line with these needs, Ruth Updegraff and her associates in the Preschool Laboratories at the University of Iowa have prepared for preschool groups curriculum activities that seek to promote physical care and guid-

[17] Josephine C. Foster and Marion L. Mattson, *Nursery School Education*, p. 12, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1939.

[18] Ruth Updegraff, *op. cit.*, p. viii.

ance, intellectual development, language and speech, personality development and social behavior, and esthetic development.[19]

Authorities agree that it is necessary to look upon the pupil as a learner from birth and to realize that the habits of learning are more important than the actual material learned. The learning activities are of two general types:

> The child's nursery school day is divided into two main periods, routine and free activity. Routine periods are those in which the child is learning personal care, how to wash and dress himself and how to satisfy adequately the bodily needs of eating, sleeping, and elimination. In free play he is developing general abilities and interests. In the one emphasis is placed upon self-control, and the other opportunity is given for self-expression.[20]

These activities are usually organized into a flexible schedule.

Program of Activities. The planning of a nursery-school program depends a great deal upon the length of the daily session. Some schedules cover only 2 to 4 hours, whereas some all-day nurseries are planned on a 10-hour day basis. The activities usually cover the hours from 8:30 A.M. to 3:00 or 3:30 P.M., or longer if necessary, for children of working mothers. The following is an illustrative list of everyday activities that provide the requisite learning experiences:

1. *Health supervision.* Each day before the child comes in contact with the other children, it is important that a registered nurse or some other competent person examine the child to see that skin, throat, eyes, and nose show no symptoms of infectious disease. . . .
2. *Health practices.* Various procedures carried out in the course of the daily care of the children, such as toileting, or the serving of food, fish-liver oil, and water, present certain health risks. Such routines must be considered from the point of view of health protection and be utilized to establish desirable health practices.
3. *Eating.* The hot dinner and midmorning and midafternoon "snack" should be served at regular hours at small, low tables, with chairs of correct height for the different ages. The three- and four-year-olds should have opportunities to serve themselves. . . .
4. *Sleep and rest.* Young children need frequent periods for rest and relaxation. They should have a 10- to 15-minute rest period immediately before the noon meal. Frequently, there are some children in the group who need additional rest periods. . . .
5. *Toileting and washing.* It will be necessary for the teacher to observe the children's natural intervals and arrange for toileting on an individual basis. It is possible, however, that regular toileting periods will have to be arranged for small groups of children.
6. *Work-play period indoors.* Children need an opportunity to reproduce familiar adult activities through dramatic play, to manipulate materials such as

[19] *Ibid.*, pp. 48–273.

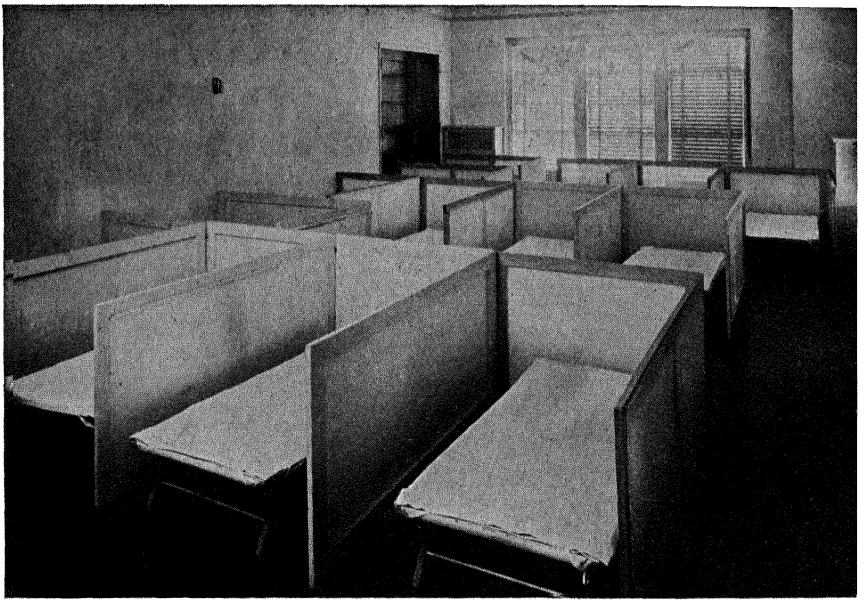
[20] W. E. Blatz, D. Millichamp, and M. Fletcher, *op. cit.*, p. 31.

clay, paints, crayons, peg boards, blocks, wood, hammer, and nails. They also need to look at books and pictures and to respond to music. There should be times when they may tell one another or discuss together what happens at their homes, and during their work and play periods at school. . . .

7. *Work-play period outdoors.* Children should have daily opportunity for outdoor activities. . . .[21]

This shows that the nursery school gives consideration to the child's play, work, food, and sleep.

In some schools, the age groups are separated. Most groups have half-day sessions. The schedules are adjusted by the teacher to meet the needs



(*Courtesy of New York State College of Home Economics at Ithaca, Fenner Studio, and Architectural Record.*)
FIG. 5-6. Sleeping provisions when no special rest room is available.

of each age level. Naturally a good nursery school takes into account the home conditions under which the child lives. It does not exist as an isolated unit but is an integral part of the community, supplementing other agencies supported by the people.

Nursery-school Staff.[22] The superior nursery school has a balanced,

[21] National Society for the Study of Education, *American Education in the Postwar Period*, Part I, "Curriculum Construction," *op. cit.*, pp. 24–26.

[22] For further information, see National Society for the Study of Education, *Early Childhood Education*, *op. cit.*, Chap. VIII, "The Staff and Its Preparation," and Ilse Forest, *Early Years at School*, Chap. XV, "The Teacher in Early Childhood Education," McGraw-Hill, 1949.

competent staff of teachers and also of specialists in parent education and family life, mental hygiene, nursing, medicine, nutrition, and cooking. Small nursery schools often pool their resources in order to obtain all the needed talent for working with young children. It is essential that all staff workers understand and like little children and their parents. Teachers and other personnel workers are discussed in Units XI and XII.

Current Practices in Nursery-school Education

By way of recapitulation, some of the many interesting and significant practices current in nursery schools are mentioned briefly. The *status in quo*, however, may not necessarily represent the best ideas and highest ideals.

The terminology employed in early childhood education is being revised. For example, "child-and-mother school" or "family-life school" may replace "nursery school." "Preschool" or "prekindergarten" as applied to nursery school is being discarded, since the terms suggest modification of a program designed for older children. The entire period of growth from two to eight years of age is being considered as a unit for guidance and instruction.

The scope of the nursery school is being broadened. Now it is not merely a safe place to leave a child, rather it is an educational center for all-round growth. Emphasis is placed upon emotional as well as mental, physical, and social adjustments.

The clientele is changing and enlarging. The nursery school is no longer either a luxury for a few favored children of well-to-do families or a pauper's home. The middle economic group is beginning to reap the benefit of preschool service. Children in new housing projects and in rural areas are being included. A marked trend is the provision of nursery-school education for exceptional children. Many handicapped boys and girls profit even more from early training than do normal youngsters.

More attention is being devoted to nursery-school readiness. Among the main factors considered in determining a child's readiness for group experiences are his age and general maturity; his ability to give and take, to form attachments to other adults besides his mother, and to exchange affection and interests with his peers; and his desire to come to nursery school.[23] Pre-nursery-school parties are often used as an orientation device.

Physical facilities of the modern nursery school include an exposure with plenty of light; ground-floor quarters that are attractive, clean, and safe; space for playing, working, eating, sleeping, bathing, and cooking; and direct exits to a covered veranda and enclosed shaded playground. The buildings are being made as attractive as better homes.

Research and observation play an important part in the program. The

[23] Lili E. Peller, "Nursery School Readiness," *Childhood Education*, September, 1946, pp. 28–33.

nursery school is thus becoming a clearinghouse for improved homemaking policies and practices. College and high-school home economics departments are establishing nursery schools as observation and practice centers, for example at Vassar College and in the high school in Highland Park, Michigan. Thus the unit trains preschool children, adolescents, and adults for participation in wholesome family living. The staffs are producers, consumers, and interpreters of research in child growth and other areas of early childhood education.

(Courtesy of Esther Born and Architectural Record. José Villagren, Garcia and Enrique De La Mara, Architects.)

FIG. 5-7. Three degrees of openness in a school home. This "hogar infantil" in Balbuena, Mexico City, has enclosed rooms with folding doors, a covered veranda, and an open play space.

Modern programs of early childhood education include guidance for both parents, so that they are playing a greater role in assisting the nursery staff. Thus the gains effected by the children in both school and home are consolidated.

Parent and family-life education has become a part of the regular work of many state departments of education. Some states have established a Council of Parental Education to assist the state departments in developing programs of parent education and nursery schools. A position, Consultant in Family-life Education, was established in the United States Office of Education in order to assist the states in developing programs of education for home and family life to reach both sexes and all age groups.

The increase in the number of babies and parents has increased the need for "baby sitters." Some high schools and public health units give courses or lessons for girls who take baby sitting seriously.

The nursery schools are reexamining their function in the community. Demonstration centers for community programs in home and family-life education have been established in several centers in the United States.

Child accounting systems, which take into consideration the whole child, are being improved. This includes a continuing census of the number of potential nursery-school children. Cumulative recording and evaluating are increasing.

More and more states are providing some form of financial aid for nursery schools. Various other laws are being enacted to aid the nursery school and the young child. For example, many state adoption laws now require a trial period in the home of the prospective parents before the adoption is made final.

State departments of education are providing more guidance for and supervision over nursery schools, including higher standards of certification for teachers. Their personnel is being enlarged and improved. Some nurseries have specialized workers such as recreation directors, dietitians, parent-education specialists, home counselors, and other social case workers. Welfare services, such as those performed by visiting housekeepers, are helping to improve conditions in the home. These "traveling mothers" render many services for children. The health program includes the regular services of a physician and daily inspection by a qualified person.

Future of Nursery Schools

The nursery school today occupies a marginal position just outside the public-school system, somewhat similar to that held for many years by the kindergarten. When kindergarten education becomes a universal or compulsory part of the school system, the nursery school may then enter on a mandatory-on-petition basis and eventually take its place as the beginning unit in the American public-school system. As the Educational Policies Commission states:

> The nursery school now is the new child in the family of public education. If it is wanted and accepted, it will win a place for itself and enhance the value of other members. At first it may seem a stranger, but after it has made its contribution felt, we in public education will gradually realize that our family circle was incomplete until it arrived.[24]

Thus the future of the work lies in coordinating the nursery schools with the next higher educational units, especially the kindergarten.

[24] Educational Policies Commission, *op. cit.*, pp. 27–28.

KINDERGARTEN EDUCATION

Scope of Kindergarten Education

Kindergarten education usually covers the period of schooling just before the child enters the first grade, whether he has had nursery-school experience or not. The entrance age is generally set at four or five years, although some subkindergartens admit younger children. Several recent studies of eye growth and reading readiness reveal that a child six years old chronologically may not always be ready for reading experience and that he can more profitably spend some time in the preprimary or kindergarten group. Naturally the kindergarten differs somewhat from the nursery school.

Nursery School and Kindergarten. The nursery school may be compared, rather than contrasted, with the kindergarten. Compared with kindergarten, the nursery school admits younger children, generally from two to four years; operates usually on a full-day schedule; keeps a closer touch with the home because the child is younger; provides more opportunities for parental education; stresses more the physical care and development of the child; gives more attention to eating, sleeping, and kindred habits; gives more guidance to children in learning independence in self-control, personal care, respect for property rights, etc.; shows the child how to do a thing with a minimum of telling or explaining; utilizes less appeal to group opinion; has equipment and supplies on a smaller scale; has fewer children per teacher; and does not enroll so many children as the kindergarten.[25] The differences, however, are primarily those of degree. As the child goes from the nursery school to the kindergarten, the scope of his learning experiences widens.

The separate problems of the nursery school and the kindergarten are joined in the common responsibility of providing continuous, broadening, and deepening experiences for the children. Among the numerous means of correlation between the nursery school and the kindergarten are: accurate record keeping of the child's progress, the planning of teacher-education programs so that prospective nursery and kindergarten teachers see their work as one, the elimination of excess emphasis upon organization units, and the development of a comprehensive philosophy of education that carries through from nursery school to adult education.

Kindergarten and Home. Since for many children the first contact with an actual school situation comes in the kindergarten, a constant, vital relationship should exist between the kindergarten and the home. This relationship may be promoted by various means. Some kindergarten teachers send daily reports to the parents on items such as food difficulties, the amount of sleep or play, or emotional disturbances. The mothers may also

[25] Grace Langdon has prepared a list of 31 items in her *Similarities and Differences in Nursery School, Kindergarten, and First Grade*, pp. 270–276, Day, 1933.

inform the teachers about the daily home life and antecedents of the children. In many communities, a home visitation plan releases each kindergarten teacher one afternoon a week to call upon parents. A home visit by the teacher and a school visit by the mother provide direct means of solving jointly many perplexing problems.

Types of Kindergarten. Kindergartens may also be classified by type according to the general categories mentioned for nurseries, *viz.*, research, teacher education, home economics, social service, behavior problems, cooperative, summer school, nursery and kindergarten combined, private, federally supported, and public-school kindergarten. The two most common forms of affiliation are with private interests and the public school. According to methodology of teaching, kindergartens are sometimes named as Froebelian, Montessorian, or progressive. Whatever the label, the prevailing type of kindergarten is that which seeks to educate the whole child from four to six years through supplementing the home, the nursery school, and other educational agencies.

Enrollments. Although most kindergartens are found in cities of 2500 population and over, the increase in consolidated elementary schools is bringing the advantages of the kindergarten to many rural communities. Although kindergartens are theoretically for children from four to six, the ages actually range from two to seven years. Owing to the increased birth rate, the kindergarten enrolls many more pupils than formerly. Still, only about 70 per cent of the six-year-olds are in school. Millions of children miss the advantages of kindergarten because many communities do not provide this opportunity. Much pioneering still remains to be done if the purposes and program of the kindergarten are to be widely accepted.

Aims of Kindergarten

For those who have not attended a nursery school, the kindergarten is an extension of home life; for others, it is a continuation of the work begun in the home and the nursery school. The general aim of the kindergarten, which is unhampered by requirements in subject matter and skills, is to give the child abundant opportunity for enriched experiences.

More specific aims are found in the following list of answers supplied by parents to the question, "Why do I send my child to kindergarten?"

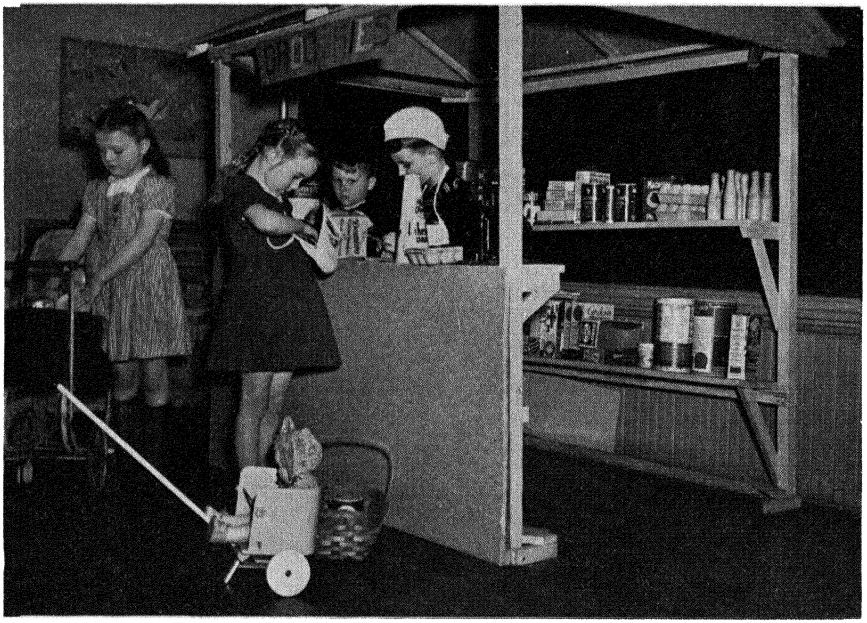
I want my child to have a strong body and to know how to care for it. When he goes to kindergarten, right health habits will be practiced and established.

I want my child to be able to live, work, and play acceptably with other people. In the kindergarten, as one of a group of children of his own age and under the wise guidance of a carefully trained teacher, he will have daily practice in sharing his possessions, controlling his anger, bearing the responsibility of his own acts, giving up his desires for the good of the group, acting as a leader, taking the part of a good follower.

I want my child to discover interests and activities that will help him in a wise use of his leisure time. In the kindergarten he will be introduced by varied experiences to the delight of music, art, literature, nature, and games.

I want my child to discover early in life the joy and satisfaction that come from the ability to make things with his hands. In the kindergarten he will find the environment, the materials, and the guidance that will stimulate him to use his hands with satisfactory results.

I want my child to be able to go from one school grade to another without strain or fear of failure. The kindergarten will prepare him for the more formal grades



(*Courtesy of Public Schools, Zeeland, Michigan*)

FIG. 5-8. Kindergarten children playing store. Frequent trips to the real grocery store are made.

by introducing him to school as a happy place, by enlarging his vocabulary, by giving him experiences in overcoming difficulties, and by increasing his general knowledge of school life.

Finally, I want my child to be happy and successful throughout life. Since habits and attitudes are largely formed during the early formative years, the influence of the kindergarten reaches into adult life.[26]

These aims take shape and substance through a full program of carefully planned activities, based upon sound physiological and psychological principles.

[26] Julia Mason, Olga Adams, and Ellen Olson, *Kindergartens for Illinois*, pp. 4–16, Illinois Association for Childhood Education, 1948.

Program and Procedures

Principles Underlying the Modern Kindergarten Program. The kindergarten program is extremely flexible—it has no required subjects. The key principle is learning by doing. As the late Catherine Mackenzie has stated:

> Today's kindergartens are geared more to scientific research and less to metaphysics than those of a half century ago. The symbolism of the circle and the cube served its purpose and has gone into kindergarten limbo along with the small play materials and their prescribed use, the weaving of intricate patterns, and sewing of fine seams.
>
> Nowadays the program is much more flexible, the play materials big and more varied and used freely. But learning by doing is still the underlying idea. Kindergarten children do things, make things, go on trips, hear stories, sing. This was Froebel's challenge to the concept of learning by precept and from books. And the kindergarten is still working at it.[27]

Among the many and varied factors considered in planning the program are the ages of children, their interests and needs, the number and preparation of personnel, the place of parents in the program, the hours of school, the weather, the arrangement of rooms, the facilities and equipment, and the space involved.[28]

The psychological and physiological principle that colors most of the activities in the kindergarten is that of *readiness.* As early as 1915 John Dewey said, "Maturity is the result of slow growth of powers. Ripening takes time: it cannot be hurried without harm." The kindergarten therefore withholds certain formal training, such as instruction in actual reading, but it provides rich experiences that will help prepare the child for the elementary grades. These experiences include enriching the child's speaking vocabulary; training in speech through careful enunciation and pronunciation; creating interest in books through storytelling and looking at books; developing left-to-right eye movement through reading a story told in pictures; stimulating arithmetic readiness through counting objects and seeing numbers on calendars; and facilitating development in writing through drawing, cutting, and other forms of eye and hand coordination, including printing one's own name.[29] The readiness goal and others are implemented through a flexible schedule of activities.

Schedule of Activities. Most kindergartens have a morning and an afternoon group. The following is an illustrative morning program:

[27] Catharine Mackenzie, "Parent and Child," *New York Times*, January 5, 1947 p. 32.

[28] Educational Policies Commission, *op. cit.*, p. 29.

[29] John O. Goodman, *Nursery-Kindergarten Education*, pp. 5–7, University of Wyoming, 1949.

MORNING SESSION

9:00– 9:25	Free activity (child inspection). Activity may be coloring, drawing, clay, pegs, beads, puzzles, hammer and nails, books, blocks, toys. (Activities must be completed.)
9:25– 9:30	Children put room in order.
9:30–10:00	Music—tone work, songs, rhythms, dances.
10:00–10:20	Health—rest. Go to toilets, wash hands. Drinks—relaxation on mats —milk.
10:20–10:40	Literature—stories, poems, conversation. Dramatizations Tuesday and Thursday; reading readiness Monday, Wednesday, and Friday.
10:40–10:50	Work period—projects, group and individual.
10:50–11:00	Change shoes—put on hats and coats. Dismiss individually or in groups as soon as children are ready.[30]

(Courtesy of Federal Security Agency.)

FIG. 5-9. Early childhood education out of doors.

As this schedule indicates, the kindergarten provides a carefully selected, educative environment replete with sensory impressions and with materials stimulating to the self-activity of the young child.

With due respect to Froebel as a great pioneer, the tendency for many years was to cling too tenaciously to his principles. Today in many kindergartens little of the traditional is left, owing to discoveries of oculists and

[30] *Ibid.*, p. 16.

nerve specialists. For example, these scientists have urged less use of minute materials which call into play the small undeveloped muscles of the eye and hand, and greater use of large materials to exercise the muscles of the arms, back, and abdomen. Swings, sleds, carts, large blocks, ropes, and similar equipment are symbols of the new kindergarten.

Current Practices in Kindergartens

Current kindergarten practices supplementing those reported previously for nursery schools include the following:

The kindergarten is losing its status as an isolated part of the school system and is being incorporated as part of a primary unit embracing the nursery school and kindergarten, plus the lower two or three grades. There is more intervisitation between nursery-school, kindergarten, and first-grade teachers.

The transition from kindergarten to first grade is facilitated through the emphasis upon reading readiness. The modern kindergarten, while not "teaching reading," provides indirect preparation for reading. It is copiously stocked with books suitable for children of the kindergarten age. But all six-year-olds are no longer assumed to be *ipso facto* ready to read.

Many subjects such as fine arts and science are filtering down into the kindergarten. Almost every topic under the sun is discussed. Much emphasis is centered upon creative self-expression.

Many multisensory aids, such as phonograph records and films, help the child to understand the wondrous world of material things. They also assist the teacher in interpreting to parents and public the role of the kindergarten. Radio and television are being used increasingly, especially in parental education. A "kindergarten of the air" was first established in Perth, Australia, and later another in Toronto, Canada. The latter, designed especially for rural areas, includes in its program health talks, songs, stories, suggestions for handwork, and radio-side games.

As with the nursery school, more kindergartens are being established for exceptional children. Greater attention is now given to psychiatric and psychological treatment of emotionally disturbed children.

Early childhood evaluation is more comprehensive and functional than in yesteryears. Parents help supplement the anecdotal records of developmental processes; these are collected and interpreted by teachers and other members of the kindergarten staff. Mental and achievement tests form ancillary aids in guidance.

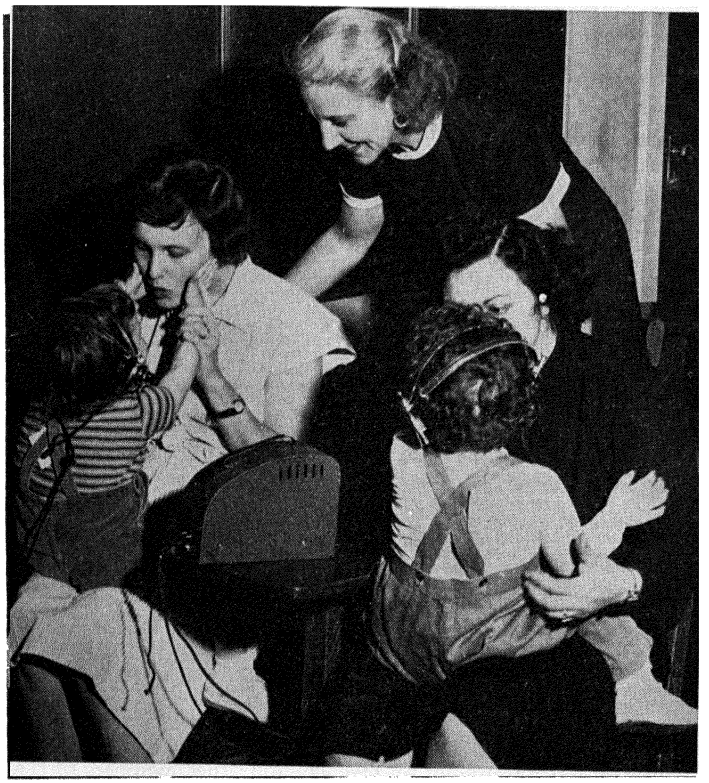
Parochial- and private-school kindergartens continue to play an important role in early childhood education and research.

Most teachers colleges and universities offer courses in teacher education for kindergartners. Contrary to traditional practice, the modern kindergarten teacher is often one of the most highly educated instructors in the system. The teaching is often the best in the school. No body of teachers more closely reconciles theory and practice than do the kindergartners.

The majority of the state legislatures have considered early childhood education of sufficient importance to enact legislation providing specifically for the establishment and maintenance of kindergartens as a part of the public-school system.

Future of Kindergartens

The future presages a steady growth in the number of kindergartens and in their enrollments. The increase of pupils in the elementary schools diminishes the rooms and finances available to house and support more kindergartens. In many places the kindergarten is a sequential development following the depression and Lanham Act nursery-school demonstra-



(Courtesy of Illinois Welfare Bulletin.)

Fig. 5-10. Small deaf children learning at the Jacksonville Institute for Pre-school Deaf, Jacksonville, Illinois. They read lip movements, feel throat vibrations, and hear human voices at an early age.

tions. More state departments will add to their staffs specialists in the supervision and guidance of local programs for early childhood education. All states in time will permit the local school board to establish kindergartens by special election, petition, or decision of the board, and will grant aid for their support. Permissive legislation will be replaced by the compulsory establishment of kindergartens on a voluntary attendance basis. In view of the fact that waves of retrenchment often cause public-school

authorities to abandon kindergartens, the interest of the young children must be safeguarded against such reverses through adequate legislation. The gradual acceptance of the kindergarten as a legitimate and permanent part of the public-school system is inevitable. It will continue its vestibule function and open doors to wider horizons. Qualitatively the work of the kindergarten will rise with the uplift in standards for the physical facilities, for the educational program, and for the education of teachers.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Discuss the statement: "The home is the child's first school."
2. Study the legal provisions for maternal and prenatal care in your state.
3. Study the child welfare provisions of the Social Security Act.
4. Enumerate some activities of the federal Children's Bureau.
5. Study the program of a national organization especially interested in the pre-elementary child, such as the Child Study Association of America.
6. Attend a child study meeting and observe the type of program.
7. Write up a case study of some child under six years of age.
8. Discuss the relationships between home-economics education and the pre-elementary child.
9. Prepare a detailed program for parental education.
10. Discuss the selection and use of toys in the home.
11. Outline the progress of the federal nursery schools.
12. Visit a nursery school and observe the children, equipment, and activities.
13. Study the history of the kindergarten in the United States.
14. Prepare a brief, interesting biography of Froebel, "the father of the kindergarten," G. Stanley Hall, Susan Blow, or any other pioneer in pre-elementary education.
15. Visit a kindergarten and observe the children, equipment, and activites.
16. Discuss the necessary qualifications for teachers in nursery schools and kindergartens.
17. Debate the issue: "Resolved that the nursery school and the kindergarten should be a part of the public-school system."

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GESELL, ARNOLD: *How a Baby Grows*, Harper, 1945, 78 pp.

Eight hundred pictures of how a baby grows, selected from the research program of Dr. Gesell's Clinic of Child Development at Yale University. This supplements the story told more completely in *Infant and Child in the Culture of Today*.

HADLEY, NEITH E., and FOSTER, JOSEPHINE C.: *Education in the Kindergarten*, Chap. II, American Book, 1948.

The point of view of the American kindergarten.

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION: *Early Childhood Education, Part II*, Chap. V, University of Chicago Press, 1947.

The theory of early childhood education by John E. Anderson of the Institute of Child Welfare at the University of Minnesota.

PUBLICATIONS COMMITTEE: *Essentials of Nursery Education*, National Association for Nursery Education, 1948, 32 pp.

An over-all picture of nursery education with a section devoted to "Planning the Educational Program."

CURRENT PERTINENT PERIODICALS AND PUBLICATIONS

American Childhood (10)[31]

Devoted to the national problems of childhood, such as child labor.

Child Development (4) and *Child Development Abstracts and Bibliography* (6).

Publications of the Society for Research in Child Development.

Childhood Education (9)

Official organ of the Association for Childhood Education: nursery-kindergarten-primary.

Child Study (8)

Official organ of the Child Study Association of America.

Children's Activities (10)

Publication of the Child Training Association.

Federal Publications

Numerous inexpensive bulletins on pre-elementary and parental education published by United States Printing House through the Office of Education, Children's Bureau, etc.

Journal of Genetic Psychology (4)

Articles periodically on early childhood.

National Parent-Teacher (10)

The official organ of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers.

Parents' Magazine (12)

A popular magazine featuring helpful articles on child psychology, child care, and parental education.

Parent-teacher Bulletins of State Organizations

Publications of various state congress units, such as *California Parent-teacher*, *Hawaii Parent-teacher*, and *Maryland Congress of Parents and Teachers Bulletin*.

Proceedings

Issued annually by various national associations interested in parental, nursery, and kindergarten education, for example, Proceedings of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers.

[31] The figures following the titles of the publications indicate the number of issues annually.

Progressive Education (8)

Published by the Progressive Education Association with frequent articles on the preschool child.

School and Home (3)

Issued by the Parents and Teachers Association of the Ethical Culture School.

The Child (12)

A news summary on child labor, social security for children, etc., published by the Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor.

Yearbooks

For example, *Parent Education*, published annually by the National Congress of Parents and Teachers.

Audio-Visual Aids

Baby Meets His Parents — One reel, 16 mm., sound

This was filmed in close collaboration with Dr. Lawrence K. Frank of the Caroline Zachry Institute of Human Development. It presents the baby as an emerging personality. Available for purchase or rental from Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Wilmette, Illinois.

Group Life for the Pre-school Child — Filmstrip, 36 frames

This filmstrip presents live action shots of group activities at the Harriet Johnson Nursery School and illustrates teaching methods. A script accompanies the filmstrip. Available only from New York University Film Library, New York.

Life with Baby — Eighteen minutes, 16 mm., sound

This film, with candid-camera sequences photographed through a one-way vision dome, shows how children grow. Dr. Arnold Gesell of the Yale University Child Development Clinic has prepared definite standards of development for children up to six years of age. Responses to these tests are shown in the film, along with other reactions of younger babies.

Share the Ball — Filmstrip, 32 frames

This filmstrip shows how children learn the difference between "mine" and "ours." It is one of the series "Cooperative Living and Self-discipline." Available from the Society for Visual Education, Chicago, Illinois.

The Study of Infant Behavior — Two reels, 16 mm., sound

An inclusive, introductory view of the clinical and research activities of the Yale Clinic of Child Development. Dr. Gesell has made systematic photographic records of the reactions of infants in standardized situations. These records at advancing ages show the trends and stages of early mental growth. The picture is a noteworthy exposition of scientific methods.

Your Children and You — Filmstrip, 150 frames

This filmstrip is an informative overview of parent-child problems from the child's birth to six years of age. Available from Film Publishers, 25 Broad Street, New York.

PREVIEW OF UNIT VI

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Pre-elementary work ought to be closely articulated with the elementary school. The latter includes grades 1 through 6 in theory, but 1 through 8 in practice. Elementary-school enrollments have been increasing rapidly. It is estimated the peak will be reached in 1957. This increase is producing a great need for teachers.

Early education in colonial America was influenced by European practices. The dame and pauper schools, however, slowly evolved into the modern elementary schools, through the efforts of pioneer thinkers and workers.

The basic purpose of the elementary school is the all-round development of the child from six to twelve years, with particular emphasis on equipping him with basic skills, knowledges, attitudes, and appreciations. General education is its main function.

Elementary schools throughout the country represent diversified patterns and variegated programs. The traditional divisions are primary, intermediate, and upper grade or junior high school.

The programs of the various elementary schools are determined in a measure by their objectives and organization. The teaching and learning procedures are as diversified as the curriculums, varying from ultraconservative to ultraprogressive. The elementary school has an assured future as the bulwark of American democracy.

Outline of Contents

Introduction
- Articulation with pre-elementary education
- Scope of elementary education
- Elementary-school enrollments

Development of Elementary Education
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- Establishment of public elementary education
- Pioneers in elementary education

Purposes of Elementary Education
- Immediate objectives

Types of Elementary Schools
- Size and location of schools
- Sources of support and control
- Philosophy and methodology
- Internal organization
- Other special types

Program and Procedures in Elementary Education
- Educational program
- Current practices in elementary education

Future of Elementary Education

UNIT VI

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Articulation with Pre-elementary Education. The modern elementary school is closely joined to pre-elementary work, particularly for children who enter the first grade with some school experience either in the nursery school or kindergarten or both. Although an increasing number of pupils have this orientation, the first school contact for most children comes in

(Courtesy of Public Schools, Erie, Pennsylvania.)

FIG. 6-1. Parents are encouraged to accompany and observe pupils during physical examinations. Many schools sponsor summer roundups for children entering the elementary school.

the first grade. Those beginners who have not had the benefit of preschooling ought to visit the first grade several times before they are actually enrolled. Going from a home with a few members into a classroom with 25 or more pupils is a difficult adjustment for many children. Every effort should therefore be expended to make possible an easy entrance into the elementary school.

The experiences in the nursery school and kindergarten should be vitally related to the first year of the primary school. The so-called "primary unit," an organization embracing kindergarten through grades two or three,

has provided a setting in which beginning elementary-school experiences are adjusted so as to remove or to markedly reduce failure.

Whatever the organization, a child's first school experience ought to be preceded by a physical examination. In 1925 the National Congress of Parents and Teachers inaugurated the summer roundup for physical examinations of all children entering school in the fall. This clinic, held in the summer, gives particular attention to the preschool child in order that physical defects may be discovered and corrected if possible before he enters the first grade. Many schools follow the summer examinations with a recheck in the fall. These clinics should be continuous. Periodic health examinations are necessary safeguards in all grades and at all ages, for it obviously is better to prevent illness than to seek to restore lost health. The ultimate objective of the summer roundups is an annual health inventory from childhood through adulthood.

Scope of Elementary Education. Elementary education is difficult to define because of the extreme variety of practices in its organization, administration, and curriculums. In terms of children's ages, it is the educational institution for pupils from approximately six to twelve or fourteen years of age. In terms of group living, it is described thus by the Educational Policies Commission in its historic report *Education for All American Children:*

> The elementary school has a unique responsibility for improving group life. It is in the elementary school that most children for the first time become actual members of a group. Here they join with their peers in real group interaction. From this very meager beginning, it is the responsibility of the elementary school to guide children to more competent membership in ever-enlarging groups.[1]

In terms of curricular content and skills, the elementary school is the level in which the pupil is concerned with four primary acquisitions: the ability to read his vernacular, to write and spell, to compute, and to make primary social adaptations, such as cooperation.[2] In terms of grades, elementary education includes theoretically grades 1 through 6; in practice, however, it generally embraces grades 1 through 8. Many Southern schools that have only seven years of elementary education are endeavoring to add a year.

The common subdivisions of the elementary school are usually grouped as: primary, grades 1 through 3; intermediate, grades 4 through 6; and upper, grades 7 and 8. Naturally there is overlapping between divisions

[1] Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Children*, p. 147, National Education Association, 1948.

[2] H. C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*, p. 13, University of Chicago Press, 1931.

and organization units (see Fig. 6-2). The kindergarten may be included in the primary level, whereas the junior high school is usually considered a part of secondary education.

These three major areas are not to be construed as disparate units; rather they are to be recognized as components of an organized whole. Medicine and psychology affirm the continuous rather than periodic growth of children. A child's growth is not measured in annual rings like a tree. In order to eliminate some of the numerous "stop and go signs," several grades may be combined. This is a frequent practice in rural schools where the teachers thus reduce the number of classes. In many city schools also the

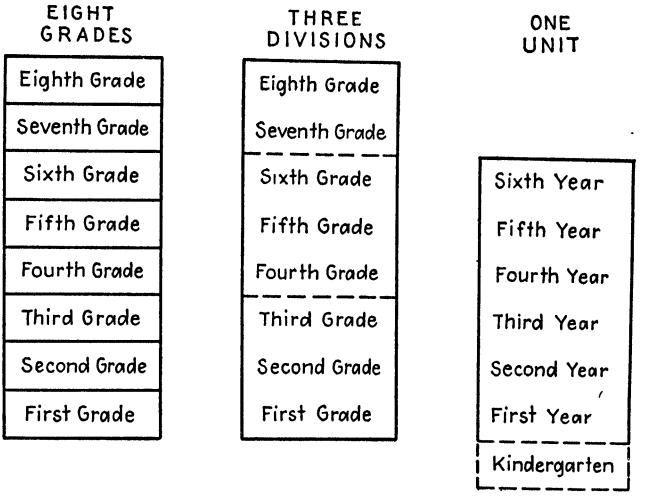
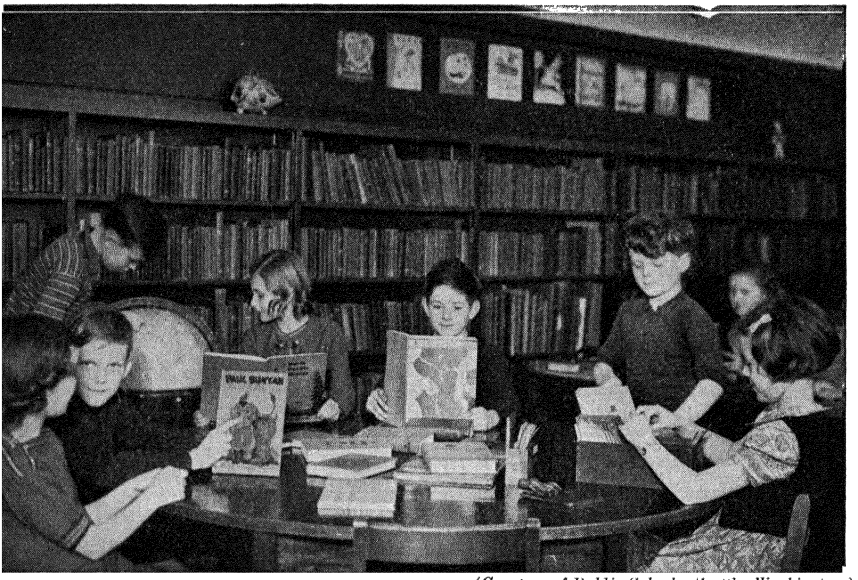


FIG. 6-2. Scope and organization of elementary education. In the diagram to the left, elementary education consists of eight compartments called grades, with rigid promotional policies and practices. In the center, the number of divisions is reduced to three: primary (1–2–3), intermediate (4–5–6), and upper grades (7–8), with a greater degree of flexibility and articulation. In the diagram to the right, division lines disappear and the continuous 6–7 year unit, with the possible addition of the kindergarten, replaces the traditional grade organization. The two upper years, seventh and eighth, may be included in a one-unit organization.

traditional emphasis on eight disparate grades is being modified. For example, some schools neither promote nor detain pupils at the end of the first grade. The first two or three years of elementary education are considered a primary unit, and not until the end of the third year is the child promoted to the next area. Modern theory suggests "year" for "grade." Some schools obliterate grade lines and organize the 6 or 7 years as a unit, the latter embracing the kindergarten.

Elementary-school Enrollments. A striking phenomenon of American public education is that the number of pupils enrolled in both public and private elementary schools is increasing markedly. Among the basic

reasons for the growth are the increased birth rate, the increase in immigration, and the larger percentage of children attending school. During the decade from 1940 to 1950, elementary enrollments dropped to a low of 19,000,000 pupils. Within the 1950-to-1960 period, a new high of over 28,000,000 will be reached for elementary pupils (kindergarten through eighth grade). Children under nine years of age will be the largest single group in the population divided into 10-year periods. This increase creates a huge demand for elementary teachers and for many facilities.



(Courtesy of Public Schools, Seattle, Washington.)

FIG. 6-3. The modern accent on extensive reading makes the elementary-school library an indispensable asset. Here fourth-grade pupils are enjoying library experiences.

DEVELOPMENT OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

HISTORICAL CALENDAR—ELEMENTARY EDUCATION AND CONTEMPORANEOUS EVENTS

The historical calendar facilitates association of important happenings in elementary education with significant events of a political, social, and economic nature in the United States. The various events listed in the right column of the calendar are not related directly to the educational achievements indicated in the left column. The former merely serve to link the latter to some important event that occurred at approximately the same time in American history. Obviously, as indicated later in the discussion of pioneers in this field, elementary education is of foreign origin.

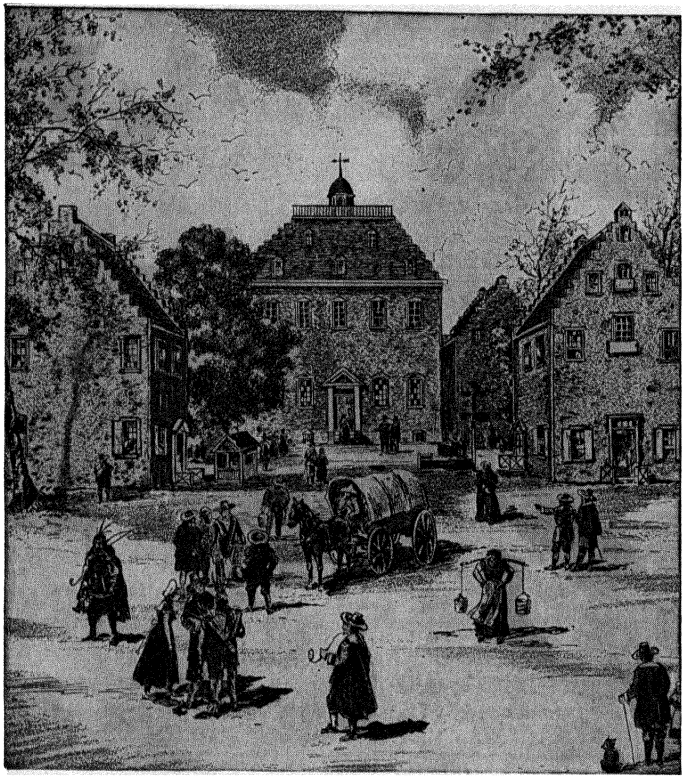
HISTORICAL CALENDAR

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION	CONTEMPORANEOUS EVENTS
1633—Elementary school established by Dutch (New York)	1634—Maryland settled
1642—Earliest colonial educational law passed (Massachusetts)	1643—New England Confederation formed
1647—"Old Deluder" Act passed (Massachusetts)	1647—Peter Stuyvesant made governor of New Amsterdam
1651—Existence of dame school recorded in New Haven (Connecticut)	1649—First religious toleration law in America passed by Maryland
1792—Grants of funds to sectarian schools forbidden by state constitution (New Hampshire)	1792—First U. S. Mint established (Philadelphia)
1834—Free elementary education first adopted by a state (Pennsylvania)	1834—Bancroft's *History of United States*, Vol. I, published
1835—Victor Cousin's *Report on State of Public Instruction in Prussia* published	1835—War begun between Seminole Indians and United States
1837—Calvin E. Stowe's *Report on Elementary Education in Europe* published	1837—Morse system of telegraphy patented
1837—"Common-school revival" started by Horace Mann	1837—Great financial crisis spread over United States
1852—First compulsory law for part-time school attendance passed (Massachusetts)	1852—*Uncle Tom's Cabin* written by Harriet Beecher Stowe
1890—First full-time compulsory school attendance law passed (Connecticut)	1890—Sherman Antitrust Act passed by Congress
1893—The six-six plan of school organization recommended by Committee of Ten	1893—Another financial panic spread throughout United States
1896—Experimental School established at University of Chicago by John Dewey	1896—Gold discovered in Klondike region in Alaska
1918—Compulsory education made effective in all states	1917—United States entered First World War
1948—Basic policy for elementary education presented in *Education for All American Children*	1948—Meeting of ninth Pan-American Child Congress held in Caracas, Venezuela

Establishment of Public Elementary Education

Early Beginnings of Elementary Education. In colonial America elementary schools were organized much later than the universities. An exception occurred in New York State where under Dutch rule a free tax-supported elementary school was established:

The Dutch West India Company was required by the States General of Holland to maintain a clergyman and a schoolmaster. The schoolmaster's expenses are



(Courtesy of New York State Teachers Association.)

Fig. 6-4. Elementary school in New York in 1633. In the Dutch period, school was maintained in the city tavern shown above. The Dutch West India Company engaged a schoolmaster for Fort Amsterdam in 1633.

entered in early estimates of the company's expenses. The first schoolmaster, Adam Roelansten, arrived in 1633. With his advent a school tax was levied. The schoolmaster was also gravedigger, court bellringer, and precentor.[3]

[3] R. L. Finney, *American Public School*, p. 5, Macmillan, 1921.

When New Netherlands became New York, the resultant change in policy retarded the development of public elementary education in New York State.

Colonial New England and especially Massachusetts took the first steps toward the permanent establishment of schools for the common people. Some time after the settling of Massachusetts, the law of 1642 was passed. It gave to town officials the "power to take account from time to time of their parents and masters and of their children, especially of their ability to read and understand the principles of religion and the capital laws of the country, and to impose fines on all those who refuse to render such accounts to them when required."[4] This was followed by the "Old Deluder" law of 1647 which required the various towns to establish and maintain schools and even imposed a fine of £5 for failure to do so. Numerous laws were passed in the colonies in regard to free education, but most of them contained the significant word "or." Permissive legislation was the usual type of school regulation. Thus the colonists permitted a system of free public education in theory but in practice supported few free schools.

Dame Schools. According to Cubberley, elementary education in the eighteenth century was entrusted to reading and writing schools. These were followed by dame schools, the first record of which is found in New Haven, Connecticut, in 1651.

> The dame school was the characteristic institution of the entire colonial period. It grew out of the responsibility each mother felt to teach her own children to read. Mothers who for any reason wished to be relieved of the responsibility sent their children to a neighbor who taught her own children the rudiments, often busying herself meantime with her housework. Often, too, such a school was conducted by elderly women in straitened circumstances.[5]

These dame schools were primarily for little children; when older pupils came to school in the winter, a man teacher was usually employed. The dame schools were followed by primary schools that became nonsectarian forerunners of the modern elementary system.

Nonsectarian Schools. Public education struggled to become nonsectarian. Throughout the colonial period elementary education had a strong religious tone. Moral and religious truths were emphasized constantly. The school was often made the servant of the church, and numerous religious denominations established their own schools. The pupils were usually taught reading, writing, arithmetic, singing of hymns, prayers, and catechism. Often parochial schools were granted aid from state funds.

[4] William H. Burton, *Introduction to Education*, p. 200, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1934.

[5] R. L. Finney, *op. cit.*, pp. 9–10.

Gradually the pendulum swung from one extreme to the other—from sectarianism to secularism. The first state to adopt a constitutional provision prohibiting sectarian instruction was New Hampshire in 1792. Today it is illegal in most states to teach the Bible or to give sectarian instruction in publicly supported schools.

Elementary Schools Free and Open to All. Elementary education in America encountered many obstacles, including the social beliefs and prejudices that the colonists carried with them from the old country. Prevailing ideas in England, Germany, France, and other countries influenced the new world. The concept of social classes or castes extant in England during the colonial period made education a matter of private rather than state support. Persons of wealth sent their children to privately supported schools or engaged tutors to teach them at home. For those unable to do this, pauper schools were established. But because of the stigma attached to being a pauper, the very schools set up for poor children were often not patronized by them. Many influences and many persons working over a long period of years brought about gradually the establishment of free public schools for all children. Pennsylvania in 1834 adopted a state program of free schools. Other states followed this example until today elementary education is free and available to all.

Elementary Education Compulsory. Another struggle was to make elementary education compulsory. One hundred years ago attendance was generally optional. The histories of the colonies reveal the gradual adoption of the principle of compulsory elementary education, but records are strangely silent as to the degree of its enforcement. One may look to Massachusetts for the contribution of the law and to Connecticut for its administration and methods of enforcement. The first state compulsory school attendance law was adopted in Massachusetts as late as 1852; this legislation for part-time compulsory attendance was followed in 1890 by Connecticut's full-time requirement. Compulsory schooling was bitterly opposed by many people who argued that it deprived the parents of their inalienable rights, it was not necessary in order to secure attendance, it was an uncalled-for assumption of powers by state governments, it was inimical to the spirit of free democratic institutions, and it was an obstacle in the employment of child labor.

The majority of states now demand that every normal child attend the elementary school for at least 8 months annually between the ages of seven and sixteen, or until he has completed the eighth grade. Several states have enacted laws raising the compulsory school age to eighteen years.

Many Foreign Influences on Elementary Education. Compulsory education was one of several ideas that were undoubtedly borrowed from other

lands, particularly Prussia. For several years elementary education abroad was studied intensively for suggestions that could be adopted by or adapted to the American primary school. Victor Cousin's *Report on the State of Public Instruction in Prussia*, which appeared first in French and about 1835 in English, was widely read in America. Calvin E. Stowe, the husband of Harriet Beecher Stowe who aroused America with her picture of slavery in *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, exercised a tremendous influence upon American education through the publication of his *Report on Elementary Education in Europe* (1837). This was studied by many state legislators. That same year Horace Mann as secretary of the state board of Massachusetts launched what became known as the "common-school revival." Mann, who in 1843 had visited schools in England, Ireland, Scotland, Germany, Holland, and France, published his carefully prepared observations in his famous *Seventh Annual Report*, which lauded the Prussian educational system and produced his celebrated controversy with the Boston schoolmasters, whom he defeated singlehanded. Henry Barnard in 1854 wrote his *National Education in Europe*, which also left its imprint. For years American education was influenced from abroad through reports on European systems of education, the writings of foreign teachers, and the activities of their pupils in America.

Pioneers in Elementary Education

Elementary education in the United States has been affected by various educational leaders both here and abroad who struggled valiantly for those reforms that today make the elementary school the most progressive unit of American public education. Among these stalwart thinkers who left their indelible impress are Comenius, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Herbart, Mann, Barnard, Parker, Dewey, and Kilpatrick.

John Amos Comenius (1592–1670). One of the earliest concepts of general universal education originated in the mind of a Moravian churchman of the seventeenth century, *viz.*, Comenius (or Komensky, if the Bohemian name is used). His program advocated "the teaching to all men of all the subjects of human concern." He severely criticized the schools as "the slaughterhouses of the mind where ten or more years are spent in learning what might be acquired in one." This he said was due to the fact that the mind was fed mostly on words. He, the father of realism in modern education, fought against verbalism and for concreteness. In order to make teaching more concrete he prepared a pictured encyclopedia, *Orbis Pictus*, in which each word is defined and illustrated. This was the first picture book successfully adapted to the teaching of young children. He helped make education less remote, less austere, more sympathetic, and more interesting to children. Because of his early formulation and practi-

cal application of sound educational principles, Comenius, though still submerged in obscurity, is one of the leading figures in the history of education abroad and also in America. He died in the Netherlands—a land very susceptible to his influence; and it was in Dutch New Amsterdam in the new world that the public-school idea thrived early.

Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712–1778). One who helped to explode traditional ideas on the training of young children was the Frenchman Jean Jacques Rousseau. Education, according to Rousseau, should be "according to nature." The learner would then develop the capacity with which he is endowed. Rousseau led the revolt against the extreme insistence upon facts and subject matter and the subordination of the child.[6] He was the progenitor of the child-centered elementary school.

Johann Pestalozzi (1746–1827). Pestalozzi, likewise a true pioneer, was born in Switzerland. In his masterpiece, *Leonard and Gertrude*, he stated that the aim of education was the natural and systematic development of all the powers of the individual. He believed that a child developed in accordance with definite laws and that the aim of education was to assist nature in the observance of these laws. Pestalozzi was unique in that he practiced his theories. His school in Switzerland attracted attention throughout the western world. Americans who had visited this school with its homelike atmosphere suggested for American education many improvements based upon their observations and his work. Pestalozzi himself considered that his recognition of "observation" as the basis of all knowledge was his real contribution to the methodology of elementary education. He emphasized sense perception and "object lessons." Especially through his disciple, Fellenberg, he promoted the idea of associating manual activities and industry with education. Though many of his theories have been proved erroneous and many of his methods became frozen formality, nevertheless his basic ideas, his demonstration teaching, and his experimentation have exerted a tremendous influence upon elementary education both abroad and in America.

Johann Herbart (1776–1841). Among other influential foreign teachers were Froebel, who, as indicated in Unit V, started the kindergarten, and Herbart, who was a German philosopher. The latter studied at Jena and became a pupil of Fichte but later rejected most of Fichte's system and developed his own. His ideas affected both philosophy and education. He taught that character is the main aim of education, which has its real beginning in knowledge and its final end in action. His numerous principles such as those of the "many-sided interests," correlation of subjects, and apperception were introduced into the United States under the leadership of his disciples, notably Charles De Garmo and Charles and Frank McMurray, at Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Illinois. What

[6] Stuart G. Noble, *A History of American Education*, p. 198, Rinehart, 1938.

is now the National Society for the Study of Education was founded at Normal in 1895 as the National Herbart Society. Herbart was one of the first educators to give a scientific approach to the study of education. In his methodology, he developed the five formal steps as follows: preparation, presentation, comparison, generalization, and application. This formula is found in detail in older texts on general methods of teaching. These pedagogical steps have had a marked influence on elementary as well as on secondary education. Some of Herbart's ideas are reflected today in the Morrisonian method of unit teaching.

Horace Mann (1796–1859). Known as "the father of the common schools," Horace Mann, during his 12 years as secretary of the state board of education in Massachusetts, started the common-school revival. Armed with no legal authority, but by dint of persuasion, Mann helped to improve the housing of pupils and the professional preparation of teachers. He lengthened the elementary-school term and won an increased measure of popular and financial support for the schools and teachers. In his 12 annual reports, published at the end of each year of his secretaryship, and in his *Common School Journal*, which he started in 1838, Mann covered almost every phase of education. Much of this material is up to date even today. Through his efforts the first normal school was established at Lexington, Massachusetts, in 1839. His indefatigability extended his influence beyond Massachusetts to the nation and, through his friend Sarmiento, to the public schools in Chile and Argentina.[7]

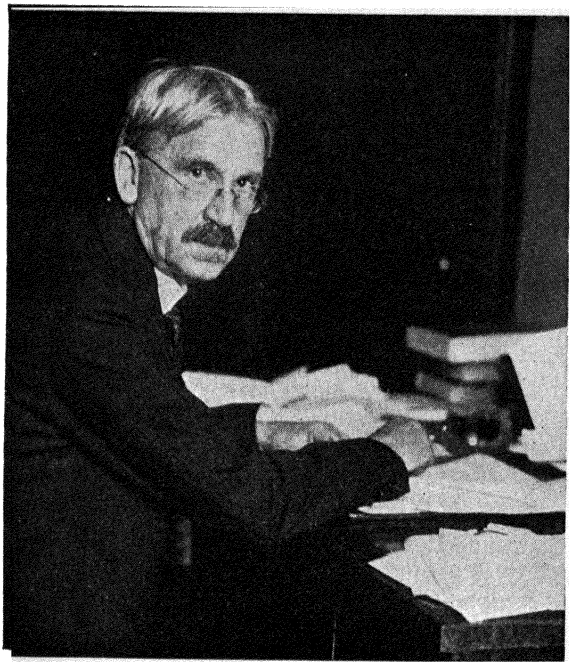
Henry Barnard (1811–1900). Henry Barnard occupied a place similar to that of Horace Mann in Massachusetts by serving as state commissioner of education in Connecticut from 1838 to 1842 and in Rhode Island from 1843 to 1849. After having met Pestalozzi in Europe, Barnard promoted the latter's ideas in America. His book *Pestalozzi and Pestalozzianism* is one of the outstanding books in English on the subject. Barnard edited the *American Journal of Education*, which treated almost every phase of education here and abroad. He established the first teachers' institute in 1839 and improved the training of elementary teachers. As the first United States Commissioner of Education, Barnard helped to raise the status of education, particularly in elementary schools.[8]

Colonel Francis Parker (1837–1902). Among the American educational pioneers who enriched the elementary curriculum was Francis Parker, who became the leader of the progressive movement. After varied experiences, such as teaching in rural and city schools, fighting in the Civil War, and experimenting with new methods in a normal school in Ohio, he was elected superintendent of schools at Quincy, Massachusetts. There he became famous as a leader of the Quincy movement, which embodied some of

[7] See Unit II for additional information on Horace Mann.

[8] See Unit I for additional information on Henry Barnard.

Froebel's principles in making the school less artificial and conventional. Children were taken outdoors for lessons in science and geography, and teachers were given much freedom and expert supervision. His greatest work was that as principal of the Cook County Normal School at Chicago and later as principal of the Chicago Institute, afterward the School of Education of the University of Chicago. Parker was a lover of children, and he had the rare insight to see teaching problems from the standpoint of the child. His enthusiasm and earnestness brought to the Cook County



(Courtesy of Keystone View Company.)

FIG. 6-5. John Dewey.

Normal School students from all parts of the country. These teachers whom he trained have gone far in improving the elementary schools of America. Among his writings, which have also had a marked influence, are *Talks to Teachers, Talks to Pedagogues, How to Study Geography,* and *Course in Arithmetic.* His writings, lectures, and teaching prepared the way for John Dewey.

John Dewey (1859——). The leading American educational philosopher and molder of the policies of the elementary school has been John Dewey. In 1896 Dewey established an experimental school at the University of Chicago where he tried out some of his educational plans. In 1904 he joined the faculty of Teachers College, Columbia University, where he

taught and influenced thousands of teachers. His book, *School and Society*, published in 1899, affected markedly the function of the school in society. Among his other publications, some of which have been translated into a dozen languages, are: *Interest and Effort, Democracy and Education, How We Think, Quest for Certainty, Experience and Education*, and *Logic: The Theory of Inquiry*. It is said that contributions made by most of his books are in inverse proportion to their size; the small ones, such as *School and Society*, have had a greater influence than his huge volume, *Quest for Certainty*. He is widely known and honored in both the Orient and the Occident.

The Gary public-school system, which modified its program in 1941, and other innovations in elementary-school organization, such as the Winnetka system, have been inspired by John Dewey. His emphasis upon doing and living is basic in the elementary-school program. The following quotation is a brief sample of his philosophy:

> If one attempts to formulate the philosophy of education implicit in the practices of the newer education, we may, I think, discover certain common principles amid the variety of progressive schools now existing. To imposition from above is opposed expression and cultivation of individuality; to external discipline is opposed free activity; to learning from texts and teachers, learning through experience; to acquisition of isolated skills and techniques by drill, is opposed acquisition of them as means of attaining ends which make direct vital appeal; to preparation for a more or less remote future is opposed making the most of the opportunities of present life; to static aims and materials is opposed acquaintance with a changing world.[9]

Dewey's philosophy is not so simple that it can be expressed adequately by one quotation or chapter. In America, the John Dewey Society publishes a yearbook on various phases of his pragmatic philosophy and of progressive education. The progressive idealism of John Dewey and his followers has influenced all levels of learning but especially the elementary school.

William Heard Kilpatrick (1871—). As a professor of education for many years at Teachers College, Columbia University, and since his retirement in 1937, Dr. Kilpatrick has indoctrinated thousands of elementary- and secondary-school teachers who have flocked into his classes, attended his lectures, or read his books. Among his publications are *The Project Method, Foundations of Method*, and *Source Book of Philosophy*. Kilpatrick has stimulated the emphasis upon life activities for school children and has defined learning as living. As an interpreter, he has given impetus to progressive education. Of course, the philosophy of Kilpatrick, like that of any thinker, does not stand alone. Each pioneer is the recipient of

[9] John Dewey, "Experience and Education," *The New York Times*, March 6, 1938, p. 10.

thought processes leading down to his day; he is in a sense the interpreter for his own time and a prophet for the days yet to come.

Other Leaders. Numerous leaders, including traditionalists like William Chandler Bagley and psychologists like Edward L. Thorndike, have made substantial contributions to elementary education. School reforms have been brought about through committee reports, such as that of the Committee of Ten, of which Dr. Charles W. Eliot of Harvard was chairman. This famous group recommended in 1893 that a six-six plan of organization replace the traditional eight-four plan. Among the superintendents of schools who have instituted drastic reforms in elementary education are: W. T. Harris of St. Louis, who led the revolt not only against Pestalozzian formalism by substituting natural science for precise object lessons, but also against rigid gradations of pupils and inflexible promotions; Edward A. Sheldon, who started the Oswego movement for improving elementary curriculums and methods in Oswego, New York; and Carleton Washburne, formerly of Winnetka, Illinois, who, as a disciple of Frederick Burk, introduced the so-called "Winnetka plan" for meeting individual differences in the elementary school.

PURPOSES OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

The period of elementary education generally concentrates upon developing in the child a command of the fundamental processes or tools of learning. Elementary education, however, is broader than this. It involves the education of the whole child, physically, mentally, socially, esthetically, and ethically.

Immediate Objectives of Elementary School

Although the various parts of the American public-school system contribute markedly to the general objectives of education,[10] each has its unique role to play in the drama of education. These special functions are the immediate objectives or directives of that particular school unit.

As examples of elementary-school objectives, two sets of purposes are presented: the first from a nation-wide policy-making group, and the second from a local school system.

Education for All American Children. The Educational Policies Commission states that the first requirement for a school is that it rest upon values that are good. The second requirement is that it be efficient in promoting these values.

The controlling values in the United States may best be summed up in the one word "democracy." Three of the enduring values that guide and

[10] Unit XIII contains several statements of general objectives and outcomes in education. See also Appendix VI, "A Creed for Elementary School Principals."

direct the education of all children in American democracy, and respective ways by which they may be implemented in the elementary school, are:

Enduring Values of Democracy	Ways of Promoting These Values
1. The democratic ideal calls upon citizens to face their problems with self-reliance and initiative, and to conduct their lives without unnecessary demands upon their fellow members of society. This ideal requires that our young citizens master thoroughly many different kinds of learning.	1. A good elementary school, therefore, will help to develop those basic skills and that sturdy independence and initiative which will enable our citizens to attack the problems that face them and to press forward toward ever-improving solutions.
2. Citizens in a democracy exhibit a concern for the general welfare, a feeling of kinship with others, a respect for the laws and social institutions which protect our rights and the rights of others.	2. A good elementary school, therefore, strives for the discovery and full development of all the humane and constructive talents of each individual.
3. Each member in a democratic society should participate, freely and intelligently, in the process of arriving at important decisions which affect the group of which he is a part.	3. A good elementary school, therefore, emphasizes social responsibility and the cooperative skills necessary to the progressive improvement of social institutions.[11]

The broad values of American society thus seek to determine the general goals of the modern elementary school. Naturally local conditions may modify somewhat the points of emphasis.

Purposes of Winnetka Elementary Schools. The Winnetka, Illinois, schools under the initial leadership of Carleton Washburne dedicated themselves to letting the pupil progress at his own rate. The aims are stated as follows:

> The Winnetka schools see education as something more than teaching of the three R's—important as these are. They see it as the foundation for the child's entire life. Their purposes are therefore:
>
> 1. To give the children a thorough grounding in the common-school subjects, such as reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling, history, geography, and science.
> 2. To train the children for wise, patriotic, and responsible citizenship.
> 3. To develop each child's individuality—his special interests and abilities.
> 4. To help each child toward a balanced, happy, and well-adjusted emotional life, on which alone sound character can be built.[12]

Although the Winnetka system has been criticized by Kilpatrick and others for an overemphasis on the development of the pupil as an individual,

[11] Educational Policies Commission, *op. cit.*, pp. 2–4.

[12] *Your Child and Your School*, p. 4, Winnetka, Illinois, Parent-teacher Association.

nevertheless it also devotes much attention to the cultivation of group experience.

TYPES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

It is impossible to group all elementary schools into mutually exclusive categories, for there is bound to be overlapping even within major types. Some schools defy classifications or labels. Among the major types are those classified according to (1) size, as one or two teachers, and location, as rural or village; (2) sources of financial support, as public or private; (3) methodology of instruction, as traditional, middle of the road, or progressive; (4) internal organization, as the platoon type; and (5) special schools, as those for atypical children such as the crippled. A terse description of these illustrative types follows.

Size and Location of Schools

The most common form of elementary organization is the small school—the one-teacher or one-room school. Here all six, seven, or eight grades are seated in one room, and a teacher may have as many as 30 classes a day, depending upon the number of pupils, their placement in grades, the curriculum, and the flexibility of administration.

The medium-sized elementary schools are found in the villages and the small cities. Usually one teacher is assigned to each grade or class, and a principal serves as the head of the building or system.

The large schools are located in the larger population centers. Two or more teachers may be assigned to a grade, or a departmental organization may be utilized. The largest elementary-school system is in New York City, which has several hundred elementary schools, the smallest of which is a typical one-teacher school.

Sources of Support and Control

The elementary schools may also be grouped according to the main sources of their financial support or control, *viz.*, public, or nonpublic, the latter embracing both parochial and other private schools.

Public Elementary Schools. The elementary schools supported by public taxation are by far in the majority and enroll approximately 90 per cent of all the pupils who attend the elementary grades.[13] These form the backbone of American public education.

Nonpublic Elementary Schools. A few million American pupils attend private elementary schools—both parochial and nonparochial. The word "parochial" originally meant parish or the district committed to one pastor. Parochial schools are those established and supported by some religious sect or denomination. Their curriculums usually include moral and religious

[13] For latest statistics on public-and private-school pupils, see *Biennial Survey of Education*, Superintendent of Documents.

instruction and courses in the Bible, church traditions, and church history. Of the children attending private elementary schools, by far the largest number is enrolled in Catholic parochial schools, the next in Lutheran. Torah Umesorah (Hebrew for "religious lore and tradition") is an active organization devoted to the promotion of Jewish all-day schools.

The nonparochial private schools may be differentiated from the parochial in that they are supported primarily by nonchurch funds and that they do not give instruction in religion, particularly in the tenets of any specific denomination. The private schools often carry a very high tuition rate, which may or may not include board and room. Frequently they are endowed, but most of the financial support comes from fees and donations. The most progressive methods are often developed in private schools that are unhampered by the constant criticism of a tax-conscious public.

Of all elementary-school pupils in each state, that proportion which attends private elementary schools varies. The greatest number of private elementary schools is found in the Northeastern and Middle states. The United States Supreme Court, by declaring the Oregon Act of 1922 unconstitutional because it violated the Fourteenth Amendment, definitely established the principle that a state may not, through its police power, prohibit private education.

Philosophy and Methodology

The classification of elementary schools according to the ideology and methodology of the teachers and administrators is difficult, for most schools vary in degree between the two limits of the extremely traditional and the completely progressive. Furthermore, both types of teaching may be found within a particular school.

At one extreme is the vigorous activity school which subordinates subject matter to the many-sided development of the child. Little attention is devoted to subjects as such. Promotions are flexible, and much freedom is accorded to teachers and pupils. These procedures are often referred to as progressive education, a term that is hard to define. The chief protagonists of progressive education have been John Dewey and William Heard Kilpatrick, already mentioned as pioneers in elementary-school work. Even before 1900 Dewey pointed out the shortcomings of the "sitting and listening school."[14] An exponent and friendly critic of progressive movements, Professor Boyd Henry Bode, in his *Progressive Education at the Crossroads*,[15] stated that nothing but chaos can result from exclusive attention to children's individual needs and interests; he urged that schools help pupils to oppose dictatorships and make democracy—a continuous extension of common interests—the way of life.

[14] John Dewey, *School and Society*, p. 51, University of Chicago Press, 1899.

[15] Boyd Henry Bode, *Progressive Education at the Crossroads*, Newson, 1938, 128 pp.

Chief critic of progressive education and leading exponent of traditionalism in teaching was Professor William Chandler Bagley of Teachers College, Columbia University, who helped organize a group called the "Essentialists." Their indictment of progressive education is that it has made education effeminate, has made children inferior spellers and readers, and has used too many "lollipops" in trying to get pupils to learn. They would direct more attention to discipline, systematic work, and the fundamentals or "essentials," such as those found in the traditional subjects in the elementary school.[16] This point of view stresses rather formal teaching

(Courtesy of School Management.)

FIG. 6-6. One of the major academic objectives of the elementary schools is to teach pupils to learn to read intelligently and critically.

procedures. Most one-teacher schools have been of the traditional type, because the necessity of coaching pupils to pass factual examinations has forced teachers to stress rote memory and the bare acquisition of encyclopedic information.[17]

Between these two extremes are scattered the majority of the elementary teachers. Many take the middle of the road, recognizing the importance of basic knowledge and necessary skills and yet giving constant heed to the

[16] William Chandler Bagley, "An Essentialist's Platform for the Advancement of American Education," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, April, 1938, pp. 241–256.

[17] The issue of essentialism and progressivism is discussed further in Unit XVII.

needs, interests, and abilities of the child as well as those of the adult. Even within the same building one may find teachers whose procedures are traditional, middle of the way, or progressive. A teacher, in the span of several years or even a single year, month, or day, may reflect varying degrees of conservative or progressive ideology.

Internal Organization of Schools

The number of classifications under this heading is endless. Grade, division, and unitary organization are illustrated in Fig. 6-2. Mention is made here of nine selected policies or practices that have important bearing upon the organization of schools, as surveyed in a large number of city systems by the Research Division of the National Education Association:

Departmentalization. This type of organization is not as popular as in past years, especially for the lower grades. It is usually employed in the upper grades. The subjects are taught by special teachers, the pupils passing from one subject teacher to another.

Ability Grouping. The much debated practice of grouping pupils according to ability is followed in one or more schools in a large number of cities.

Platoon Organization. This type of organization, with its nomenclature borrowed from the military, is not widely used. It permits a high degree of room utilization and enables a home-room teacher to be with her group of pupils for one half of each day. During the remainder of the time the pupils go to special subject rooms, such as art, music, speech, physical education, and library science.

Elimination of Grade Lines. Classification of pupils into broader school units or divisions, rather than into the traditional grades, is increasing in city-school systems. Wherever grade lines are being eliminated, for the most part in the lower portion of the elementary school, the tendency to extend the plan farther into the pattern of school organization seems quite definite and pronounced.

Ungraded Classes. A device in school organization, particularly for providing special opportunities for exceptional children, is the ungraded room. The great majority of such classes have been maintained for slow-learning pupils, and often they have been known as opportunity rooms. In rare instances gifted children also have been classified in ungraded classrooms for enriched programs of study adapted to their special interests and abilities.

Remedial Classes. Groups classified separately for remedial instruction, particularly in such foundation subjects as reading and arithmetic, are widely but not universally used.

Individualized Instruction. Many plans of individualized instruction have been developed and used in America, especially in elementary schools. Some have attracted nation-wide attention, such as the Dalton and Winnetka plans. Other schools have incorporated the essential elements of individualized instruction in which each pupil more or less independently pursues his own project or works on his own contract for at least part of the day.

Class Periods of Indefinite Length. Several schools have abandoned their traditional fixed periods of so many minutes each, substituting for this fixed schedule a

flexible arrangement which, subject to the teacher's control, has periods indefinite in length and variable from day to day.[18]

Elementary schools are organized in many other ways.

Other Special Types

Schools for Atypical Children. In the larger cities a marked trend is that of separating by buildings particular types of pupils for special instruction. More frequently special rooms and teachers are set aside for the care of the nontypical pupils. One type of school is for the gifted pupils; another is for the slow learners; others are for those physically handicapped, as the Spalding School for crippled children in Chicago; or for those socially atypical, as the Montefiore School in the same city.[19]

Then, too, there is the part-time or continuation school for employed boys and girls. Special instruction in the elementary subjects is also provided through night-school classes attended by older pupils and adults.

Experimental Schools. Although all schools are in a sense experimental, some are especially designated as experimental or demonstration. These include the large number of elementary schools affiliated with universities and teachers colleges as the training ground for student or cadet teachers. Where practice teaching is done entirely off the campus in affiliated schools, the campus elementary school may become a purely laboratory or experimental school for research, exploration, and demonstration.

The elementary school is noted for its experimental procedures. Sometimes these follow a special plan of teaching or curriculum, such as the Gary plan, the Dalton plan, the McDade plan (Chicago), the Winnetka plan, and the Community School (Glencoe).

Many variations are found in the length of the school year. One is the "all-year school" which offers the complete program throughout the entire calendar year. Some schools follow a modified form by offering a summer term after the regular year. As indicated later, the elementary school is the testing ground for many reforms that later creep up into the secondary schools and colleges.

PROGRAM AND PROCEDURES IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Educational Program

In the typical elementary school of the past, with its program broken into eight divisions or grades, the pupil had to master the subjects before he could progress to the next grade. In many schools today the organizational pattern has been reduced to 6 years, plus the kindergarten. This

[18] Adapted from *Research Bulletin*, "Trends in City-School Organization, 1938 to 1948," pp. 7–22, National Education Association, February, 1949.

[19] See Unit X for more information about elementary schools for atypical children.

stretch of years is considered, at least in theory, as one continuous period of growth for the child. Generally, however, for purposes of classification and promotion, certain grades or years are grouped into areas of development.

The programs of the elementary grades, as mentioned earlier, are usually grouped into three levels (1) the primary, (2) the intermediate, and (3) the advanced or presecondary.

Primary Grades. The first three grades are usually called primary. Where the kindergarten is a basic part of the early schooling, the grouping may be kindergarten-primary. Some also add the nursery school. Although in the primary grades the central activity is reading, the child develops other essential abilities, such as writing, spelling, and working with numbers. The child develops not only mentally but also physically, socially, and emotionally. The primary area is the most interesting and significant division of public education.

Intermediate Grades. These are usually the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades. The most important curricular activity is still that of reading, but the emphasis is on extensive and enriched reading rather than its mechanics and on the skillful use of the basic tools acquired in the primary grades. Subjects other than those taught in the primary grades are usually added in the fourth grade. This heavy load of new subjects results in an abrupt transition into the fourth grade and a high percentage of failure. The pupil must be prepared for the transition from grade to grade and from primary unit to the intermediate grades; hence in the lower grades learning materials and activities are by degrees introducing him to such areas as social science and natural science. In the more progressive schools no one subject or field of interest is the particular domain of any grade or year. A pupil, whatever his grade or age, is not withheld from learning materials useful to him at his particular stage of development. As in the primary grades, emphasis in the intermediate years is given to the development of desirable individual and social skills, habits, and attitudes. A quiet but observable trend in elementary education is the gradual but effective merging of the primary and intermediate grades into a unified elementary school.

Advanced Level. This area usually includes grades seven and eight, which in the modern interpretation belong to the period of secondary education. In numerous schools this transfer of the upper grades from elementary to secondary education has been effected only in theory. Many a so-called "junior high school" consists merely of glorified seventh and eighth grades which continue with the traditional curriculum and the old philosophy of the upper grades. Unfortunately, the pupils, particularly in the traditional seventh and eighth grades, are subjected to a recapitulation of material supposedly learned earlier. The place and function of the junior high school are considered in Unit VII.

Current Practices in Elementary Education

A few current practices in elementary education are here presented in abbreviated form.

Organization and Administration. The trend is toward simplicity and flexibility. A reduction in "stop and go" procedures is effected through a reorganization of administrative units, as, for example, a unified six-year program in place of eight disparate grades. Grade classifications are made more flexible or are eliminated, especially in the primary area. In several cities the primary grades have been withdrawn from platoon organization. A reduction has been made in the number of grades, classes, and subjects, especially in the one-teacher schools.

More schooling is being provided. The school day has been lengthened, at least for those who count time from the moment they board the consolidated-school bus till they return home. The school week has been lengthened in some cities, as Madison, Wisconsin, to include informal activities on Saturdays. Several systems provide summertime supervision for recreational and education programs in an elongated educational year. Some Southern states have lengthened their seven-year school system by adding a year.

Buildings and Other Facilities. With the great influx of young children, many boards of education cannot provide permanent elementary-school buildings, so hundreds of temporary or semipermanent structures have been erected. Many are portable schoolhouses.

More and more buildings for elementary schools are of the one-story type. They blend more harmoniously with residential building surroundings and are more homelike to the young children.

School buildings and equipment are made more flexible and functional. In many elementary schools a workroom is placed between two classrooms so that small groups can work on construction activities at any time during the day. Equipment with a high degree of flexibility is installed. Libraries are used extensively for enrichment.

Curriculum and Teaching-learning Procedures. The pupil in the elementary school is introduced gradually to the curriculum. A well-graduated program of preprimary experiences is provided in order to facilitate the work of the first year. Reading readiness is emphasized.

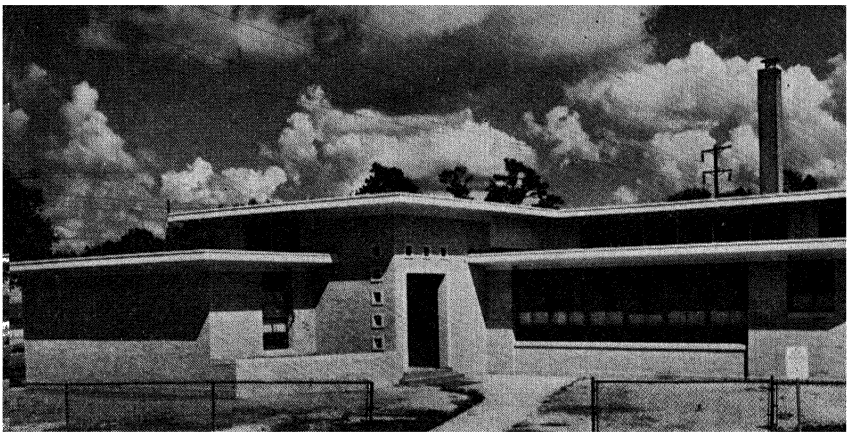
The curriculum is becoming more flexible. In connection with time allotments for major fields of learning, some schools set up "weekly percentage range of time" with minimum and maximum ranges of time to be spent each week on each major division.

Curricular materials are being reorganized in different relationships and with different purposes. The correlation or fusion of related materials and activities helps to develop an integrating child. Many teachers organize materials as teaching-learning units.

Many curricular materials are being shifted in the light of studies on maturation. Formal instruction in arithmetic is often withheld until the second or third year, but incidental and planned situations for building number concepts are introduced early. There is a downward extension of several fields, such as social science and natural science, into the lower grades.

New and neglected areas are now emphasized. A foreign language, for example, French, is sometimes taught in the elementary schools. Much more use is made of handicrafts, including pottery, metal, and wood work. Language and the fine arts are used increasingly as means of unleashing the creative efforts of pupils. Print-script writing instead of cursive is used in the lower grades because of its similarity to the printed words.

Learning in the elementary school is a cooperative enterprise. The classroom work is actively and realistically coordinated with other service departments of the school. The home is taken into partnership in many school experiences of the learner. The elementary schools have extended their walls into the community, especially through the "go and see" plan of educational trips.



(Courtesy of Herbert Voelcker, Architect, Houston, Texas.)

FIG. 6-7. A modern elementary-school building. The Franklin Elementary School, Houston, Texas, is a one-story structure with "clerestory daylighting." In the classroom on the right, the sidewall windows are supplemented by clerestory windows above and beyond the regular windows. These face in the same direction as the regular windows, but admit light about halfway across the width of the room, distributing illumination. On both sets of windows the concrete roof slabs project well beyond the window heads, thus forming deep canopies which shade the window surfaces. This arrangement helps to eliminate direct sunlight on glass surfaces and its resulting heat and glare.

Pupils and Teachers. Pupils receive much individual attention. But this is being jeopardized by the increased enrollments in the elementary school, and more pupils in a class. Pupil failures are being eliminated, or retardation is being reduced markedly. Teachers, especially in the primary unit, are assigned for a period of 2 or 3 years to the same group of pupils. Provisions for handicapped pupils are being improved and expanded.

The modern elementary school stresses personality development and guidance. It seeks to exalt genuine personality. Several elementary schools have established child guidance clinics. Cumulative records, including anecdotal reports, are used for evaluation and functional guidance purposes.

In connection with the modern accent on democracy, there is increased opportunity for pupils to do socially useful work. Student councils are used increasingly

(Courtesy of Public Schools, Bloomington, Illinois.)

FIG. 6-8. Many current practices are revealed in this picture. The movable desks are here grouped as a table. Group work is encouraged. Many media are employed in the learning process. Manuscript writing is employed in the lower grades. Teacher-and-pupil-made reading charts are based upon direct experiences of the pupils.

(Courtesy of Oak Orchard School, Medina, New York.)

FIG. 6-9. Cocurricular activities, such as producing a school newspaper, are a part of the program in elementary education. Here sixth-graders mimeograph the *Oak Orchard Owl.*

as means of promoting democracy in the administration of elementary schools. A cooperative attack upon elementary-school problems is made by pupils, teachers, school administrators, parents, and community leaders. Several schools are using the cooperative-group plan which is an adaptation of departmentalization but calls for a small number of teachers working as a unit, with almost daily conferences among themselves.

The staff is being enlarged and improved. Many schools have added specialists. More elementary schools have trained librarians and are improving school libraries. The teachers of elementary pupils are becoming better educated.

These are but a few of the numerous significant changes that are being effected in the modern elementary school.

A Few Contrasts. Some past and present elementary-school procedures are paralleled in columnar arrangement:

Past	Present
Child plunged into first grade	Pupil prepared through preprimary experiences
Traditional subject matter used	Curriculum enriched and broadened
Oral reading emphasized	Oral and silent reading, especially the latter, stressed
Words called in reading	Thought-getting and comprehension sought
One basic reading text used	Several books utilized
Library facilities restricted	Library made the heart of the school
Alphabet used in beginning reading	Sentence or story method employed
Reading largely restricted to copyrighted books	Experience reading from pupil-made stories also used
"Mr. Jones" arithmetic problems assigned	Practical arithmetic based on experience and needs
Short penmanship periods used	Legibility sought in all written work
Geography and history taught in isolation	Social studies and interrelationships stressed continuously
Facts memorized for sake of disciplining the mind	Memorization used as a means of acquiring useful information
Factual materials stressed as the end products	Facts used as a means toward the end of understanding and interpretation
Isolated words spelled orally in "spelling periods"	Spelling made a part of all written sentences
Structural physiology memorized	Functional physiology made to contribute to healthy living
Fine and applied arts permitted	These arts encouraged as emotional and creative outlets
Mass imitation employed	Creative expression cultivated
Teacher hired as "schoolmaster"	Teacher made a director of learning
Discipline imposed by teacher	Growth in pupil responsibility and citizenship cultivated
Formal report card issued with numerical notation	Personal progress report written with emphasis on character traits
Mental development of child made chief objective of elementary school	All-round development of pupil made the supreme goal of all education

Elementary education, eager to improve on the past, will undoubtedly continue to be a fruitful field for experimentation and, accordingly, the most progressive area in American public education.

FUTURE OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Bulging enrollments have brought elementary education many growing pains. Matching quantitative increase must come a qualitative growth in which attention will be shifted from mass education to improved personal learning and living. This calls for more time from pupils, parents, and teachers.

In her article, "The Elementary School of Tomorrow—Its Possible Structure," Bess Goodykoontz of the United States Office of Education writes:

> As elementary schools continue to gather experience in planning Saturday and summertime programs of fun and achievement for children, there probably will come about less differentiation between *in-school* and *extended school* activities. . . . Somehow we will learn how to plan more generous, more suitable, more varied programs for children and youth of all ages, and fit them into the daytime hours most appropriate. This will become the new "school time." . . . Our concept of a school as a *building* will gradually give way to a school as an organization which operates in many ways, in many places, for many learning experiences.[20]

Thus emerging elementary education is not a destination but a journey, with learners and teachers always en route to better teaching, learning, and living. In this process the key person is the teacher, but her Achilles' heel is her limited preparation for enlarged tasks. Upon teacher improvement, in the last analysis, depends the betterment of elementary education. Higher standards for both preservice and in-service education are necessary. Then, too, the elementary teaching staff may well include more young men who understand boys and work with them in their out-of-class activities.

Elementary education forms the backbone of American public education, and it must shape the sinews of democracy. An unfulfilled objective is that of providing every person, no matter what his age or condition, with the equivalent of an elementary education. This will mean more rigid enforcement of compulsory attendance, more attention to handicapped children, and more evening schools for those youth and adults who lack elementary courses. Furthermore, as educational opportunities increase for youth and adults, the elementary school will cease to be a terminal institution, and will be a vital link in the chain of lifelong learning.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Prepare a brief history of elementary education in your own state.
2. Prepare a brief history of the infant school or the dame school.

[20] Bess Goodykoontz, "The Elementary School of Tomorrow—Its Possible Structure," *Childhood Education*, January, 1946, pp. 219–220.

3. Trace the historical development of a subject such as reading.

4. Prepare a biography of a pioneer in elementary education. List his contributions to elementary education.

5. Contrast the methods of teaching and discipline in a typical elementary school of 50 years ago and of today.

6. Draw a picture illustrating the difference between old-time and modern classroom procedure in the elementary school.

7. Arrange a debate on the subject: "Resolved that the traditional school is better than the progressive school."

8. Visit a modern elementary-school building and describe and explain its facilities.

9. Visit several grades in elementary schools. Observe the children and examine the methods of teaching and the program of studies.

10. Observe how holidays, such as Thanksgiving and Christmas, and seasonal activities are employed in teaching in the elementary school.

11. Investigate the place of student councils in the elementary school.

12. Attend a faculty meeting of elementary teachers and report on what some of their problems are.

13. Examine the laws of your state as to the legal ages for compulsory education, preparation of elementary teachers, etc.

14. Discuss the issue: "Resolved that the seventh and eighth grades belong to secondary rather than elementary education."

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CURRENT PERTINENT PERIODICALS AND PUBLICATIONS

Bulletins and Yearbooks
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California Journal of Elementary Education (4)[21]
Outstanding activities in elementary education described by the division of elementary education, California State Department of Education.

Childhood Education (9)
Official organ of Association for Childhood Education.

Elementary English Review (8)
Helpful periodical, especially for language teachers.

Elementary School Journal (10)
Issued by the department of education, University of Chicago. Annotated bibliographies published periodically.

Grade Teacher (10)
Specific suggestions and aids for elementary teachers.

Instructor (10)
Formerly the *Instructor and Primary Plans*. A practical magazine for the busy teacher.

Journal of the National Education Association (9)
General articles on elementary education and a special section on elementary-school service.

National Elementary Principal (6)
Official organ of the Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association.

Progressive Education (8)
Official organ of the American Education Fellowship.

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

EDUCATION FOR ALL AMERICAN CHILDREN — Filmstrip, 52 frames
This filmstrip illustrates the major conclusions and recommendations of the Educational Policies Commission book, *Education for All American Children*. A summary of this book is found in *Teach Them All*. Available with lecture notes from the Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, Washington, D.C.

Growing Up. — Thirteen 15-minute phonograph records
This fourth in a series of "Books Bring Adventure" has recorded dramatizations of books at the third-, fourth-, and fifth-grade reading level, although the range of listening is wider. Each book dramatization, such as *Lad of Courage*, deals with some problem a child meets as he stretches toward maturity. Available from Gloria Chandler Recording, New York.

[21] The figures following the titles of the publications indicate the number of issues annually.

LIFE WITH JUNIOR — Eighteen minutes, 16 mm., sound

This film depicts a typical day in the life of a ten-year-old. Made in cooperation with the Child Study Association of America, it pictures many common problems, such as acceptance of a new brother and Junior's refusal to eat. Available from March of Time Forum Films, New York.

PRIMARY ARITHMETIC — Six colored filmstrips, also 50 kodachrome slides

These filmstrips are illustrative of modern teaching aids in the elementary school. They teach basic understanding of numbers and their use, through concrete experiences of elementary children in grades 1, 2, and 3. A set of 50 kodachrome slides covers approximately the same material. Available from Popular Science Publishing Company, New York.

TOMMY'S DAY — Fifteen minutes, 16 mm., sound

This multipurpose film is a portrayal of a day in the life of Tommy, a seven-year-old boy. He starts the day by discovering that he has lost a tooth. Home scenes involve Tommy, his sister, his mother and father. His classroom provides opportunities for discussion of diet and dental care. Available with teacher's guide from Young America Films, New York.

WE GO TO SCHOOL — One reel, 16 mm., sound, black and white or color

This film is an introduction to school life for young children just starting this new adventure. It teaches the children what to expect from school and what the school expects from them. Available from Coronet Films, Chicago, Illinois.

PREVIEW OF UNIT VII

SECONDARY EDUCATION

Secondary education embraces in theory the seventh through the fourteenth years of schooling, from the junior high school through the junior college. Often it is delimited to the intermediate institution—the high school, in which up to 1940 the enrollments doubled nearly every decade. It should be closely articulated with elementary education and with that for post-high-school youth.

The evolution of the secondary school has been marked into three periods named after the characteristic institution: the Latin grammar school, the academy, and the public high school. A fourth period is here, *viz.*, that of the extended secondary school, which reaches downward to include the junior high school and upward to embrace the junior or community college.

The purposes of secondary education are stated in terms of objectives, issues, and functions. The implementation of these purposes has resulted in various types of secondary schools.

Among these are (1) the junior high school, (2) the senior or the 4-year high school, and (3) the junior college. A fourth category includes combinations of the above, as the 6-year high schools, and special schools, as vocational institutions and technological institutes.

Modern secondary education is teeming with changes; the future will see many more.

Outline of Contents

Introduction
- Articulation of elementary and secondary education
- Scope of secondary education
- Secondary schools and their enrollments

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- Changing concepts of secondary education

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- Junior high schools
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- Personnel

Future of Secondary Education

UNIT VII

SECONDARY EDUCATION

Articulation of Elementary and Secondary Education. Most elementary-school pupils advance to the next level of American public education, *viz.*, the secondary school. If they live in a city that has a junior high school, they start the seventh grade in this new unit; if they are in a typical 8-year elementary system, they enter the high school in the ninth grade. Whatever the system, the transition should be smooth for the pupils as they continue their education; they must not be delayed and discouraged by unnecessary "stop" and "go" signs. To study the problems of articulation the American Council on Education has a special committee on relations between elementary and secondary schools.

Scope of Secondary Education. The intermediate position of secondary education between elementary education and either out-of-school or college activities is set forth as follows by the Committee on Orientation of the National Association of Secondary School Principals:

> Secondary education denotes the education provided by schools for the purpose of guiding and promoting the development of normal individuals for whom, on the one hand, the elementary school no longer constitutes a satisfactory environment, and who, on the other hand, are either not yet prepared to participate effectively in society unguided by the school, or are not ready for the specialized work of the professional school or the upper division of the liberal arts college.

Secondary education as thus defined embraces every phase of the process by which society seeks to develop socially significant abilities and characteristics in preadolescent, adolescent, and postadolescent individuals. T. H. Briggs, a former professor of secondary-school administration at Teachers College, Columbia University, states that secondary education "is generally considered to include junior high schools (grades 7 to 9); high schools (9 to 12), specialized or cosmopolitan; senior high schools (10 to 12); the junior college (13 to 14); technical and vocational schools; continuation schools—in short, any institution that provides for the needs of adolescents."[1] Thus secondary education is broader and longer than what was traditionally encompassed by the 4-year high school. Today secondary education has doubled in length; it covers the seventh through the fourteenth year of schooling, extending downward to include the junior high school and upward to embrace the junior college.

Secondary Schools and Their Enrollments. The growth in the number of secondary schools and their enrollments has been phenomenal. Except

[1] Thomas H. Briggs, *Secondary Education*, p. 98, Macmillan, 1933.

for a temporary slump in the 1940's, 3- and 4-year senior high schools and their students have increased steadily. By decades, for a 100-year period, the number of high schools is shown in the accompanying table. Prior to

Year	Number of high schools	Year	Number of high schools
1850	11	1910	10,213
1860	44	1920	14,326
1870	160	1930	23,930
1880	800	1940	25,467
1890	2,526	1950	27,000 (estimated)
1900	6,005		

1900 the rate of increase was greater than during any decade in the twentieth century. In the decade after the Civil War, which included the favorable court decision in the famous Kalamazoo High School Case, the increase in the number of schools was 500 per cent. The number of high schools has increased and will probably continue to enlarge during the 1950–1960 decade, despite the accelerating elimination of small schools through consolidation and larger units. This trend should not cause educational decadence; quantitative growth must be accompanied by qualitative advancement through enrichment of opportunities for modern youth.

The enrollments in high schools almost doubled every 10 years to the 1940's, when there were over seven million pupils enrolled. During the Second World War a large number of boys and girls, especially the former, left high school or did not enter it, in order to work in industry or serve in the armed forces. Academic credit for military service enabled many veterans to accelerate their high-school graduation. Successful completion of the General Educational Development (GED) Tests reduced or eliminated high-school attendance for many youth. The long period of decreasing birth rates previous to 1940 also produced a slump in enrollments. However, it is estimated that during the 1950–1960 decade a new high of over eight million will be reached, since there will be a reservoir of more than ten million youth of high-school age (fourteen through seventeen years).

Nowhere in the world is so large a percentage of youth enrolled in secondary schools as in America. Nearly 70 per cent of the population of high-school age is attending school. Indications point to a steady increase to a possible total of 80 per cent.

The future enrollments in secondary education will be determined in a large measure by military, political, economic, social, and educational fac-

tors, the latter a challenge to teachers to reduce dropouts and to recruit students. The armed services, industry, business, and the professions have placed a high premium upon having a high-school diploma. Unfortunately many young persons cannot attend high school because of economic factors. The secondary school is not yet effectively free for all who can benefit therefrom.

Another factor influencing enrollment is legislation. For example, in some states the compulsory school age has been extended to eighteen years. Naturally such legislation if enforced will cause the walls of many high schools and junior colleges to bulge with their teeming pupil population, thus helping to produce another era of expansion in secondary education.

DEVELOPMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Historical Calendar—Secondary Education and Contemporaneous Events

The historical calendar found on the next page contains some significant dates in the evolution of modern secondary education juxtaposed with contemporaneous events of political, economic, and social importance.

Four Periods of Development

The history of secondary education is usually chronicled in three rather distinct periods named after the institution characteristic of each era: (1) the Latin grammar school, (2) the tuition academy, and (3) the free public high school. Leonard V. Koos, director of the National Survey of Secondary Education, states that the present century has brought to the American educational scene another period (4) distinguished by the vertically extended or reorganized secondary school.

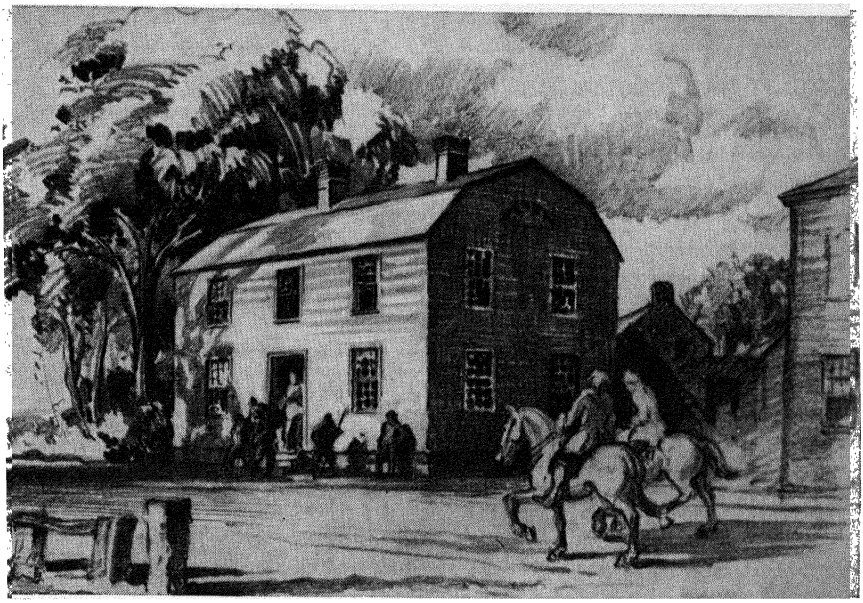
1. *Latin Grammar School.* In 1935 American education celebrated the three hundredth anniversary of the establishment of the Boston Latin School—the first secondary school in America. British forerunners of the Boston Latin School were the Winchester (1394) and the Westminster (1561) schools. The first step toward organizing the Latin grammar school in America was taken by Bostonians on April 23, 1635, in a town meeting, where it was voted, "that our brother, Philemon Pormont, shal be intreated to become scholemaster for the teaching and nourtering of children with us." In August of the following year 45 inhabitants of Boston subscribed a sum of money to maintain a "free schoolmaster for the youth with us, Mr. Daniel Maud being now also chosen thereunto." Such efforts as these mark the beginnings of secondary education in the colonies, and by 1700 approximately forty grammar schools had been founded in New England. The schools of secondary education were not so common everywhere.

HISTORICAL CALENDAR

Secondary Education	Contemporaneous Events
1635—First Latin grammar school founded (Boston)	1635—First English settlement located in Connecticut
1751—Franklin Academy organized (Philadelphia)	1753—George Washington sent by Virginia to the Ohio region
1821—First English high school started for boys (Boston)	1821—Monroe elected President for second term
1826—First high school organized for girls (Boston)	1825—Erie Canal completed
1856—First coeducational high school established (Chicago)	1857—Dred Scott decision rendered by Supreme Court
1872—Taxation for secondary schools upheld by Kalamazoo High School Case (Michigan)	1871—City of Chicago damaged by great fire
1884—Manual-training high school started (Baltimore)	1885—World's Industrial Exposition held at New Orleans
1893—Recommendations of Committee of Ten published as *Report of Committee on Secondary School Studies*	1893—Columbian Exposition (World's Fair) opened at Chicago
1899—Recommendation of Committee on College Entrance Requirements published	1899—First Philippine Commission appointed by the United States
1902—First public junior college founded (Joliet, Illinois)	1902—Panama Canal treaty recommended by President Theodore Roosevelt
1907—G. Stanley Hall's *Adolescence* published	1907—Financial panic spread through United States
1910—First junior high schools started (Berkeley, California, and Columbus, Ohio)	1910—Postal savings banks established
1918—Report of Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education published	1918—Two million American troops engaged overseas in First World War
1933—Reports of National Survey of Secondary Education published	1933—Gold standard abandoned by United States
1933—Committee on Orientation of Secondary Education appointed	1933—*Recent Social Trends* issued by President Hoover's Research Committee
1941—Eight-year study of Progressive Education Association published	1941—Constitutionality of Wage and Hour Act upheld by Supreme Court
1948—Revision of Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards begun	1948—Peacetime draft bill passed, making exemption possible for high-school students
1949—Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth appointed to revise curriculums	1949—Increase in amount of customs exemption granted by Congress

In the Middle and Southern colonies private tutors were engaged and many young boys and girls were sent back to Europe for their schooling.

The main purpose of the Latin grammar school was to prepare pupils for college. This major objective was clearly stated in the Massachusetts law of 1647, which decreed that: "when any town shall increase to the number of 100 families or householders, they shall set up a grammar school, the master thereof being able to instruct youth so far as they shall be fitted for the university. . . ." The task of preparing for college is reflected in



(Courtesy of New York Herald Tribune.)

FIG. 7-1. America's first secondary school, Boston Latin School, founded in 1635.

the Harvard statutes of 1643, which defined entrance requirements for that university as follows:

> When any scholar is able to understand Tully, or such like classical Latin author *extempore*, and make and speak true Latin in verse and prose, *suo ut aiunt Marte;* and decline perfectly the paradigms of *nouns* and *verbs* in the *Greek* tongue: Let him then and not before be capable of admission to the college.

The Latin grammar schools, especially the earlier ones, offered a limited curriculum. As indicated by its name, the school was primarily restricted to the study of classical languages and literatures. It was very selective in character and sought to establish an aristocracy of educated intellectuals.

Admission to the Latin grammar schools was usually conditioned by the social and economic rank of the applicant. A sort of dual system, patterned on an European plan, prevailed in early American education. In this system an elementary education open to all was distinct from a secondary education closed to all but a chosen few.

Financial support for the Latin grammar school was provided in one or more of the following ways: tuition, donations, taxation, leases, legacies, lotteries, and land grants by civil authorities or private persons. Its control was at first considered the right and duty of the clergy since most of the pupils pursued studies that fitted them for the ministry or professions. Gradually the Latin grammar schools with their emphasis on theology began to lose their popularity. Leadership in the community was no longer with the clergy but rather with the town and commercial executives. Out of the new economic and social conditions in America arose the next period of secondary education, *viz.*, that of the tuition academy.

2. *The Tuition Academy.* Benjamin Franklin, who has never been accorded his just place in American education, was primarily responsible for the establishment of the first academy. Franklin in his *Autobiography* thus describes the genesis of the academy:

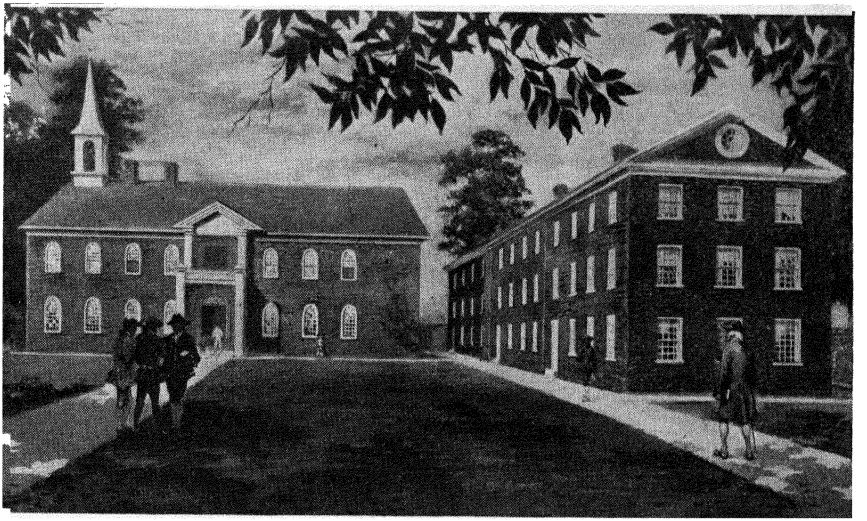
> The first step I took was to associate in the design a number of active friends, of whom the Junto furnished a good part; the next was to write and publish a pamphlet, entitled *Proposals Relating to the Education of Youth in Pennsylvania.*[2]

These proposals contained many practical and progressive suggestions. According to Carl Van Doren, "in a day of rigid classical schools, Franklin took his stand with reformers like Milton and Locke and the most advanced contemporary Americans."[3] A board of 24 trustees was formed, of which Franklin was president from 1749 to 1756. This academy, which absorbed a charitable school erected in 1740 and later became the University of Pennsylvania, opened in a hired house in Philadelphia in 1751. The curriculum was broader than that of the Latin grammar school, although not so extensive as Franklin planned it should be. Since it aimed to prepare for life as well as for the ministry, its students included those not intending to go to college as well as the college bound.

Although a large number of academies were founded between 1750 and 1800, the movement reached its greatest height in the decade from 1840 to 1850, flourishing best in M[redacted]achusetts and New York. From 1780 to 1850 nearly 300 academies were organized in New York State, 150 in Massachusetts, and 6000 in all the states.

[2] Benjamin Franklin, *Autobiography*, p. 203, Century, 1901.
[3] Carl Van Doren, *Benjamin Franklin*, p. 192, Viking, 1938.

The academies differed from the Latin grammar schools in several aspects. Besides expanding the curriculum to include such fields as commerce and science, the academy permitted young women to enter. From the days of Mary Chilton, the first woman to step off the *Mayflower*, to the present, women have played a conspicuous role in American life, yet their education was grossly neglected for many decades.



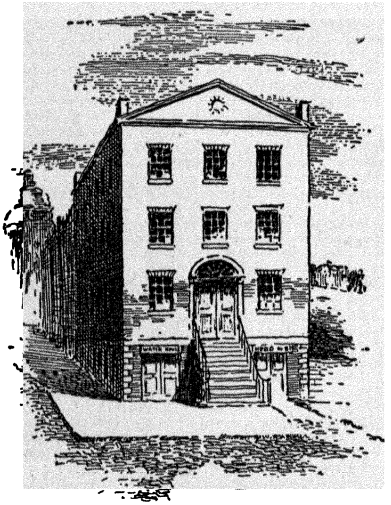
(Courtesy of University of Pennsylvania.)

FIG. 7-2. The first academy, founded by Franklin in 1751. This painting by Charles Lefferts shows on the left the first secondary school of the academy type, founded by Benjamin Franklin, former student of the Boston Latin School. The building was erected in 1740 to house a charity school and meetings held by wandering preachers. The dormitory at the right was built in 1762, seven years after a confirming charter was granted, incorporating the charity school, the academy, and the college. The institution first became known as a university in 1779. The University of Pennsylvania thus traces its corporate growth to the charity school.

The academy, supported in the main by tuition and donations, was semipublic in control. In its organization, administration, and program it was more democratic than the Latin grammar school. The person in charge was usually called the headmaster or principal. Several private academies still exist in the United States as military academies or special schools, but most of the older ones have either disappeared or transformed themselves into public high schools.

3. *The Free Public High School.* The third period in the history of the American secondary school covers the rise and growth of the free public high school, inaugurated with the establishment of the English Classical School in Boston in 1821. This school for boys, later called the English

High School, was followed by a high school for girls in the same city in 1826. During the next half century various types of high schools were organized. Among these were the first coeducational high school, started in Chicago in 1856, and the first manual training school, founded in Baltimore in 1884. Many factors contributed to the steady development of these schools, particularly in the democratic West.



(Courtesy of The First National Bank of Boston.)

FIG. 7-3. The first high school, English High School, opened in 1821. This was the first institution to be called a "high school" and was so styled in 1824.

Kalamazoo High School Case. A legal decision of a supreme court, state or national, may affect markedly the flow of events—political, economic, or social. Two signal decisions that stimulated the growth of educational institutions were handed down in the Dartmouth College Case (1819), and the Kalamazoo High School Case (1872). The former is discussed in Unit VIII; the latter is presented here.

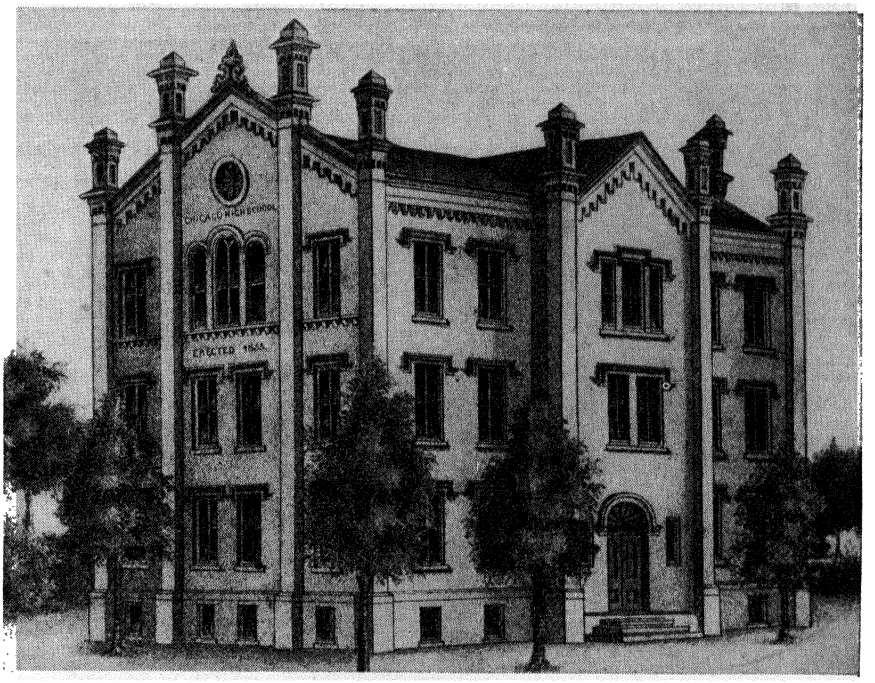
In 1872 in Kalamazoo, Michigan, now the home of a flourishing state college of education, a person objected to supporting the high school by public taxation. A friendly suit was started in which the citizen stated that he was willing to support the elementary school but that he objected to paying for the high school, since it was not a legitimate part of the publicly supported system. The final opinion of the court as to the legality of free high-school instruction was rendered thus:

> 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 in 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.[4]

This decision of the Supreme Court of Michigan has become famous in school law because it lent legal sanction to the movement for the establishment of publicly supported high schools. Similar decisions followed in several other states, thus removing any question as to the legality of communities' taxing themselves for the support of public high schools. The

[4] E. P. Cubberley, *Readings in the History of Education*, p. 589, Houghton 1920.

Kalamazoo decision thus paved the way for a phenomenal growth in this new institution of democracy. It must be remembered that although other countries have so-called "public high schools" they are not public and free to all in the sense that the American high school is. In America the high school is "the people's school."



(Courtesy of Public Schools, Chicago.)

FIG. 7-4. First coeducational high school, opened in Chicago in 1856. Two years earlier the city council, shattering precedent and foreseeing the future, adopted an "Ordinance to Establish Public Schools for Males and Females in the City of Chicago."

4. *The Extended Secondary School.* As previously mentioned, the history of the American secondary school is usually divided into three stages. A fourth period is here in which a new type of institution is slowly evolving, *viz.*, the vertically extended secondary school or the reorganized high school.

Of this new period in the evolution of secondary education, Leonard V. Koos says:

I refer to the extensions of the high school downward to effect junior-high-school reorganization and upward to include junior college years. Many communities, to be sure, have made the extension in one direction only, either downward or upward. However, many other communities have introduced the extensions in both directions and have thereby achieved an 8-year period of secondary education.

In the light of the fact that all the earlier types in our succession of secondary schools have been dominantly 4-year institutions, the emergence of an institution covering a period twice as long is a change notable enough to mark a new type.[5]

That the twentieth century marks the beginning of the fourth period is substantiated by the reports of the National Survey of Secondary Education. Two new public institutions have arisen, *viz.*, the *junior* college, which was

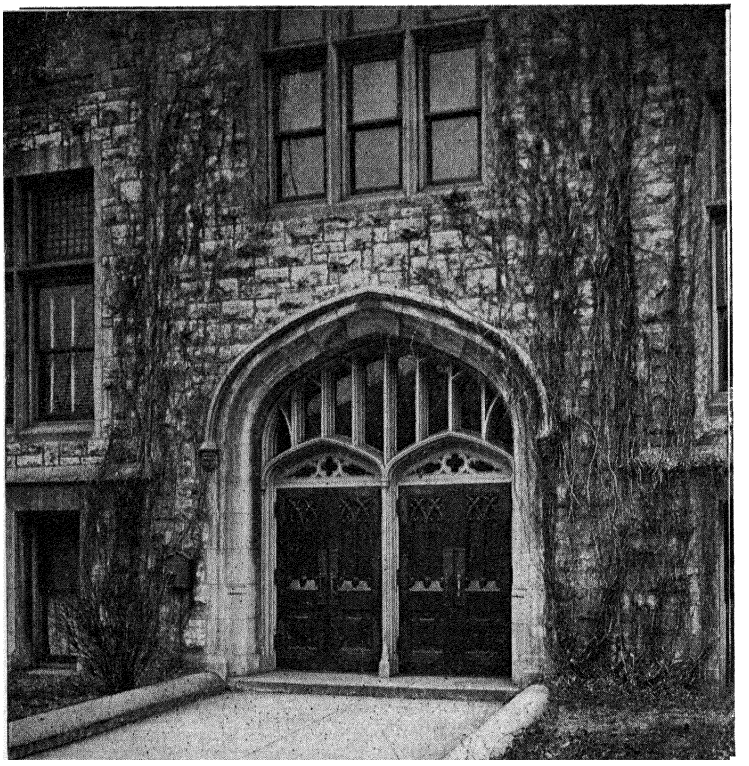


FIG. 7-5. First public junior college, opened in 1902. This picture of the Joliet Junior College, Joliet, Illinois, shows the entrance to the original building.

first established in 1902 in Joliet, Illinois, and the *junior* high school, which was first organized in 1910 in Berkeley, California, and Columbus, Ohio.

Reorganization is modifying the last two years of the elementary school, the four years of high school, and the two years that follow. The United States Office of Education presents biennial statistics on the growth of reorganized high schools. A steady movement is evident toward the re-

[5] Leonard V. Koos, "The Rise of the American High School," address presented at the Sixty-ninth Convocation of the University of the State of New York celebrating the 150th anniversary of the establishment of the University, October 13, 1933.

organization of existing high schools and the establishment of such secondary schools as junior, junior-senior, and senior high schools, and junior colleges.

The downward extension of secondary education, which commenced with the establishment of the first junior high schools in 1910, was preceded by the upward extension, which began with the organization of the first junior college. Although the earliest public junior college was that at Joliet, Illinois, in 1902, the Decatur Baptist College, which was founded in Texas in 1891 and reorganized as a private junior college in 1898, claims the distinction of being the oldest junior college. Some of the privately controlled junior colleges began as academies or seminaries over a hundred years ago, as is the case of Colby Junior College, which started as the "New London Seminary" in New Hampshire in 1837. The organization of junior colleges is described later in this unit.

Leaders in Secondary Education

Three hundred years and more of secondary education in America have produced some three hundred leaders in this field. Only a few can be mentioned here. One of the earliest was the versatile Benjamin Franklin (1706–1790), who replaced the narrow curricular offerings of the Latin grammar school with an enriched program in the Franklin Academy. His uncommon common sense helped to make secondary education more practical. Another leader, G. Stanley Hall (1846–1924), through his monumental work *Adolescence*, published in 1907, helped to make secondary education more aware of the psychological needs of youth.

Another pioneer thinker in this field was Charles W. Eliot (1834–1926). Although he is best known for his long and effective service as president of Harvard University, his imprint upon secondary education is indelible. His efforts to raise the entrance requirements for Harvard were reflected in the improved standards in the high schools. His provisions for choice in entrance units allowed greater freedom in secondary curriculums. His work as chairman of the national Committee of Ten (1890) led eventually to the junior-high-school movement. His oral and written emphasis on seeing, hearing, and feeling stimulated the development of vocational education in the secondary schools.

Another university president who directly influenced the secondary schools was William Rainey Harper (1856–1906), who received his Ph.D. degree at the age of nineteen and became president of the University of Chicago at thirty-five. As chairman of a national committee he recommended that the period of elementary education be reduced. His argument that the small ineffective college should drop senior work and become a junior college earned for him the title "father of the junior college."

The University of Chicago added another leader in secondary education

in the person of Leonard V. Koos, already mentioned in connection with the extended secondary school and the National Survey of Secondary Education. He has emphasized the role of the reorganized secondary school.

Another personality in secondary education is Thomas H. Briggs, emeritus professor of secondary-school administration at Teachers College, Columbia University. Through his contact with hundreds of secondary-school principals and teachers in his college classes, through his numerous

(Courtesy of Metropolitan Museum of Art.)

FIG. 7-6. Benjamin Franklin.

publications, and through his chairmanship of the Committee on Orientation of Secondary Education appointed by the Department of Secondary School Principals, he has had a tremendous influence on secondary education in America and abroad.

To this group of statesmen, college presidents, and university instructors could be added an endless list of secondary-school principals, classroom teachers, and board members who daily display courage, vision, and common sense in striving to make the objectives of secondary education function in a given locale.

PURPOSES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Changing Concepts of Secondary Education

The objectives or directives of secondary education have been numerous and varied. In the days of the Latin grammar school, the main aim was to prepare a select group of boys and a few girls for both college and life activities. Within the last fifty years, however, have come changed concepts of what should be the objectives and who should be the recipients of secondary education. Contrast with modern objectives the statement from the report of the Committee of Ten in 1894 that the high school should be planned for "that small proportion of all the children in the country—a proportion small in number, but very important to the welfare of the nation—who show themselves able to profit by an education prolonged to the eighteenth year, and whose parents are able to support them while they remain so long at school."

Seven Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education. A well-known set of objectives of historical significance is that prepared in 1918 by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, which advocated "such reorganization that secondary education may be defined as applying to all pupils of approximately twelve to eighteen years of age." Briefly stated, these seven objectives, usually called the "cardinal principles of education" and applied to elementary as well as secondary education, are as follows:

1. Health
2. Command of fundamental processes
3. Worthy home membership
4. Vocational efficiency
5. Civic participation
6. Worthy use of leisure time
7. Ethical character

These objectives stress life out of school as well as in school. They resemble somewhat the activities listed in 1859 by Herbert Spencer in his essay "What Knowledge Is of Most Worth?" and those presented by Bobbitt in 1924 in his *How to Make a Curriculum.*

North Central Association Objectives. The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in its *Quarterly* for March, 1927, presented these goals:

I. The *ultimate* objectives of secondary education stated in terms of dispositions and abilities may be summarized as follows:
   A. To maintain health and physical fitness
   B. To use leisure time in right ways
   C. To sustain successfully certain definite social relationships such as civic, domestic, community, and the like
   D. To engage in exploratory-vocational and vocational activities

II. The *immediate* objectives for the purpose of accomplishing the above ultimate objectives are these:
   A. Acquiring fruitful knowledge
      1. Preparatory to acquiring other knowledge
      2. Knowledge which functions directly in developing dispositions and in discovering and developing abilities
      3. Knowledge which is useful in the control of situations of everyday life
   B. Development of attitudes, interests, motives, ideals, and appreciations
   C. Development of definite mental techniques in memory, imagination, judgment, and reasoning
   D. Acquiring right habits and useful skills

For several years a special committee of the North Central Association has been developing "functional" units to meet these ultimate and immediate objectives.

Issues in Secondary Education. A vital force in formulating the objectives and program of secondary education has been the National Association of Secondary School Principals, a department of the National Education Association. Under the dynamic and intelligent chairmanship of Professor Thomas H. Briggs of Teachers College, Columbia University, the Committee on Orientation in 1933 published statements of "Issues and Functions of Secondary Education." These have been studied in a large number of discussion groups throughout the United States, each state being organized under a coordinator.

Issues, as defined by Briggs and the committee, are the questions of fundamental policy that have grown out of conflicting opinions, policies, and practices. They are to be decided primarily by reference to philosophies rather than by fact finding and by experimentation, although the latter are needed to direct judgments. The 10 issues prepared by the Committee on Orientation are summarized in Unit XVII.[6]

Special Functions of Secondary Education. The Committee on Orientation also prepared a statement of special functions for secondary education in the United States. These particular tasks, which may in varying degree begin in the later elementary school and continue at least till the end of the junior college, are briefly:

1. Integration
2. Satisfaction of needs
3. Revelation of racial heritage
4. Exploration of interests, aptitudes, and capacities
5. Systematization and application of knowledge
6. Establishment and direction of interests

[6] See also T. H. Briggs, *op. cit.*, "The Issues in Secondary Education," pp. 193–251; and Department of Secondary School Principals, *Bulletin*, National Education Association, January, 1936, pp. 31–364.

7. Guidance
8. Differentiation and general education
9. Methods of teaching and learning
10. Retention and direction of pupils[7]

These functions, to be modified in the light of developments, represent a perennial challenge to all laymen and educators.

Education for All American Youth. Prior to developing a basic set of principles for elementary education in its volume, *Education for All American Children*, the Educational Policies Commission published *Education for All American Youth*, in which it formulated policies for secondary education. Schools should be dedicated, said the Commission, to the proposition that every youth in these United States—regardless of sex, economic status, geographic location, or race—should experience a broad and balanced education which will:

1. Equip him to enter an occupation suited to his abilities and offering reasonable opportunity for personal growth and social usefulness.
2. Prepare him to assume the full responsibilities of American citizenship.
3. Give him a fair chance to exercise his right to the pursuit of happiness.
4. Stimulate intellectual curiosity, engender satisfaction in intellectual achievement, and cultivate the ability to think rationally.
5. Help him to develop an appreciation of the ethical values which should undergird all life in a democratic society.

The commission further adds that it is the duty of a democratic society to provide opportunities for such education through its schools; it is the obligation of every youth, as a citizen, to make full use of these opportunities; and it is the responsibility of parents to give encouragement and support to both youth and schools.[8]

Life Adjustment Education for Youth. In 1947 the Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth was created. This commission, which consists of representatives from several national organizations, including the United States Office of Education and the National Association of Secondary School Principals, has stimulated programs that more adequately meet the imperative needs of students now in school. Even more, it has encouraged the types of education required for adolescent youth who drop out of school because their needs are not satisfied.[9] (See Appendix VII for "The Imperative Needs of Youth.")

[7] T. H. Briggs, *op. cit.*, "The Special Functions of Secondary Education," pp. 252–288; also, Department of Secondary School Principals, *Bulletin*, National Education Association, January, 1937, pp. 23–263.

[8] Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth*, p. 21, National Education Association, 1944.

[9] Benjamin C. Willis, "Life Adjustment Education for Youth," *Bulletin*, pp. 95–106, National Association of Secondary School Principals, April, 1949.

The commission works through the chief state educational officials, who appoint committees to select cooperating schools. The guiding principles or criteria for cooperating schools are as follows:

1. The supreme test of life adjustment education shall be in terms of individual development identified by accurate knowledge of each individual pupil's knowledges and characteristics, his purposes, and those of society.
2. Secondary schools developing life adjustment education seek to enroll, retain, and meet the needs of all normal adolescents who are not yet ready for next steps, such as full-time occupations, or for further formal education.
3. Learning experiences required of all youth are selected and planned in terms of common recurring problems of life faced by all people rather than those of college entrance requirements or other specialized needs of the relatively few.
4. The emphasis is upon direct pupil-teacher planning; sharing and participation in real-life experience while seeking solutions to individual, social, and civic problems.
5. Administrators in schools which stress life adjustment education for every youth will organize and administer through the active participation of pupils, parents, and teachers, as well as organized civic, lay, industrial, and business groups.
6. Records and data are used in counseling with pupils and parents, in improving instruction, in developing all desirable latent qualities of pupils, in individual self-approval, in placement, and as basic material for continuing curriculum evolution.
7. Life adjustment education programs are evaluated in terms of desirable changes in pupil behavior rather than in terms of the mastering of abstract concepts in logically organized subject-matter courses.

The commission has implemented its goals through a persistent and continued attack on the problems of secondary education.

TYPES OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS

To meet the varied purposes of secondary education and the diverse needs of secondary pupils many types of schools have developed. As indicated in Fig. 7-7, when secondary education is restricted to 4 years it is traditionally the function of one institution, *viz.*, the high school. In some communities secondary education is extended downward 2 years to embrace the last two years of what was elementary education, plus the traditional four years of the high-school period, thus creating the undivided or 6-year secondary school. In communities where there is rigid separation of the elementary and secondary schools, the secondary period of learning may reach not downward but upward to include the junior college in connection with the regular high school. Many cities are now reorganizing secondary education into a unified 8-year program or into two divisions—the lower secondary school, covering grades 7, 8, 9, and 10, and the upper secondary school, embracing grades 11, 12, 13, and 14. These seem to be two of the future patterns for secondary education. Currently there is much em-

phasis upon the 3-year model, divided into three sections, the junior high school (7, 8, and 9), the senior high school (10, 11, and 12), and the junior college (13 and 14). To this classification may be added other groupings by years or special curricular schools, such as vocational.

Junior High Schools

Seventh- and Eighth-grade Schools. In its shortened form the junior high school may consist of two grades, the seventh and eighth. Many so-called "junior high schools," however, are merely glorified seventh and eighth grades minus the philosophy, program, and procedures of the genuine junior high school. The latter is more than a grouping or regrouping of grades, and new names. School-board members and administrators do not

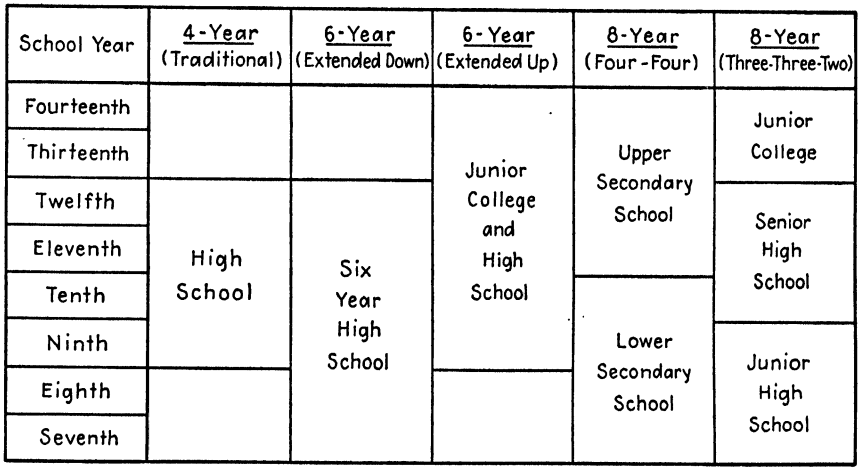


Fig. 7-7. Organizational patterns for secondary education.

produce a junior high school by erecting a new building with the words "Junior High School" carved in stone over the entrance. Teachers do not create a junior-high-school curriculum by using pupil textbooks labeled *Junior High School Mathematics*, *Junior High School English*, etc. Even where the seventh and eighth grades are grouped with the ninth, a real junior high school may not exist. Adding the ninth grade may be as incongruous as sewing a new piece of cloth onto an old garment. What is needed is a new pattern and a new institution—a junior high school in name, function, and curriculum—dominated by the philosophy and purposes of secondary rather than elementary education.

Junior High School. This school, first called "intermediate," was later christened the "junior high school." Arising out of dissatisfaction with the established order of things, the junior high school has advanced until

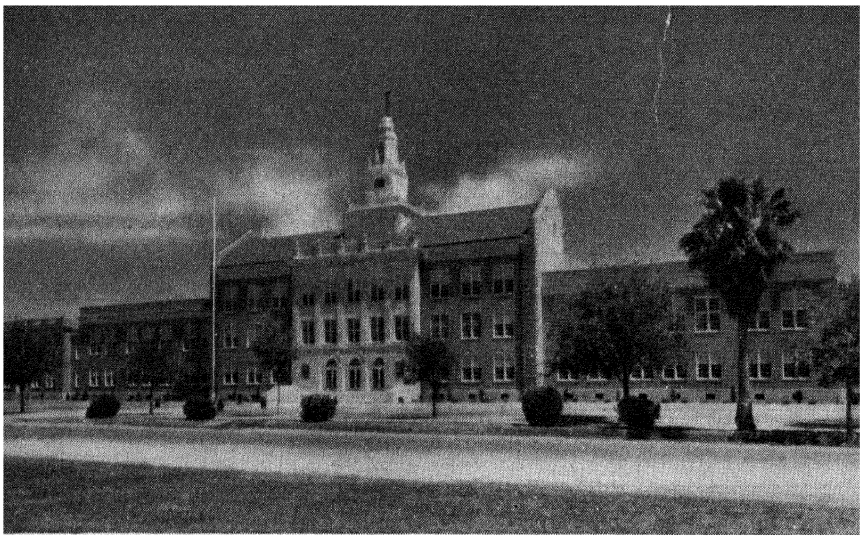
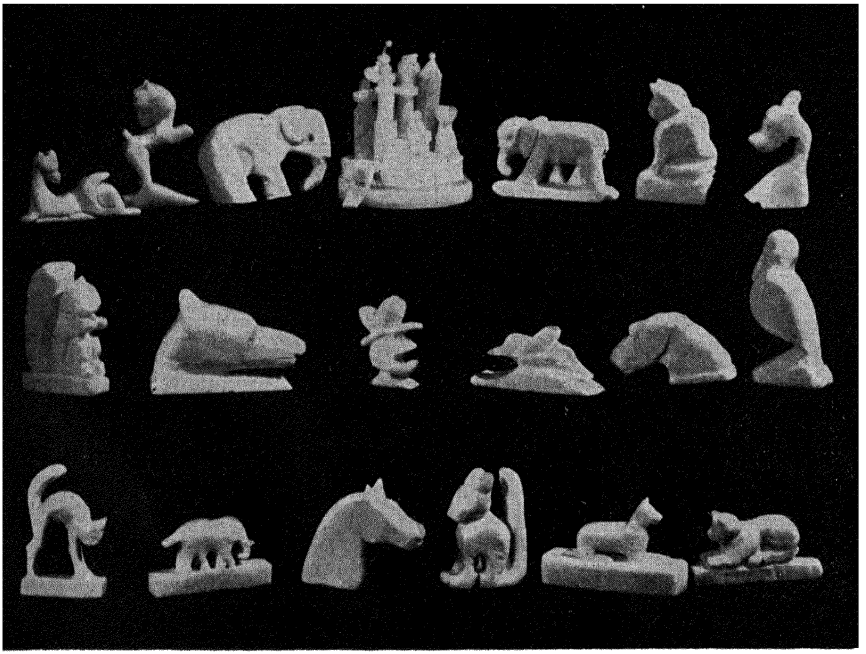


FIG. 7-8. Woodrow Wilson Junior High School, Port Arthur, Texas.



(Courtesy of Public Schools, South Bend, Indiana.)

FIG. 7-9. Soap sculptures by junior-high-school pupils.

it now forms the lowest rung on the ladder of secondary education. Although its progress was retarded during the First and Second World Wars, this institution has taken Herculean strides, particularly in the larger cities. Its usual range embraces the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades. As just indicated, however, the junior high school is more than a regrouping of grades.

> The junior high school is an organization of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades into an administrative unit for the purpose of providing instruction and training suitable to the varied and changing physical, mental, and social natures and needs of immature, maturing, and mature pupils.[10]

The National Survey of Secondary Education listed nine major features of the organization of junior high schools.

1. Special flexibility for admission and promotion of pupils
2. Arrangement of instruction
3. Program of studies
4. Extracurriculum program
5. Educational and vocational guidance
6. Special features for articulation
7. Specially trained teaching staff
8. Supervision of instruction
9. Special housing and equipment

According to nation-wide surveys of actual practices in junior high schools, there is much room for improvement. Junior-high-school administrators appear to be more influenced by past practice and by financial expediency than by advanced theory.

Intermediate Secondary Schools

The middle area of secondary education usually embraces the senior high school, or the typical 4-year high school, or variations thereof.

Senior High School. This is usually a 3-year high school with grades 10, 11, and 12 linked with a junior-high system for grades 7, 8, and 9. Often the existing buildings predicate what the organization of the high school shall be. In cities with a fluctuating population and changing building facilities, the first-semester students of the tenth grade may be housed in the senior high school one year and in the junior-high building the next.

Although the graduation requirements from the 4-year schools are 16 units, those for the senior high are reduced to 12. Since colleges and accrediting agencies are not vitally concerned with the content of the last year of junior high schools (the ninth grade), wider experimentation and more

[10] Ralph W. Pringle, *The Junior High School*, p. 68, McGraw-Hill, 1937.

orientation are possible in a six-three-three organization than in an eight-four plan. The six-three-three system, however, has the disadvantage of an extra hyphen (indicating a transition) not found in the eight-four plan. With an increase in attendance units the need for articulation is also increased. On the other hand, once the students are in the senior high, its holding power is stronger than that of the 4-year school since the usual ninth-grade "drop-outs" have come during or at the close of the junior-high period. With the increasing growth of the junior high is linked the future of the senior high school.

(Courtesy of Public Schools, York, Pennsylvania, and Office of Education.)

FIG. 7-10. Homemaking for secondary-school girls includes many types of activities.

Four-year High School. The secondary school that includes grades 9, 10, 11, and 12 is the prevailing type of high-school organization in the United States. Under present conditions it will continue to lead in states like Illinois, where many high schools under a separate board of education are divorced from the elementary-school district. This practically prohibits the combination of seventh, eighth, and ninth grades. The high school commencing with the ninth grade is also popular in small rural areas and may be only a 2- or 3-year institution. Although several states still recognize these 2- and 3-year schools, the regional accrediting associations do not put their stamp of approval upon them because of their limitations in equipment, staff, enrollment, curriculums, and social living.

The traditional 4-year school is undergoing significant changes. Especially since the beginning of the present century, marked internal improvement has been effected. Where it is neither desirable nor possible to reorganize the 4-year high school into a new type of secondary school, much is being done to rejuvenate the existing institution. Even though the 4-year unit does not reorganize externally, it can improve internally through curricular modifications and other changes.

Junior Colleges, Community Colleges, and Other Postsecondary Institutions

Position of the Junior College. Traditionally, a junior college has been defined as an institution of higher education that gives 2 years of work equivalent in prerequisites, scope, and thoroughness to the work done in the first 2 years of college. On the other hand, the conviction is growing that the junior college, as well as the freshman and sophomore years of colleges and universities, belongs to the secondary-school level. Lotus D. Coffman, when president of the University of Minnesota, stated: "There is a wide growing belief that junior colleges may be effectively established in connection with public schools. In this view the junior college is an essential part of secondary education and finds its natural articulation with the public high school." California, which ranks first in the number of junior colleges, has made the independent junior college a definite part of its common-school system, and rightly so, since the junior college should not be a separate entity. Whether it belongs to secondary or to higher education may be a debatable issue, but the junior or community college should be integrated with the high schools on one hand and with the higher institutions on the other.

Its Growth. The junior college, a product of the twentieth century, has spread gradually from West to East. Originating in Illinois and Texas, it has had the greatest growth in the western and southwestern parts of the United States. Junior colleges now exist in almost every state. The growth in the number of colleges and their enrollments is revealed in the accompanying tabulation. Data on junior colleges and their enrollments are published in the annual directory of the *Junior College Journal.*

Year	Number of colleges	Enrollment in colleges	Year	Number of colleges	Enrollment in colleges
1922	207	16,121	1942	627	267,406
1927	325	35,630	1946	591	251,290
1930	429	67,627	1948	663	455,048
1934	514	103,592	1950	700 (est.)	500,000 (est.)
1938	553	136,623			

Types of Junior Colleges. The legal control of junior colleges is vested in (1) public bodies, *viz.*, city, township, county, state, and district officials; (2) the church, with Roman Catholic, Methodist, and Baptist in the lead, and other religious organizations such as the Y.M.C.A.; and (3) private corporations independent of church or state, such as Penn Hall Junior College for women located in Chambersburg, Pennsylvania. Approximately one half are public, but their enrollments far outnumber those in the other two types. The typical junior college is coeducational.

According to the President's Commission on Higher Education the 2-year college is about as widely needed today as the 4-year high school was a few decades ago. Such a college should fit into the community life as the high school has done. "Hence the President's Commission suggests the nomenclature 'community college' to be applied to the institution designed to serve chiefly local community educational needs."

> Community colleges in the future may be either publicly or privately controlled and supported, but most of them obviously will be under public auspices. They will be mainly local or regional in scope and should be locally controlled, though they should be carefully planned to fit into a comprehensive state-wide system of higher education. They will derive much of their support from the local community, supplemented by aid from state funds.[11]

These community colleges are destined to increase in number and influence.

Another type of junior college is the technical institute or institute of applied arts and sciences. For example, New York State, after an extensive survey of postwar educational needs, launched a number of post-secondary technical institutes whose regular program provides 2 years of education and training for post-high-school youth or others whose maturity, needs, interests, and abilities justify admission. Some of these schools are designed primarily for general, regional service, but a few post-secondary institutes are for highly specialized occupations, to serve either the upstate area or the whole state.

Origin of Junior Colleges. As to method of establishment, the junior colleges may be classified on the following bases: (1) adding 2 years to the high school, (2) subtracting 2 years from the college, (3) affiliating with existing colleges and universities, and (4) organizing a separate new institution.

Their Functions. The four well-known functions of the junior college are:

(1) *Popularizing higher education,* or offering college opportunities to local high-school graduates and adults who would otherwise be deprived of a college education;

[11] President's Commission on Higher Education, *Higher Education for American Democracy,* Volume III, "Organizing Higher Education," p. 5, Volume I, "Establishing the Goals," p. 67, Superintendent of Documents, 1947.

(2) *preparatory*, or providing 2 years of standard college work or professional work for entrance to the senior college or professional school; (3) *terminal*, or preparing students in 2 years for a career and for "social" citizenship; and (4) *guidance*, or aiding in shaping the lives of young students and directing them educationally and vocationally.[12]

These functions demand an extensive curriculum.

Their Curriculums. Most curriculums of the various junior colleges may be grouped into (1) basic courses, stressing general education and culture; (2) preparatory courses for advanced study, leading toward the bachelor's degree or beyond; (3) semiprofessional courses, preparing for professional schools such as journalism; and (4) occupational courses, usually terminal in nature and leading directly to employment. These types are described in the next unit, but reference is made briefly here to general and terminal education in secondary and postsecondary institutions.

General Education in Secondary and Postsecondary Education. The basic purpose of secondary education must be accented, especially in a highly specialized and scientific age. This fundamental function is general education, the common denominator that develops a basic and wide range of competencies which one needs as a person and a citizen in a democratic society. The general education one acquires in the elementary school must be supplemented by further "common learnings" in secondary and postsecondary education. The President's Commission on Higher Education in its recommendations for community colleges stated: "If the semiprofessional curriculum is to accomplish its purpose it must not be crowded with vocational and technical courses to the exclusion of general education." The Regents' plan for technical institutes in New York stated: "The institutions will be charged with the multiple task of combining technical training with general education." In the earlier years of secondary education the highest priority should be given to general education, while in postsecondary institutions an adequate balance must be maintained between general education and activities leading to occupational competence.

Terminal Education. The Commission on Junior College Terminal Education, working under the auspices of the American Association of Junior Colleges through a grant from the General Education Board, found that most junior-college students do not continue their education beyond this limit, yet only about a third of the young men and women enrolled are taking courses that are terminal in character. Obviously, junior colleges should devote more attention to the development of terminal education, including not only vocational and semiprofessional training but also general cultural education for social and civic intelligence.

[12] Walter S. Greenleaf, *Junior Colleges*, pp. 22–23, Superintendent of Documents, 1936.

In this connection, the query is raised: "Should completion of junior-college work be officially recognized?" Some type of formal benediction seems desirable. In India the "intermediate" degree is given to those who successfully complete 2 years of work beyond the high school. Associate in Arts or Associate in Science is the degree usually granted in America. Since the junior college is at present in a sort of "no man's land" between secondary and higher education, practices in granting degrees and building curriculums are in a state of flux.

Role of Junior College and Postsecondary Institutions. Judd once stated that "the particular institution which is likely to produce the most important readjustment in the whole educational system is the junior college." The depression, postdepression, war, and postwar periods have consolidated and strengthened the position of the junior colleges in America. In California they are banded together in sectional associations as well as in a state federation. In many states they form independent associations, as in Oklahoma, or constitute a part of the state teachers association, as in Iowa. The American Association of Junior Colleges, chartered in 1920, has its national headquarters at Washington, D.C. *The Junior College Journal* is its official publication. This association's comprehensive study of the role of the junior colleges, with particular emphasis on terminal education, states: "If junior colleges, instead of trying to imitate the 4-year program, would offer courses close to the interest of the student and suited to his abilities, they would begin to occupy one of the most important places in American education."

For many years the junior college, community colleges, and technical institutes, as the youngest members of the educational family, were on the defensive. Their arrival tended to jeopardize the traditional solidarity of the college; furthermore, the question was raised as to whether these colleges were regular members of the public education group. The legality of taxation for their support was debated as in the earlier case of the high school. In 1930 the Supreme Court of North Carolina held that the city of Asheville had the right to tax itself to maintain a junior college out of funds set aside for the conduct of a public school. The parallel between the Kalamazoo High School Case and the Asheville Case is obvious. In most states the maintenance of public junior colleges has been legalized by specific statute. Recurring unemployment for youth of the post-secondary age and the complexity of modern living have promoted the demand for vertical and horizontal extension of educational opportunities. As the concept spreads that secondary education does not end with the high school, there will be a marked increase in junior colleges, community colleges, and technical institutes, which probably will become the "people's colleges."

Other Secondary Schools

This general classification includes schools that may extend over all levels of secondary and postsecondary education.

Vocational Schools. The main group is that of the vocational or technical schools so prevalent in large cities and in certain states, notably Wisconsin. Charles H. Judd made the following significant observation as to who may attend these schools:

> A unique characteristic of the American social system which has been of importance in determining the development of American education is the freedom of individual choice of occupations. In this country a boy or girl is free, as no child of older civilizations ever has been, to follow his or her personal bent in the choice of an occupation. There are no social barriers to prevent any individual from entering any vocation. The educational system is, accordingly, at liberty to arrange the education of its wards in keeping with their individual abilities and degrees of perseverance.[13]

In several foreign countries the vocational choices of young people are decidedly restricted by the requirement of prolonged compulsory military or national service, by the social limitations such as a caste system, or by the handicap of extreme poverty. In the United States, although the vocational choices of young people may be modified somewhat by factors outside themselves, there is no predestined job that a boy or girl must follow. This situation has tremendous implications for vocational guidance in secondary schools. The years to come will undoubtedly see much more emphasis upon prevocational and vocational education in all secondary schools.

Other Types. Many other types of special secondary schools might be be listed, according to size, as small, medium, or large; pupils, as those for pupils gifted in art or music; sex, as girls, boys, and coeducational; race, as white and Negro; organization, as platoon or 6-year school; legal control, as public, private, or parochial; methodology or philosophy, as liberal, middle of the road, or conservative; school time, as part-time, continuation, night-school, or summer, camp, or year-round school; and numerous others.

PRACTICES IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

A few of the more salient characteristics of modern secondary education are presented here through brief descriptions of some current practices in (1) organization and administration, (2) curriculum and teaching-learning procedures, and (3) personnel.

[13] Charles H. Judd, "Education," *Recent Social Trends*, pp. 328–329, McGraw-Hill, 1933.

Organization and Administration. Modern secondary education postulates its organization and administration upon the concept of an extended educational period of approximately 8 years. Both the junior high schools and the junior colleges are dynamic components within the complete program of secondary-school organization. The traditional organization of secondary education as a short-span high-school institution is giving way to various patterns of structural reorganization, embracing such variations as the three-three and the four-four plans.

Although secondary education is the period usually designated as general education, specialized schools are increasing in number and effectiveness. We find, for example, the Apprenticeship and Journeyman School in San Francisco, the High School of Music and Art and the Maritime High School in New York City, the Brooklyn High School of Automotive Trades, and the Miami, Florida, Technical High School. The latter offers a boat-building course, which attracts students from several states. New York State has established a number of regional and state-wide technical institutes.

State programs of secondary education are being promoted and coordinated through state educational agencies, such as the state departments. The establishment of junior colleges and community colleges as "community-wide centers of social and civic education for both adults and youth" calls for more state aid for junior colleges.

Regional associations that accredit secondary schools are stressing qualitative standards as well as revising quantitative measures. An example is the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards.

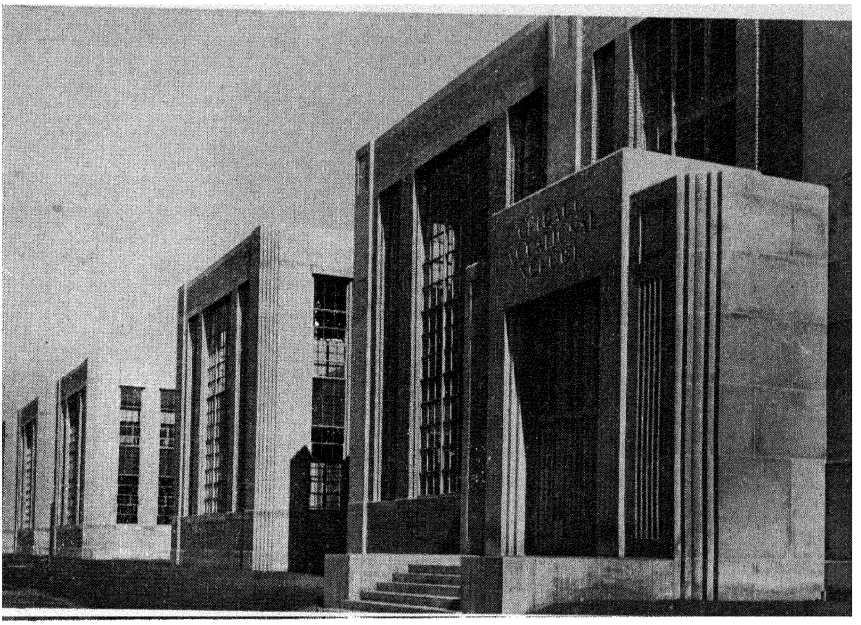
The relationships between secondary schools and institutions of higher learning have been markedly improved through such experiments as the high-school and college agreement of the Michigan Secondary Curriculum Study, and Eight-year Study of the Commission on the Relation of School and College, sponsored by the Progressive Education Association. Releasing secondary schools from the usual course and unit requirements for college entrance has stimulated more effective programs in these schools. The domination of high schools by colleges and universities is decreasing while effective cooperation is increasing.

Curriculum and Teaching-Learning Procedures. The objectives of secondary education, embracing all areas, are being adjusted to the functional needs of students and society, rather than being too heavily oriented to college preparation. The emphasis today is upon giving students opportunities to become and to be intelligent, happy, self-sustaining members of a democracy. These objectives are being implemented through a virile program of amalgamated curricular and co-curricular activities, such as advocated by the Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth.

Schools have introduced many vital instructional areas, such as automobile driving, aviation, atomic energy, democratic living, semantics, international relations, radio and television, work experience, labor relations, baby sitting, mental hygiene, world literature, economics, social institutions, public education, personal typing, general shop, etc. In several high schools that have revised their curriculums, separate courses in the same general field have been fused. For example, history, economics, civics, geography, sociology, and related subjects are coalesced

in the broad survey of social science. Since high schools are offering survey courses, the junior colleges are "digging postholes deeper." High-school courses in common learnings or core curriculums are followed by additional general education, which digs deeper into some special areas or selects intensive samplings.

The technological aspects of agriculture, industry, defense, commerce, and allied fields are demanding more and more prevocational, semioccupational, and vocational work in the secondary schools. Smith-Hughes aid, which restricted the use of federal funds to courses of "less than college grade," has delayed the development of vocational education in junior colleges and technical institutes. The current



(Courtesy of Public Schools, Chicago.)

FIG. 7-11. Chicago Vocational High School, Chicago, Illinois. Metropolitan vocational schools prepare for many occupations, supplemented by vocational guidance and general education.

need is for a local-state-federal program of financial aid for stimulating more vocational education, including terminal courses, in junior colleges.

The Smith-Hughes and George-Barden acts have promoted much more emphasis upon the work-study plan of education. This type of realistic community education is exemplified in the home experience project, where housewives cooperate with local school authorities in opening their homes to senior and junior homemaking students. As former Commissioner J. W. Studebaker has stated, "We will move on a graduated scale from full-time learning to part-time learning—the degree of time spent in organized education being different at different age levels with different groups of people."

The methodology of extrinsic teaching is giving way to an emphasis upon motivation, which produces intrinsic learning. The development of teaching-learning units has led to the reorganization of traditional courses around personal problems and realistic experiences. Newer instruments are being devised to measure growth and outcomes in junior and senior high schools and junior colleges. They are designed as a part of a broad program of evaluation, which is replacing mere pencil-and-paper tests. State-wide evaluation programs are increasing.

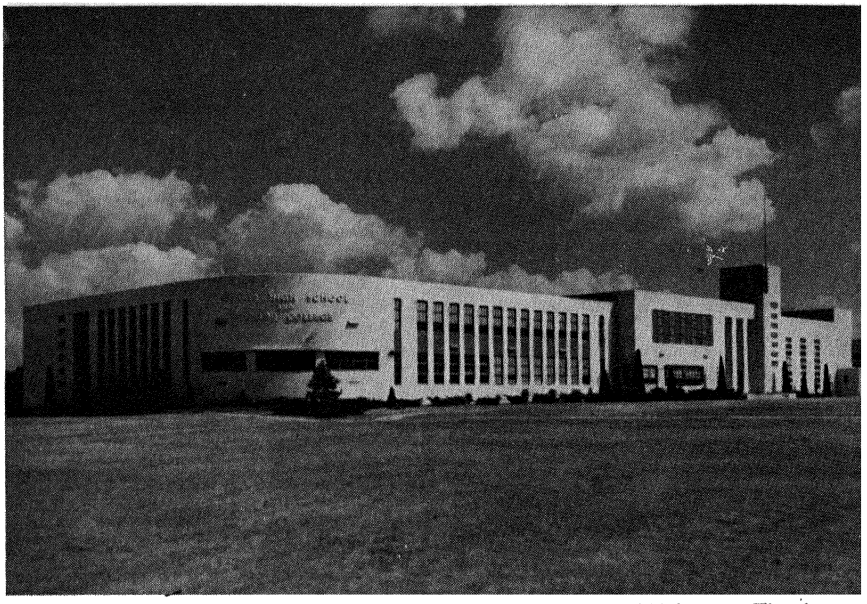


FIG. 7-12. Senior High School and Junior College, Bartlesville, Oklahoma. The future will probably see more combinations like this. The schools at Bartlesville are organized on the six-four-four plan—6 years (1–6) in the elementary school, 4 years (7–10) in the junior high school, and 4 years (11–14) in the senior high school and junior college. This building shown above houses the upper secondary school. It was erected with the aid of a gift from the Frank Phillips Foundation and a federal Public Works Administration grant of 45 per cent of the total cost.

Personnel. The complexity of modern civilization, which necessitates more education, and the recurrent unemployment situation, which postpones the entrance of youth into regular gainful employment, are two of the many forces bringing more youth to the secondary schools in America. The democratic provisions of supplying state aid for transporting rural students and paying all or part of the tuition charges are giving more rural youth the benefits of secondary education. In some cases, dormitories have been provided for youth attending public high schools.

A minimum of 14 years of schooling for everyone is in consonance with the need for a higher level of education for all persons in the American democracy. The recipients of secondary education include both youth and adults. Many secondary-

school plants are being kept open day and night in the interests of preparing youth and adults "to function efficiently—vocationally, avocationally, and civically."

There is increased emphasis on guidance and employment for youth along with the follow-up work as outlined by the Occupational Adjustment Study of the National Association of Secondary School Principals. Much attention is devoted to keeping student personnel records including test scores, anecdotal records, parent or student interviews, photographs, etc.

Special attention to veterans has been given by secondary schools through high schools for veterans, credit for military service and G.E.D. tests, trade schools, apprenticeship programs, and correspondence courses, especially those furnished by the "world's largest secondary school"—the United States Armed Forces Institute (USAFI). The G.I. Bill of Rights, through its federal grants or scholarships, has enabled many veterans to complete their secondary education.

There is a definite trend toward employing only teachers who possess a master's degree or its equivalent. Secondary-school teachers, as the best educated members of the public-school family, are called upon increasingly to participate in and to share democratically in the preparation of policies and programs for the education of youth. Self-evaluation of teachers themselves and of their schools, as promoted through the Cooperative Study of Secondary Schools Standards, is helping to raise the standards of secondary schools.

FUTURE OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

In a forward look, this unit concludes with the statements from two notable bodies: The Educational Policies Commission, and the Harvard Committee.

The former, in its report *Education for All American Youth*, has called attention to the grave danger that the locally administered high school may join "the Latin grammar school of the seventeenth century and the academy of the nineteenth in the great wastebasket of history." If, however, American educators and laymen accept the challenge, and launch an effective program of educational planning and action, then:

> It may be that the future historian will make an entirely different report. He may say that the schools of the nation had anticipated the youth needs of the post-war years; that they were ready to move to meet these needs as they developed; that every state and every large locality had a definite plan for doing so; that the federal government was at last persuaded to supply adequate financial aid to make this service possible; that the teaching profession was prepared to make the necessary changes in curriculum and administration; that the local organization of education was sufficiently flexible to permit the establishment of secondary schools adequate to the tremendous educational job that waited to be done; and that secondary schools of America, under state and local control, were transformed into agencies serving all American youth, right through the period of adjustment to adult life.[14]

[14] Educational Policies Commission, *op. cit.*, p. 10.

If the historian is to pen the record just presented, then far-reaching changes must be made in the curriculums of the secondary schools, especially in the area of general education.

The Harvard Committee, in its report *General Education in a Free Society*, has used the following figure:

> General education at high school is like the palm of a hand, the five fingers of which are as many kinds of special interest—mathematics and science, literature and language, society and social studies, the arts, the vocations. These fingers would stretch for all beyond the common core, and all would follow one or more than one. If actual work comes to take its place, for some, as part of high school, that would be, illogically, yet a sixth finger. All, then, whatever their future intentions, would have the binding experience of the common core; and all would follow some field of special interest. Here, then, is a scheme which accepts the claims of a common culture, citizenship, and standard of human good, yet also the competing claims of diverse interests, gifts, and hopes.[15]

After this period of secondary education, with its emphasis on general education for all, and special preparation for practical life for those who will not go beyond secondary education, the schools of higher learning then offer a wide variety of opportunities for continuing institutionalized education. In the next unit in this volume, these opportunities for higher education are presented, and in the unit following, the education of out-of-school youth and adults is treated.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Trace separately or collectively the growth of (*a*) the Latin grammar school, (*b*) the academy, (*c*) the public high school, (*d*) the junior high school, and (*e*) the junior college.
2. Prepare a special report on the Kalamazoo High School Case or the Asheville Case, showing the effects of the court decision.
3. Compare secondary education in America with that in England, France, Germany, or an oriental country.
4. Stage a debate on the subject: "Resolved that all pupils should attend high school."
5. Prepare a survey of your own high-school graduating class, including such data as how many went to college, how many are out of school, how many are gainfully employed. Draw conclusions.
6. Make a list of subjects you studied in high school. What changes would you recommend if you were to take the work again?
7. Study the college entrance requirements of your state university. How do these influence the high-school curriculum?
8. Prepare a spot map of your state or county indicating the location and size of the secondary schools.
9. Study the work of agencies that accredit the high schools in your state. List their standards for accrediting high schools.

[15] Harvard Committee, *General Education in a Free Society*, p. 102, Harvard University Press, 1945.

10. Describe the scope of vocational education as found in a secondary school today.

11. Describe the locus, purpose, procedures, and results of a significant experiment in junior college education, for example, at Blackburn or Stephens College.

12. Prepare a report on "Private and Parochial Secondary Schools in the United States."

13. Visit a high-school principal's office and interview the administrator regarding the organization and administration of the school.

14. Examine the certification requirements for teachers of secondary schools in your state.

15. List the special qualities and preparation that you think a secondary-school teacher should possess.

16. Discuss the statement that the high school is the "great American experiment." Why should it be so called?

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Some of the physiological, psychological, social, and economic problems of secondary-school pupils.

EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION: *Education for All American Youth*, Chaps. III, IV, National Education Association, 1944.

Schools for youth in Farmville and American City—two selected communities in the hypothetical state of Columbia.

HARVARD COMMITTEE: *General Education in a Free Society*, Chap. IV, Harvard University Press, 1945.

The role of humanities, social studies, science, and mathematics in general education in secondary schools.

KANDEL, I. L.: *The Impact of the War upon American Education*, Chap. IV, University of North Carolina Press, 1948.

Description and evaluation of effects of the Second World War upon secondary education.

LEVI, ALBERT WILLIAM: *General Education in the Social Studies*, Chaps. IX–XII, American Council on Education, 1948.

The future of social studies as revealed in one of the publications growing out of the Cooperative Study in General Education.

RISK, THOMAS M.: *Principles and Practices of Teaching in Secondary Schools*, Chap. XVI, American Book, 1947.

Some fundamental problems in planning classroom activities.

RIVLIN, HARRY N., *Teaching Adolescents in Secondary Schools*, Chap. XI, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1948.

Practical suggestions for managing a classroom in teaching.

SMITH, MAURICE M., STANDLEY, L. L., and HUGHES, CECIL L., *Junior High School Education*, Chap. V, McGraw-Hill, 1942.

Adjustment for junior-high-school pupils through guidance.

Current Pertinent Periodicals and Publications

Bulletins and Yearbooks

Published by national organizations, such as the National Association of Secondary School Principals.

California Journal of Secondary Education (8)[16]

Issued by the California Society of Secondary Education.

Clearing House (9)

Formerly appeared as the Junior-Senior High School Clearing House.

High School Journal (8)

Published by the Department of Education of the University of North Carolina.

Junior College Journal (9)

Published by the American Association of Junior Colleges. A directory of the junior colleges published in each January issue and the proceedings of the annual meeting published in the May issue.

North Central Association Quarterly (4)

The official organ of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, containing the proceedings of the annual meeting and the reports of various working committees of the association.

Scholastic (32)

A helpful high-school teachers' edition. The volume of February, 1935, dedicated entirely to "Three Hundred Years of High School Education in America."

School Activities (9)

National extracurricular magazine with much emphasis on secondary schools.

School Review (10)

Issued by the Department of Education of the University of Chicago, and devoted entirely to secondary education.

Secondary Education (4)

Official publication of the Department of Secondary School Teachers of the National Education Association.

Student Life (8)

Sponsored by the National Association of Secondary School Principals, and designed to encourage better practices in school activities.

Southern Association Quarterly (4)

Official organ of Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

Teachers College Record (8)

Periodic articles on secondary education.

Audio-visual Aids

Broader Concept of Methods: Part I — Thirteen minutes, 16 mm., sound
Also filmstrip, 35 mm., silent

This film, "Developing Pupil Interest," presents a frank picture of a secondary-school teacher and his class. One part shows the teacher-dominated, lesson-hearing type of recitation. Typical effects of this method upon student attitudes, responses, and learning are revealed. Then the film presents the alternative techniques to achieve broader educational objectives. Pupils are

[16] The figures following the titles of the publications indicate the number of issues annually.

permitted to share in the planning of their work, and are thereby stimulated toward worth-while and meaningful learning experiences. Available from McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York.

BROADER CONCEPT OF METHODS: PART II — Nineteen minutes, 16 mm., sound
Also filmstrip, 35 mm., silent

Development of the secondary-school project shown in Part I is continued. Students are shown learning to work together, to organize themselves into functional groups, to make and carry out plans for investigation, to present their findings and recommendations in a final report, and to put into practice some of their recommendations. The film shows how the secondary-school teacher can provide tactful guidance in the solution of difficulties encountered by the various groups. Available from McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York.

FINDING YOUR LIFE WORK — Twenty-two minutes, 16 mm., sound

This is one of a series of "Your Life Work Films." Since one of the basic problems of a secondary-school pupil is that of trying to find his life work, to prepare for it, to enter upon it, and to advance in it, this film shows the important work of guidance. Available from Carl F. Mahnke Productions, Des Moines, Iowa.

MAINTAINING CLASSROOM DISCIPLINE — Fourteen minutes, 16 mm., sound
Also filmstrip, 35 mm., silent

By contrasting methods of handling the same class, this film explores the techniques for securing proper class conduct and attitudes in a secondary school. First is shown a class in which teacher and students seem to be pulling in opposite directions and where schoolwork is neither instructive nor pleasant. The film then returns to the starting point and shows how the same situations could be handled more adroitly by the same teacher with the same class. Available from McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York.

School-made Films and Kodachrome Slides

Many secondary schools have prepared films or slides of their various activities. Available from individual school systems.

PREVIEW OF UNIT VIII

HIGHER EDUCATION

Secondary education should be closely articulated with higher education, since an increasing number of high-school graduates attend college. Colleges and universities offer advanced schooling, which is divided on the basis of undergraduate and graduate work. Enrollments in higher education have increased greatly.

The American college, built upon European antecedents, originated in New England, where Harvard was founded as early as 1636.

The major purposes of higher education are intellectual, cultural, practical, and social. Numerous and varied are the types of higher institutions.

Cooperation and experimentation are conspicuous in modern higher education.

Outline of Contents

Introduction
- Articulation of secondary and higher education
- Accrediting agencies
- Scope of higher education
- Enrollments and colleges

Development of Higher Education
- European antecedents
- Historical calendar
- Early American colleges
- Higher education for women
- Role of higher education in the Second World War
- Historic leaders in higher education

Objectives of Higher Education
- Why are you going to college?
- A major responsibility
- Three major goals
- Four major streams
- Six cardinal objectives

Types of Schools of Higher Learning
- Junior colleges
- Community and technical colleges
- General colleges
- Liberal arts colleges
- Municipal or urban colleges and universities
- State universities
- Land-grant colleges and universities
- Professional schools
- Graduate schools
- Other institutions of higher learning

Cooperation and Experimentation in Higher Education
- Cooperative colleges
- Cooperation among institutions of higher education
- Experimentation and research in higher education

UNIT VIII

HIGHER EDUCATION

"College is the greatest place in the world for those who ought to go to college and who go for the right reasons. For those who ought not to go to college or who go for the wrong reasons, college is a waste of time and money." Thus does Robert M. Hutchins, chancellor of the University of Chicago, frankly describe the role of the college and its clientele. To the question, "Who should go to college?" John Dale Russell, director, Division of Higher Education in the U.S. Office of Education, answers: "All who have the ability and the incentive should go to college, but they should be given guidance so that they may distribute themselves suitably among various lines of occupational preparation."[1] These persons would benefit from closer cooperation between high school and college.

Articulation of Secondary and Higher Education. So wide a gap exists between the completion of high school and the beginning of college that many pupils who should continue their schooling fail to do so. There are, of course, many thousands of young men and women who cannot and should not go to college. For them the emphasis in secondary school should be on terminal courses, reinforced by general education. For the high-school graduates who do continue their formal education, the transition should be smooth.

Various efforts are being made to bridge the chasm between the high school and college, especially through preventive and corrective guidance among students. Historically significant was the work of the Commission on the Relation of School and College, sponsored by the Progressive Education Association and financed by the Carnegie Corporation and the Rockefeller Foundation. In the so-called "Eight-year Study," which commenced in 1932, some 200 colleges and universities abolished traditional entrance requirements for the graduates of 30 selected high schools. Many institutions have abolished or modified their requirements for specific subjects or combinations for college entrance. However, college admission policies and practices need to be improved markedly according to such surveys as Benjamin Fine's *Admission to American Colleges*,[2] and the American Council on Education's *Factors Affecting the Admission of High School Seniors to College*.[3] As a result of his comprehensive survey of the achievements of the junior high school and junior college, Leonard V. Koos[4] considers the

[1] John Dale Russell, "Who Should Go to College?" *Journal of the National Education Association*, October, 1948, p. 449.

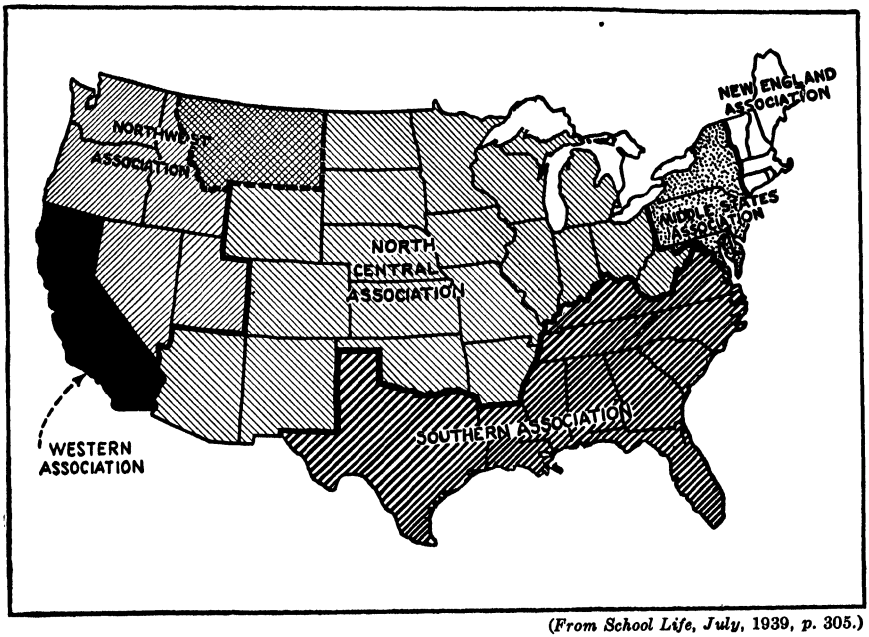
[2] Benjamin Fine, *Admission to American Colleges*, Harper, 1946, 225 pp.

[3] E. B. Roper, *Factors Affecting the Admission of High School Seniors to College*, American Council on Education, 1949, 312 pp.

[4] Leonard V. Koos, *Integrating High School and College; the Six-Four-Four Plan at Work*, Harper, 1946, 208 pp.

six-four-four plan as the best for integrating high school and college. The 4-year junior college, combining grades 11 through 14, can help eliminate the barrier that traditionally isolates the twelfth from the thirteenth years.

Coordination of junior-college work with that of colleges has been especially effective in the South and West, particularly in California, where both the junior college and the university organize their work so that transfer is made without loss of time or credit. Student transfer is relatively easy



(*From School Life, July, 1939, p. 305.*)

FIG. 8-1. Territory in which each of the six regional associations operates. The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools embraces the largest number of states. Montana has a double affiliation. The Western Association became an accrediting association in 1948. The schools served by it include the collegiate institutions in Arizona, California, and Nevada. Areas covered and practices employed in accrediting are changing.

in states with a unified system, as in Georgia, where the university system includes all institutions that offer work beyond the high school.

Accrediting Agencies. The hiatus between secondary schools and universities is also being reduced by the ceaseless efforts of various accrediting associations. The entire United States is covered by a network of state and regional associations, which have six geographical divisions: New England, Middle States, Southern, North Central, Northwest, and Western. The states in each of these associations are indicated in Fig. 8-1. Nationwide organizations, such as the American Association of Colleges for

Teacher Education, accredit institutions in all states. Accreditation practices are in a state of flux. Ultimately may come one association that evaluates elements common to all institutions and other accrediting bodies that appraise particular aspects. The numerous state, sectional, and national organizations at work on the problems of accrediting have shifted in recent years from quantitative to qualitative standards or to a synthesis of both, with emphasis on the total pattern of the secondary school or the institution of higher learning.

Scope of Higher Education. The period of so-called "advanced education" has been measured in various ways. Traditionally it includes 4 years of college or university and from 1 to 3 years of graduate work. Today the scope of secondary education, as indicated in Unit VII, includes at least

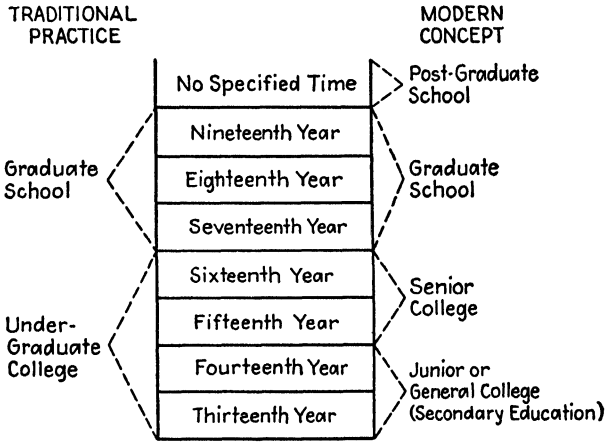


FIG. 8-2. Organization of higher education.

in theory the work of grades 7 through 14. Therefore the scope of higher education in this newer sense is delimited to the senior-college division—that is, the fifteenth and sixteenth years of schooling—plus the graduate work.

Until recently it was assumed that graduate work in education was limited to 3 years of work beyond the bachelor's degree. There is a trend, however, toward additional courses for persons who have completed the doctor's degree. This is true of a few colleges of education and of some professional schools, such as those of medicine and dentistry, which sponsor postdoctoral work. The traditional practice and the modern concept are pictured in Fig. 8-2, which applies specifically to persons working for a degree such as Doctor of Philosophy. The degree of Doctor of Medicine requires at least 3 years of medical school. This period of study is followed by internship.

As to the opportunities for higher education and its inclusion in the scope of American public education, the Educational Policies Commission states "that the system of higher education should be developed as an integral part of the system of public education."[5] The maturing of this broadened concept is bringing into institutions of higher learning a large proportion of today's high-school graduates.

Enrollments and Colleges. All the colonial colleges were small. In 1800 the 25 colleges had fewer than 100 instructors and 2000 students. Today many of the 1850 institutions have more than that number of instructors and students on a single campus. Except for temporary losses during the First World War, the depression of the 1930's, and the Second World War, the college population has increased steadily.

One contributing cause is the influx of college students from other lands. Although dollar shortages abroad are limiting factors, nevertheless various positive influences—the efforts of the Institute of International Relations, the scholarships provided by Military Governments in some of the occupied countries, the federal exchange plans, the generosity of American collegiate institutions in providing scholarships, and the unquenchable zeal of foreigners for learning—bring many hungry-minded visitors to the college campuses from the four corners of the earth.

The greatest single factor skyrocketing increases has been the G.I. Bill of Rights for veterans. Approximately fifty-five times as many people were eligible for training following the Second World War as after the First. Many thousands of veterans have taken advantage of the opportunity to get a college education.

The 1950's will undoubtedly witness a continuation of a flood of college students. For example, the President's Commission on Higher Education estimates "that in 1960 a minimum of 4,600,000 young people should be enrolled in nonprofit institutions for education beyond the traditional twelfth grade."[6] The popularity of college education in the United States is attested to by the fact that this country has more college students than all the rest of the world.

The United States now has 1850 institutions of higher learning, including approved and nonapproved colleges, universities, and junior colleges. These numerous branches of higher learning grew out of the seed brought from Europe and planted in Massachusetts in 1636.

[5] Educational Policies Commission, *The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy*, p. 22, National Education Association, 1938.

[6] President's Commission on Higher Education, *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Volume I, "Establishing the Goals," p. 39, Superintendent of Documents, 1947.

DEVELOPMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION

European Antecedents

Universities, like cathedrals and parliaments, are a product of the Middle Ages.[7] The world's oldest university dates back to A.D. 841, when the Moslems founded Al Azhar ("The Resplendent") in Cairo, Egypt. In the days of ancient Greece and Rome, the source of much wisdom was a man of great knowledge and personal magnetism, such as Plato, at whose feet sat young and old. This personal and informal fellowship in learning was the remote genesis of the modern university, which unfortunately has lost some of the teacher touch in its collossal campuses, big buildings, and scurrying students.

> More or less formal institutions of higher education did arise in Athens during the fourth and fifth centuries B.C. These institutions were in the form of separate "schools of philosophy" and "schools of rhetoric" to which modern historians have often applied the misleading term "The University of Athens." . . . The schools of philosophy were the Academy of Plato, the Lyceum of Aristotle, the Stoa of the Stoics, and the Garden of the Epicureans, and the rhetorical schools were best typified by that of Isocrates.[8]

These early schools, however, were not university organizations in the modern sense of the term. It was the intellectual activity of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries that gave rise to the university type of organization. When the number of students and professors at a church or cathedral school grew so large that they found it necessary to organize themselves into a guild or *universitas*, for mutual welfare and protection, then a university may be said to have come into existence.[9]

Bologna and Salerno. The oldest university in Europe was Bologna, founded by a guild of students in a city of that name in northern Italy during the twelfth century. The study of law was of prime interest to medieval Italians, and soon Bologna developed a position of leadership in this field. By the middle of the thirteenth century the university numbered 10,000 students. In the course of its history it enrolled such scholars as Dante, Petrarch, and Galvani. In southern Italy the city of Salerno, a health resort, became famous for its lectures and collection of materials in the field of medicine.

Paris. Farther north, in France, arose another of the medieval institutions of higher learning, the University of Paris, which developed from a

[7] Charles H. Haskins, *The Rise of Universities*, p. 3, Holt, 1923.
[8] R. Freeman Butts, *The College Charts Its Course*, pp. 20–21, McGraw-Hill, 1939.
[9] *Ibid.*, p. 28.

cathedral school. Naturally this school attracted a large number of students of religion, and Paris was for a long time the most noted university for theology. Although theology was the core, other fields, such as the arts, were stressed. This university with its branches, like the Sorbonne, a school of science and letters, was the "University of Masters," its origin having been the *universitas*, or guild organized by the teachers in Paris.[10] Paris was the greatest of the medieval universities, enrolling over 30,000 students.

Prague. Another interesting old university was that of Prague, founded in 1348, which was attended by students from many nations. One of its earliest graduates was John Huss, famous Protestant martyr. All the early universities had a very loose form of organization, a crude type of democracy. When a group became discontented, they moved to another center, where in turn they established a new college.

Oxford. Thus emigrants from Paris established in the twelfth century the great University of Oxford, 50 miles northwest of London. Modeled after Paris, Oxford stimulated the development of the "college" to the point where it overshadowed the "university" and provided the prototype for the colleges of today.[11] Today Oxford is a federation of 20 or more colleges, such as Exeter, Queen's, and Jesus, each with its own government, but the degrees are granted by the University. Many students from the United States and Canada have won the highly prized Rhodes scholarships to this outstanding university.

Contrasts in Higher Education. The contrasts between these early institutions of higher learning and those of today are striking. The medieval university had no libraries, laboratories, or museums, no endowment or buildings of its own; it could not possibly have met the requirements of modern accrediting associations.[12] The old university was *bâtie en hommes* —built of men. It created the university tradition and laid a firm foundation for higher education in America. Edgar W. Knight, an authority in the history of education, states that the American college is a native institution only in the sense that it is a European institution transplanted here in the seventeenth century by the early settlers who brought it from England along with their Bibles and their axes.[13]

The European university today differs markedly from the American in that the European student has in a great measure finished his general education by the time he enters the university, that European higher learn-

[10] Nathan Schachner, *The Medieval Universities*, p. 62, Stokes, 1938.
[11] *Ibid.*
[12] Charles H. Haskins, *op. cit.*, p. 4.
[13] Edgar W. Knight, *Twenty Centuries of Education*, p. 284, Ginn, 1940.

ing is more restricted than in the United States, and that student life is less highly organized than in America.[14]

Historical Calendar—Higher Education and Contemporaneous Events

The calendar on the next page shows some notable dates in higher education and contemporaneous events of political, social, and economic significance in the United States. Others are found in Unit IX.

Early American Colleges

Early Colleges in the Americas. Although the first institution of higher learning in the United States was Harvard College, it was not the oldest in the Americas. The University of San Marcos at Lima, Peru, and the University of Mexico at Mexico City both opened their doors in 1553—83 years before Harvard. The University of Mexico is reputed to have used *Recognita summularum*, the first textbook in philosophy written in America. The oldest university once under the American flag was established in Manila in 1611, some forty years after the capture of Manila by the Spaniards. This, the University of Santo Tomás, was a "seminary-college where the religious . . . might read the sciences of arts and theology."[15] It was at Santo Tomás that the Japanese interned hundreds of American prisoners during the Second World War. It is one of at least three institutions in the new world antedating Harvard.

First College in the United States. The first college in continental United States was Harvard, founded in 1636 in Newtowne, Massachusetts, which was later renamed Cambridge. The basic motive for its establishment may be gleaned from this inscription on the west gate on its campus:

> After God had carried us safe to New England, and wee had builded our houses, provided necessaries for our livelihood, rear'd convenient places for God's worship, and setled the Civil 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 role which England played in the founding of Harvard is reflected in the statement made at the Harvard tercentenary by a former president

[14] J. Wechster, "Vivid Contrasts in Life at the Universities," *The New York Times Magazine*, September 26, 1937, pp. 14–15.

[15] J. G. Wingo, "Oldest University under the United States Flag," *Catholic School Journal*, July, 1937, pp. 207–208.

Higher Education	Contemporaneous Events
1636—Harvard University founded (Cambridge, Massachusetts)	1636—Rhode Island settled by Roger Williams
1693—William and Mary College established (Williamsburg, Virginia)	1693—Salem "witchcraft" imposed on people
1785—First state university organized (Georgia)	1785—Thomas Jefferson appointed minister to France
1803—First federal land granted for state "seminary of learning" (Ohio)	1803—Ohio admitted to the Union
1819—Dartmouth College Decision handed down by United States Supreme Court	1819—The *Savannah*, the first transatlantic steamship, piloted across the ocean.
1837—Coeducation started at Oberlin College, founded in 1833	1837—Michigan admitted to the Union
1838—Mt. Holyoke College organized as first woman's college	1838—Longfellow's "Psalm of Life" published
1839—First state normal school organized (Lexington, Massachusetts)	1839—Vulcanized rubber patented by Goodyear
1862—Land-grant college act passed by Congress	1861 to 1865—War waged between the states
1868—Hampton Institute organized as first school of higher education for Negroes	1868—Negro citizenship amendment to Constitution ratified (Fourteenth Amendment)
1881—Graduate work begun at Johns Hopkins	1881—President James A. Garfield assassinated
1902—First public junior college established (Joliet, Illinois)	1903—Federal Departments of Commerce and Labor organized
1944—G.I. bill for veterans' education passed by Congress	1944—Germany invaded by Americans
1947-48—Reports issued by President's Commission on Higher Edution	1947—Marshall Plan proposed in address delivered at Harvard
1948—First Fulbright Act scholarships opened for China and Burma	1948—Charter for International Trade Organization adopted by U. N. Conference on Trade
1949—Southern Regional Education Program launched	1949—Harry S. Truman inaugurated as President
1949—Commission on Financing Higher Education appointed	1949—Government reorganization bill passed by Congress
1950—Woman applicants admitted to Harvard Law School	1950—Pay deductions and employer share for Social Security increased

Lowell in response to Stanley Baldwin, then chancellor of the University of Cambridge, said:

> If a university can have one mother, Cambridge is our mother; for Harvard was founded mainly by her graduates. Six years after landing on these shores our forefathers set up a college, and named the town after the place where they were trained. The University of Cambridge fostered our early days by granting to our degrees equality with her own. . . . If she be the mother of Harvard, she is, through Harvard, the ancestress of most of the universities and colleges in the United States.[16]

Although decidedly influenced by Emmanuel College in Cambridge, England, Harvard College never limited its program to that of a divinity school.

According to the Charter of 1650, the purposes of Harvard were as follows:

> The advancement of all good literature, arts and sciences.
>
> The advancement and education of youth in all manner of good literature, arts and sciences.
>
> All other necessary provisions that may conduce to the education of the English and Indian youth of this country in knowledge and godliness.[17]

Considering the times, these purposes were highly significant. On the other hand the late James Truslow Adams candidly wrote:

> We make much in our history of the founding of Harvard in 1636, but this remained the only institution above an ordinary school in the colonies for nearly sixty years, and was pitiably unimportant in the training it afforded and the scholarship it produced as compared with the universities in New Spain. In fact nearly two hundred years were to pass before any English institution in America reached the point which the Spanish had attained even before the English had settled at all.[18]

Undoubtedly higher education in colonial America was not of a high caliber.

Other Early Colleges. For many years Harvard was the only voice of higher education in the wilderness of America. Attempts to found a college in Virginia began, before the *Mayflower* sailed to Plymouth, with the grant of 10,000 acres of land for a university by the Virginia Company, but not until 1693 were the planters able to obtain adequate aid from England for their "place of university."[19] Thus started the College of William and Mary at Williamsburg, Virginia. It had for a time a distinctive

[16] *Notes on the Harvard Tercentenary*, p. 80, Harvard University Press, 1936.

[17] Samuel Eliot Morrison, *The Founding of Harvard College*, p. 248, Harvard University Press, 1935.

[18] James Truslow Adams, *The Epic of America*, p. 43, Little, Brown, 1932.

[19] *Encyclopedia Americana*, Vol. IX, p. 618, American Corporation, 1937.

building designed by Sir Christopher Wren, who created St. Paul's Cathedral and many other notable buildings in London. This structure has been restored.

In the colonial period of the United States nine colleges were founded. In connection with the last arose the historical Dartmouth College Case. The decision of the Supreme Court threw protection around higher education and stimulated the growth of colleges. All nine colonial colleges with the exception of Benjamin Franklin's Academy were sectarian. By 1800 there were 25 colleges in the United States but their enrollments were small. Not only did the president's house occasionally serve for recitations in these early colleges, but he was often the sole member of the faculty, teaching all subjects. Even in later years the faculties were small. A professor did not fill "a chair," but occupied an entire settee, as in the case of an "intellectual Hercules" at Columbia who taught moral and mental philosophy, English literature, history, political economy, and logic.[20]

Name	Location	Year
Harvard	Cambridge, Massachusetts	1636
William and Mary	Williamsburg, Virginia	1693
Yale	New Haven, Connecticut	1701
Princeton	Princeton, New Jersey	1746
Pennsylvania [Franklin's Academy (1740) and College]	Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	1751
Columbia (King's College)	New York, New York	1754
Brown	Providence, Rhode Island	1764
Rutgers	New Brunswick, New Jersey	1766
Dartmouth	Hanover, New Hampshire	1769

The history of these institutions of higher learning affords interesting reading. Most of them were supported financially by grants of land or money from legislatures, by donations of money or kind, and by miscellaneous means, such as lotteries.

State support was slow to develop. As late as 1860, only 17 of 264 institutions of higher learning were financed by the state. The first state university was organized in Georgia, and Ohio was the first commonwealth to receive federal land grants to start a "seminary of learning." Nearly sixty years later the passage of the Morrill Act by Congress inaugurated the development of the so-called "land-grant colleges" for agriculture and mechanical arts. Hampton Institute at Hampton, Virginia, organized in 1868, was the first school of higher education for Negroes. One of its early graduates was Booker T. Washington.

[20] Allan Nevins, *The Emergence of Modern America*, pp. 265–266, Macmillan, 1927.

Higher Education for Women

In the biography *Madame Curie* is found, by inference, this interesting reflection on the educational restraint upon women in the latter half of the nineteenth century:

> At the moment when Manya [later Madame Curie], dulled by the tiresome journey [from Poland], descended from the train to the smoky platform of the Gare du Nord [in Paris], the familiar grip of servitude was suddenly loosened, her shoulders straightened, her lungs and heart felt at ease. For the first time she was breathing the air of a free country, and in her enthusiasm everything seemed miraculous. . . . Before and above everything else, it was miraculous that these straight wide avenues, inclined in a gentle slope toward the heart of the city, were leading her, Manya Sklodovska, to the wide-open doors of a university. And what a university! The most famous; the one described centuries ago as "an abridgement of the Universe"; the very one of which Luther had said: "It is in Paris that we find the most celebrated and most excellent of schools: it is called the Sorbonne." The adventure was fit for a fairy tale.[21]

Thus Eve Curie describes the enthusiasm of her mother at the prospect of quenching that "thirst for knowledge that was her essential characteristic." Later when the Sorbonne appointed Mme. Curie to carry on the work of her husband in the Faculty of Science in 1906, it "was the first time that a position in French higher education had been given to a woman." It is significant that in England women were not admitted to degrees at Oxford until 1920.

During the nineteenth century higher learning in America gradually ceased to be the prerogative of one sex. Most of the women from coast to coast who today confidently attend college classes are perhaps unaware that their sex was once denied entrance to the portals of higher institutions. Coeducation on the college level began as late as 1837 when four women were accepted in a standard course at Oberlin College, and exposed to the following program:

> Life at Oberlin was deeply dyed with piety. The day was begun with private prayers in the individual rooms. Following breakfast a brief religious service for the young ladies was held in the boarding hall. Classes were always begun with prayer—occasionally continued throughout the hour. Of course no meal began without grace. Chapel, or afternoon prayers, at five o'clock was attended by all; one of the professors read from the Bible and a hymn was sung. On Thursdays a religious lecture was added—a kind of weekday sermon. Young people's prayer meetings, generally one for each class, were held on Monday nights. The first

[21] From *Madame Curie:* A Biography by Eve Curie, copyrighted by Doubleday, Doran and Company, Inc., 1937, p. 94.

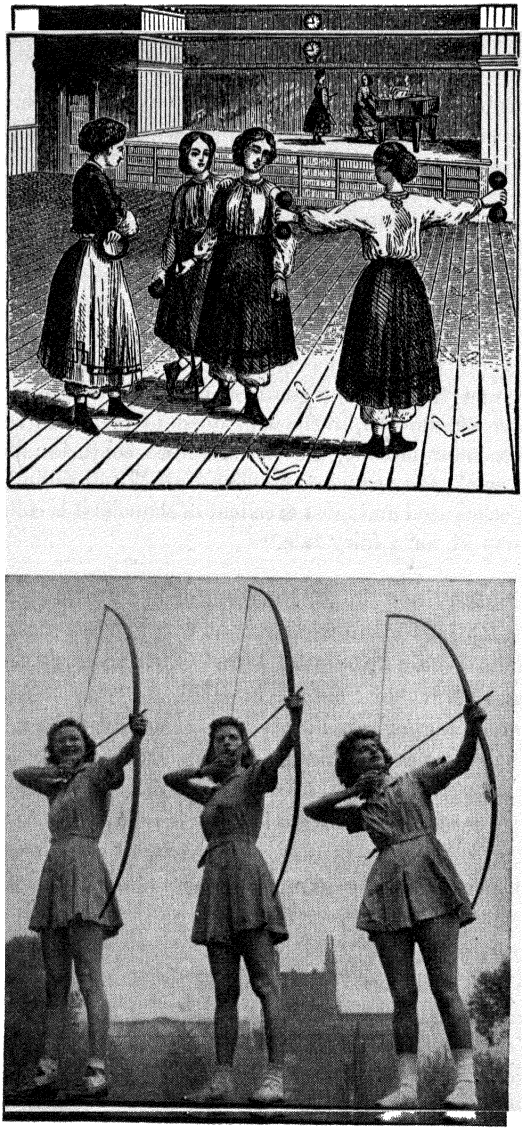
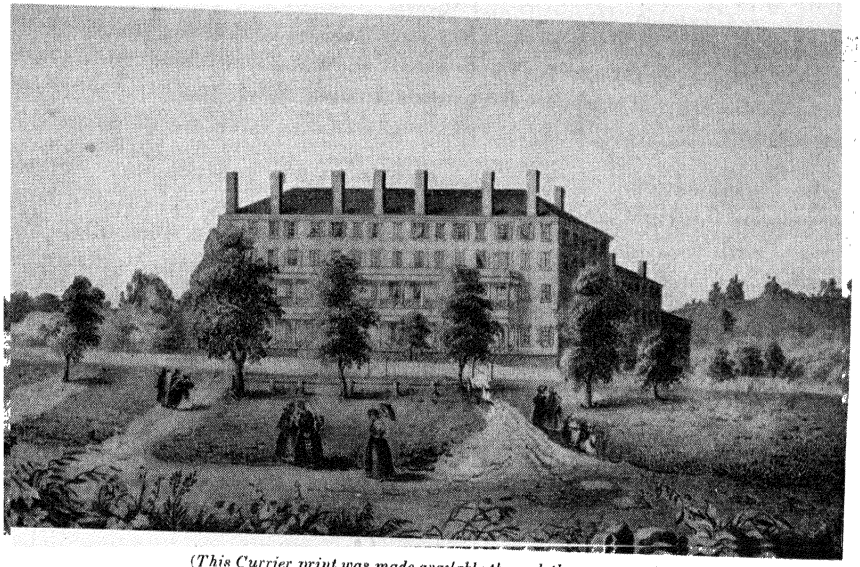


FIG. 8-3. Contrasts in higher education for women. One of the contrasts is in the wearing apparel. Above are pathfinders of sports for women in a calisthenics class in the early days at Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, New York. Below are sportswomen of today in an archery class at Barnard College, New York City. The top picture was painted inside the "Calisthenic Hall," whereas the lower photograph was made on the out-of-door recreation field. Yesteryear's equipment in the form of dumbbells has given way to the bow and arrow as the modern coed aims at her target.

coeds, like most students, joined the church; it was something of a disgrace not to belong. On the Sabbath all were required to attend the services, morning and afternoon, in old Colonial Hall or the tent, perhaps to hear the fiery Finney preach a "double-header" on "The Wages of Sin," "Robbing God" or "Your sin will find you out." . . . The college course of a century ago was still truly classical and without "electives." All studied the same subjects. The standard curriculum included classes in Latin and Greek in every year with the first devoted mostly to the ancient languages.[22]

Life for women in the early days of higher education and today is a vivid contrast.



(This Currier print was made available through the courtesy of Mount Holyoke College.)

FIG. 8-4. Original Mount Holyoke Seminary, South Hadley, Massachusetts.

Mount Holyoke, the first college for women in America, was established in 1838 by the academy teacher, Mary Lyon, who begged pennies, nickels, and dimes in order to found a "permanent seminary in New England with accommodations, apparatus, etc., somewhat like those for the other sex." Mount Holyoke epitomizes the history of education for women; as a seminary and later as a college, it exemplifies in its evolution every stage of the general advancement. Mary Emma Woolley, former president of Mount Holyoke, demarcates these three periods in woman's educational progress:

The first, which lasted until after the Civil War, was the period of intellectual stir and questioning, from which women's college education ultimately resulted,

[22] R. S. Fletcher, "The First Coeds," *The American Scholar*, Winter, 1938, pp. 86, 87.

and in which the first experiments in coeducation were made at Oberlin and Antioch. Typically, however, it was the heyday of the female seminary which hardly dared or cared to call itself a college and a few women's colleges which often amounted to little more than seminaries.

The second period, from 1865 to the turn of the century, was the era of justification and expansion, when three distinct types of new higher educational facilities for women sprang up rapidly all over the country. (1) It was the time of the founding of Vassar, Smith and Wellesley, the first women's colleges to have heavy endowments and classical curricula much like those of Harvard. (2) It saw, too, the opening of the great universities, such as Michigan, Cornell and Chicago, and (3) the founding of the coordinate colleges for women in connection with such universities as Columbia, Harvard, and Brown.

Finally, in the years since 1900 has come the era of internal improvement. Women's colleges have been much more slowly added. Those already in existence, finally established and confident, have been expanding their campuses, courses and equipment.[28]

Today coeducational institutions and women's colleges have gained for women the right and the opportunity to obtain higher learning comparable with that for men. Not only is general education theirs, but also a wide selection among the professional curriculums. Women outnumber men in the teaching profession; in the medical field they comprise a small percentage of the doctors. What a numerical contrast between almost a million women now in attendance at institutions of higher learning and the three "females" who in 1841 were the first American women to earn a regular bachelor of arts degree by the completion of a program of studies identical to that required of men candidates for the same degree! The granting of several thousand advanced degrees annually to women is a far cry from the days when there appeared in *The Atlantic* a caustic article entitled "Should Women Learn the Alphabet?"

Role of Higher Education in the Second World War

An important chapter in the history of higher education for women and men in the United States was written during the Second World War.

Training of Women for War. Approximately one third of a million American women were in the military services during the Second World War. An undetermined but very large number were engaged in work closely related to the war, in business, in industry, and in various volunteer services such as the Red Cross. These experiences are having profound effects upon the position of women as citizens and as students, particularly in higher education.

[28] Eunice Fuller Barnard, "Women and Colleges," *The New York Times Magazine*, May 2, 1937, pp. 8, 9, 12.

Six military and two civilian services which conducted educational programs in the Second World War are briefly mentioned:

> The wartime women's military services were the Women's Army Corps (WAC), the Women's Reserve of the Naval Reserve (Women Accepted for Volunteer Emergency Service, abbreviated as WAVES), the Women's Reserve of the Coast Guard Reserve (SPAR), the Marine Corps Women's Reserve (MCWR), the Army Nurse Corps, and the Navy Nurse Corps.
>
> The Women Airforces Service Pilots (WASP) and the Cadet Nurse Corps of the United States Public Health Service should not, strictly speaking, be included because these two services were not militarized.[24]

Some of these organizations are still active. In all cases, the members of the women's services were volunteers. The requirements for admission to the women's services were definitely higher than the selective service requirements for men. In the great majority of cases, the women were high-school graduates, and there were many women with college experience.

Three types of schools—basic or "boot" indoctrination, officer training, and specialist—were like the equivalent schools in the men's services, except that the women did not train with weapons. Many of these schools were located at colleges in various parts of the country or affiliated with them. A woman in uniform on a college campus was a long cry from 1837 when coeducation started! Dorothy Shaffter, writing on the general implications of the training programs for women, states:

> The fact that women were admitted to the armed services because their participation in the prosecution of the war was needed, that their usefulness rapidly increased as the war progressed, as evidenced by the number of military occupations opened to them, and that the training and utilization of women were much like the training and utilization of men—in short, that the occupation of waging war was opened to women on conditions which tended toward equality—this fact has implications of great importance for the education of women in the civilized world.[25]

The trend toward coeducation was definitely continued by training women for war. In the postwar period the G.I. bill benefits were available for women on an equal basis with men.

Wartime College Training Programs of the Armed Services. All the colleges and universities of the land cooperated indirectly or directly in the gigantic struggle to win the war. Thousands of students left the campuses to fight in all parts of the world, hundreds of colleges loaned the services

[24] Dorothy Shaffter, *What Comes of Training Women for War*, pp. 3–7, American Council on Education, 1948. Also used as a basal reference for this section on Training of Women for War.

[25] *Ibid.*, p. 38.

of their best professors to the United States government, and a third of all colleges and universities directly participated in war service training programs.

The Army was sponsoring the Army Air Force (AAF) program, the Enlisted Reserve Corps (ERC), and the Reserve Officers' Training Corps (ROTC), when it was decided to establish the Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP) in 1942. In addition to the regular specialized college training, ASTP, were three special groups under the direction of ASTD: the Army Specialized Training Reserve Program (ASTRP), the program for candidates of the United States Military Academy (USMAP), and the Program for Soldiers with First-Year Advanced ROTC Training.

The Army Air Force used civilian colleges for three main training programs: the aircrew training detachment, or "pre-preflight schools"; the training of cadets in meteorology; and the premeteorology courses.

The Navy in the 1920's and 1930's obtained its officers through the Naval Academy at Annapolis and the Naval Reserve Officers' Training Corps (NROTC). Prior to Pearl Harbor the Navy had made use of plants, physical equipment, and faculty on some of the campuses. The transitional programs of bringing college men into the Reserve Midshipmen's Schools (V-7), of enlisting men who were to remain on inactive status while undergoing college training (V-1), and of procuring Naval Aviation Cadets (V-5), finally yielded way to the program of giving officer candidates the necessary and minimum education for more specialized training as officers (V-12). With the inception of the V-12 program in July, 1943, the NROTC became amalgamated with it, but was permitted to retain its own identity, primarily because NROTC is a continuing program. In addition to the main V-12 program were some few auxiliary programs, small in size.

In assessing this experience, the authors of *Wartime College Training Programs of the Armed Services* state in part:

> Considering everything, the war experience should not be looked upon as wasted years for higher education . . . we are still too close to the experiment to prophesy with any degree of accuracy what may be the lasting and tangible gains for higher education. It is impossible to think of higher education and the responsibilities which the atomic age have imposed upon it except in terms of adjustment and redirection.[26]

Such procedures as accelerating programs, retooling the minds of faculty members, meeting the needs of more mature and motivated students, stimulating research, and equalizing educational opportunity for students

[26] Henry C. Herge and others, *Wartime College Training Programs of the Armed Services*, p. 72, American Council on Education, 1948. Also used as a basal reference for this section, Wartime College Training Programs of the Armed Services.

to secure higher education, are some of the by-products of college war training programs which will influence higher education for a long time.

Historic Leaders in Higher Education

In the long history of higher education in America there have been numerous dynamic leaders. It was John Harvard who donated his name, library, and money as the initial gifts to Harvard College. It was Charles W. Eliot who fought for the elective system in higher education and sponsored five revolutionary advances during the first years of his administration at Harvard: the elevation and amplification of entrance requirements; the enlargement of the curriculum and the development of the elective system; the recognition of graduate study in the liberal arts; the raising of professional training in law, medicine, and engineering to a postgraduate level; and the fostering of greater maturity in student life.[27] Eliot was one of a half-dozen statesmen who emerged as personal forces in American higher education immediately following the Civil War. Others were: Andrew D. White of Cornell, James McCosh of Princeton, Noah Porter of Yale, James B. Angell of Michigan, and Daniel Coit Gilman of Johns Hopkins.[28] Other pioneers were: William Rainey Harper at Chicago, Horace Mann at Antioch, Mark Hopkins at Williams, Mary Lyon at Holyoke, and Herman Schneider, father of cooperative education, at the University of Cincinnati. The catalogue of "who was who" and "who is who" in American higher education makes a ponderous tome.

OBJECTIVES OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Why Are You Going to College?

An interesting collection of statements regarding the objectives of higher education results from asking students on different campuses the question, "Why are you going to college?" Their answers include these:

To continue my education
To carry out a family tradition
To get a degree
To be a better citizen
To render better service to society
To do research or specialize
To explore vocational possibilities
To prepare for a vocation or career
To get semiprofessional education
To complete preprofessional education
To enter a profession
To broaden my outlook
To develop a philosophy of living
To acquire more culture
To get a liberal education
To develop higher ethical standards
To meet people
To get a spouse
To acquire social prestige
To enjoy college social life
To share in extracurricular life
To develop avocational interests

Many other sources of student motivation might be listed.

[27] Allan Nevins, *op. cit.*, pp. 268–269.
[28] *Ibid.*

A Major Responsibility

Earl J. McGrath, United States Commissioner of Education, has stated the chief goal of higher education as follows:

> The education of citizens for a responsible life in a free society—this is the first responsibility of a system of higher education. If higher education does this, it will eventually give intellectual and spiritual force to American life.[29]

Three Major Goals

The President's Commission on Higher Education, appointed by Harry S. Truman, selected from among the principal goals for higher education those which should have primacy in this day and age:

> Education for a fuller realization of democracy in every phase of living.
>
> Education directly and explicitly for international understanding and cooperation.
>
> Education for the application of creative imagination and trained intelligence to the solution of social problems and to the administration of public affairs.[30]

Suggestions for implementing these goals are found in six volumes published by the commission under the title *Higher Education for American Democracy.*

Four Major Streams

A university president, James Bryant Conant of Harvard, describes thus the major streams of higher education:

> From the first foundations to the present, four main streams have watered the soil on which the universities have flourished. These ultimate sources of strength are: first, the cultivation of learning for its own sake; secondly, the general educational stream of the liberal arts; thirdly, the educational stream that makes possible the professions; and lastly, the never-failing river of student life carrying all the power that comes from the gregarious impulses of human beings.[31]

Into these large streams—intellectual, cultural, practical, and social—flow numerous tributaries.

[29] Earl J. McGrath, "The Goals of Higher Education," *Journal of Higher Education,* April, 1949, p. 180.

[30] President's Commission on Higher Education, *op. cit.*, p. 8.

[31] *Notes on the Harvard Tercentenary*, p. 19, Harvard University Press, 1936.

Six Cardinal Objectives of Higher Education

By way of synthesis, the six cardinal objectives of higher education, as prepared by the late Isaiah Bowman, former president of Johns Hopkins University, are presented with a special challenge to the graduate schools:

1. An understanding of the realities of experience toward which we have an evolving attitude: knowledge is not a standardized body of fact and doctrine but an incomplete revelation of the world that is constantly enlarged by new investigation.
2. Experience in critical methods of work: the use of sources, the value of logical processes, the need for analysis, each of which has varying significance according to the nature of the field of investigation.
3. A knowledge of the history of science and learning: how men made progress in learning to observe and to think and how that progress came to benefit mankind.
4. An appreciation and some technical study of the environment: man's geographical surroundings, man working under measurable conditions, man and nature in interaction. The closely associated study of alternative choices, opportunities, limitations, and compulsions of the environment and not the study of civilization in a vacuum, as if man did it all himself without regard to terrain.
5. An experimental knowledge of the way the modern world works: the applications of humanitarian concepts, the growth of codes, and the origin and present-day operation of social machinery.
6. The acquisition of an outlook or a philosophy that embraces all men understandingly in their different environments, occupations, and cultures.[32]

These may be supplemented by special objectives for the various types of institutions.

TYPES OF SCHOOLS OF HIGHER LEARNING

Many institutions of higher learning defy classification, either because they cannot be placed in a general category or because their work is of a multiple nature. The types selected for emphasis here are the following: (1) junior colleges, (2) community or technical colleges, (3) general colleges, (4) liberal arts colleges, (5) municipal colleges and universities, (6) state universities, (7) land-grant colleges and universities, (8) professional schools, (9) graduate schools, and (10) other institutions of higher learning.

At the outset it may be helpful to differentiate between the terms "college," "university," and "school," as applied to institutions of post-secondary education, although there are no standard definitions:

In general, the first is used to designate the institution with a four-year general course leading to a B.A. or B.S. degree, unless qualified specifically in the case of

[32] Isaiah Bowman, *The Graduate School in American Democracy*, p. 9, Superintendent of Documents, 1939.

a technical institution, as a "teachers college" or "agricultural college." The second ordinarily is applied to institutions having in addition to an undergraduate nonspecialized college, a general graduate school and special professional schools reaching a graduate level. Not a few institutions lacking these characteristics call themselves universities, and there is no legal restriction upon such use. The term "school" is applied to divisions of a university as the "graduate school," the "school of journalism" and to many special institutions such as "agricultural school," "law school," "normal school," and the like.[33]

Obviously the name of an institution is not a reliable guide to its academic rank or its special function.

Junior Colleges[34]

It is a moot question whether junior colleges belong to the field of higher secondary education or lower higher education. The independent junior college often forms the upper division of secondary education, whereas the freshman and sophomore years of college may constitute a junior-college division in a school of higher education. The junior division of Louisiana State University affords an example of the latter. The University of Chicago endeavors to unify the program of general education by means of a 4-year college program beginning with the junior year of the high school and continuing through the first 2 years of college.

Junior colleges, like most institutions of higher learning, may be classified by: sex admitted, men, women, or both; length of course, 1 to 6 years; function, terminal or preparatory; size of enrollment; age, that is, date of establishment; method of origin, such as high-school elongation or university amputation; and method of control or support, such as public or private.[35] The latter is the most fundamental basis for classification.

Community and Technical Colleges

Shakespeare wrote, "A rose by any other name would smell as sweet." Many colleges do not like to be called "junior," with its diminutive and preparatory connotation. This dislike is a sign that these institutions are growing up and assuming a new role, as indicated in a book title like *The New American College*.[36] The Educational Policies Commission suggests the name "community institutes." The President's Commission on Higher Education, as previously mentioned, uses the nomenclature "community

[33] L. M. Wilson and I. L. Kandel, *Introduction to the Study of American Education*, pp. 234–235, Nelson, 1934.

[34] See Unit VII for a more complete consideration of junior colleges.

[35] For a directory of these and other types, see Jesse P. Bogue (editor), *American Junior Colleges*, American Council on Education, 1948, 537 pp.

[36] John A. Sexson and John W. Harbeson, *The New American College*, Harper, 1946, 312 pp.

colleges," although private colleges usually draw some of their students from a wide geographical area.

> Some community colleges may offer a full 4 years of college work, but most of them probably will stop at the end of the fourteenth grade, the sophomore year of the traditional college. . . . Whatever form the community college takes, its purpose is educational service to the entire community, and this purpose requires of it a variety of functions and programs.[37]

The commission recommends that the community college emphasize programs of terminal education planned specifically for the needs of youth who will end their formal education with their junior-college years.

One variety of community college is the technical institute, or institute of applied arts and sciences. Those in New York State are designed "to make preparation for occupational competence the core of education for social living." The technical institutes usually combine general education with specialized training for a single technical and semiprofessional occupation or for a cluster of allied tasks. Geographically they are local, regional, state, and interstate in the area served.

Most junior colleges, community colleges, and technical institutes have one or more outlets in a four-faceted program embracing: (1) semiprofessional and professional education, including senior-college preparation, (2) training for trades and technical skills, (3) adult education, and (4) general education.

General Colleges

As indicated previously, one objective of higher learning is to provide general education. For the attainment of this goal, courses replete with basic information are given in many colleges during the first year or two. In some instances a specific organization unit called the general college, consisting usually of 2 years of study, has been established. This type of school does not follow a uniform pattern. The variety in experimental procedure is illustrated in the following brief explanation of the programs at Boston University General College:

> The program is an attempt to restore collegiate training to meaningful and intelligent unity. The 2-year curriculum of the General College, followed *in toto* by all students, includes material from five broad areas of human interest: science, social science, English and literature, guidance, and history and government. These are taught without reference to the lines of demarcation which normally set off one subject from another. The aim is *fusion* within each of these broad fields, and careful integration among all fields.

[37] President's Commission on Higher Education, *op. cit.*, p. 67.

In contrast to the subject-matter or conventional approach, the purpose of general education is to equip the student with a wide understanding of the world about him and the social system in which he lives, rather than with a detailed, but more or less isolated, knowledge of certain particular subjects. As a natural corollary, emphasis is placed on the ability to think clearly and logically.

After 2 years of study in the general-education program, transfer to another college of the university is arranged through our guidance department in cooperation with the registrar of the senior college concerned. This placement of the student in a course of advanced study with junior-class standing, or his placement in a job, represents the culmination to an intensive 2-year program.[38]

Among other schools that have set up specific programs of general education are: the University of Wisconsin at Madison, the University of Minnesota at Minneapolis, Stephens College at Columbia, Missouri, the University of Chicago, Goucher College at Baltimore, the University of Colorado at Boulder, and the creditless, degreeless General College at St. Louis University.

Liberal Arts Colleges

The liberal arts program is usually offered by two types of institutions: the liberal arts college and the division of liberal arts of the large university. Their purposes are those of liberal education, preprofessional preparation, and some specialization. When the college is organized on a 4-year basis, there is usually a gradual shift in emphasis, with the first two years devoted primarily to general education and the last two years directed toward majors or fields of concentration. Although students are permitted some degree of concentration, it is undoubtedly desirable that they dip into each of the three great divisions of the curriculum, *viz.*, the humanities, the natural sciences, and the social sciences, as recommended by H. W. Dodds, former president of Princeton University.

> Never in our history has the need for the liberally educated mind been so grave. In pioneer days man's struggle had to do with the forces of nature. Today we are more occupied with man's struggle with man. In other words our present difficulties are social. . . . When pagan instincts gain the ascendancy it is but natural that the laboriously acquired standards and ideals which are the hallmarks of civilization are derided and persecuted. The liberal arts college stands as one of our chief defenses against such distortion of values.[39]

[38] Judson Rea Butler, "A General Education Program in Action," *School and Society*, May 3, 1947, pp. 321–326.

[39] H. W. Dodds, "The Future of the Liberal Arts College," Address delivered at Vanderbilt University, February 3, 1938. A liberal arts college organized on the basis of these three divisions is Illinois Wesleyan University at Bloomington, Illinois.

The 4-year liberal arts college has a greater enrollment today than any other type of school for higher learning.

Municipal or Urban Colleges and Universities

Another type of higher institution is the locally financed municipal college or university, which, under the control of a municipal or city board

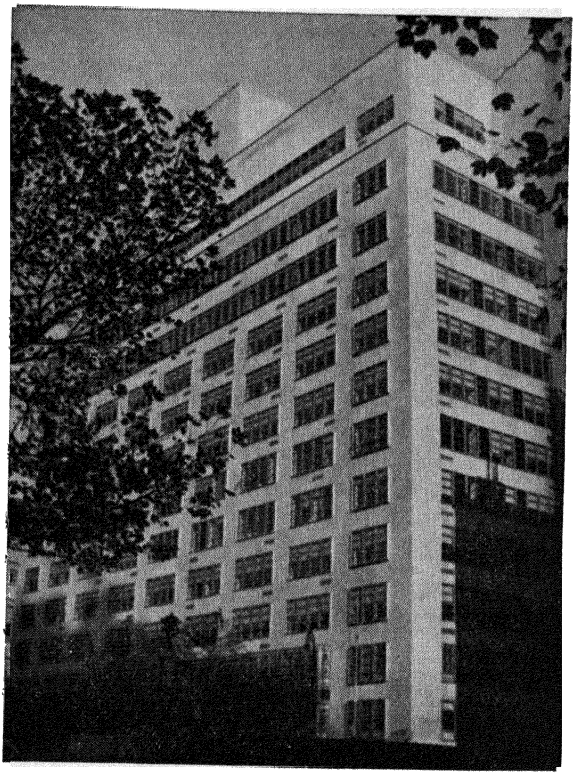


Fig. 8-5. One of the City Colleges of New York. Hunter College, the largest college for women in the world, is housed in one of the largest school buildings in the world—a 16-story unit. Many students also attend the Bronx Center.

of education, offers a standard degree after four or more years of work. This institution represents secularization in the extension of education, because, being supported primarily by city taxes and controlled by public authorities, it is in effect a part of the public-school system and a people's university. For example, in Detroit, Wayne University is controlled by the city board of education. Nearly all municipal universities, however, are controlled by a board distinct from the city board of education. A

board of higher education appointed by the mayor of New York governs the largest city college system in the world, *viz.*, the College of the City of New York, embracing four colleges: City (men, with women admitted in some branches), which was the first tuition-free, city-owned college in the United States; Hunter (women); Brooklyn (coeducational); and Queens (coeducational).

These colleges, few in number but great in influence, arose through a wide variety of circumstances: a normal college became a city college; a

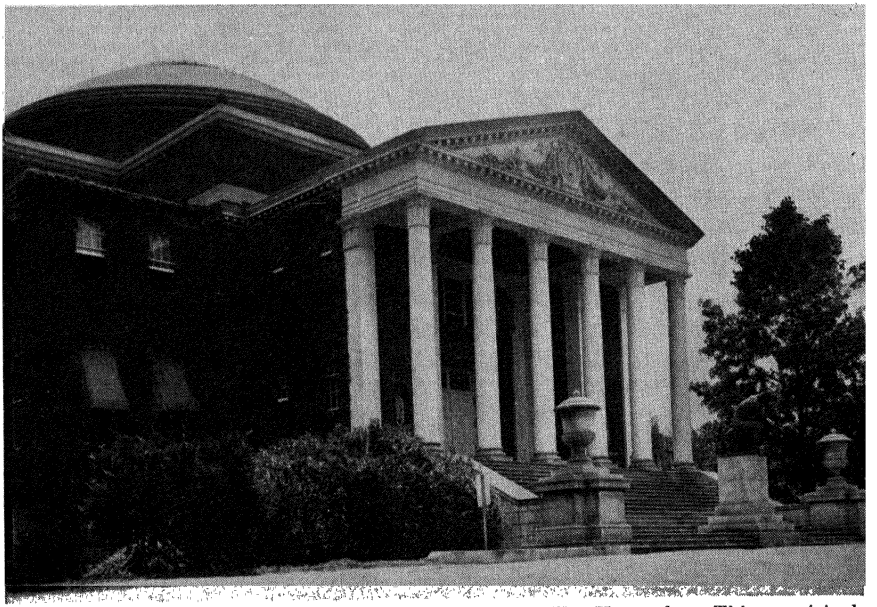


FIG. 8-6. Administration building, University of Louisville, Kentucky. This municipal university commenced in 1837, although it was actually founded in 1798 when Jefferson Seminary, its parent institution, was chartered.

bequest was given to the city for educational purposes; a financial foundation started another; the public junior college and normal school were extended upward; a favorable vote of the people authorized the establishment of the school; and existing institutions changed their status to city colleges. The latter was the case with Charleston and Louisville, two municipal institutions that reach back over a hundred years. The next decade will undoubtedly see many more city colleges established in connection with the present accent on youth. A factor in promoting stability and improvement in the city colleges is the Association of Urban Universities, founded in 1914.

State Universities

Every state of the Union has its university or university system. The names of these institutions and their locations are listed in Appendix VIII-A. In describing differences between state-supported and privately endowed colleges and universities, A. G. Ruthven, president of the University of Michigan, says in part: "Private schools are controlled entirely or in a large part by a select group of executives and patrons; state institutions are more directly and generally responsible to the whole body of citizens."[40]

American Public Education and the State University. The function of the state university is assumed to be that of supplying all the needs of society that fall within the sphere of higher education. This service may include: education on the college level for all qualified to pursue it; service of an advisory nature, such as furnished by a college of agriculture; post-graduate education; and adult education. Ruthven believes that the state university should accept responsibility for both the technical and cultural growth of the individual beyond the senior college year.[41] The state university then fiulfills the instructions of George Washington: "Promote, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion be enlightened."

The state university, as part of American public education, is regarded as a natural and inevitable culmination of the public-school system. This vital relationship is thus accounted for by the late Lotus D. Coffman, a former president of the University of Minnesota:

> The state universities and the public schools evolved out of the same set of conditions. The arrangements for the establishment of the universities were essentially the same as those for the establishment of the public schools only raised to a higher power. The public schools were intended to be free schools; the state universities were intended to be as nearly free as possible. The doors of the public schools were to be wide open; likewise the state universities were expected to admit those who had completed the work of the next lower unit of the public schools. The public schools were maintained to provide for each individual that training by which he could profit most; the state university offered additional training for those capable of pursuing their studies into still higher realms.[42]

[40] A. G. Ruthven, "The State University," *Journal of Adult Education*, January, 1938, p. 27.

[41] *Ibid.*, p. 28.

[42] Lotus D. Coffman, *The State University: Its Work and Problems*, pp. 38, 39, University of Minnesota Press, 1934.

From the beginning, the state universities and the public schools have been maintained to provide freedom of opportunity.

Land-grant Colleges and Universities[43]

Origin and Development. A land-grant college or university is an institution of higher education that has been designated by the state legislature as qualified to receive the benefits of either or both of the Morrill funds. The term "land-grant college" originated from the wording of the First Morrill Act, adopted by the Congress of the United States in 1862. This act provided on the basis of each senator and representative in Congress for a land grant of 30,000 acres or its equivalent in scrip to the several states for an endowment, the interest from which was to furnish instruction in "agriculture and the mechanic arts, without excluding other scientific and classical studies and including military tactics." This act, sponsored by Justin S. Morrill, who represented Vermont in Congress for 44 years, and signed during the Civil War by Abraham Lincoln, was followed by several related acts.

Appropriation from Bankhead-Jones funds depends on congressional action each year, whereas appropriation of other Morrill funds continues as long as the funds are spent in accordance with the terms of these laws. Annual appropriations are made through the United States Office of Education. The use of this money is confined to salaries and facilities for instruction in seven major fields of study. As recipients of these federal aids, the land-grant colleges are required to make annual reports to the Office of Education. Expenditures by the separate states have increased to such an extent that at present more money is provided by the state than from the federal budget.

Number and Types of Institutions.[44] There are 69 land-grant colleges and universities which may be grouped as follows:

24 separate colleges.

28 universities, in which agriculture, engineering, and home economics form a component part of the work.

17 institutions of higher education devoted to the education of Negroes.

Many are state universities, several are agriculture or technical universities and colleges, and a few are junior colleges and teachers colleges. A complete list of these institutions is found in Appendix VIII-B, Land-grant Colleges and Universities.

[43] See Unit I for additional material on land-grant colleges and universities.

[44] See the annual report on statistics of land-grant colleges and universities published by the Superintendent of Documents.

Functions, Activities, and Influence. A typical land-grant college consists of three divisions: resident instruction, research, especially by the experiment stations, and the extension service. On-campus instruction is effectively supplemented by the two other services. After the land-grant colleges had been in existence some twenty-five years, arrangements were made to establish experimental stations for agricultural research. At present an agricultural experiment station is found in every state that has a land-grant college. The most widely known activity is the extension service, or off-campus teaching, made possible by the Smith-Lever Act in 1914. This work is conducted by a well-trained personnel consisting of county agricultural agents, county home demonstration workers, boys' and girls' club workers, and other specialists. In many instances these representatives are partly supported from county funds. The land-grant colleges are directly concerned with the welfare of a large group of the population, *viz.*, the homemakers and the farmers.

The triangular base of research, campus instruction, and extension education makes the land-grant college a potent force in American higher education. The land-grant movement created many new institutions, such as the universities of Illinois, California, and Minnesota, and the agricultural colleges in Michigan, Massachusetts, and Texas. It also led to reorganization in numerous existing institutions, for example, the University of Wisconsin. It definitely gave breadth to coeducation. It has been called democracy's college. It represented a liberalizing of the old classical college course, particularly in the emphasis on agriculture and home economics. In line with its own expanded offering, a land-grant college may change its name and shift its emphasis.

The land-grant colleges have had and are having a marked influence on American secondary education, since thousands of Smith-Hughes home economics and agriculture teachers now in the public schools have been educated at these institutions.

All the land-grant colleges and universities require that men students take military training unless excused for reasons of health or age. When the original Morrill Act went into effect, instructors assigned by the War Department taught military tactics. The Student Army Training Corps (SATC), authorized during the First World War, was the forerunner of the Reserve Officers' Training Corps (ROTC), established in 1920 with passage of the National Defense Act. ROTC units are now maintained at all land-grant institutions as well as at many other colleges and universities. Through providing a reserve of competent officer strength in virtually all arms of the service, the land-grant colleges play an important role in the defense program for the United States.

In 1887 a permanent organization of land-grant institutions was effected under the name "Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations," which was changed in 1920 to "Association of Land-grant Colleges and Universities." This national association is promoting a country-wide program for the improvement of these schools. The future presages a continuous growth in attendance for both full-time and part-time students.

Professional Schools[45]

President James B. Conant of Harvard has stated that "the common denominator among all universities past and present is professional education."[46] An avowed purpose for the establishment of Harvard College in 1636 was the preparation of learned ministers for the church. Since the middle of the eighteenth century professional education has developed gradually in American colleges and universities. In 1765 the University of Pennsylvania started its medical department; Harvard opened the first law school in 1817; and in 1823 Reverend Samuel R. Hall established a private normal school for teachers in Concord, Vermont. These were followed by schools for dentistry, pharmacy, and other professions, but, owing to the competition with the apprenticeship system, the growth of professional and technical schools was slow. Some of the land-grant agricultural colleges were set up as special technical and engineering schools combined. Some states established separate engineering or technical schools, for instance, Purdue University.

Graduate Schools

The system of American public education reaches its apex in the graduate or advanced professional school. A technical distinction between a college and a university is that the former offers only undergraduate work while the latter offers both undergraduate and graduate courses. Many colleges, however, have a graduate division, whereas many so-called universities have none. In some universities all the graduate work is centered in the graduate school, although part of the work is offered in the professional schools. Genuine graduate training was not known in the United States until after the Civil War; in 1881 Johns Hopkins became the first school to organize graduate study. Recent years have brought a significant expansion of graduate work. A large percentage of the entire student body of Howard University in Washington, D.C., is composed of students holding

[45] Professional schools for teachers are considered in Unit XI.

[46] James B. Conant, "The University and a Free Society," *School and Society*, January 25, 1941, p. 98.

one or more degrees. Many in the graduate division of Howard are holders of scholarships awarded by their respective states. The professions are dependent upon specialization and research, and the university of today and tomorrow will continue to give much attention to its graduate program.

Master's Degree. Beyond the baccalaureate is the master's degree which usually requires (1) at least a year of residence beyond the bachelor's degree, (2) completion of a certain number of credits or courses totaling approximately thirty semester hours, (3) examinations, both preliminary and final comprehensives, oral and written, and (4) the completion of some research project, either a thesis or its equivalent. Certain schools and departments stipulate additional requirements or permit substitutes. For the master of education, Harvard and the University of Illinois require 2 years beyond a bachelor's degree. The University of Chicago has established a plan for awarding master's degrees for consumers rather than for producers of research. It recognizes that some students intend to engage later in research activities and that others, although not intending to use experimental and statistical procedures, will need to understand and evaluate the results of research. Hence one is not required to perform research but to understand and interpret it.

Doctor of Philosophy. Numerous doctors' degrees, such as doctor of medicine, doctor of dentistry, and doctor of philosophy, are offered in the graduate and advanced professional schools. The degree usually granted for advanced graduate work in education is that of doctor of philosophy. The usual requirements for this degree are 2 years of residence beyond the master's degree; accumulation of courses and credits amounting approximately to seventy-five or eighty semester hours; written and oral examinations; a dissertation or its equivalent; a reading knowledge of two foreign languages, usually French and German; and other requirements or substitutes, some of which must be met prior to admission to candidacy. From a nation-wide study of Ph.D. programs for the Commission on Teacher Education, Ernest V. Hollis of the United States Office of Education concludes: "(1) the doctoral programs must be adjusted to the uses to which recipients can put the degree in the scheme of American life today, and (2) the graduate school must function as an integrated organism—rather than an aggregate of competing departments—if it is to be able to fulfill its mission."[47]

Doctor of Education. Another degree, the doctorate of education, is advancing in popularity and significance among educators. The nature

[47] Ernest V. Hollis, *Toward Improving Ph.D. Programs*, p. 204, American Council on Education, 1945.

of this degree is determined by the character of the institution that confers it. In the main, the Ed.D. differs from the Ph.D. in direction and requirements. Whereas the Ph.D. is primarily a research degree, the Ed.D. is basically a professional award. The former requires foreign languages and accents specialization; the latter demands cognate work and stresses professional competence in teaching or administration. For example, some graduate schools require that the doctor of education candidate show 3 years of successful teaching experience in the field of professional education.

Postdoctoral Work. Teachers College, Columbia University, and a few other institutions have arranged a program and scholarships for persons who desire to study beyond the Ph.D. or Ed.D. degree. These postdoctoral programs are increasing in popularity in all professions. It has been suggested that all graduate degrees be abolished within 10 years after they have been granted, unless the recipient shows tangible evidence of professional growth within that period.

Other Institutions of Higher Learning

Federal Institutions.[48] Another group of institutions consists of federal or semifederal colleges and universities. The United States government has always entertained an interest in higher education, although it has never established a national university. One of the universities already mentioned as being supported by national funds is Howard University, a school primarily for Negro students, located in Washington, D. C. Since many of its students are college graduates, advanced work constitutes a conspicuous phase of the program.

The United States Military Academy at West Point, New York, established in 1802; the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis, Maryland, organized in 1845; the United States Coast Guard Academy at New London, Connecticut, started in 1876—these and others are in reality schools of higher learning dedicated to national defense. A national institution to educate leaders for public service of a nonmilitary nature has been suggested repeatedly. Fortunately numerous colleges and universities are now training young men and women for public service. The major objective of these schools is to elevate public service from the slough of political despond to the worthy calling of social and civic statesmanship.

Summer Schools. A product primarily of the twentieth century is the ubiquitous summer session. These schools are attended largely by teachers who are employed in the public and private schools during the balance of the year. Many city schools grant a bonus to teachers for summer attend-

[48] See Unit I for a further treatment of federal institutions.

ance, or other incentives in the form of salary increments. Furthermore, there has been a marked increase in summer-school attendance by graduate students seeking advanced degrees such as the master's and doctor's.

Other Types. Somewhat related to the summer school is higher education in the form of extension and correspondence courses, which are discussed in the next unit. The President's Commission on Higher Education included in its report a classification called proprietary schools—those educational institutions authorized to earn a profit. The most common examples are the private technical schools and business colleges. The number of these colleges increased markedly after the passage of the G.I. Bill for veterans' education. Another type is that provided by work or cooperative colleges.

COOPERATION AND EXPERIMENTATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Cooperative Colleges

The term "cooperative colleges" is applied to certain higher educational institutions that offer instruction to students with the cooperation of industrial or commercial concerns. A brochure of Northeastern University, Boston, Massachusetts, entitled *Higher Education on the Cooperative Plan*, contains this definition:

> Cooperative education in simplest terms may be defined as a complete and thorough college training complemented and balanced by an extended experience in industry under faculty supervision. It aims to consolidate in a single well-integrated educational program the values of classroom study and industrial-commercial experience. The plan provides for the alternation of pairs of students between school and cooperative work.

This plan originated in the College of Engineering of the University of Cincinnati in 1906. At first the labor unions were opposed to the scheme, but later, owing largely to the friendly attitude of the American Federation of Labor, they recognized that the plan would help rather than injure the cause of labor. Since this initial experiment, many institutions have adopted or adapted the cooperative plan, which now enrolls several thousand students. The aid of local businessmen is essential to the success of these plans. For example, the Peoria (Illinois) Manufacturers and Merchants Association cooperates with Bradley University of that city in its study-work plan, which is a 5-year course.

Although the plan is practiced largely by schools and colleges of engineering, cooperative courses may be offered in many fields and may reach several states. For example, Antioch College (Yellow Springs, Ohio), which follows this system in the liberal arts courses and teacher education,

has numerous cooperative employers located in the majority of the states and in the District of Columbia. The University of Cincinnati, which pioneered in this field, now has numerous cooperative firms. Much of the success of the plan depends upon an official who is known as the coordinator and who confers with employers, students, and instructors.

Students are usually paid while on the job, and at the end of the full period of cooperative study they are awarded the baccalaureate. In some colleges the cooperative idea is extended to the graduate level. A modification of this plan is that of internships in teaching, as at Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois. The major objective of these cooperative plans is to project the student into the practical aspect of the workaday world. Another type of work-study plan is employed in the cooperative or semicooperative living centers such as are found at Syracuse University, where economical housing is provided for women students who spend part of each day working in their houses. Many colleges maintain an industries plan for providing work for deserving students.

Cooperation among Institutions of Higher Learning

Cooperation with the Federal Government. The federal government cooperates with institutions of higher learning in many projects, such as giving financial aid to the land-grant colleges, providing tuition and subsistence for veterans' education, furnishing funds and personnel for military units, and aiding in research projects like atomic energy. The Division of Higher Education in the United States Office of Education assists various institutions of higher learning. During and since the Second World War many colleges loaned personnel and facilities to the national government.

State Programs of Cooperation. In several states, coordination has been effected by legislative enactment creating one board to control all the state higher institutions. For example, the board in charge of the State University of New York has general direction over a large cluster of state institutions.

Regional Programs in Higher Education. The most conspicuous example of regionalism in higher educational efforts is found in the South, where several states have banded together to improve educational opportunities and facilities in the related states.

Cooperative Agreements between Colleges. Although coordination among state-controlled institutions is usually effected by legislative enactment, numerous cooperative agreements are entered into voluntarily by schools of higher learning, especially privately controlled colleges and universities. One of the oldest plans of affiliation has been between a state-supported university (North Dakota) and a church-related college (Wesley College),

whereby students at either institution could take courses at the other. Such joint efforts are supplemented by many experiments in individual institutions.

Experimentation and Research in Higher Education

Unfortunately many colleges and universities are afflicted with an unwarranted faith in the infallibility of their practices. There is, however, a distinct trend toward an experimental approach in higher education. Under the captions (1) organization and administration, (2) curriculum and teaching-learning procedures, and (3) personnel, the epitomes that follow sketch a few of the many interesting and varied experiments in higher education. In connection with each experiment is listed in parentheses the name of only one institution or organization, although several colleges and national or regional agencies may be experimenting along similar or identical lines.

Organization and Administration.

Colleges have been reorganized since the Second World War to meet the unprecedented demand for higher education. (The Junior College of Connecticut became the University of Connecticut.)

Many universities, especially in the heyday of G.I. enrollments, established various off-campus branches or centers (University of Illinois at Galesburg and at the Navy Pier in Chicago).

As previously indicated, a few states have launched definitely into a program of placing all institutions of higher learning under one central board (New York).

Colleges have become more democratic in control. (An extreme case is Black Mountain College, where there is no board of trustees and the acting director of the institution is elected by the faculty and student moderator.)

In line with current emphasis upon correlation of subjects and fields have been many efforts at reorganization within a university. (The University of Chicago has four major fields: humanities, social science, physical science, and biological science.)

Some universities have organized a general college. (Columbia University offers the degree of Bachelor of Science in General Studies.)

Many colleges grant an award such as Certificate in Arts and Sciences (University of Buffalo) and Associate in Arts (Brooklyn College) after 2 years of college work.

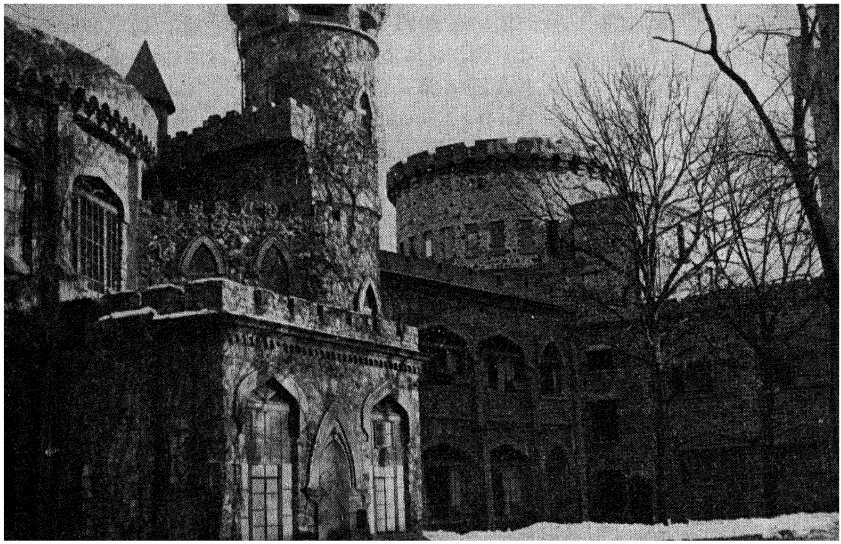
Several institutions have organized traveling clinics such as speech clinics (Indiana University).

As stated in the preceding unit, institutions have developed qualitative as well as quantitative standards of evaluation and accrediting. (The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education uses the institutional pattern and its effective functioning.)

As a basis for planning an over-all program for higher education, many statewide surveys have been made (Maryland).

The first Jewish-sponsored nonsectarian university was founded at Waltham, Massachusetts (Brandeis University, named after the late Justice of the Supreme Court).

Laymen are participating in a greater degree in forming policies for colleges and universities. For them have been prepared such publications as *A Manual for Trustees of Colleges and Universities* (Collegiate Press, Ames, Iowa). The study *Men Who Control the Universities* revealed that women and rural areas are given but slight representation (Columbia University Press).



(Courtesy of Look Magazine.)

FIG. 8-7. Brandeis University, the first Jewish-sponsored nonsectarian university. This young university, named after the late Justice of the Supreme Court, is located in an historic setting, including "The Castle," pictured here.

Regional planning continues to play a conspicuous role in the development of higher education. Governors of several Southern states have formed a nonprofit corporation known as the Board of Control for Southern Regional Education, to provide educational interstate facilities in higher education for both Negroes and whites (Meharry Medical School).

The United States Office of Education has expanded its services to colleges. A surplus property information center and services in college business management have been added. The National Educational Association has revitalized its Department of Higher Education.

Curriculum and Teaching-Learning Procedures.

Countless curricular reforms have been initiated, such as the abolition of course credits, course examinations, compulsory class attendance, and time requirements.

Instead, comprehensive examinations are taken when the student is ready for them (University of Chicago).

Many institutions are experimenting with concentrated and intensive study plans, such as dividing the year into five 7-week periods, during each of which only one subject is studied (Hiram College).

Students may take interdepartmental majors (American studies at Florida State University).

In order to broaden cultural life and liberal education on the campus, the program of employing professional musicians, artists, and other specialists has been

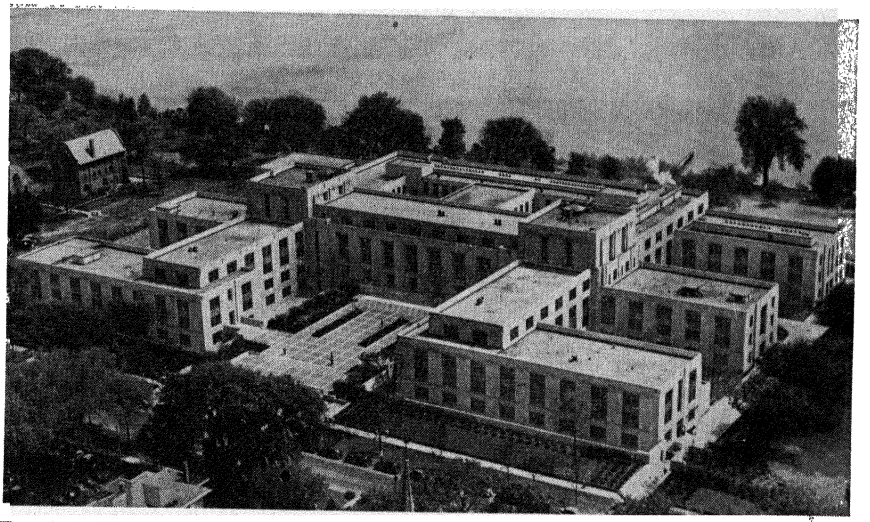


FIG. 8-8. The Technological Institute of Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois. Like Brandeis University, the Technological Institute also was started in the 1940's. The former, starting *de novo*, moved into historic structures in a sylvan setting; the latter erected its new laboratories as part of a century-old institution along the shores of Lake Michigan.

extended to include subjects of liberal arts (Association of American Colleges and its member institutions).

Twenty-one institutions benefited from a cooperative study of their own problems, especially general education (University of Denver).

Students read and study the great books of civilization along the lines advocated by R. M. Hutchins, chancellor of the University of Chicago (St. John's). Everyone on the campus is expected to read the same book to provide "a common intellectual experience for the entire university family" (Rutgers).

Many new curriculums and corresponding degrees have been instituted (master's degree in photography at the University of Houston, Bachelor of Fine Arts in Radio Education at Cincinnati's College of Music).

Scores of new courses have been added: alcohol education (Johnson Teachers College); courtship, marriage, and sex education (Stephens College); geopolitical

interpretations of current affairs (Florida State University); great issues (Dartmouth); communications (University of Minnesota); musical therapy (University of Kansas); and American democracy (Cornell University).

In order to give selected students a more realistic approach to national affairs, a group of institutions cooperate in providing a "Washington semester" in the nation's capital (American University).

Cocurricular or extracurricular activities have been markedly expanded to include such activities as forums (Western Reserve), intercultural clubs (Illinois State Normal University), mock presidential elections (Oberlin), institute of practical politics (Ohio Wesleyan), volunteer fire department (Bard College), and an extracurricular course in college teaching (Radcliffe).

University presses are furnishing leadership in the publication of scholarly works.

Religion is being accented on many campuses (a science-religion unit at Stephens College; an interfaith center at Cornell University).

Research remains one of the most important functions of the university. A few examples of technological and scientific investigations in higher education are the Atomic Energy Commission's sponsored program for the Oak Ridge Institute of Nuclear Studies (University of Tennessee); atomic energy education (University of Nebraska), radioisotope unit (Northwestern University), cosmic ray cyclotron (Rochester University), aeronautical research (University of Illinois), radio center (Syracuse University), television course (University of Pennsylvania), and Institute of Microbiology for investigations of the earth's microorganisms as friends and foes of mankind (Rutgers University).

Personnel in Higher Education.

Since the proper study of mankind is man, institutions of higher learning accent personnel relationships (human relations center at New York University).

Intercultural and intergroup relations are being studied from coast to coast and border to border. For example, the National Conference of Christians and Jews helped to finance a 4-year college study of intergroup relations in 10 colleges (Milwaukee State Teachers College).

One of the most striking phenomena in higher education is the added stress upon international or world relationships—a reflection of the position of the United States as a world power (School of International Studies at Yale).

Fulbright and Smith-Mundt bills have stimulated the exchange of students and professors. With the aid of the G.I. bill, hundreds of veterans have studied abroad in institutions approved by the Veterans Administration (from Reykjavik, Iceland, to Dunedin, New Zealand).

Many American universities have arrangements for a year abroad (Council on Junior Year Abroad). Overseas summer sessions are numerous (University of California, Los Angeles).

Many college campuses are meccas for students from other lands (pilot teacher-education project for Germany and Austria, sponsored by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education).

Scores of international educational conferences have been held (International Association of University Professors and Lecturers).

Some institutions offer programs dealing with specific countries or areas (Institute of Brazilian Studies at Vanderbilt University; language, literature, and culture of Russia at Claremont College).

In addition to the influx of foreign students, another marked change in the composition of the student body has been the increase in the proportion of men students, many of whom were veterans. Colleges that once liquidated from their class rolls those students who married now provide living quarters for married students and enroll their children in nursery schools and kindergartens. Many women's colleges broke with tradition after the Second World War and admitted men to classes for the first time in their history (Vassar). The oldest university now admits women to its Law School, thus opening all its branches to women (Harvard).

Rehabilitation programs under the Federal-State Vocational Rehabilitation Service and the Veterans Administration have brought thousands of physically handicapped students to college campuses, including paraplegics in wheel chairs.

Many colleges maintain direct contact with the parents of students. (Parents of college students have organized at Northwestern University.) Alumni family week ends, with programs designed to interest all ages, are sponsored (Haverford College).

Adults who cannot attend day sessions are receiving more attention from colleges. (Home-study courses, coordinated with the weekly round-table radio forum, are offered by the University of Chicago.)

An increasing number of colleges are offering a wide variety of courses and services in workers' education (University of Michigan).

Much unpublicized experimentation and many innovations of significance are being conducted in many institutions. As in the making of books, there is no end to experimentation in higher education. It is a symptom of the fact that colleges and universities rely not upon dogmatic but upon flexible purposes which can be adjusted to meet new needs.

FUTURE OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Higher education is on the threshold of many changes—internal and external, quantitative and qualitative.

The further development of junior colleges, community colleges, and technical institutes will affect the traditional senior college, which may be more closely integrated with the graduate years. The future will see many changes in the graduate school, which the late F. P. Keppel, formerly of the Carnegie Corporation, caustically called "the sacred cow in American education, to be worshipped rather than studied, understood, and improved." The colleges of the future will be better coordinated. The many separate schools within a university will be less guilty of encouraging "intellectual parochialism" or "mental myopia."

Surveys of higher education for Negroes, the report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, and other developments may lead to a

revision of higher education for Negroes. Far-reaching have been the implications of decisions such as the one handed down by the United States Supreme Court in 1938 to the effect that the State of Missouri should admit qualified Negroes to the law school of the state university or provide for them within the state a law school of equivalent standing. This decision and the work of the Board of Control for Southern Regional Education have stimulated interest in regional colleges.

In its report, *Higher Education for American Democracy*, the President's Commission on Higher Education predicts the continuance of huge college enrollments:

> The Commission believes that in 1960 a minimum of 4,600,000 young people should be enrolled in nonprofit institutions for education beyond the traditional twelfth grade. Of this total number, 2,500,000 should be in the thirteenth and fourteenth grades (junior college level); 1,500,000 in the fifteenth and sixteenth grades (senior college level); and 600,000 in graduate and professional schools beyond the first degree.[49]

The commission projected these statistics on the basis of results from the Army General Classification Tests, given during the Second World War to approximately ten million men, representing a broad cross section of American population. Results of the tests indicated that a minimum of 49 per cent of the people could profit from at least 2 years of college work, and that at least 32 per cent have the ability to complete 4 years of higher education. The commission is interested, however, in more than numbers. In order to improve higher education qualitatively, "we must make sure that the education of every student includes the kind of learning and experience that is essential to fit free men to live in a free society."[50] Largeness is not synonymous with greatness. Portal-to-portal time is being lost in many colleges because of the extensive size of the campuses. Hence John Dale Russell and others have warned against "elephantism" in higher education.

From the perspective of his long association with higher education, Oliver C. Carmichael of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching looked at the future thus in his Kappa Delta Pi lecture:

> The curves of growth, and change, and current planning point in the same direction: expansion in enrollment, in capital outlay, and in operating costs, in the variety and number of course offerings, and in support for investigations and research. The requirements of society are more and more in the foreground of

[49] President's Commission on Higher Education, *op. cit.*, p. 39.
[50] *Ibid.*, p. 46.

educational planning. The function of higher education is interpreted more and more in terms of social need. The college or university is no longer a cloistered retreat, an ivory tower, a seat of learning for learning's sake, a reservoir of culture. It is a dynamic agency seeking to understand modern society, to interpret it, and to assist in the solution of its problems. In that atmosphere it is undertaking to prepare youth for a responsible part in the world of tomorrow. The goal is worthy. It has by no means been reached. It will be progressively realized in the decade ahead.[51]

Higher education is destined to assume a greater role in the second half of the twentieth century.

Under the caption Emerging Problems, the authors of *Wartime College Training Programs of the Armed Services* point out that the colleges and universities were called upon twice within a quarter of a century to participate in military training programs, and twice they were handicapped by the absence of a blueprint or master plan for the utilization of faculties and facilities.

> Higher education, the armed services, industry—all have a mutual stake in technical training at the college level. It therefore becomes incumbent on these agencies to work together as a planning board in the public interest, to promote preparedness, and to permit the drafting and revision of a master plan ready to function when defensive action is needed.[52]

The future of higher education needs to be planned—it cannot be subjected to the policy of drift or *laissez faire*.

Immediate and long-range planning will demand many changes. In an address at the University of Akron, United States Commissioner Earl J. McGrath said, "I have the feeling that American higher education is undergoing a revolutionary change." Likewise Francis J. Brown, executive secretary of the President's Commission on Higher Education said, "Higher education must move forward in the same revolutionary attitude which characterizes the entire structure of American life."

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Indicate ways for articulating secondary and higher education.
2. Evaluate the standards of the sectional accrediting association for the state in which you are located.
3. Consult old newspapers, magazines, and books for interesting side lights on the history of American higher education.
4. Write a brief paper on "The History of Higher Education for Women."
5. Write a brief history of "Land-grant Colleges in America."
6. Review the circumstances and effects of the Dartmouth College Case.

[51] Oliver C. Carmichael, *The Changing Role of Higher Education*, pp 38–39, Macmillan, 1949.

[52] Herge and others, *op. cit.*, p. 81.

7. Prepare a special report on municipal universities.
8. Arrange a panel discussion on the topic "Why Go to College?"
9. Name 10 outstanding college presidents and their institutions.
10. Identify 30 prominent colleges in the United States.
11. Prepare a list of all the institutions of higher education in your state. Indicate what type of school each is.
12. Make a list of the various divisions or schools in your state university. Name the chief administrative officer of each.
13. Draw a diagram showing the way in which institutions of higher education are administered in your state.
14. Study the program and requirements of a profession other than teaching, such as medicine, dentistry, or law. Compare or contrast that program with preparation for the teaching profession.
15. Stage a debate on the subject: "Resolved that the federal government of the United States should establish a national university."
16. Prepare a list of national organizations for teachers in institutions of higher learning.
17. Examine masters' and doctors' theses and comment as to the practicality of the research.
18. Describe clearly a significant college experiment in higher education, such as the University of Chicago plan.

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A handbook of foreign universities.

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An alphabetical check list for the well-prepared instructor for community colleges.

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Colleges prepare for the veterans coming to the campuses.

GOOD, CARTER V. (editor): *Guide to Colleges, Universities, and Professional Schools in the United States*, American Council on Education, 1945, 700 pp.
Prepared for the armed services, a volume packed with information about American colleges.

GRACE, ALONZO G.: *Educational Lessons from Wartime Training*, Part V, American Council on Education, 1948.

The role of universities and colleges in the Second World War, with lessons for higher education.

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LEVI, ALBERT WILLIAM: *General Education in the Social Studies*, Chap. I, American Council on Education, 1948.

The aims and implements of social studies in general education, as developed in connection with the Cooperative Study in General Education.

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A report of the findings and recommendations of the commission appointed by the President of the United States. Also published as six separate reports as follows:

I. Establishing the Goals, 104 pp.
II. Equalizing and Expanding Individual Opportunity, 69 pp.
III. Organizing Higher Education, 74 pp.
IV. Staffing Higher Education, 63 pp.
V. Financing Higher Education, 68 pp.
VI. Resource Data, 52 pp.

RECK, W. EMERSON: *Public Relations; A Program for Colleges and Universities*, Chap. I, Harper, 1946.

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SHAFFTER, DOROTHY: *What Comes of Training Women for War*, Chaps. I, III, American Council on Education, 1948.

The women's military services in the Second World War, and the general implications of the training program.

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The college teacher as a person and as a teacher, the nature of learning, and the possibilities of improving teaching and learning.

CURRENT PERTINENT PERIODICALS AND PUBLICATIONS[53]

American Junior Colleges

Published periodically by American Council on Education.

American Universities and Colleges

Published periodically by American Council on Education.

Bulletins, Proceedings, and Yearbooks

Accrediting Associations (Southern Association, etc.)
American Association of Collegiate Registrars
American Association of University Professors

[53] See the list at the end of Unit XI for additional periodicals and bulletins dealing specifically with institutions of higher learning engaged in teacher education.

American Association of University Women
American College Public Relations Association
American Council on Education
Association of American Colleges
Association of American Universities
Association of Land-grant Colleges and Universities
Association of Urban Universities
Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Education
National Association of State Universities
National Conference on Higher Education

College Catalogues (1)[54]
Much helpful information on college organization, curriculums, etc.

College and University Bulletin (9)
Official publication of Department of Higher Education, National Education Association.

Educational Directory (1)
A publication of the Office of Education, of which Part III contains a list of colleges and universities including all institutions of higher education.

Education in Lay Magazines
Excerpts, made periodically by the National Education Association through its research division, from current periodicals such as *The Atlantic*, *Forum*, *Scribner's Magazine*, *The Saturday Evening Post*, etc.

Educational Record (4)
Official organ of the American Council on Education.

Higher Education (18)
Official publication of the Office of Education, Federal Security Agency.

Journal of General Education (4)
Designed especially to discuss issues and experiments in general education.

Journal of Higher Education (9)
An outstanding magazine devoted solely to higher education, published by the Bureau of Educational Research of Ohio State University.

Junior College Journal (9)
Published by the American Association of Junior Colleges, with a directory of the junior colleges in each January issue and the proceedings of the annual meeting in each May issue.

North Central Association Quarterly (4)
Official organ of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, containing the proceedings of the annual meeting as well as reports of the special committees. Also see publications of the other accrediting associations.

Progressive Education (8)
Official publication of New Education Fellowship with many references on the relations of secondary schools and colleges.

Quarterly Review of Higher Education among Negroes (4)
A publication of the Johnson C. Smith University of Charlotte, North Carolina, and devoted to an overview of higher education among Negroes.

[54] The figures following the titles of the publications indicate the number of issues annually.

School Life (10)

Official publication of the federal Office of Education furnishing much up-to-date material on higher education in the United States.

Teachers College Record (8)

Journal for teachers, issued by Teachers College, Columbia University.

Audio-visual Aids[55]

Campus Frontiers — Twenty-eight minutes, 16 mm., sound, color

This shows the Antioch College cooperative plan in action. College students are seen at work on 60 different jobs, gaining off-campus experiences which they alternate with study on the campus. Available rental free from Antioch College, Yellow Springs, Ohio.

Campus on the March — Nineteen minutes, 16 mm., sound

This film, prepared during the Second World War, depicts the wartime activities of young men and women who were being prepared for war and peace. Produced by Office of War Information, and available from United States Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

Education for All — Twenty-two minutes, 16 mm., sound, color

This film was produced for the one hundredth anniversary of the founding of City College in New York. Available from Harmon Foundation, New York.

Life at Colgate — Sixteen minutes, 16 mm., sound, color

This presents a picture of liberal arts education and states the advantages of Colgate as a liberal arts college. Available rental free from Colgate University, Hamilton, New York.

Letters from a Student — Twenty minutes, 16 mm., sound

This two-reel film, prepared under the sponsorship of UNESCO and the World Student Service Fund, portrays student life and reconstruction in the universities of Europe and Asia. Available rental free from UNESCO, New York.

Princeton — Twenty-nine minutes, 16 or 35 mm., sound

This film does not accent university buildings, but stresses human relations—the story of a student and his teacher. Available from Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey.

Recordings

Available are phonograph recordings of various college songs. For example, the late Peter Christian Lutkin's *Quaecumque Sunt Vera* is obtainable from Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.

Your College — Thirty-five minutes, 16 mm., sound, color

This picture, prepared by Pennsylvania State College, shows the wide variety of its activities over the state. Available rental free from Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pennsylvania.

[55] Numerous universities and colleges have films describing their campuses and activities.

PREVIEW OF UNIT IX

EDUCATION FOR OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH AND ADULTS

Several million out-of-school youth in America need education, guidance, and employment. Educators are seeking to reduce the number of dropouts by curricular modifications and enrichment in secondary and postsecondary education. Men, and especially women, are coming closer and closer to the Biblical allotment of three score years and ten for life on this planet. The number of adults in need of reeducation increases as the span of life lengthens. Historically, the education of youth and adults in America reaches back to the pilgrimage of the early pioneers.

Among the provisions for educating out-of-school youth are guidance programs, more schooling, more vocational education, part-time and continuation schools, apprenticeships, placement, and follow-up services. During the Second World War thousands of American youth received additional education, as well as training, through military programs in colleges and universities and through such off-duty facilities as the United States Armed Forces Institute. Since the war additional thousands of veterans have received full-time or part-time instruction under the G.I. Bill of Rights. Much is being done in the field of vocational rehabilitation.

Adult education no longer needs justifying arguments. Its diversified program includes literacy instruction, Americanization, opportunity schools, extension services, correspondence schools, chautauqua programs, public forums, town meetings, church nights, clubs, alumni colleges, workers' education, libraries, federal programs, and other activities. Coordination of adult education with other areas of education is necessary. American public education starts early, in order to embrace learning for little children, and never ends, so as to include the education of youth and adults.

Outline of Contents

Introduction
- Many youth out of school
- Increase in adult population
- Historical calendar

Education for Out-of-school Youth
- Scope and function of youth education
- Development of youth education
- Provisions for educating out-of-school youth
- Illustrative practices and proposals

Adult Education
- Scope and function of adult education
- Development of adult education
- Provisions for educating adults
- Illustrative practices and proposals

UNIT IX

EDUCATION FOR OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH AND ADULTS

In his humorous account of Mr. Parkhill's efforts as a teacher in the American Night Preparatory School for Adults, L. Q. Ross thus describes the prize pupil, Hyman Kaplan:

> Mr. Kaplan was certainly his most energetic and ebullient pupil. He never missed a lesson; he never grew discouraged; the smile of undaunted hope and good will never left his cherubic face. But, unfortunately Mr. Kaplan never seemed to *learn* anything. His spelling remained erratic, his grammar deplorable, his sentence structure fantastic. There was only one word for Mr. Kaplan's idioms—atrocious. As for Mr. Kaplan's speech, if anything it grew more astounding from day to day. Only last week Mr. Kaplan had announced that his wife suffered "from high blood pleasure." And in his drill on adjectives he had given the positive, comparative and superlative forms of "cold" as "cold, colder, below zero." Mr. Parkhill often wondered whether there wasn't something sacrilegious in trying to impose the iron mold of English on so unfettered an intelligence.[1]

Certainly the English language is a difficult one to conquer. Yet in thousands of night schools throughout the country both foreign and native-born youths and adults are grappling with English and other subjects.

Many Youth Out of School. In the no man's land between adulthood and early adolescence lies the area of life generally known as youth. Complementing the current emphasis upon adult education is the growing concern of the nation about the status of its youth, particularly those out of school. Naturally in a land of compulsory elementary education more children are in school than out. Nevertheless, many boys and girls of elementary-and secondary-school age are not found in school. Furthermore many youth of college age are neither in school nor employed.

Many employed youth feel that they are in "blind alley" or "dead end" jobs. All available statistics on youth and its status compel legislators, educators, prospective teachers, and laymen to think seriously on the plight of out-of-school youth in a land of so-called "equality of opportunity" for young and old.

The G.I. Bill of Rights brought many out-of-school youth back to school and college. The ages of former service women and men ran from nineteen to sixty, and the educational levels varied from primary to postdoctoral courses. At the peak over a million veterans were in higher education and over a million and a half in all types of educational institutions.

[1] L. Q. Ross, *The Education of Hyman Kaplan*, pp. 163–164, Harcourt, 1937.

Increase in Adult Population. Both numerically and proportionately, the adult population of this country is increasing. America, historically and humanly, is growing older. As indicated in Fig. 9-1, the span of life has been lengthened. A baby born in 1950 could look forward, as a personification of all babies born that year, to a life expectancy of over sixty-seven years. Gerontologists—those interested in the complex problems of

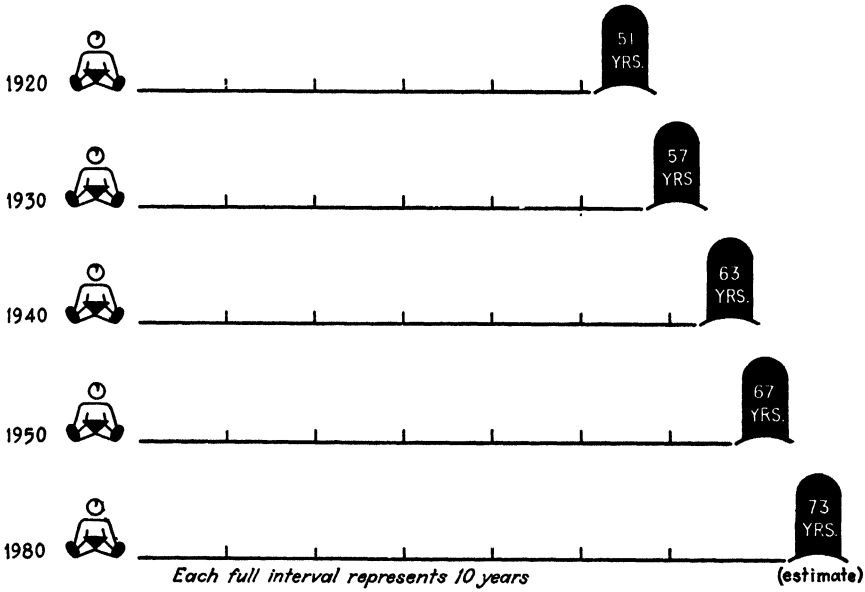


FIG. 9-1. Expectation of life at birth in the United States.

old age—accent the need for research with oldsters rather than youngsters. They corroborate their contentions convincingly with these data:

Year	Persons over 65 Years
1900	4,000,000
1940	9,000,000
1950	11,000,000
1980	18,500,000 (estimate)

The percentage of the total population over sixty-five years in the United States will soon reach 10 per cent. Americans will have to live longer in order to die! With more elders, both proportionately and numerically, American public education will increase the emphasis upon the personal aspects of culture, as the ripe reflection of maturity replaces the hurried impulsiveness of youth. Adult education, with its accumulated learnings, is the final step in lifelong learning; it is the fulfillment of the partly attained

objectives of earlier education. Through adult education, the declining years when one was expected to go downhill become the period of ascendancy when one reaches the mountaintop of human living.

Historical Calendar—Youth-adult Education and Contemporaneous Events

The historical calendar contains significant events in the evolution of education for youth and adults, and also contemporaneous events of social, political, and economic importance. The development of education for these two groups is treated separately later.

HISTORICAL CALENDAR

Youth and Adult Education	Contemporaneous Events
1620—Shortly after Pilgrims landed, town meetings started	1620—Pilgrims landed in America
1826—First lyceum held in Massachusetts	1827—First railroad built in the United States at Quincy, Mass.
1842—First child labor law passed in Massachusetts	1843—First telegraph line opened in United States from Washington to Baltimore
1852—First compulsory school attendance law passed in Massachusetts	1852—*Uncle Tom's Cabin* by Harriet Beecher Stowe published
1859—Cooper Union opened in New York City with public forums	1858—Famous Lincoln-Douglas debates held in Illinois
1874—The Chautauqua Institution founded by Bishop H. H. Vincent	1873—United States swept by financial panic
1876—University extension movement started	1876—First telephone line built between Boston and Cambridge
1883—The Correspondence University founded at Ithaca, New York	1883—Pendleton Civil Service Act passed by Congress
1899—First juvenile court established in Chicago	1899—Spanish-American war started
1914—Federal legislation passed for agricultural extension work (Smith-Lever)	1914—Panama Canal opened to traffic
1924—A community organized for adult education program (Cleveland) (1934—Springfield, Mass.)	1924—Flight around world made by three American airplanes under L. H. Smith
1924—Department of Adult Education organized by National Education Association	1924—Federal immigration act passed by Congress

HISTORICAL CALENDAR (*Continued*)

YOUTH AND ADULT EDUCATION—(*Continued*)	CONTEMPORANEOUS EVENTS—(*Continued*)
1926—American Association of Adult Education formed	1927—First nonstop airplane flight from New York to Paris made by Lindbergh
1932—Des Moines selected as locale of 5-year experiment in adult forums	1932—Reconstruction Finance Corporation established
1933—Emergency education for youth and adults started by the federal government	1933—Diplomatic relations with Soviet Russia resumed by United States
1935—American Youth Commission organized by American Council on Education	1935—Proposal to join the World Court rejected by United States Senate
1940—Vocational and military training for youths and adults provided through national defense plan	1940—First peacetime selective service—many youth and adults called for military service
1946—USAFI established officially as permanent peacetime organization	1946—Fourth atomic bomb of history exploded by the United States over Bikini Atoll
1946—Negro Adult Education project started by U.S. Office of Education and Carnegie Corporation	1946—Republic of Philippines created after 10-year transitional period
1949—National Training Laboratory in Group Development organized by National Education Association	1949—International Conference on Adult Education held at Elsinore, Denmark
1950—USAFI transferred from military to civilian management	1950—Decision made by United States to produce hydrogen bomb

EDUCATION FOR OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH

SCOPE AND FUNCTION OF YOUTH EDUCATION

Scope of Youth Education. The military regimentation of youth in totalitarian countries and the national selective service of youth in the United States helped to make adults more "youth-conscious." This is a healthful sign in a country where the grandfather is becoming the leading competitor of the grandson in his efforts to get an education and a start in life. "Youth" is a flexible term as to age. It has often been defined as a quality of spirit rather than a quantity of years.

Each year approximately two millions in America reach the age of employability. Their employment or nonemployment, their education and

reeducation, are matters of national concern. It is the obligation of the community to provide a suitable educational program for all youth over sixteen years. The scope of this education includes out-of-school youth as well as those in school.

Objectives in Youth Education. The education of youth in America, as part of a broad program of lifelong learning, has many objectives in common with the education of persons of all ages. These common objectives are detailed in Unit XIII. Youth has, however, specific problems that must be taken into consideration. Society must aid in the solution of these problems, but youth itself must assume certain responsibilities. The objectives in this program of reciprocity are clearly stated in the Declaration of Interdependence published by the American Association of School Administrators in its yearbook, *Youth Education Today.* This declaration, found in Appendix IX-A, states what society is to provide in opportunities and then lists the responsibilities to be met by youth.

Development of Youth Education

In a real sense, the pilgrimage of the early pioneers from Europe was the genesis of the youth movement in America. These people came not merely with the short-term view of better living for themselves, but also with the long-span outlook of improved conditions in living and learning for their offspring. Schools and colleges were soon established by law, but early legislators did not make school attendance compulsory or improve the lot of those who were out of school. With the passage in 1842 of the first child labor act in the United States, Massachusetts helped to make the young nation legally conscious of its growing youth and their problems. Ten years later, this same state passed the first compulsory school attendance law. In the city of Chicago in 1899 was established the first juvenile court. The creation of a separate court where the youthful delinquents could be heard by a sympathetic judge marked a great step forward. Most early reforms for youth, however, such as child labor laws, compulsory attendance laws, and the creation of juvenile courts were negative or redemptive measures. In recent years, emphasis has shifted to a positive plus a curative approach to the problems.

Major Governmental Agencies Engaged in Youth Education. Nation-wide organizations, both public and private, have made aggressive attacks on the problems of youth. Among the federal agencies directly concerned with youth welfare are the Wage and Hour Division of the Department of Labor, the Cooperative Extension Service of the Department of Agriculture, and the Federal Security Agency. In the Federal Security Agency, associated with the federal Office of Education, are several significant youth-serving agencies such as the Public Health Service. The main governmental

agency interested in youth education during the Second World War and the postwar period has been the National Security Organization, under the Secretary of Defense, with the departments of the army, navy, and air force. In their recruitment, enlistment, and training programs the major aims of national defense have stressed the continuance of education for youth rather than its interruption through military service. Through their off-duty programs, affiliations with schools and colleges, and other activities, the armed forces actively promote education.

Nation-wide Nongovernmental Agencies Interested in Youth Education. A private organization, American Youth Hostels, sponsors the hostel movement in America and abroad. The National Congress of Parents and Teachers, to its slogan "Child Welfare," added the "Welfare of Youth" as a major objective of its program. As previously indicated, the National Education Association, through the American Association of School Administrators, devoted a yearbook to *Youth Education Today*, as did also the National Society for the Study of Education in its *Juvenile Delinquency and the Schools.* The American Library Association is working on reading problems for out-of-school youth and adults. The current problems of youth, especially those out of school, have been studied and analyzed by several organizations. (See Appendix IX-B for a list of Forty-five Youth-Serving Organizations and Their Affiliations with Four National Coordinating Bodies.)

American Youth Commission. Outstanding in its accomplishments has been a nonpartisan, nonsectarian, and nongovernmental agency, the American Youth Commission, created by the American Council on Education in 1935. Homer P. Rainey, Floyd W. Reeves, and others have written many volumes and delivered numerous addresses on the findings and possible solutions for the problems defined. One of the commission's monumental works is *American Youth: An Annotated Bibliography.*

Provisions for Educating Out-of-School Youth

Supplementing the nation-wide efforts are many state and local programs for youth. Educators, parents, and laymen are awaking to the problem; newspapers, periodicals, and books are focusing a searchlight upon it; and curriculum specialists on all levels are emphasizing youth's need for specific guidance and practical help. Those who need definite assistance may be grouped as rural and urban youth, as native and foreign groups, as boys and girls, or as an employed and unemployed youth. The latter classification includes the unemployable, the unemployed, the misemployed, those employed part-time, and those employed full-time in gainful occupations or professions.

The education of youth in school and college has been treated in preceding units in the volume. Without segregating them into the groups mentioned above, the section that follows is devoted primarily to the education of youth who are not full-time students in schools and colleges.

Guidance Programs. While they are still in school and also after they have been graduated, young people need guidance, which has been defined simply as "seeing through John and then helping John to see himself through." John Dewey once said: "Guidance is not external imposition. It is freeing the life processes for its own most adequate fulfillment." Frank E. Baker, former president of Milwaukee State Teachers College, distinguishes three processes in guidance: therapeutic, to cure cases of emotional and mental maladjustment; preventive, to help the individual avoid emotional and mental tensions; and developmental, to help individuals in those forms of self-expression that have distinct value to personality growth. Guidance is usually directive or nondirective in nature.

The Educational Policies Commission in *Education for All American Youth* accents the role of guidance thus:

> The keystone of the school program is guidance—personal assistance to individual boys and girls in making their plans and decisions about careers, education, employment, and all sorts of personal problems.
>
> Guidance is no mechanical process, whereby counselors and teachers sort out boys and girls as a grading machine sorts apples. . . . Guidance is rather the high art of helping boys and girls to plan their own actions wisely, in the full light of all the facts that can be mustered about themselves and about the world in which they will work and live.
>
> Guidance is not the work of a few specialists. . . . Guidance is not limited to vocational matters. It includes the whole gamut of youth problems. . . .[2]

Programs usually include mental, physical, social, personal, recreational, educational, and vocational guidance. Since the other phases are treated elsewhere, especially in the next unit, vocational guidance is mentioned briefly here.

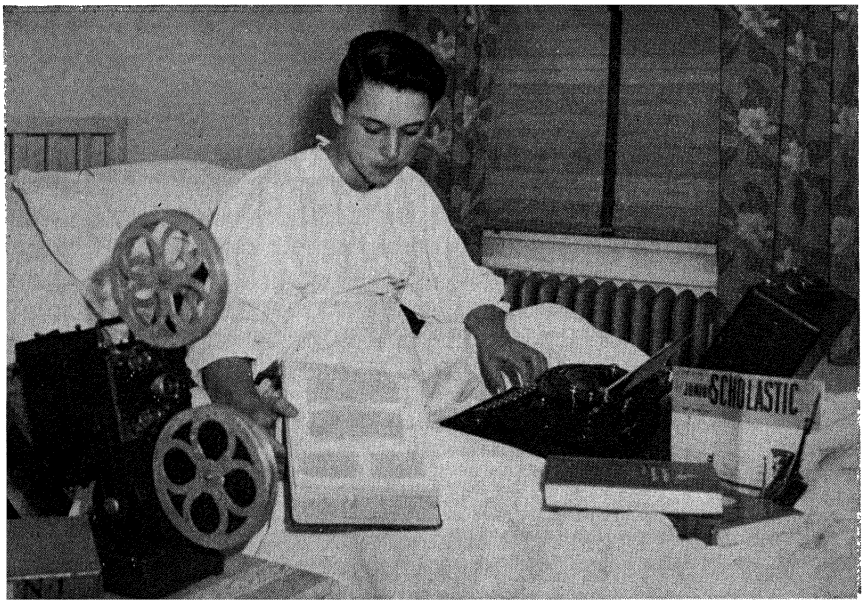
Obviously secondary schools have a responsibility for follow-up services to those who continue their education elsewhere and especially to those youth who seek employment in the world of work.

The task force report of the Hoover Commission reflects "the widespread recognition today that proper provision for enabling the student to think and choose for himself in selecting his working career is a necessary part of every good school program."

[2] Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth*, pp. 39–40, National Education Association, 1944.

Such provision includes the development and administration of interest and aptitudes tests, the stimulation of personal concern on the part of the individual about his future in terms of a recognition of the relation between abilities and preferences, and the development of a sense of social purpose and contribution. This process must, of course, be related to an awareness of areas and trends in vocational opportunity.[3]

The American Youth Commission reported that every year nearly 2,000,000 young Americans try to adjust themselves to the 18,000 different types of



(Courtesy of St. Luke's Hospital, Chicago, Illinois.)

FIG. 9-2. Youth temporarily hospitalized goes to school *in absentia*. Aided by educational motion pictures, textbooks, periodicals, and a typewriter, this learner is hard at work.

occupations available. Certainly guidance is one essential part of education, yet very few receive it. In the sample survey of the American Youth Commission it was found that 75 per cent of the city youth and 90 per cent of the rural youth were given no guidance whatever in seeking vocational adjustment.

More Schooling for Many Youth. Many youngsters are out of school because they had to drop out Howard Bell in his work for the American Youth Commission, as reported in *Youth Tell Their Story*, found that 40

[3] Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government, *Task Force Report on Public Welfare*, p. 407, Superintendent of Documents, 1949.

per cent of the out-of-school boys and girls in Maryland would have preferred to remain in school, but lack of funds or home needs made it impossible for them to continue. Sociologist Gordon W. Lovejoy in his survey of the problems of youth in North Carolina, as reported in *Paths to Maturity*, discovered that despite a state law requiring school attendance until the age of fourteen, one white boy in nine and one Negro in four quit before that age. Providing adequate education for all the children of all the people is still an unfulfilled challenge in America. Legislatures of nearly all the Southern states which do not have 12 years of schooling have provided for the gradual addition of a twelfth grade to the public schools. In many communities the permissible school-leaving age must be raised, and compulsory attendance laws more rigidly enforced. The boy or girl temporarily out of school because of prolonged illness or hospitalization needs more opportunities for schooling *in absentia*.

Varied Educational Program. Some young people are out of school because the institutions do not meet their needs. The program of instruction that may possibly have been appropriate when the pupils were few and selected does not fit at all the needs of the great majority of those now in the secondary schools.

A sample study of why young people leave school made by the United States Department of Labor in Louisville, Kentucky, reported:

> Contrary to general belief, this survey showed that dissatisfaction with school, as the occasion for leaving, loomed considerably larger than economic reasons. Motives were often a mixture of some dissatisfaction with school and of pressure of economic forces which weighed on parents because of the burden of family support or on the pupil at school because he could not have and do the things other students could. Another very important influence in crystallizing decisions of young people about school leaving was the value that the parents placed on education.
>
> Nearly one half of the undergraduates included in the study explained that they left school primarily because they were dissatisfied there. They told of courses, teachers, attitudes of other students, discipline, or their own failures as causes of their dissatisfaction.[4]

"Off the streets into the school" is a necessary slogan, but all adolescents cannot pursue a traditional full-time course. Many a boy or girl does not need more schooling, but a different type of education with more vocational training, rationed out over a longer period of time and concurrent with employment.

[4] Elizabeth S. Johnson and Caroline E. Legg, "Why Young People Leave School," *Bulletin of National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, November, 1948, p. 15.

Work Experience. The first of the ten imperative needs of youth, as described in *Planning for American Youth*,[5] is stated thus:

> All youth need to develop salable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in economic life. To this end, most youth need supervised work experience as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupations.

Work experience for youth is becoming an important part of general education.

> Every student before being graduated from high school should be required to demonstrate efficiency in some kind of work. Although work experience outside of the school auspices is desirable, it can substitute for but one phase of a school work program. Credit toward graduation should be granted for participation in a school work program.[6]

Such experience can help youth understand the world at work—the role of labor, capital, and management. He then becomes a more intelligent and socially sensitized consumer as well as producer.

Vocational Education. Youth needs more exposure to and experience with education that is vocational. It is difficult to distinguish between general, prevocational, and vocational education, for the classification varies in accordance with the individual purposes of the learner. Usually the term "vocational education" is used in the broad sense to indicate all the services provided by the schools or social agencies for increasing the occupational efficiency of present and future workers.

Part-time and Continuation Schools.[7] A combination of work and study is also effected by means of part-time and continuation schools. This type of education is not the prerogative of young men only, for national statistics indicate that of all people gainfully employed, a minority but nevertheless a significant percentage are women. Most states require both boys and girls to attend school at least part time. Some industries and department stores maintain their own schools. The Smith-Hughes law provides that one third of the money available for trade and industrial education should be spent for part-time or continuation classes, in which anything that contributes to civic or vocational intelligence may be taught.

Adjustments within the regular schools, fewer failures, and less junior employment have affected the programs of the part-time schools which

[5] National Association of Secondary-School Principals, *Planning for American Youth*, National Education Association, 1944, 64 pp.

[6] Robert S. Gilchrist and Edith Gillies, "Imperative Need Number 1," *Bulletin of National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, March, 1947, p. 8.

[7] Part-time or cooperative colleges are treated in Unit VIII.

are closing their doors, or establishing pre-employment classes, or forming classes for overage students and unemployed adult workers. Where employment is available for youth, the continuation schools maintain their original function of combining earning and learning. The working conditions of young people must be made more educative and learning in school more practical, for youth is both worker and learner.

Apprenticeships. From Europe came the apprenticeship system whereby a young man left his home to learn a trade under a master. Laws were passed in colonial American making it obligatory for poor parents to apprentice their children. By means of long and involved contracts minors were sold into semislavery. The main advantage of the system was that a youth learned a trade thoroughly over a prolonged period. Naturally modern working conditions do not permit this long close contact between the learner of the trade and the master craftsman. However, a new type of apprenticeship, available under the federal-state-local programs, now provides for instruction in related subjects paralleling experiences in the occupations in which youth are employed half of each week. A coordinator is responsible for this part of the apprentices' school program, either as an instructor in these subjects or as a sponsor of apprentices working with instructors on special subjects such as chemistry or physics. The federal Office of Education, through its vocation division, assists local and state apprentice training programs, which today usually combine job experience with attendance at part-time or continuation schools.

Placement and Follow-up Services. Educators and laymen are seeking to promote the welfare of out-of-school youth, particularly of the millions between the ages of sixteen and twenty-four who are unemployed as a result of technological advances and economic conditions. The adolescent in school is usually an asset; out of school and out of work he is generally a liability.

Some youth, of course, are unemployable: they are physically, mentally, or otherwise so atypical that they cannot be gainfully occupied. Some of these are at home; others are in penal, health, or charitable institutions that strive to provide a minimum education in terms of needs, interests, and abilities. Others are helped to employment through the federally aided programs of vocational rehabilitation.

Of all the employed youth in the nation, many are misemployed. Many well-educated, superior young men and women have to be content with low-grade occupations, which stunt high-quality abilities. Vice versa, some persons are misemployed because they try temporarily to hold jobs above their abilities by dint of sheer force of will, working long hours and using excessive nervous energy at the expense of health. Obviously, these misfits are soon detected and weeded out. But the greatest human tragedy is that

of capable persons burying their talents in "dead-end" jobs. One reason for misemployment is the lack of adequate guidance and satisfactory placement.

For many students, commencement night severs all connections with the school. An increasing number of secondary schools, however, are establishing junior placement bureaus and follow-up services for their ex-

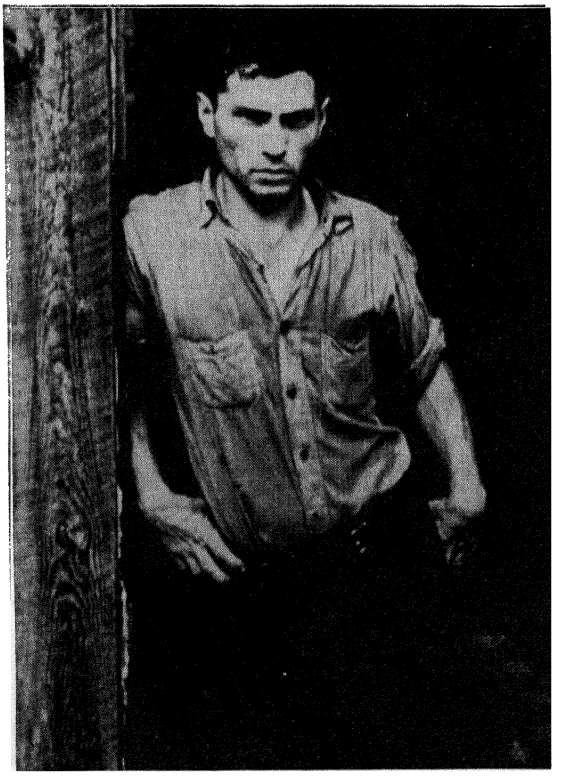


FIG. 9-3. Youth without a job spells frustration.

students. In the Baltimore plan, the schools assume the full responsibility for vocational guidance, training, and placement in the first job. After that, the employment service carries on. A White House Conference recommended that "schools make available to young people, while in school and after they leave school, systematic personal and vocational guidance and organized assistance in job placement, in cooperation with public employment services."

Other Educational Opportunities for Youth. Besides the possibilities of learning already mentioned in this unit and those preceding, numerous

other forms exist. Since these educational activities are closely allied or identical with those provided for adults, they are treated in connection with adult education.

Illustrative Practices and Proposals

To supplement the pertinent examples of education for youth already mentioned in the preceding units on elementary, secondary, and higher education, a few of the many interesting and significant practices in youth education are cited here under the following headings: (1) national, including governmental and nongovernmental, (2) state, (3) regional, and (4) local programs.

National Programs.

Important governmental agencies interested in youth education during the Second World War and in the postwar period have been the military forces—army, navy, and air force—now under the Secretary of Defense. In their recruitment, enlistment, and training programs the major arms of national defense have stressed continuance of education of youth rather than its interruption through military service. Through their training, their off-duty programs, their affiliations with schools and colleges, and their other activities, the armed forces actively promote education for the youth in service.

World-wide in scope is the United States Armed Forces Institute (USAFI). This program, unprecedented in war and peace, was started by the nation's armed services. Established during the Second World War with headquarters at Madison, Wisconsin, this institute provides opportunities for women and men to continue their educational training while in military service. In addition to the correspondence and self-teaching courses offered for credit, there are group-study classes in the United States and overseas. Many service men are enrolled in nearby educational institutions during off-duty hours, taking courses for which the government pays a part of the tuition.

As previously indicated, the Veterans Administration has rendered distinguished service to the discharged veterans. In addition to formal full-time education in schools and colleges, many ex-service men and women receive part-time training. For example, institutional on-farm training is organized and operated by the Veterans Administration in cooperation with the United States Office of Education. The veteran receives government subsistence, adjusted to his wages and dependents.

The American Council on Education has been very active in helping out-of-school youth. Its Committee on Measurement and Guidance prepared the helpful *Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services,* which has been a handbook for the armed services, schools, and colleges in their accreditation programs. Its American Youth Commission has issued many helpful publications based upon national and regional surveys.[8] The Council's Committee on Youth

[8] An example is M. M. Chambers and Elaine Exton, *Youth—Key to America's Future,* American Council on Education, 1949, 130 pp., which is an annotated bibliography.

Problems continues the implementation of the findings of the commission through such publications as *Helping Students Find Employment.*[9]

The Educational Policies Commission, appointed by the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, has outlined basic policies in various areas, such as the education of all youth in *Education for All American Youth* and veterans' education in *A Program for Returning Veterans.*

Countless national voluntary organizations are at work, for example, the Rural Youth of the United States of America, American Youth Hostels, and the Christian Youth Conference. Among other programs are national hookups in radio and television with appropriate syllabi and guides, new voter preparation and recognition, a nation-wide attack on the prevention and cure of juvenile delinquency, and National Youth Month in September which is spearheaded by Theatre Owners of America. Plans are evolving slowly for uniting the various efforts into one youth movement, as part of a national-state-local program.

State Programs.

The National Council of Chief State School Officers has been active in stimulating and coordinating programs for out-of-school youth. Several states hold annual conferences on youth problems. Michigan, for example, has made surveys of life-work opportunities for youth. The New York legislature established a youth commission. Its education department organized a veterans' vocational school at Troy, New York.

Many states by legislative enactment have raised the age for compulsory school attendance, for permissive school leaving, and for beginning employment, with the result that many more youth remain in school during their teens. At least one has lowered the voting age to eighteen years, thus challenging schools to accent civic education earlier.

Regional.

Area vocational schools, technical institutes, and community college programs have been established for youth on interstate and intrastate bases. Illustrative of county efforts are the older-rural-youth programs in Muskingum County, Ohio, and the Saturday classes for secondary-school dropouts in Ventura County, California.

Local.

Hundreds of local elementary and secondary schools are making intensive studies of dropouts and modifying their programs in the light of these findings.

Many institutions of higher learning, as for example the municipal University of Louisville, have two student bodies: one on the campus and one in the community. The goal of serving all youth is especially characteristic of community colleges and schools.

[9] Forrest H. Kirkpatrick, *et al.*, *Helping Students Find Employment*, American Council on Education, 1949, 37 pp.

Local public and school libraries are cooperating in an aggressive campaign for youth education by setting up shelves and departments for out-of-school and post-secondary youth. Since the hand that rocks the cradle is becoming younger, many libraries accent parental education in their book lists and discussion groups.

Thousands of secondary schools are following the recommendations of the American Council on Education in regard to the granting of credit and the awarding of high-school diplomas to veterans on the basis of the General Educational Development (GED) Tests. This privilege is being extended to all civilians.

Some Proposals for Youth Education. The Educational Policies Commission, in its publication *Education for All American Youth*, lists countless suggestions for helping out-of-school youth. In addition to recommending that many receive more education through elimination of dropouts in high school and through the establishment of community institutes, the commission suggested the following in its imaginary state system of youth education:

> The members of the state planning groups were quick to see that, even in the best of school systems, all the educational needs of youth could not possibly be met within twelve or fourteen years of school attendance. Some aspects of education must wait upon experience and maturity. . . .
>
> Legal provisions were therefore made for the support of a comprehensive program of free public adult education which would be open to all youth not in full-time attendance at school. The law authorized but did not require districts to admit adults and out-of-school youth to regular classes in community institutes and in the thirteenth and fourteenth grades of secondary schools. It also authorized districts to organize and maintain part-time and evening classes in any subject and to receive financial aid from the state for classes in subjects approved by the state board of education. The board's approvals, we may add, have been broad enough to encompass practically the whole range of interests of adults and older youth—vocational, avocational, civic, cultural, family life, homemaking, and health. . . .
>
> In anticipation of the possible establishment of work camps for youth in public parks and forests and on public conservation and construction projects, the law provides that state and federal aid may be applied to the support of the educational programs in such camps.[10]

The Hoover Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government also listed many proposals in its task force report. A few recomendations dealing with vocational and trade education are:

> Training for employment should be based upon some preliminary estimate of employment opportunities in the field of the individual's preferences and aptitudes. It must also be predicated upon some fairly uniform terminology and understanding of the trades and skills for which training is to be given. These requirements involve the collaboration of the employer, the worker, the schools, and the employ-

[10] Educational Policies Commission, *op. cit.*, pp 361–362.

ment office. . . . Local apprenticeship and school programs should be developed in close collaboration with the local employment office to avoid wasteful loss of students' time and energy. . . .

Vocational education in the schools cannot provide a substitute for training in industry under the supervision of skilled craftsmen; the motives and behavior patterns of the student in each are different and easily detectable. . . .

With respect to the internal administration of the apprenticeship program, consideration should be given to the substitution of a matching grant-in-aid program, subject to present federal standards, for the present policy of direct federal servicing and encouragement of local apprentice committees.[11]

The matter of federal aid again brings up the proposal of a federal system of scholarships for youth so as to enable each one to work in the occupation where he can be most productive. A somewhat similar proposal was made years ago by President Thomas Jefferson, who, in his plan for education in Virginia, called for "the selection of the youth of genius from among the classes of the poor."

America must utilize all human resources through developing the latent talents of relatively young men and women. It must be remembered that William Cullen Bryant wrote "Thanatopsis" at the age of sixteen; Mendelssohn composed his overture to *A Midsummer Night's Dream* at the age of eighteen; Alexander the Great conquered the then known world at twenty-five; Einstein published his first statement of relativity at the age of twenty-six; and Thomas A. Edison obtained one third of his 1076 patents between the ages of thirty-three and thirty-six. Countless living examples demonstrate the creative power of young people who in their teens, twenties, and thirties achieve distinction.

A corollary of youth education is that each one educate himself to remain young. During the Second World War, over General MacArthur's desk in Manila hung a message, "How to Stay Young," based upon a poem written by the late Samuel Ullman. It read in part as follows:

> Youth is not a time of life—it is a state of mind; it is a temper of the will, a quality of the imagination, a vigor of the emotions, a predominance of courage over timidity, of the appetite for adventure over the love of ease.
>
> Nobody grows old by merely living a number of years; people grow old by deserting their ideals. Years wrinkle the skin, but to give up enthusiasm wrinkles the soul. . . .
>
> You are as young as your faith, as old as your doubt; as young as your self-confidence, as old as your fear; as young as your hope, as old as your despair.

A great truth was expressed by the French poet Alfred de Vigny, who said, "A fine life is a thought conceived in youth and realized in maturity."

[11] Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government, *op. cit.*, pp. 406, 409, 413.

ADULT EDUCATION

Scope and Function of Adult Education

Scope of Adult Education. In its broadest sense, adult education embraces all informal and formal activities which promote more learning and better living for persons of approximately twenty-one years of age and older. In its narrowest sense, it is institutionalized instruction for mature persons who usually are not full-time students. Most summer-school and graduate students in the regular session of the colleges and universities are adults.

Ned Dearborn stated that a literal interpretation of adult education is too inclusive. Although adults are daily exposed to a wide range of influences, such as books, press, radio, travel, and other privileges of modern life, these influences are not a part of adult activity organized with a learning purpose. He classified adult learning as:

1. Personal adjustments: individual, family, and community
2. Occupational adjustments: vocational education and reeducation, guidance, and placement counseling
3. Contemporary affairs: economic, governmental, and others
4. Cultural learning: a wide range of knowledge
5. Appreciative work: in the fine arts
6. Creative work: in fine and applied arts
7. Recreation: indoor and outdoor sports and games, and hobbies[12]

This list is indeed a far cry from the early days when the emphasis was concentrated upon literacy and Americanization of foreigners. "It [adult education] has an urgent and a distinctive role to play in making all the experiences of adult life meaningful, and all adult learning educative."[13] Thus adult education is not merely a process of "Simonizing the mind"; it is a meaningful way of improving life.

Its Major Objectives and Functions. Adult education has many objectives:

> Adult education in a democracy should point to broadening the horizons of its citizens in social, cultural, vocational, and physical areas in order to maintain and further develop: (a) an intelligent electorate, (b) a healthy and happy citizenry, (c) vocationally competent workers, (d) a broader cultural base for all, and (e) an understanding of our rights and responsibilities and those of our fellow men.[14]

[12] Ned H. Dearborn, "Philosophy of Adult Education," *Adult Education Bulletin*, January, 1938, p. 8.

[13] Ruth Kotinsky, *Adult Education and the Social Scene*, p. 12, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1933.

[14] Paul Bergevin, *A Philosophy for Adult Education*, Purdue-Indiana University Community Services in Adult Education, 1949, p. 18.

The major functions of the wider adult education movement are listed thus in *Fundamental Education:*

1. Remedial education (that is, giving adults the opportunity to secure the education they did not have in childhood).
2. Occupational education (that is, helping adults to be more efficient workers and to acquire new skills and knowledges which will be of practical value to themselves and the community).
3. Recreational education (that is, encouraging the fuller and more creative use of leisure).
4. Liberal education (that is, helping adults to acquire knowledge and understanding of a disinterested character, in the field of culture, arts, sciences, literature, history, languages, etc.).
5. Political education (that is, helping adults to play their part in social life and government in their community, and so to become good citizens of their country and the world).[15]

Among the important and specific aims in national, state, and local programs are these: to liquidate illiteracy, to Americanize foreigners, to supplement inadequate education, to reeducate people, to promote healthful living, to give parental education, to render vocational and avocational guidance, to raise the level of consumership, to provide workers' education, to provide general education, to lift the cultural level of the nation, to dispel individual and group ignorance, and to supply opportunities for life enrichment, deeper insights, creative thinking, and social action in a democracy.

Implications of Adult Education for a Democracy. Particularly necessary is adult education in America, since a democracy draws more upon the intelligence and character of its citizens than does any other form of government. In an informed democracy it is difficult for a government to enforce censorship and for demogogues to operate successfully. As William H. Kilpatrick has pointed out, America needs more, not less adult learning:

> The way to save democracy is to get more people to study our problems and find out what is wrong in order to change it before it is too late. If we don't do that, we will get social catastrophe and dictatorship. If we do that, democracy will solve the problems in some fashion.[16]

Former Commissioner John W. Studebaker once raised the question: "What sort of educational base supports democracy in America?" He answered with the illustration of an inverted pyramid precariously balanced

[15] Federal Security Agency, *Fundamental Education*, p. 5, Superintendent of Documents, 1948.

[16] W. H. Kilpatrick, "Implications of Adult Education for a Democracy," *Character and Citizenship*, p. 9, November, 1938.

on a small apex of those who have had ample education. Even the adults who constitute the educational apex of the inverted pyramid are constantly in need of reeducation.

Many others need basic training in how to read. Through various educational agencies, the number of illiterates has been reduced. But even though statistics show a high degree of literacy in America, a large percentage of the literate do not know how to read in the modern sense. The late Edward L. Thorndike, in "Why We Behave Like Illiterates," said, "The ignorance of people concerning economics and business is on a level with their ignorance concerning physiology and medicine."[17] Too many adults are economically illiterate.

Can Adults Learn? This is an old question. The usual answer has been, "You can't teach an old dog new tricks." William James and other older psychologists believed that the mind was set like plaster at the age of twenty-five and that the acquisition of new ideas was extremely difficult if not impossible. Modern experimental psychology has invalidated this dictum of James: "Outside of their own business, the ideas gained by men before they are twenty-five are practically the only ideas they shall have in their lives." The long-sanctioned superstition that adults cannot learn has been dissolved by a series of experiments. Edward L. Thorndike, who through his long years of productive research has demonstrated that an adult can perform new tasks, was an outstanding pioneer in experimentation with the learning of adults. Of the fallacy that adults cannot learn, he wrote:

> 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 forty-five. We showed that the ability to learn increased from early childhood to about age twenty-five and decreased gradually and slowly thereafter, about 1 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 forty-five is better than ages ten and fourteen.
>
> Later investigations by Miles, Jones and others make it probable that the decline in ability to learn from ages forty-five on to seventy is not much more rapid than this, so that a man of sixty-five may expect to learn at best half as much per hour as he could at twenty-five and more than he could at eight or ten.[18]

Dr. Irving Lorge stated that older people lack, not mental *ability*, but mental *speed*. One grows through living, so that ripeness of life may actually offset the decrease in speed of learning. There is no terminal

[17] *The New York Sun*, January 11, 1941, p. 7.

[18] Edward L. Thorndike, *Adult Interests*, pp. 1, 2, Macmillan, 1935.

point in one's education—no mental retirement age. Old persons will continue to learn new things.

Another writer, Walter B. Pitkin, helped to popularize adult education with his books, *Life Begins at Forty* and *Careers after Forty*. In the first he contended that life can become meaningful at the age of forty, and in the second he pointed out that careers were made after forty by persons like Marie Dressler and Will Rogers.

Countless are the examples of advanced learning and remarkable achievement by humans well along in years. Sir William Osler, a British scientist of note, once said, "The effective, moving, vitalizing work of the world is done between the ages of twenty-five and forty." Yet he, who urged that older people be liquidated, or "oslerized," did his most important work as a great humanitarian and physician after he had reached the age of forty. Oliver Wendell Holmes, who said, "If you haven't cut your name on the door by the time you have reached forty you might just as well put up your jack-knife," wrote prodigiously and lucidly in his later years. Goethe finished his *Faust* only a short time before his death at eighty-three; Verdi composed his greatest operas *Otello* and *Falstaff* between the ages of seventy-four and eighty; Gladstone studied a new language when he was well over seventy; Michelangelo at sixty painted his majestic "Last Judgment"; Voltaire at the age of eighty was an intellectual giant; Vanderbilt increased the mileage of his railroads from 120 to 10,000 after he had reached seventy years; Winston Churchill at the age of seventy-five was still a world figure; John R. Mott, international ambassador of good will, was preaching at eighty-three; at seventy, General MacArthur was active in democratizing Japan; Frank Lloyd Wright was designing modern buildings on his eightieth birthday; Arturo Toscanini was conducting orchestras at eighty-two; Somerset Maugham at seventy-five was writing creatively; and George Bernard Shaw was expressing himself explosively at ninety years. John Robert Gregg represented productivity in youth and old age: at nineteen he organized the Gregg system of shorthand and at eighty he was still directing the operations of Gregg College. Many congressmen serve their country in the House and Senate in their seventies and eighties. Cicero at the age of sixty-two wrote in *De Senectute*, "Intelligence, and reflection, and judgment reside in old men, and if there had been none of them, no states could exist at all." Many oldsters have lived up to the challenging book titles *Forget Your Age* and *Creative Old Age*, by Peter J. Steincrohn and Clare de Gruchy, respectively. Great achievements in all areas of human endeavor testify in defense of maturity. Longfellow posed a pertinent question for adults in "Morituri Salutamus":

> What then? Shall we sit idly down and say
> The night hath come; it is no longer day?

His answer is the challenge of adult education:

> The night hath not yet come; we are not quite
> Cut off from labor by the failing light;
> Something remains for us to do or dare;
> Even the oldest tree some fruit may bear; . . .
> For age is opportunity no less
> Than youth itself, though in another dress,
> And as the evening twilight fades away
> The sky is filled with stars, invisible by day.

In the starlit eventide of life, with head lifted skyward, the adult marches briskly to his task of continued learning.

Development of Adult Education

Early History of Adult Education. Informal adult education is as old as history. Biblical records and other historic documents show numerous efforts in this direction. Formal adult learning may be credited to England:

> Way back in the fifties and sixties of the nineteenth century a group of Englishmen, among them Charles Kingsley and John Ruskin, saw that if England were to progress in such a way as to develop the maximum of human power, men must become masters of their own fate, and so the Workingmen's College was founded in the midst of a working-class community in East London. This can be said to have been a pioneer in adult education.[19]

In America informal education for adults was promoted through tribal practices among the Indians long before the arrival of the Pilgrims in 1620, when town meetings were started among the white colonists. Thomas Jefferson called the town meeting "the wisest invention ever devised by the wit of man for the perfect exercise of self-government and for its preservation." Formal adult education in this country commenced with such experiments as Cooper Union forums in New York in 1859, Chautauqua in 1874, the work of the social settlements in the eighties, the Lowell Institute in Boston, the lecture courses called "lyceums" in the time of Emerson, and similar undertakings.

One objective of the lyceum, as listed by its founder Josiah Holbrook, was "to increase the advantages and raise the character of existing district schools." Among those who appeared on the programs were Webster, Thoreau, Lowell, Holmes, Hale, Beecher, Phillips, and Emerson. Emerson frequently lectured for $5 and oats for his horse, and he wrote most of his essays for oral delivery from the lyceum platform. The chautauqua

[19] Eva W. White, "Thoughts on Adult Education," *Education*, April, 1938, p. 509.

program, which followed the lyceum, has run a course similar to it; the parent institution, the Chautauqua Summer School at Chautauqua, New York, is still alive. Other forms of adult education, *viz.*, the university extension and correspondence courses, were organized in the 1870's and 1880's. (For these and other events, see the historical calendar, at the beginning of this unit.)

Organized Movement of Adult Education. Adult education as an organized movement is of recent origin in the United States, its development following the First World War. The first attempt to consolidate adult learning facilities for a community took place in Cleveland in 1924. The term "adult education" did not come into general use until about 1924, when the Carnegie Corporation of New York called the first conference in America. In 1924 the Department of Immigration Education changed its name to the Department of Adult Education, which, as part of the National Education Association, published the *Adult Education Bulletin.* Two years later the interest in this work led to the establishment of a national organization, the American Association of Adult Education, "to coordinate activities in adult education and to act as a clearinghouse for those interested in the field." Its official publication is the *Adult Education Journal.* It has been engaged in a study of the social significance of adult education. (See Appendix IX-C for a further explanation of the American Association for Adult Education.) The National Congress of Parents and Teachers, organized as the National Congress of Mothers in 1897, and the National Council of Parent Education, started in 1926, particularly through their groups of parents banded in child study, have made nation-wide contributions to one phase of adult learning, *viz.*, parental education. The federal Office of Education cooperates closely with national organizations of parents, with public forums, and with other phases of adult learning. In view of the past, it is necessary to establish a broadened concept of American public education which is lifelong learning for all—full-time schooling for all children and most youth, and continuing education for out-of-school youth and adults.

Provisions for Educating Adults

Literacy Education. For many years part of the adult education program has been directed toward reducing illiteracy. Literacy education aims to provide "classes for adults unable to read and write English with sufficient facility to be able to read a newspaper with understanding and to write an intelligible letter." Nearly three million persons in the United States have had no schooling whatever, and approximately 10 per cent have completed only the first four grades. Although over half

the human race is still illiterate, the United States should seek to equal the record of such countries as Denmark, where the illiteracy is only 0.1 per cent. May the time come when American checks and legal documents will not bear the wording: "If you cannot write your name, place a cross and have it witnessed by two persons."

Army Literacy Program. In the Second World War the armed forces conducted very successful programs of literacy training. The army program is described as follows:

> The program of instruction was planned to accomplish five major objectives: (1) to teach the men to read at a fourth-grade level in order to enable them to comprehend bulletins, written orders, directions, and basic army publications; (2) to give the men sufficient language skill to enable them to use and understand such everyday language as is necessary to get along with officers and men in the army; (3) to teach the men to do number work at a fourth-grade level to enable them to understand their pay accounts and deductions from them, laundry bills, and to conduct business in the post exchange; (4) to facilitate the adjustment of the men to military training and army life; (5) to have the men understand in a general way the reasons that made it necessary for this country to fight the totalitarian powers. Instruction in mental hygiene and in problems of personal adjustment was provided small groups, and it was possible to modify and adapt the program to suit individual capabilities, needs, and interests. Extensive use was made of illustration and demonstration. No single method was recommended for the teaching of reading. . . .[20]

After rejecting more than 200,000 men of draft age because of illiteracy alone, the armed services eventually inducted twice that number who had never reached the fourth-grade standard of literacy. A large percentage of them was brought up to or beyond that level over a period of 2 or 3 months.[21]

Americanization Program. Formerly this type of adult education was designed to teach the rudiments of the English language and the elements of the United States Constitution to resident alien adults seeking formal admission to American citizenship. The rigid subject matter of earlier years, in which the letter rather than the spirit of the immigration laws dominated the program, has expanded into a functional Americanization program which includes vocational and avocational guidance, civic awareness, and participation in all aspects of democratic processes. Typical of Americanization classes years ago was a lecture by a salesman of American ideals to a group of bewildered "foreigners"; illustrative of the present program is a folk festival in which the people of all nations are given a

[20] Alonzo G. Grace, *Educational Lessons from Wartime Training*, pp. 53–54, American Council on Education, 1948.

[21] *Ibid.*, p. 154.

chance to recreate the cultural values of their homelands. Public policy regarding the Americanization and assimilation of various foreign stocks appears to be changing from one based on the concept of the "melting pot" to one based on the newer idea of cultural pluralism:

> The newer concept of cultural pluralism recognizes the ethnic diversity of our population and takes cognizance of the time element in the process of assimilation. It acknowledges the reality of the white-colored demarcations and of the variety of cultures associated with national origins of our foreign stock. As a philosophy, cultural pluralism denies the assumption that there is one American culture fixed once and for all by our colonial ancestors. It assumes that our culture is variegated and dynamic, and that all immigrant groups have contributed toward its enrichment.[22]

Cultural pluralism is not incompatible with democracy. Under the requirements for citizenship set up by the Immigration and Naturalization Service, a period of 2 to 7 years must elapse from the time an alien takes out the first papers until he receives final citizenship. This period is long enough for interested agencies to provide a broad naturalization program.

In recent years the number of aliens granted citizenship papers has risen sharply. The unsettled world conditions, the arrival of many displaced persons, the overseas friendships established during and since the Second World War, and the ruling that certain federal-state benefactions, like old-age pensions, be paid only to citizens of the United States are causal factors in the increase.

The arrival of many well-educated and cultured newcomers necessitates a revision of the Americanization curriculum with literature on a higher level of difficulty and with more emphasis on oral English and on American institutions, traditions, and practices. Among the by-products of a modern functional Americanization program are more effective cooperation and better understanding between home and school, and between foreign-born parents and their American-born children.

Opportunity Schools for Adults. Another source of enlightenment is the so-called "night school." The evening classes of universities, particularly in large cities like Chicago and New York, are opportunity schools for thousands of adults who, equipped with brief cases, inquiring minds, and pointed questions, nightly go willingly to school in order to learn and to earn undergraduate or graduate credit. In addition numerous public night schools, usually held in school buildings, have become centers of community light and life. The work offered is academic on the elementary or secondary level, or recreational and cultural. Educational trips to to museums and other cultural centers are popular. Consumer education,

[22] Clyde V. Kiser, "Cultural Pluralism," *The Annals*, p. 129, March, 1949.

commercial courses, homemaking, and parental education[23] are some of the practical phases of adult learning. In many cities expenses are defrayed by means of local school taxes, state contributions for part of instructors' salaries, and enrollment fees. In some cities more adults are enrolled in their opportunity schools than there are children in daytime attendance. The Denver, Colorado, opportunity school teaches thousands of adults and youth each year. Many so-called "night schools" are becoming opportunity schools for adults, with evening sessions, Sunday afternoon forums, and day meetings. The New York City school system

(Courtesy of Public Schools, Shorewood, Wisconsin.)

FIG. 9-4. The lighted school—a symbol of enlightened adulthood. Many public schools are lighthouses for all—offering the largest single systematic program of education.

through its department of adult education offers day courses for adults who cannot attend in the evening.

Adult classes as conducted at present are not drawing a proportionate share of older people. Yet many oldsters, through adult study classes, have gained a new surge of courage and a new joy in living. Older people can be buoyed up so that they talk of their recent accomplishments and current interests rather than of their remote past and alleged or actual physical infirmities. Many grandfathers and grandmothers have learned to ride a hobbyhorse youthfully.

Extension Courses. Extension credit work embraces both extension and correspondence courses. Often the work started with lectures, then

[23] See Unit V for a description of adult activities in parental education.

came a publications department and finally formal university courses. In line with the statement of the late F. P. Keppel, formerly of the Carnegie Corporation, that it is not the business of society to force people into adult education but to see that facilities for self-education are available, numerous teachers colleges and universities offer extension courses as one of the avenues of adult education. They enable many people to obtain academic, cultural, and professional courses. Several colleges have abandoned correspondence work but continue the off-campus extension credit courses which are taught by college instructors in nearby cities or centers. Many institutions offering these courses are affiliated with the National University Extension Association or the Teachers College Extension Association.

Correspondence Courses. The influence of correspondence schools is widespread. Anne Lindbergh, in *North to the Orient*, made this observation while on the extreme northern tip of the United States, in Barrow, Alaska: "One of the young Eskimo men was hopefully taking a correspondence course in aviation. Poor man, he was waiting at that moment for the *Northland* to bring in his homework for the next year."[24] In some sparsely settled western regions of Canada and the United States children are taught elementary- and high-school rudiments by correspondence courses. The Benton Harbor, Michigan, plan seeks to meet individual needs of high-school students through public school administered correspondence courses purchased by the local board of education from nationally known correspondence schools.

Mail-order lessons are a very old form of adult education. Following the formation of the Society to Encourage Studies at Home in 1873, came the so-called Correspondence University of Ithaca, New York, in 1883, then the extension correspondence from the Chautauqua Institution and the extension division of the University of Chicago under William Rainey Harper.[25] Prior to the establishment of college extension divisions, much pioneering work in "selling education" to adults was done by the commercial correspondence schools. The International Correspondence Schools of Scranton, Pennsylvania, developed out of an experiment by Thomas A. Foster, editor of the *Mining Herald* of Shenandoah, Pennsylvania, who began in the eighties to print questions and answers dealing with the problems of safety in the mines.[26]

Today thousands of different home study courses are available to the individual who finds it impractical to attend a resident institution of learning. Of the many correspondence schools only a small proportion

[24] Anne Lindbergh, *North to the Orient*, p. 109, Harcourt, 1935.
[25] Lyman Bryson, *Adult Education*, pp. 20–21, American Book, 1936.
[26] *Ibid.*

are admitted to membership in the National Home Study Council, which was organized in 1926 for accrediting correspondence schools. This council, with headquarters at Washington, D. C., is attempting to eliminate "racketeering" schools and salesmen from the home study field. The United States government through USAFI offers to enlisted men correspondence courses, and through the Federal Trade Commission has adopted trade practice rules for private home study schools in order to foster and promote fair competitive conditions. The importance of correspondence work is reflected in the numerous bills that have been introduced into Congress to establish a national system of supervised correspondence courses.

Chautauquas. This word has two quite distinct meanings:

> The "Chautauqua Institution" has had a fine record in genuine adult education. But many people, on hearing the word, think of second-rate entertainment or oratory. The name "chautauqua" was taken over by commercial circuits of tent shows when the fame of the original institution spread. They left a quaint reputation against which the summer school by Lake Chautauqua has to struggle. It preceded them and has outlasted them, and continues to count in the movement of today.[27]

The original Chautauqua Institution was started in the 1870's on the shores of the lake of that name in western New York, as a summer training camp for Sunday school teachers in the Methodist Church. Each summer at Chautauqua many adults add to their education while on their vacation. In evaluating the work of the Chautauqua, Dorothy Canfield Fisher wrote:

> Chautauqua not only was the first organized Summer School (most of our colleges have since stolen its thunder), it also did pioneer work in correspondence teaching. After two false starts in 1883 a successful course was started whereby summer students could carry on their work by mail in the winter. Those courses were continued for 17 years and when they were dropped in 1900 President Harper, formerly principal at Chautauqua Institution, had taken the new idea to Chicago University. Chautauqua brought out the reading-club idea, at first a part of correspondence courses.[28]

The chautauqua programs of later years with their lectures and money-making schemes helped to keep Americans informed and entertained and saved many a small town from its year-round stagnation.[29] Its place,

[27] *Ibid.*, p. 18.

[28] Dorothy Canfield Fisher, *Why Stop Learning?*, p. 156, Harcourt, 1927.

[29] For interesting historical accounts of the chautauqua movement, read Gay MacLaren's *Morally We Roll Along*, Little, Brown, 1938, 308 pp., and Victoria Case and Robert Ormond Case's *We Called It Culture*, Doubleday, 1948, 272 pp.

however, is being taken by the public forum, radio, television, public lectures, and organized educational efforts such as summer schools.

Public Forums. The forum movement originated in Cooper Union in New York in 1859, but not until recent years has it spread widely and rapidly. While John W. Studebaker was superintendent of schools in Des Moines, Iowa, he was instrumental in launching, under the auspices of the American Association of Adult Education and with the financial backing of the Carnegie Corporation, a successful demonstration program

(*Courtesy of Press Association, Inc.*)

FIG. 9-5. Adult learning in international education. "The General Assembly of the United Nations" holds a dramatized session at Cincinnati, Ohio. The above was a scene from a pageant presented by Xavier University as its contribution to the Cincinnati plan for the United Nations—an educational drive to arouse local interest in international affairs.

in public forums. In 1935 as United States Commissioner of Education he was granted through the Office of Education federal funds for establishing experimental forums in a number of states. Some of these were cooperative forum centers involving three or more communities. The Des Moines experiment showed the value of a multiplicity of small groups in separate neighborhoods. The city school is often the center of the activities. Public-school administrators, boards of education, and citizens' committees are playing a conspicuous role in the development of panel discussions, round tables, and open forums—improved substitutes for the old "cracker barrel discussions."

Town Meeting of the Air. The press and radio help to make Americans "the best informed people of any nation of the earth." America's Town Meeting of the Air, a coast-to-coast broadcast of a forum program, has won great popularity chiefly through the importance and timeliness of its topics and the high caliber of its speakers. It is now linked with several hundred self-organized local town meeting discussion groups in nearly all states of the Union. Town Hall of New York, where the broadcasts usually originate and where nonbroadcast lectures and concerts are also held, has organized an advisory service to assist listeners who wish to study intensively the subjects treated in the broadcasts. These individuals and groups receive advance information on the programs, background material, and supplementary reading lists on issues involved. A thought-provoking broadcast on a crucial issue, followed by simultaneous discussions by interested groups throughout the nation, is a timely tool in adult learning and in democratic living. The publication of these broadcasts at a nominal price preserves and spreads their usefulness.

Church Nights. Many forums and educational discussions, some of long standing, are conducted variously by individuals, schools, universities, public libraries, citizens' committees, and political, educational, social, and religious organizations. An example of the latter is "church night," which consists of a series of evening programs of interest and help to churchgoers and nonchurchgoers. Church nights are intended to meet the whole need from worship, to education, to play, for the whole family.

Adult Clubs. A club has been facetiously defined as an organization that keeps minutes and wastes hours. Despite this criticism, the lecture-instructed club for women and men is an agency for self-improvement.

Women's clubs were pioneers in adult education and still constitute a vital factor. Bryson says that in spite of ridicule and masculine opposition, women's clubs have been educational institutions of real value. He points out also that the historic function of these clubs has been in some degree fulfilled and that younger women are being drawn into associations with specific interests, such as the League of Women Voters, the Business and Professional Women's Club, the Junior League, the American Association of University Women, and an endless chain of other societies for women only.

Men eat, talk, and listen at their luncheon and dinner clubs, which are also infinite in number and variety. Numerous evening study and discussion clubs include both men and women. Social, educational, cultural, recreational, political, religious, racial, and professional groups provide intermittent avenues of adult learning.

Alumni Colleges. "Indeed there is evidence," writes President Ruthven of the University of Michigan, "that the minds of our alumni not only may cease to grow but often actually may deteriorate." Several colleges, among

them Dartmouth, Wilson, and Barnard, hold annual alumni or alumnae college sessions which seek to refresh the minds of their graduates. This refresher college, which usually consists of a series of lectures and tours immediately following or preceding commencement, is increasing in popularity among graduates, especially women. The American Association of University Women, the American Alumni Council, and countless other groups are interested in stimulating the minds of alumni through various phases of adult learning.

Workers' Education. Workers' education in its broad sense applies to everyone. In its unfortunate restricted meaning it tends toward class difference, in meeting the practical, educational, and cultural needs of a special group of adults, *viz.*, industrial workers. Workers' education is not new either in the United States or in Europe. Its early growth in America consisted in the establishment of mechanics' institutes and evening classes which were largely brought about by workers themselves through trade unions and other agencies. A. J. Muste and others have been instrumental in developing labor colleges, which first came into existence about 1900. The International Ladies Garment Workers Union in 1916 started the first educational department among the American trade unions, to which have been added recreational and social activities. The Cafeteria Employees Union in New York City through its educational director has developed a well-rounded educational program for its members. In 1921 the Workers' Educational Bureau of America was established by members of trade unions and teachers to serve as a clearinghouse and as a guide in the development of the activities.

The workers' education movement has developed various forms of instructional organization and techniques. Many types of institutions participate in the program. Today the universities play a conspicuous role in workers' education. Among the basic policies for developing workers' education are these:

1. Active, continuing, and direct services of many types are essential to union and other workers' groups in the initial stages of an educational program.
2. Universities should look forward to progressive transfer of responsibility for direct educational activities to the groups themselves.
3. A continuous service of university extension for labor—as for other groups—exists in the field of educational counseling.[30]

The tool of guidance has a double cutting edge: it helps the worker to earn more money as a worker and to live more richly as a citizen in a democratic

[30] Phillips Bradley, "The University's Role in Workers' Education," *Adult Education Journal*, April, 1949, pp. 88–89.

society. Labor education today is one of the most varied and vital aspects of the adult education movement.

Public Library and Adult Learning. As early as 1732 the versatile Benjamin Franklin, through his famous Junto Club, started the first subscription library in the world. The city of Boston initiated the public library movement. A Frenchman, wishing to start an international exchange of books, persuaded the city of Paris to present the city of Boston with 50 volumes. Consequently a Bostonian committee was named to "consider and report what acknowledgment and return should be made to the city of Paris for its gift of books, and to provide a place for the same."[31] This committee, which was acquainted with the publicly used privately supported libraries, contributed to library ideology by giving public support to the public library. A few years later the city of Boston was granted legal authority by the Massachusetts legislature to tax itself for this purpose. Thus started the free public library movement in the United States, which at the turn of the twentieth century was accelerated by the numerous gifts from Andrew Carnegie. Now every state in the Union legalizes public libraries and every city of any size supports one.

A marked contrast exists between the old museum of books and the modern public library. It is the difference between taking a container to the pump several rods away and bringing a public water system into one's own home with water available on tap. The chains that once shackled the books to the reading desks have been broken. Whereas many librarians used to hoard books, they now wish to show how many are off the shelves in actual use. An active reading public eliminates the librarian's dust-cloth. The open-shelf system, while costly in losses, is the open-sesame to the wonderland of books. Furthermore, where the library was once a repository for books only, it is now an instructional and information center with files replete with clippings, pictorial aids, phonograph records, and many other multisensory aids; with reference, committee, lecture, radio, and television rooms; and with other facilities, not the least of which is the telephone, which enables a person to use the public library without leaving his home.

Despite good libraries, the United States is not a book-reading nation. Not many adults make constant companions of books, as did the clerk of Oxenford thus described by Chaucer:

> For him was lever have at his beddes heed
> Twenty bokes, clad in blak or reed,
> Of Aristotle and his philosophye,
> Then robes riche, or fithele, or gay sautrye.

[31] Dorothy Canfield Fisher, *op. cit.*, p. 47.

The bookmobiles, therefore, constitute a great advance in educational engineering. The library truck and its trained attendant carry a rich cargo to remote parts of the United States. Not only are adults the recipients of these books, but children are given the opportunity to develop good reading habits and tastes which will carry over into maturity.

The Library Service Division, established by Congress in 1936 in the federal Office of Education, lists as one objective that of "furthering library participation in the adult education movement." The American Library Association, which held its first meeting in 1876, has been a tremendous force in adult learning, particularly through its Commission on the Library and Adult Education. The librarians, the books, and the supplementary aids are making people not only literate but also "librarious." A publication of the American Association for Adult Education has predicted that the public library in the future will be the center of the adult education movement and will function as a people's university.

Library of Congress. The public library movement finds its highest fulfillment in the Library of Congress at Washington. It was established in 1800 by an act providing for a library for the two houses, at an initial cost of $5000. Housed in the Capitol, it was burned by the British in 1814 and revived by Thomas Jefferson with his own books as a nucleus. In 1886 Congress decided to dedicate the library to the services of all the people, and a new building was commenced.

Of all the institutions in the United States that have a part in the American dream, the late James Truslow Adams said:

> The one which best exemplifies the dream is the greatest library in this land of libraries, the Library of Congress. . . . The Library of Congress has come straight from the heart of democracy, as it has been taken to it, and I here use it as a symbol of what democracy can accomplish on its own behalf. Many have made gifts to it, but it was created by ourselves through Congress, which has steadily and increasingly shown itself generous and understanding toward it. Founded and built by the people, it is for the people. Anyone who has used the great collections of Europe, with their restrictions and red tape and difficulty of access, praises God for American democracy when he enters the stacks of the Library of Congress.[32]

This national institution of public learning is a prototype for other adult educational agencies.

Federal Education for Adults. When the United States government started its program of relief in 1933, one of the first projects undertaken was that of adult education, which enabled several million adults to rise to higher levels. Likewise in the Second World War the army literacy

[32] James Truslow Adams, *The Epic of America*, pp. 414–415, Little, Brown, 1932.

program, previously mentioned, helped a half-million illiterate men to reach or exceed the fourth-grade level of reading.

The army and navy off-duty study programs in the Second World War were essentially adult education in character. "Maturity is not only a matter of chronological age, and the armed services personnel were forced by the conditions they faced to become old beyond their years."[33] To meet the needs of these premature and mature fighting men, many books, magazines, and entire libraries went to war. The off-duty program was necessarily varied, diffuse, pervasive, and conducted through a wide variety of agencies. It included such activities as army and navy library services; the United States Armed Forces Institute; the activities of army information and education and navy educational service sections; the program of special training for functional illiterates in both services; the army post-hostilities schools in Europe at Shrivenham in England, Biarritz in France, and Florence in Italy; the University Center at Oahu, Hawaii; and a variety of related activities.[34]

More firmly established in principle and practice is federal support of numerous permanent projects in adult education. As already indicated, the United States government has supplied millions of dollars annually for rural adult education through the agricultural extension services. Through the Smith-Lever, Smith-Hughes, and George-Barden Acts and through other legislation the federal government has declared its financial support of adult learning. It has assumed the responsibility of helping states to rehabilitate the physically handicapped. The establishment of the United States Employment Agency was a significant step in the placement and advancement of both younger and older persons. Hundreds of adults are enrolled in governmental schools like the part-time graduate school of the Department of Agriculture. Programs of informal adult education are being carried forward aggressively in federal territories, dependencies, and Indian reservations. The future presages increased activity by Uncle Sam, the schoolteacher, in the field of permanent long-time adult education.

Other Forms of Adult Education. It is nearly impossible to catalogue all the agencies engaged in adult education. Informal learning is provided by numerous radio and television programs that are accompanied by mental, physical, and aesthetic "audience participation." This is exemplified in the bodily movements in the setting-up exercises, the mental collaboration in quiz and forum programs, and the instrumental and vocal participation at home by amateur musicians as they actively hear and see productions of symphonic music over radio and television.

[33] Alonzo G. Grace, *op. cit.*, p. 151.

[34] *Ibid.*, p. 154.

An illustration of other formal adult learning is that of correctional education in prisons and reformatories. According to a survey conducted by the Federal Bureau of Prisons, the typical inmate of a federal prison reads from five to ten times as many books a year, preferably nonfiction, as the average citizen. (Many states have launched significant education programs in their correctional and eleemosynary institutions.[35] Efforts are being made to meet special group and individual needs in a broad enriched program of nation-wide adult education.)

Illustrative Practices and Proposals

Some Practices in Adult Education. Supplemental to the procedures already described, brief descriptions are here provided of a few illustrative practices in adult education, as found in (1) national, including governmental and nongovernmental, (2) state, (3) regional, and (4) local programs.

National Programs.

The United States Commission for UNESCO maintains an active Panel on Adult Education. Since over half the human race is still illiterate, one of the most significant movements in adult education is the mass or fundamental education movement launched by UNESCO.

A renewed attack against illiteracy among adult Negroes has been made by the United States Office of Education, with the help of such organizations as the American Association of Adult Education, the Carnegie Corporation, the Negro Elks, Phi Beta Sigma, Conference of Negro Land-grant Colleges, and the American Teachers' Association.

In its adult education campaign, the American Legion issued thousands of booklets, written simply, with language keyed to a basic 1000-word vocabulary, and with readability tested through reader surveys.

The American Library Association and other groups have published books for adult beginners, geared to the reading ability and interests of older learners. The Association also spearheads many campaigns such as the great-issues program.

The Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York City expanded on a nation-wide scale its program to "take the art treasures of the museum into the homes of people everywhere."

The American Medical Society, colleges of medicine, and other organizations and institutions are stimulating and evaluating work in gerontology (the study of the aging process). The medical emphasis is shifting from pediatrics to geriatrics.

Specialists in adult and post-high-school education have been added to the staffs of organizations such as the National Education Association, which has organized a National Training Laboratory in Group Development.

A cooperative and critical reexamination of University extension work has been

[35] For further details on prison education, see the yearbooks of the Committee on Education of the American Prison Association.

launched by the University of Chicago, Pennsylvania State College, and the University of California, financed by the Carnegie Corporation.

Federal and state governments through their old-age relief, pensions, or insurance are helping to finance senescence so that fewer old people need to work. Thus they have more leisure for study and hobbies.

Radio programs interest oldsters as consumers and producers. An example of the latter is the program "Life Begins at Eighty," where octogenarians form juries that analyze questions sent in by listeners.

(*Courtesy of Public Schools, Jersey City, N.J.*)

FIG. 9-6. Two mature students in the class for foreign-born conducted by the board of education in Jersey City as part of the adult education program.

The American Council on Education, through its Commission on the Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs, has made descriptive and evaluative studies of adult education as reported in *The Armed Services and Adult Education.*

The education of adults has been complicated by war and postwar displacement of population. This includes the high mobility of population within the United States and the arrival of displaced persons from other lands.

For many years the Immigration and Naturalization Service of the United States Government has sent to public schools the names of new arrivals, and of applicants for citizenship. These lists have been helpful in recruiting adults for Americanization classes.

The third Sunday in May has been designated by Congress as "I Am an American Day." On this day ceremonies are held for those foreign-born persons who become

citizens through naturalization, and also for those native-born who come of age. As stated by President Harry S. Truman, our nation "derives its chief strength from the fact that its citizens, young and old, native-born and foreign-born, work together as one people."

State.

More and more states are giving legal recognition and financial support to adult education as an integral part of public education. Several state departments have added directors in this field. Iowa publishes an adult education handbook for public schools. Several states are conducting experiments in adult education, as for example, Michigan.

Many states issue a high-school equivalent certificate to qualified adults. Illustrative is Missouri, which requires that the certificate candidate be at least 21 years old, pass a written examination, and meet certain standards in occupational success, social, civic, and cultural development.

Many a state university has adopted the philosophy that all people in the state live on its campus, and hence it extends educational services to everyone, irrespective of his age or location. Many have added adult education departments.

Of the many new degrees offered in adult education is that of a Master of Science in Extension Education conferred by Kansas State College.

Regional.

An interesting and significant regional project in adult education has been the community school at Norris, Tennessee, located four miles from Norris Dam. In Norris, which is one of the few cities in America built from the ground up as a planned community, the school is the center of an educational program serving both children and adults in Norris and the surrounding community.

Bookmobiles play an increasing role in adult education in rural areas. Many mobile libraries carry phonograph records as well as books, pictures, and other learning aids.

Local.

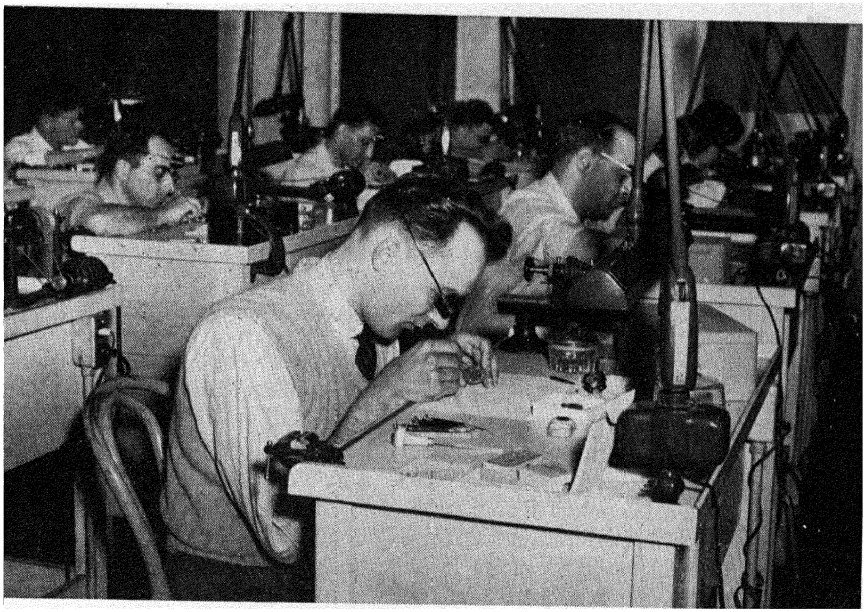
Local adult education councils are multiplying rapidly. One of the oldest in the country is the Denver Council, which publishes monthly *Educational Opportunities.* Community planning and group consultation are increasing.

Many councils have developed programs that are tailor-made for the participants. For example, Bloomington, Illinois, organized a course for foreign brides. Salt Lake City had an investment course for women only. New York City offered classes for the deaf in the evening high schools. El Paso, Texas, maintained a school-sponsored homemobile which moved from one community to another instructing small groups of women in foods, clothing, and family-life education. The Central Y.M.C.A. in Chicago had a unique adult education class entitled "Visits with Interesting People." Class sessions consisted of visits to the homes of distinguished leaders in business, journalism, religion, education, and labor.

Discussion techniques for adults are being studied and improved through greater

attention to group dynamics. One discussion technique is the 66 method, by which a large group is divided into committees of not more than six persons and each committee then discusses the problem for approximately six minutes. Then the committees elect spokesmen who report ideas back to the group.

Illustrative of radio procedures in adult education are the University of Minnesota's credit correspondence courses, the lectures for which are broadcast to the students by radio.



(Courtesy of Public Schools, Rochester, New York.)

FIG. 9-7. Youth and adults in watch repair shop at Paul Revere Trade School, Rochester, New York. Preparation for occupation is a great motivating factor in youth and adult education.

Popular over television are how-to-do-it courses, such as one conducted by a "handy man about the house," who gives directions and demonstrates how to fix things.

The United Nations Council of Philadelphia organized a letter exchange for adults in order to develop "pen pals" for peace. Thus Americans learn of other people and they in turn know more about Americans.

This consideration of practices is concluded with the statement from Morse A. Cartwright, former director of the American Association for Adult Education and of the Institute of Adult Education at Teachers College, Columbia University, that one third of the American people are "attending forums, preparing for jobs in vocational classes, learning handi-

crafts, folk dancing, reading with a purpose, and otherwise using leisure time for educational purposes."

Some Proposals for Adult Education. Among the many proposals for federal participation in improving adult learning are these:

Several bills before Congress have proposed that special federal grants for library service to rural areas be made through the states.

It has also been proposed that Congress appropriate funds for labor extension education, similar to that conducted by the Agricultural Extension Service for farm families.

In connection with collecting and analyzing decennial census data on illiteracy, it has been suggested that arbitrary levels of academic attainment or schooling, such as completion of the fourth grade, be eliminated. In its place would be substituted adequate criteria of literacy based upon functional requirements of American citizens.

It has also been proposed that a continuous nation-wide program be organized for liquidating illiteracy in the United States.

Additional suggestions for adult education include such state and local features as:

State and local programs should make more extensive use of junior or community colleges for adult education purposes.

Every state and local community should have an adult education council to assist in coordinating and extending the existing programs of adult education. These can form a "common denominator for community educating agencies."

The proposals of the Educational Policies Commission for extending and improving the program of public education include "carrying qualified persons through education beyond 14 years, providing vocational retraining, and other desirable forms of adult education."

Appropriations for public education in all states should include financial aid for adult education as part of lifelong learning.

The great needs in adult education in America are a concise set of objectives for adult education, a more definitely organized program, a better educated corps of teachers for public and nonpublic agencies, adequate financing, and a better coordinated plan of action.

Coordination of Adult Education with Other Areas of Education. It is highly possible that adult education will discover new techniques which will gradually seep downward into the schooling of the young. Learning at all preceding stages is subject to the tradition that it is for some future more important than the present, but adult education has the advantage that it scarcely can be diverted to preparation for anything beyond itself.[36] Conversely, according to Kilpatrick, if adult study and learning are an

[36] Ruth Kotinsky, *op. cit.*, p. 39.

assured part of American public education, then childhood and youth, freed of the burden of learning things needed only in adult life, can give due attention to their own evolving needs.[37]

The various levels of learning are not in conflict or in disjunction. Pre-elementary education lays the foundation for the arch of lifelong learning, and adult education provides the capstone for the symmetrical structure.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Make a list of youth organizations in your state.
2. Suggest a program for the out-of-school unemployed youth.
3. Visit a part-time school and note the characteristics of the youth enrolled and the program offered.
4. Visit a public library and evaluate its program for out-of-school youth and adults.
5. Arrange a debate on the topic: "Resolved that all males between the ages of twenty-one and thirty should render 1 year of military service to their government of the United States."
6. List great men and women who made contributions to civilization in their youth; make another list for persons over sixty years.
7. Discuss the role of the public school in the education of youth and adults.
8. Describe programs for vocational education and rehabilitation.
9. List some informal means of adult education.
10. List all agencies in your community which are directly or indirectly connected with adult education.
11. Write a brief history of some phase of adult education, such as the labor colleges, the Chautauqua, lyceums, religious activities, etc.
12. Describe the program of adult education in a foreign country such as, for example, Denmark.
13. Visit an extension class conducted by a college or university. Report to the class your observation as to the personnel enrolled.
14. Visit an Americanization class and note the teaching-learning procedures used.
15. Indicate how the problem of teaching refugees differs from that of teaching typical immigrants.
16. Make a case study of some adult who is enrolled in a night school.
17. Defend the statement: "An old person can learn new tricks."
18. Report on one of the scientific investigations of the learning ability of adults.
19. Report some of the educational implications of the fact that America as a nation is growing older.
20. List desirable qualifications for a teacher of adults. Do you possess these qualifications?

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CURRENT PERTINENT PERIODICALS AND PUBLICATIONS

Adult Education Bulletin (6)[38]
Official organ of the Department of Adult Education of the National Education Association.

Adult Education Journal (4)
Official organ of the American Association for Adult Education.

Adult Life Enrichment (52)
A bulletin issued by the Division of University Extension, State House, Boston, Massachusetts.

[38] The figures following the titles of the publications indicate the number of issues annually.

Annual Reports (1)

Issued by such groups as the American Association of Adult Education.

Handbook of Adult Education in the United States

Published periodically and distributed by the American Association of Adult Education.

Industrial Arts and Vocational Education (10)

Periodical for teachers of industrial and vocational education.

Journal of Educational Sociology (9)

A periodical frequently containing articles that have direct and indirect bearing on youth and adult education.

Occupational Index (4)

Notations on current literature on occupations.

Occupations, The Vocational Guidance Magazine (8)

A helpful publication issued by National Vocational Guidance Association.

Proceedings and Yearbooks (1)

Publications by various organizations such as the National Congress of Parents and Teachers.

Youth Leaders Digest (9)

A magazine devoted primarily to the delinquency aspects of the youth problem and intended as a practical tool for leaders of youth.

Audio-visual Aids

A Photorama of Adult Activities in Detroit Evening Schools — One thousand feet, 16 mm., sound, color

This film gives a glimpse of the activities in more than one hundred courses offered in Detroit's evening schools. It is illustrative of systematic programs in adult education as conducted by public schools. Available from Adult Education Division, Board of Education, Detroit, Michigan.

Basic English — Six reels, 16 mm., sound

These films are useful in teaching Basic English to youth and adults who come from foreign lands. In Basic English the number of words is cut to 850. In these films the learner has a chance to hear and see the words at work. The pictures are correlated with I. A. Richard's *Pocket Book of Basic English*. Available from March of Time, New York.

Be Your Age — One reel, 16 mm., sound

This film is a warning to adults to "be their age" and not overdo physically. New sets of rules are needed for adults as they grow older. Animated diagrams show how the human heart acts under stress and strain. Available from the American Heart Association, New York.

Campus Comes to the Steelworkers — Eighteen minutes, 16 mm., sound

This film shows a week-long workers' institute held at Pennsylvania State College in cooperation with the United Steelworkers of America. Produced and distributed by Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pennsylvania.

Classifications of Occupations — Slidefilm, 60 frames

Youth faced with a decision as to their life work will be helped by seeing these pictures of typical jobs in the seven major occupational classifications as developed by the United States Department of Labor. Student manual and filmstrip available from Carl F. Mahnke, Des Moines, Iowa.

MAKE WAY FOR YOUTH Twenty-two minutes, 16 mm., sound

This film shows how interorganization youth councils can bring teen-age youth together for community projects and thus give them practical experience in democratic living. The movie was filmed in Madison, Wisconsin, by the Youth Division of the National Social Welfare Assembly. Available from Association Films, New York, New York.

OWNERS ALL Thirty-three minutes, 16 mm., sound, color or black and white

This film is a pictorial record of how adult education enabled a community to raise its standard of living through cooperative effort. It shows the St. Francis Xavier University extension department in its field work with study clubs, classes, and libraries. The people of the Maritime Provinces organize credit unions and cooperatives. Available from the Cooperative League, New York, New York.

ROLE PLAYING IN HUMAN RELATIONS TRAINING Twenty-five minutes, 16 mm., sound

This film demonstrates how everyday situations involving interaction between people can, by a spontaneous enactment, be studied and improved. The major portion of the picture was filmed in Bethel, Maine, at the first summer session of the National Training Laboratory in Group Development, organized by the Division of Adult Education, National Education Association. Available from National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

Tchaikovsky: *Symphony No. 6 in B Minor* (Pathétique) Six 12-in. records

This auditory aid consists of the recordings of Tchaikovsky's masterpiece as played by the All-American Youth Orchestra, under the direction of Leopold Stokowski. The members of this orchestra were recruited by the National Youth Administration, one of the now defunct depression agencies for youth. Also available through local music and record stores are Beethoven's *Fifth Symphony*, Brahms's *Fourth Symphony*, and Stravinsky's *Firebird Suite*.

THE VETERAN BECOMES A FARMER Thirty minutes, 16 mm., sound

This film shows how a farm community can cooperate in giving help and counsel to a war veteran wishing to become a farmer. Produced by Castle Films.

Part III

PERSONNEL IN PUBLIC EDUCATION

Preview of Part III

PERSONNEL IN PUBLIC EDUCATION

The administrative structure of American public education and the various academic levels are avenues through which constantly flow the influence of the educational personnel. The human factor is paramount. Numerically, one in five persons in the United States is actively engaged in education as learner or teacher.

As indicated in Fig. 10-1, the child is the center surrounded by the major forces that influence him—the home, the community, the church, and the school. The latter exists primarily for the pupil. The child grows and develops in at least four dimensions: physical, mental, social, and spiritual. Many children are atypical—they deviate from the norm sufficiently to warrant special consideration and treatment. Modern society treasures the child, be he normal or atypical. (Unit X).

Among the persons who exert an abiding influence upon the child is the teacher. The pupil and the teacher are joint partners in learning and teaching. The teacher is not an automaton but a human worker, who should be well educated and professionally alert. Teaching is becoming less of a procession and more of a profession. Standards for selection, as well as preservice and in-service education, are being elevated. Teacher welfare provisions are being improved. (Unit XI).

The classroom teacher, however, is but one of the numerous persons engaged in education in the United States. Special teachers, administrative and supervisory officers, educational personnel from other professions, and other nonteachers contribute to the education of the well-rounded pupil. The opportunities to serve in educational work are numerous and varied. No economy is so shortsighted as that which dictates the employment of unqualified personnel in education, where human values are paramount. (Unit XII).

Part III

PERSONNEL IN PUBLIC EDUCATION

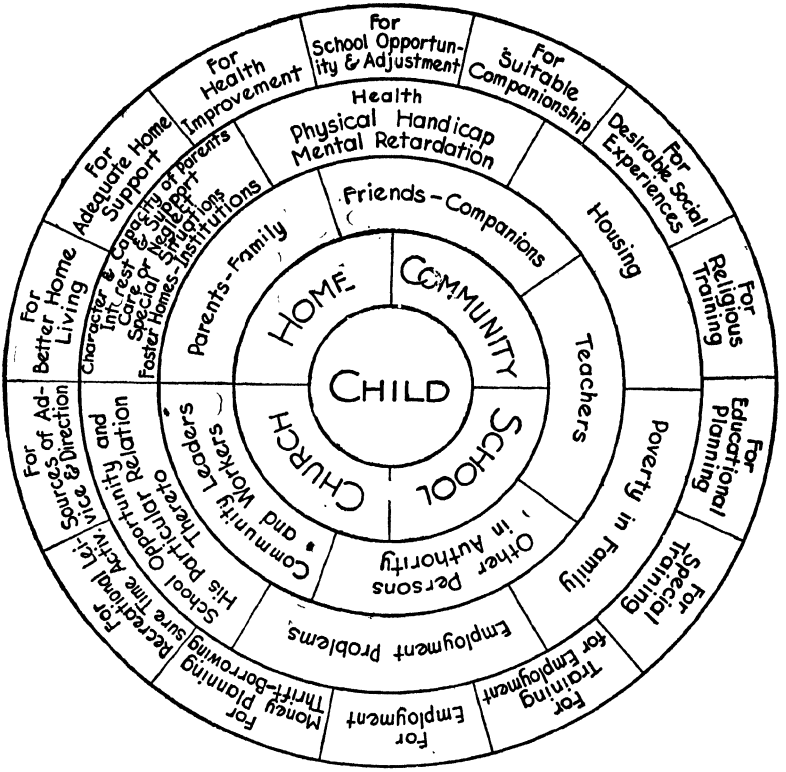

FIG. 10-1. The important factors in child education and welfare. The child is the central figure. The major forces that influence him are indicated in the next ring: the home, the community, the school, and the church. Next in order are shown the persons who exert influence over him—parents, family, friends, companions, teachers, other persons in authority, and community leaders and workers. In the next ring are indicated conditions in himself or his family or elsewhere that affect him, such as health, housing, employment problems, etc. In the outer ring are some of the opportunities the child may need: for school opportunity and adjustment, for religious training, for money planning, for health improvement, etc.

PREVIEW OF UNIT X

PUPILS

The central and constant figure in the ever-changing design of American public education is the individual pupil. Be he typical or atypical, upon him are centered the interests and the efforts of parents and teachers.

All pupils need four-dimensional growth and development—physically, mentally, socially, and spiritually. Good teachers study their pupils as well as their lessons. They learn much from their pupils. They study pupils longitudinally through the accumulating years and horizontally through all areas of human living. Teachers and pupils are partners in teaching, learning, and living.

Atypical or exceptional pupils are found everywhere. They may differ physically, as do the visually handicapped, the crippled, the deaf and hard of hearing, those handicapped in speech, the delicate, and others; mentally, as do the gifted and the slow learners; socially, as do the delinquent; and in other ways, as do those emotionally unstable, those with impaired mental health, those from minority, low-income, and migrant families, and those who are refugees from foreign shores. Within and between these groups are numerous deviations and handicaps to challenge the alert teacher.

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UNIT X

PUPILS

The following story is told about Colonel Francis Parker, who came to Quincy, Massachusetts, at a time when the schools were regimented and the children were stratified:

> One day some of the teachers came to him and said, "Colonel Parker, we don't understand what you are trying to do, and we would like you to call us together and explain this new theory of the place of the individual in education." This he agreed to do. After the teachers were assembled in a classroom Colonel Parker came down the aisle from his office in the rear of the building accompanied by a little girl. He placed her in a chair at his side and turning to the teachers he gave this, the shortest and best of all educational addresses, "My fellow teachers, you have asked me to tell you why we are making changes in our schools here in Quincy." Moving from his place at the desk he went over and placed his hand on the shoulder of the little girl and said to them, "Here is your answer," and he left them wondering and thinking.[1]

Under the stress of committee meetings and other professional activities, teachers sometimes forget the child in their midst. Likewise in its business deliberations the local board of education often ignores the child, the central figure in the ever-changing design of education.

The Individual Pupil. Joy Elmer Morgan has expressed thus the importance of the child:

> Let us set the child in our midst as our greatest wealth and our most challenging responsibility. Let us exalt him above industry, above business, above politics, above all the petty and selfish things that weaken and destroy a people. Let us know that the race moves forward through its children, and by the grace of Almighty God, setting our faces toward the morning, dedicate ourselves anew to the service and the welfare of childhood.

As every parent thinks and lives in terms of his child, so too the teacher thinks first of the child and second of the subject matter. The White House Conference on Children in a Democracy stated: "The supreme educational and social importance of individual traits should be recognized throughout the educational system."

In his book, *Man, the Unknown*, Dr. Alexis Carrel, the famous scientist, devoted an entire chapter to "The Individual," saying in part:

> Human beings are not found anywhere in nature. There are only individuals. . . . Mental, structural, and humoral individualities blend in an unknown man-

[1] Payson Smith, "Distinctive Objectives for Education in a Democracy," *Baltimore Bulletin of Education*, January–February, 1938, p. 93.

ner. . . . Each individual is conscious of being unique. . . . Individual specificity persists during the entire life, although tissues and humors continually change. . . . Modern society ignores the individual. . . . But each one has his own personality. He cannot be treated like a symbol. Children should not be placed at a very early age in schools where they are educated wholesale.[2]

Mass education must be counteracted by emphasis on the individual pupil. Each child not only has a distinctive fingerprint—he has a unique personality. Naturally pupils vary in abilities, attitudes, and accomplishments. The school child may be normal in several ways and exceptional in others, but as a composite he is usually considered typical or atypical.

Understanding a Child. All children must be studied longitudinally over accumulating years and horizontally through all areas of their living. Good teachers study their pupils as well as their lessons; they learn about pupils while teaching them. They may well apply some of the devices for studying exceptional children to learning more about typical pupils, using the case-study method and the personal survey. A helpful form to follow in studying children in school is found in Appendix X-A. Many teachers employ anecdotal or observational records.

A pupil, like any human being, is a biological organism, consisting of skin, bones, muscles, nerves, glands, organs of special sense, a digestive system, and a circulatory system, working interdependently. Integration in its restricted sense exists within the pupil rather than between bits of subject matter. An integrat*ing* child who adapts himself at all levels of learning and life is the goal rather than an integrat*ed* mass. To this end the teacher should be familiar with the developmental patterns at various levels as revealed in numerous current texts on child growth. Furthermore, the teacher ought to understand lifelong human growth and development.

What is meant by "understanding" a child? The staff of the Division of Child Development and Teacher Personnel, in its report *Helping Teachers Understand Children*, indicated in a general way the kinds of attitude, knowledge, and habit that characterize teachers who "understand" children:

1. Teachers who understand children think of their behavior as being caused. They see a youngster's present action as based upon his past experience, as shaped by his present situation, and as influenced by his desires and hopes for the future.

2. A second characteristic for teachers who understand children is that they are able to accept all children emotionally, that they reject no child as hopeless or unworthy. Understanding teachers try to gauge what conditions, relationships, and experiences have been and are exercising unwholesome influences on any youngster's

[2] Alexis Carrel, *Man, the Unknown*, pp. 235, 242, 244, 267, 269, 270, Harper, 1935.

actions and attempt to arrange or supply others that will neutralize or replace these undesirable influences.

3. Teachers who understand children invariably recognize that each one is unique. Every youngster differs from all others in the magnitude and pattern or combination of the many factors which determine his characteristics and actions at a given moment.

4. The various sciences concerned with human growth and behavior have demonstrated that young people, during the several phases of their development, face a

(Courtesy of public schools, St. Louis, Missouri.)

FIG. 10-2. Many pupils, but each an individual.

series of common "developmental tasks." . . . We believe that individuals naturally tend to work at these tasks when they reach the appropriate maturity levels, and that they are disturbed when they fail to accomplish any of them. Understanding teachers know what these tasks are; their sequence and timing in relation to physical, social, and mental maturity; what complications often arise as persons with different

characteristics and backgrounds work at them; and what conditions, relationships, and experiences are most helpful to children in mastering them.

5. A fifth characteristic of understanding teachers is that they know the more important scientific facts that describe and explain the forces that regulate human growth, development, motivation, learning, and behavior. The sources of this knowledge are more than a half-dozen different sciences, including biology, physiology, pediatrics, anthropology, sociology, psychology, and psychiatry as well as the more usual psychology and education.

6. Finally, the understanding teacher habitually uses scientific methods in making judgments about any particular boy or girl.[4]

Understanding a child is a difficult but challenging and necessary task for the teacher.

CHILD GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

A pupil, typical or atypical, has not one but several ages. He may have simultaneously a chronological age, which is his actual span of life in years; a mental age, which is his ability to perform certain intellectual tasks; an educational age, which usually denotes his academic level of achievement; a physical age, which ranks him among his colleagues in such matters as stature and weight; an emotional age, which may be revealed in his affective behavior; a social age, which depends greatly upon his experiences with people; a vocational age, which may provide much of the drive for completing his studies; and an avocational age, which in an activity like stamp collecting may place a sixth grader high above a college student. Unevenness may exist in these various ages within a pupil, especially if there is poorly synchronized growth among the different systems of the body. T. M. McConnel in discussing growth has said: "Although traits grow at different rates, and reach their maximum at different times, simultaneous, rather than serial development of broad mental functions is the rule."[5] Through cumulative continuous growth the individual pupil becomes a well-balanced person in all areas of living.

An excellent description of all-round growth and development is furnished by that great textbook of life, the Bible, in this terse account of the early life of the Great Teacher: "And Jesus increased in wisdom and stature, and in favor with God and man" (Luke 2:52). He increased in wisdom (mentally), in stature (physically), in favor with God (spiritually), and man (socially). The teacher and parent should promote this four-dimensional growth for every child.

[4] Commission on Teacher Education, *Helping Teachers Understand Children*, pp. 8–12, American Council on Education, 1945.

[5] T. M. McConnel, *Educational Psychology* (edited by C. E. Skinner), p. 41, Prentice-Hall, 1936.

Physical Growth

In *Know Your School Child,* Mary Dabney Davis has written in part as follows regarding the child's physical growth:

One of the most obvious characteristics of a child is his physical condition—his size, weight, and vigor; his apparent strength; the degree of healthy glow of his skin and hair; and the sparkle of his eye. These all tell stories of nutrition and sleep, of habits of personal hygiene, and of the degree of confidence and security a child feels at home and among friends. A close relationship exists between his physical condition and his emotional and mental well-being. This relationship makes the protection of a child's growth and development a major concern for both home and school.[6]

Growth, of course, is not merely a matter of increasing stature and weight. Many complex rhythms and differentiations are involved. Among the glands that have a marked influence on growth are: the pituitary, in the center of the head; the thyroid, at the base of the throat; the adrenals, each lying just above the kidneys; and the sex glands.

Mental Development

As to the mental equipment of the pupil the same author writes:

Even the most casual observer of school children can distinguish those that are "bright" from those that are "dull." But there are degrees of brightness and dullness, and it is important for the teacher of the modern school to know fairly accurately where a child's general ability can be classified. For the modern school aims to promote the best development of each child through an enriched curriculum, broad learning experiences, and a varied assortment of learning materials. This aim can be met only by fitting learning activities to each child's mental ability.[7]

The mental growth of the pupil is one of the major concerns of the school.

Social Development

A child is born into a world teeming with human beings.

Throughout the child's development, his social behavior as manifested in different situations may be of several types. He may be *socially blind,* that is indifferent to the presence of others; *socially dependent,* that is deeply impressed by the presence of others; or *socially independent,* in which case he is aware of others, but is neither inspired nor inhibited by them. In terms of his group contacts, he may act the role of *protector* to a child less assertive than himself, as *devotee* to one upon whom the group centers its attention, as *leader* or as *follower* of the group.[8]

[6] For further information, see Mary Dabney Davis, *Know Your School Child,* pp. 2–4, Superintendent of Documents, 1939.

[7] For further information, see *ibid.,* pp. 5–6.

[8] For further information, see *ibid.,* pp. 8–9.

Obviously these social patterns are not constant, nor are the pupil's social relations always harmonious and satisfying.

Other Characteristics

Emotional Behavior. This behavior may be observed in several ways. For example, a number of bodily changes may indicate emotional response, as the rapid beating of the heart when the pupil is excited. Another way to study emotions is to observe the pupil's overt behavior, such as a negative reaction in case of annoyance and a positive reaction in case of contentment.

> Every teacher and parent, as well, must learn to recognize not only the obvious types of emotional behavior, but also the indirect symptoms of emotional stress that the child often tries to hide. For emotions are intimately related with general well-being—happiness or misery, ease or difficulty of learning, normal or arrested development. Whether the child's emotional life evolves normally depends, to a large degree, upon whether he is understood by parents and teachers, and provided by them with security, a suitable environment, and opportunities for progressive emotional growth.[9]

Emotional health is extremely important for both learner and teacher.

Spiritual Development and Character Education. Horace Mann in his "Letter to School Children" stressed the importance of moral and religious growth. All-round development of the individual, as indicated in the concluding chapter of Wiggam's *The Marks of an Educated Man*, includes spiritual growth. A weakness of American public education is that it has avoided, neglected, or slighted the spiritual nature of the child.

In late years there has been an increasing though incomplete emphasis in schools upon the spiritual and the moral through character education. Several departments of the National Education Association have issued publications on character development, with some emphasis on the pupil's religious nature. The school is stressing all-round growth, as shown by the new type of progress reports, which exalt the "uncommon common" virtues. Although public education will never return to the extreme emphasis on religious education, especially the narrow sectarian type so prevalent in the early colonial days, it will, in the future, strive to develop a spiritual emphasis in its program for balanced, well-rounded growth in every direction, for both the typical and atypical pupil.

Several of the references previously cited describe the growth and development of the so-called "normal" pupils. The remainder of this unit is devoted to a discussion of exceptional pupils.

[9] For further information, see *ibid.*, pp. 12–13.

PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED PUPILS

Atypical or exceptional pupils are found everywhere. According to the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, "The term exceptional children includes both the handicapped and gifted, or children who deviate from the average child to such an extent as to require special treatment or training in order to make the most of their possibilities." Several million children of school age in the United States are handicapped in ways that demand educational facilities in addition to those provided for normal children. The four major groups of exceptional children described in this unit are the physically handicapped, the mentally exceptional, the socially atypical, and miscellaneous types.

Five major types of physically handicapped pupils, plus the mentally maladjusted and an omnibus classification for others, are described here. The percentage of incidence of physical disability, based upon age groups from five to nineteen years, is the figure suggested by Elise H. Martens of the United States Office of Education as a general guide:

Type of Physical Handicap	Percentage
Visually Handicapped	0.2
Crippled	1.0
Deaf and hard of hearing	1.5
Handicapped in speech	1.0 to 2.0
Delicate children	1.5

Many pupils are handicapped permanently or temporarily in such a way that they do not come under the common classifications. Some have combinations of several disabilities.

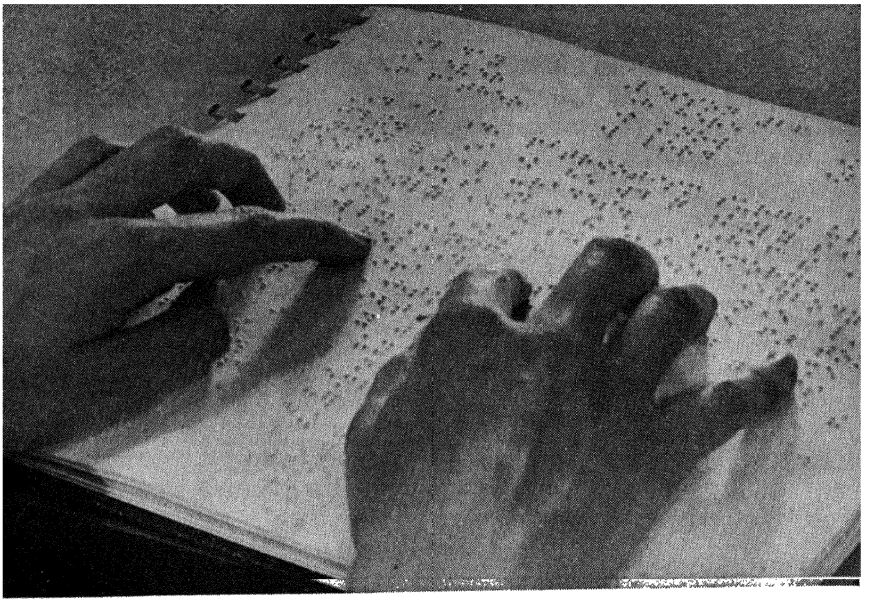
Visually Handicapped

Identification of Visually Handicapped. The blind recognize their defect, but the partially seeing often fumble in semidarkness without realizing their difficulty. The alert teacher is always on the lookout for any physical disadvantage which the pupils in her classroom may manifest, especially defective vision. Among the symptoms are these: frequent mistakes with words or figures; inability to study without eye discomfort; complaint of headaches; peculiar head positions; ability to see objects at a distance more clearly than those at close range; inability to see objects at a distance, such as words on a blackboard; inability to distinguish colors; redness and swelling of the lids; congestion of the vessels of the eyeball; discharge of tears or pus from the eye; and inability to pass a satisfactory test with an eye chart.

The typical screening test for locating those pupils who should be sent to an ophthalmologist for thorough eye examination is the Snellen letter

chart or the symbol E chart, the latter being used with young and foreign children who cannot read. This test given both with and without glasses helps to identify cases of lowered visual acuity. The Snellen test, however, does not identify heterophoria, or small amounts of muscular imbalance in the external muscles of the eye. For identifying some eye troubles the Betts or Eames test is helpful. A skilled oculist can detect and help correct muscular impairment and many other afflictions.

Teachers and other nonmedical examiners perform a genuine service in locating by observation and preliminary examination cases that require



(Courtesy of American Foundation for the Blind.)

FIG. 10-3. Reading Braille. To many sightless people throughout the world, six raised dots make the difference between illiteracy and education. The majority of the Braille users read with one hand, using the other chiefly as a guide.

special attention. But the teacher, administrator, and parent must remember that in no case should a test made by an examiner other than a specialist be considered final. Any symptoms of defects discovered by the teacher should be reported for further examination, diagnosis, and remedial treatment by an expert. Many schools employ the services of an ophthalmologist, oculist, or doctor who makes examinations or to whom suspicious cases are referred for decision. If these services are not available, the school should advise the parents to obtain medical assistance.

Provisions for Visually Handicapped. The educational treatment of blind and partially seeing pupils varies according to the degree of visual

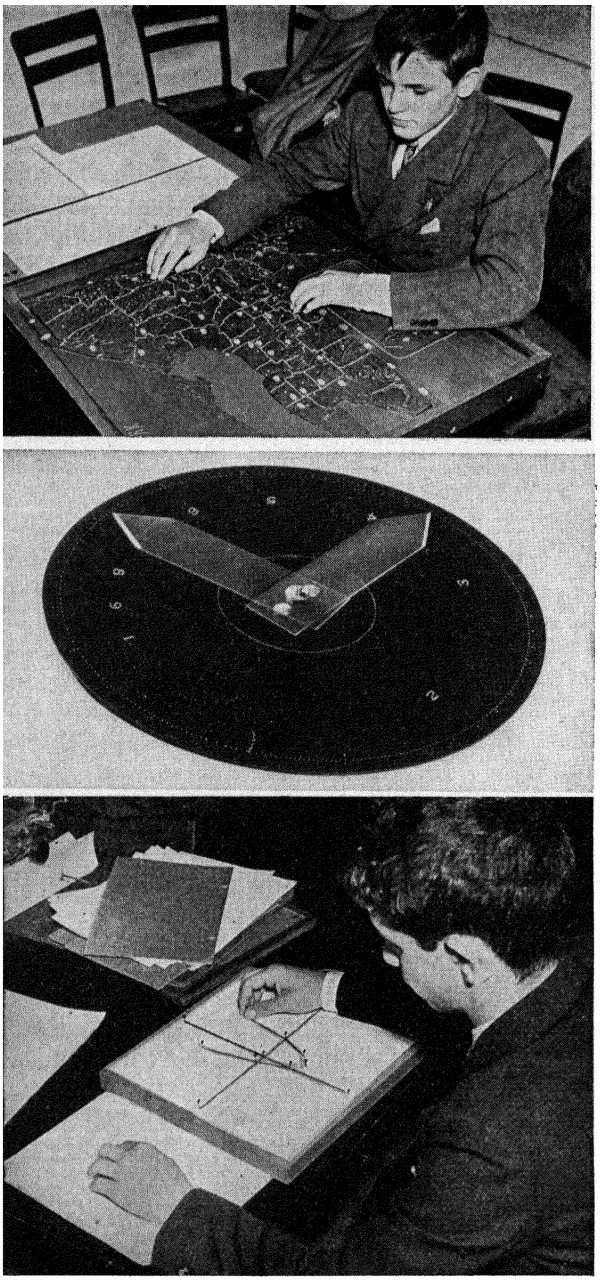
acuity. For the blind the tactile method, usually the Braille system of raised dots, is employed to supplement the auditory sense.

Six raised dots are six high spots in the mitigation of human blindness. These six colorless dots arranged in two upright rows three high, as on the domino six—embossed in a space a fourth the size of the index fingernail and used under that finger—mean to sightless people the world over the difference between illiteracy and education, frequently the contrast between being parasites and useful, happy people.[10] These magic dots constitute the basic Braille "cell," worked out in 1829 by Louis Braille, a twenty-year-old blind teacher in the Paris Institution for the Young Blind. He opened the way for the enlightenment and expression of such brilliant minds as that of Helen Keller and hundreds of others.

The collection of Braille books for the blind at the Library of Congress numbers many thousands in all the main branches of knowledge. Many libraries, public and state, serve as depositories from which books are sent to readers in all parts of the country without charge, even free of postage. The American Printing House for the Blind at Louisville, Kentucky, which is subsidized by the federal government under the direction of the Federal Security Agency, produces a great variety of books, textbooks, special supplies, and equipment for the blind. For classroom use, small steel punches and Braille slates enable blind students to take notes. One equipment item that is used increasingly is the Braille typewriter.

Perhaps not more than one fourth of the blind people in the United States make any practical use of books in Braille, since reading by touch is a slow and fatiguing method. Furthermore, many have lost their sight at an advanced age which makes it difficult for them to learn the art of reading by touch, particularly if manual labor has lessened the sensitivity of the fingers. For these persons a great boon is the "talking book," of which several hundred volumes are circulated annually. The talking book consists of voice transcriptions of written material recorded on large phonograph disks, each of which will play many pages. The electrical talking-book machine is a combination phonograph and radio set contained in a single unit so that it may be carried with ease. The machines and records, made under the auspices of the American Foundation for the Blind, are sold at cost. The talking books service at the Library of Congress began with the distribution of records in October, 1934, and included modern popular fiction, Shakespeare, parts of the Bible, poetry, and patriotic documents. Since then many new and appealing titles have been added. The disks provided by the Library of Congress under federal appropriations are also available at the distributing libraries scattered over the United States. The periodical, *Talking Topics*, contains reviews of talking books.

[10] Weldon Melick, "That the Blind May Read," *Rotarian*, March, 1939, p. 28.



(Courtesy of Acme and the American Foundation for the Blind.)

FIG. 10-4. A blind boy "studies" a relief map in which pins outline counties (top). The circular slide rule (center) aids the blind in doing multiplication, division and in taking roots. Pressed in plastic, a logarithmic "C" scale is embossed around the outer edge, with large arabic numerals. The pointers are of plastic. The student's left hand "reads" an algebraic problem. while his right hand works it out on a Braille graph (bottom).

Another interesting development has been "The Seeing Eye." In 1923 on her estate in Switzerland, Dorothy Harrison Eustis, a relative of Martha Washington, began breeding and training German shepherd dogs to patrol the Swiss borders for customs service. Mrs. Eustis and others, including geneticist Humphrey, were impressed by the teachability of these sturdy dogs. In an article for *The Saturday Evening Post* in 1928, Mrs. Eustis mentioned the fact that German shepherd dogs were guiding German

(Courtesy of School Life and Catherine T. Moriarty, Superintendent, Kentucky School for the Blind.)

FIG. 10-5. Pupils in the playroom of the Kentucky School for the Blind at Louisville. The state-supported residential schools for the blind and other exceptional pupils are excellent agencies for helping to equalize educational opportunities for those who are handicapped.

soldiers blinded in the World War. Morris Frank, a young blind man in Nashville, Tennessee, became interested in the project, sent for one of the dogs, and found a pair of shining, intelligent eyes to replace his own darkened ones. Not long after, the Seeing Eye School was started in Nashville, Tennessee, and later was moved to Morristown, New Jersey, where under skilled instructors the dog is taught his lesson, the blind person learns his, and then they are taught together.[11] Many a blind student is led to his college classes by his "seeing eye" or "leader dog."

[11] H. M. Robinson, "Dogs against Darkness," *Rotarian*, May, 1937, pp. 28–34.

In some states, starting with New York in 1907, blind college students are provided at public expense with persons who read aloud to them the course assignments. The blind usually have a well-developed auditory sense and powers of retention. The American Foundation for the Blind gives annually several scholarships for sightless students. The G.I. Bill of Rights gives many blind veterans financial assistance in their schooling. A blind person and his companion may now travel on most railway and bus lines for the price of only one fare if his financial status does not permit the payment of two fares. Under the Federal Security Act needy blind persons of all ages are eligible to financial aid. The Randolph-Sheppard Act allows blind persons to operate concession stands in federal buildings.

The organized education of the blind in the United States, which commenced in the decade from 1830 to 1840, has reached the point where every state now makes provision for them either in a school within its own boundaries or in a neighboring state. The residential schools for the blind enroll a number of pupils in the low-vision group as well as totally blind children.

Sight-saving classes originated in Europe in 1908. The first class in America was started in Roxbury, Massachusetts, in 1913 when Helen Smith, with resources from the Perkins Institution and Massachusetts School for the Blind, gathered together a small group of partially seeing children. Now several hundred such classes are well established in the United States. A sight-saving class is one for pupils whose eyes do not permit them to do the work of the regular grades, either because their sight will be further impaired by such study or because their vision is too low to assure their progress in school by the usual methods and equipment. Candidates for sight-saving classes are those whose vision ranges from 20/200 to 20/70 by the Snellen chart.

The sight-saving classes are located in special rooms. As to equipment, the following paragraph describes the Cleveland plan:

> The walls are painted light buff, the ceilings pale cream in a matte finish to eliminate glare. Scientifically designed artificial light is provided through totally indirect or semiindirect lighting fixtures. The pupils' desks are adjustable and movable. Large type books, large maps, unglazed buff paper, large pencils, and soft chalk are some of the pupils' special tools. Each room has a piano. Rooms have sand tables and typewriters according to grades and eye conditions of the pupils.

Radio broadcasts provide a frequent "eye-rest period" for pupils. In some schools, pupils use a portable bulletin typewriter during the oral class discussion or transcribe a dictaphone record of their schoolwork.

There is a growing tendency to place less emphasis upon any definite line of demarcation between the children who should be instructed by the Braille method and those who use certain visual aids.

In addition to the work for blind and partially seeing children is the growing emphasis on preventive measures for all persons. Concern for the eye health of school children is not new, for the first report of the United States Commissioner of Education 70 years ago carried a proposal on classroom lighting with a view to safeguarding children's vision. Eye health needs to be stressed for college students as well as for elementary and high-school pupils. Accidents are responsible for 16 per cent of the cases of complete blindness; and more than half these accidents happen to boys and girls.

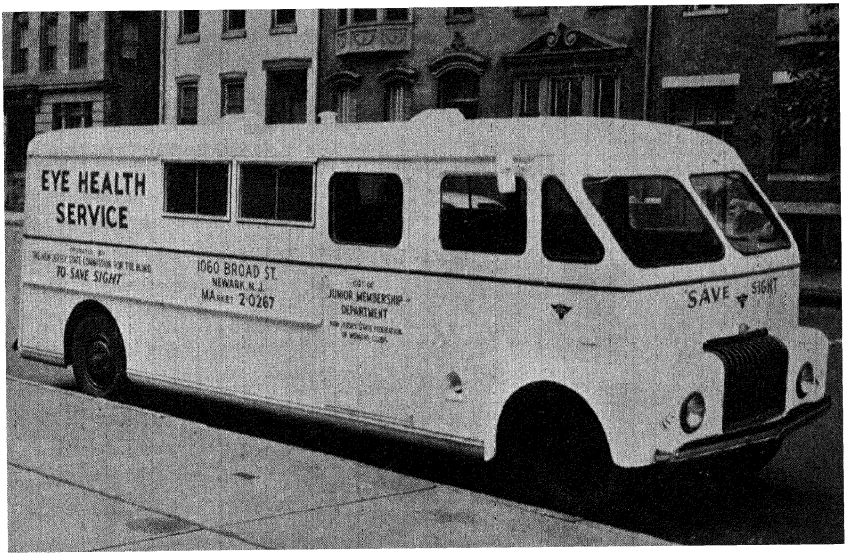


FIG. 10-6. Motorized clinic brings sight conservation to the community. The New Jersey State Commission for the Blind launched the first motorized eye health service in the United States. The large white truck is divided into two sections: the one immediately behind the steering wheel has a desk and chairs for waiting patients; the other contains the ophthalmologist's equipment. The diagnostic work of the mobile unit has stimulated preventive and corrective measures.

Thus the need for special instruction for visually handicapped pupils can be decidedly reduced through a year-round program of prevention. Safety education would also reduce the number of other handicapped pupils, such as the crippled.

CRIPPLED PUPILS

Identification of Crippled. Whatever the defect, all crippled children should be enumerated through the official agencies operating under the laws of the local, state, and federal governments. The classroom teacher can bring cases to the attention of the local school nurse or physician.

County and state health authorities are always eager to cooperate in helping those who are afflicted physically. The state and federal rehabilitation services and some phases of the Social Security program are also available for the older persons, many of whom are placed in gainful occupations through cooperative efforts on the part of the schools and all concerned. Many organizations, such as luncheon clubs, seek to locate and help children who are crippled or otherwise handicapped.

In connection with identification, it is necessary to give serious thought to the causes of orthopedic defects. The major causes are infantile paralysis, which produces the destruction of nerve tissue with its resultant flaccid type of paralysis; spastic paralysis, which is caused by some defect in the brain center, congenital or acquired at birth; rheumatic fever, which is childhood's greatest enemy; tuberculosis, which involves the bones and joints; and other congenital or acquired deformities, which may come before, at, or after birth. The major cause is poliomyelitis (infantile paralysis). The constant care of and remedial measures for victims of this motor paralysis, which strikes the rich and poor, must be supplemented by efforts at its prevention. Helping the postpoliomyelitic victims is necessary and commendable, but preventive, not just palliative, procedures are imperative. Education of the public as to the nature of the disease and its manner of spread is needed. Environmental sanitation is an important factor. Isolation of the patient, early intelligent treatment in order to prevent permanent paralysis, and adequate medical and surgical care from the outset are of prime consequence.

Provisions for Crippled Pupils. Safety education is a vital part of the school curriculum. The preventive program calls attention to ways in which pupils may be injured when riding on school busses and suggests ways of preventing such accidents.

Transportation of crippled pupils to and from school is provided free in many school systems, either by means of busses, taxis, or other arrangements. In some cities an attendant helps the bus driver and children. In a one-teacher school a crippled pupil may be transported by the teacher, parents, or other adults. In some instances rural children are boarded in near-by cities where special classes are maintained. Recent programs of state aid are recognizing the need for paying transportation and boarding costs of all children who need these services. States also reimburse local school systems over and above the cost of educating a normal child, if special instruction is given.

Although many crippled children need no special educational treatment, there are several thousand who do and for whom no opportunities are provided. Great is the tragedy of isolated bedridden crippled children who do not have a chance to learn. Instruction is usually given in the home,

the hospital, or the school, either local or state. In home and hospital teaching the regular classroom instructor or the visiting teacher helps at the bedside or chair of the crippled child. The seriously handicapped often find it difficult to attend school, especially during bad weather.

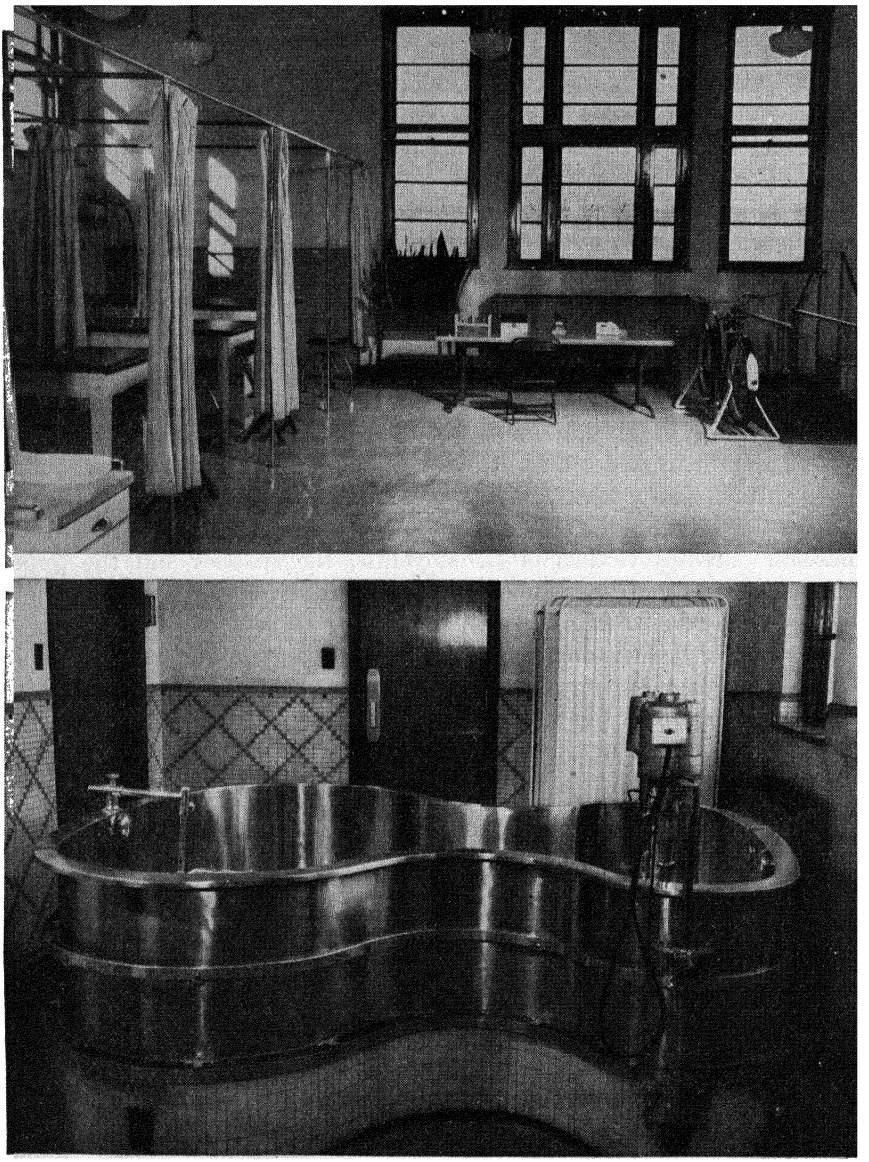
Formal schooling for cripples is a twentieth century development. The first public-school class for crippled children was organized in England in 1899; the second was in Chicago in 1900; and the first state school was established in Massachusetts in 1904.

At school the crippled pupil is helped to forget his handicap. Active membership in clubs and organizations is encouraged. There was a time when all the crippled children were excused from physical education classes; today no child is forgotten during physical education or recreation periods. If the child is also a cardiac case, he rests on a cot. Under the direction of a doctor, nurse, or physiotherapist the paralytic pupil may take exercises or receive treatment under a health-giving lamp or in the heated swimming pool. Tanks and pools facilitate muscular treatments, since the water reduces the weight of the body and often calls into play dormant or withered muscles. Besides victims of poliomyelitis, the spastics and the pupils with congenital club feet and other deformities resulting from infections and injuries receive warm water treatment.

Most school systems do not have a separate classroom for crippled pupils. Several schools, however, may cooperate to provide a spcial room for this purpose. This room should be located on the first floor with an approach by ramp in order that the wheels chairs may be rolled in conveniently. Adjustable seats are advisable. All facilities should be at hand so that the child need not leave the room during the day.

Buildings constructed especially for crippled pupils are usually fire resistive and one story high or equipped with elevators or ramps connecting floors. In some, luncheon is served in the regular classroom or in an easily accessible lunchroom. The teachers are specially trained for their work and often are provided with helpers. For pupils who come late or for a few days a week the teacher seeks to adjust the work and to provide adequate individual help. Often the school day is shortened for pupils who tire easily.

Cincinnati has night schools and Detroit holds summer sessions for crippled children. An outstanding school for crippled and other handicapped children is the Spalding School in Chicago. The Chicago Board of Education operates it, other elementary schools, and some high-school branches for the benefit of several thousand crippled children ranging in age from twenty-one months (Sunbeam League Nursery School at Spalding) to twenty-one years or high-school graduation. A boarding school for child victims of spastic paralysis has been organized in Chicago. Despite



(Courtesy of Guy E. Wiley, architect, and American School Board Journal.)

FIG. 10-7. Two rooms in the Orthopedic Elementary School, La Crosse, Wisconsin. The upper view is of the physiotherapy room. Here the trained and certified physiotherapists give daily treatments to crippled children. The lower picture shows a Hubbard water tank equipped with electric agitators. In this tank the entire body can be submerged in warm water, and treated by skilled workers. More physical facilities and trained specialists are sorely needed throughout the United States in order to provide the technical and general services for children who are crippled or otherwise handicapped.

wheel chairs, crutches, and braces many of these children forget their handicaps.

Among the major problems in educating crippled children are transportation, since the children must be carried to and from the school; type of equipment, since many pupils need special desks, cots, and other furniture; curriculum, which may differ from the typical one since the cripple's vocational area is limited and he often needs activities of a special nature; follow-up work, which is usually neglected; and costs, since the instruction of crippled children calls for larger per pupil expenditures. The extra

(*Courtesy of American Foundation for Infantile Paralysis.*)

FIG. 10-8. Students sketch and paint at "Sunny View," Eastern New York Orthopedic Hospital School. The easels and lapboards are scaled to the needs of the user, and clear floor space accommodates wheel chairs and beds.

cost, however, is a profitable investment that reaps dividends for the crippled as he becomes a self-confident, economically efficient member of society. The National Society for Crippled Children and Adults is sponsoring a program of federal aid to match state aid, similar to the present rehabilitation program, in order to secure bedside teaching or transportation of crippled pupils to special schools.

DEAF AND HARD OF HEARING

Identification of Deaf and Hard of Hearing. The acoustically handicapped are grouped into two major classes, distinguished by the type of instruction needed. They are the deaf and the hard of hearing.

Technically, the definition [deaf] includes only persons who have had no hearing since birth, who lost their hearing before they achieved speech, or who lost it so soon after achieving speech that the speech gained has been lost.

All individuals who lose their hearing after speech has been permanently achieved are classified as hard of hearing.[12]

The three types of persons under the first classification lack experience with natural speech or language; the educational approach is mainly through the eye supplemented by the ear. Those persons who have lost their

(Courtesy of Graybar Electric Company.)

FIG. 10-9. The quickest and surest way to test the hearing of a group of children. By means of a portable audiometer the teacher can test the hearing of as many as 40 pupils at one time. In a few minutes one obtains written records of each pupil's exact degree of loss in hearing—with left and right ears tested separately.

hearing completely after having learned speech are popularly considered deaf but professionally are called hard of hearing. Josephine B. Timberlake classified the hard of hearing into three groups on the basis of whether they are slightly, moderately, or severely hard of hearing. As indicated, all these are not to be considered hard of hearing but should be screened out for further study because they are potentially hard of hearing.

Since defective hearing is less detectable than faulty eyesight, identification of the former is neglected more frequently than the latter. It was not

[12] Arch O. Heck, *The Education of Exceptional Children*, p. 231, McGraw-Hill, 1940.

until 1935 that New York passed the first state compulsory law for hearing testing, although the first legislation requiring vision testing was passed almost thirty-five years earlier by Connecticut. Deaf or partially hearing pupils may be detected through alert observation or by means of the (1) watch-tick or tuning-fork test, (2) whisper test, (3) audiometer test, or (4) complete otological examination by a competent physician.

The watch-tick, tuning-fork, and whisper tests are generally conceded as unreliable. The easiest and surest way of identifying pupils with im-

(Courtesy of Minnesota Society for Crippled Children and Adults.)

FIG. 10-10. Teacher explains the results of individual hearing test to pupil and parent. In addition to screening tests for groups, it is desirable to give individual pure tone audiometer tests of the type administered by physicians. The Minnesota Society for Crippled Children and Adults, in cooperation with the University of Minnesota, has a mobile speech clinic in the field to test the speech and hearing of school children.

paired hearing in one or both ears is through the use of the audiometer. Four to five hundred children may be examined in a day in groups up to 40 each by means of the audiometer, which consists of a portable phonograph with several attached phones. The children wear these head telephone receiving sets and write on specially prepared ruled paper the numbers spoken by the phonograph in gradually decreasing degrees of intensity. Then may follow a more accurate examination with a vacuum-tube type of individual audiometer, which tests many sound frequencies at controlled

intensities. By means of this mechanical aid one can determine in decibels the amount of the hearing loss for many pure tones. Tests with audiometers and other approved scientific devices should be made periodically.

For large school systems or consolidated areas, Josephine B. Timberlake, editor of the *Volta Review*, recommends the establishment of a hearing conservation clinic with an otologist in charge, assisted by a nurse and clerk, and equipped with a soundproof room, modern testing equipment, and such instruments for diagnosis and simple treatment as may be needed.

Progressive deafness comes on so gradually and so insidiously that it frequently escapes notice until it is too severe to be corrected. Since nearly all instances of deafness in adults are traceable to the first 10 years of life in the so-called "delicate age," periodic checks and adequate medical care for young children are all-important. Chief among the numerous causes of deafness are diseases and accidents. Among the former are running ears; enlarged and diseased tonsils and adenoids; bad teeth and malnutrition, which make it easy to contract diseases; severe colds, infections, and diseases, some of which are accompanied by dangerous inflammation of the middle ear. Among the accidental causes are automobile collisions, especially those producing a fractured skull; hard boxes on the ears; and things placed in the ear. One of the simplest causes of hearing impairment is hardened impacted wax in the ears. A complicated cause may be the Rh factor in the red blood cells.

After detection the next step is to induce the pupil to take advantage of corrective physical treatment and educational training, which differ in certain details as the degree of hearing loss varies.

Provisions for Deaf and Hard of Hearing. The earliest known teacher of the deaf was Pedro Ponce de Leon, a Spanish monk of the Order of St. Benedict, who lived in the sixteenth century. The first real work with the deaf began in America in 1814–1815 when Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet became interested in the "deaf and dumb" child of a neighbor, and as a result went abroad to study the teaching of the deaf. Upon his return in 1816 he started a school at Hartford, Connecticut. In 1857 the Columbia Institution at Washington was incorporated, and 7 years later the National Deaf Mute College, later renamed after Mr. Gallaudet, was opened as the only institution of higher learning for the deaf in the United States. The education or reeducation of deaf and hard-of-hearing children is conducted in private and public institutions, the latter including local schools and state residential institutions. Boston was the first city to educate its deaf when in 1869 it established a school named after Horace Mann, who helped to introduce the oral method from Europe. The first state institution was established in Connecticut in 1817.

In the early history of deaf education, only writing and the so-called "manual" or sign language produced by the hands were used. More modern procedures involve the communication of ideas by means of speech and lip reading, as well as the sense of vibration through tactile experience. Oral methods are generally employed in public schools. The majority of the state schools use the oral and the manual method or manual alphabet. Those skilled in lip or speech reading add to what they hear that which they see in the movement of the speaker's lips and facial expression, and thus they are able to hold effective conversation. Speech or lip reading, however, is not a 100 per cent adjunct to a deafened ear. Many persons must also have a hearing device of some kind.

Children with residual hearing are usually given auricular training by means of mechanical aids, such as the radio ear, an instrument that magnifies the human voice so that the pupils can hear the words of the teacher. Every desk is equipped with a headphone and a rheostat so that each pupil can adjust the intensity to his own need. In addition there are, primarily for adults, the individual mechanical hearing aids, the effective use of which requires persistent practice. With more than a hundred different hearing devices on the market to select from, no hard-of-hearing person should buy one until he is quite sure it suits his type of deafness. A small mechanical hearing aid may bring large returns in social as well as vocational life.

Reports from cities where a three-point program (audiometer tests, correction of defects, and lip-reading classes) has been carried on for a number of years indicate that at least 1.5 per cent of the total school population need lessons in lip reading to help them supplement with their clear eyes what their dull ears fail to catch.

Deaf and hard-of-hearing persons have the ability to make adjustments to a wide variety of employment situations. In some jobs deafness may even be a valuable asset in that the worker is not disturbed by outside influences and monotonous machine noises. Despite the handicap of being deaf, many persons have risen to renown. It is said that Beethoven never heard a note of his great work, "The Ninth Symphony." Helen Keller and others have incontrovertibly demonstrated that the deaf can learn to hear and speak.

Handicapped in Speech

Identification of Speech Disabilities. A basic guarantee in American democracy gives to all persons the inalienable right of free speech. This should include those oft-forgotten persons who cannot talk freely because of speech defects. This handicap has been defined as any acoustic variation from an accepted speech standard so extreme as to be conspicuous,

confusing, or unpleasant.[13] Among these defects are: stammering and stuttering, lisping, lalling, cluttering, nasality, thick speech, baby talk, hoarseness, foreign accent, and other defects due to organic difficulties.

Owing to the complex physiological and psychological processes involved in talking, many undesirable personality traits may accompany poor speech. An enfeeblement of the general health or extreme nervous excitement may aggravate the condition of a confirmed stammerer. Because of speech defects a child may not display his normal ability and may thus be rated falsely as low in mentality. Hence teachers should seek to identify pupils with speech difficulties and to understand the major causes of the trouble. The chief causal factors are much the same as those for reading disability, *viz.*, constitutional handicaps, intellectual shortcomings, emotional difficulties, educational backwardness, and environmental handicaps.[14] Examples of these disabilities respectively are: cleft lip, low intelligence, fear, faulty learning, and foreign accent.

The classroom teacher through her daily contacts with the pupils is the usual avenue for locating speech defectives. Many a teacher with a trained alert ear and a knowledge of the symptoms of major speech irregularities detects pupils who need help. Some schools employ speech specialists who make periodic surveys of all children. The auditorium teacher in platoon schools, the teacher of reading and English, the foreign-language teacher, the visiting teacher in the home, the nurse or doctor, the speech specialists at clinics conducted by universities—these and others, particularly the parents, can help identify pupils with minor or major speech difficulties.

A simple method of locating speech disorders is the oral interview. Many schools employ mechanical testing aids, such as speaking over a public address system or recording the voice on a disk which later can be used in remedial work and for a record of progress.

Provisions for the Handicapped in Speech. Interest in speech correction in America, which stems from the first school to be organized in Europe at Potsdam, Germany, in 1887, was nourished for several years by the American Medical Association. The establishment of classes, clinics, and corrective work in public schools in America is a twentieth century accomplishment, the first public-school class dating back to that founded in New York City in 1908.

No group of physically handicapped children can be helped more com-

[13] Richard C. Birden and Alvin C. Busse, *Speech Correction*, p. 126, F. S. Crotts, 1925.

[14] Sara M. Stinchfield and Edna Hill Young, *Children with Delayed or Defective Speech*, p. 19, Stanford University, 1938.

pletely than those having speech defects. Since the causes of defective speech are so varied, the corrective work reaches across many departments of school and living. The treatment may include diaphragmatic breathing and relaxation exercises, speech drills, remedial reading, special work in English, and conversational exercises, in school, in the clinic, and at home. Many social and medical agencies cooperate in supplying the skilled assistance of such personnel as an oral surgeon, a specialist in the eye, ear, nose, or throat, a nurse, a psychiatrist, a dietician, a social worker, and a vocational guidance expert. According to many case studies, pupils of antisocial habits have improved their personalities as a result of corrective treatment in speech. To effect such changes, the pupil must be more than a passive participant in the process; he must have the will to improve, plus courage, patience, and perseverance.

Lisping tends to cure itself, but other defects are more deep-seated and complex in origin. These require the attention of the specialists mentioned. In some instances a surgical operation, such as the removal of hypertrophied tonsils, has produced a marked improvement. Listening to his own voice recorded on a phonographic disk or wire aids the pupil in perfecting his speech. Auditory and visual stimulation may be supplemented by motokinesthetic training, which employs the definite stimulation of the correct pattern through kinesthesis or touch.[15] Since the general health affects the voice, physical examinations and health-building activities play important roles. Ability to relax mentally and physically is a great aid to fluent speech. Habits of independence and self-confidence are also assets. The voice quality of handicapped and normal children may be made more pleasing and effective by their activities in creative speech classes and choral speaking.

Today speech is an important part of teacher education. The improvement of one's own enunciation and the development of clear articulation devolve upon every classroom teacher. Shakespeare wrote in *Hamlet*, "Speak the speech, I pray you, as I pronounced it to you, trippingly on the tongue: but if you mouth it, as many of your players do, I had as lief the town-crier spoke my lines. . . ." Many teachers without a serious speech defect may have lip laziness so marked and articulation so blurred that the listening pupils whisper, "What did she say?" or "What is the assignment she made?" Attention by the teacher to her own speech will help decidedly to improve the imitated utterances of the pupils.

A neglected means for overcoming hesitancy in speech is the development of a copious vocabulary. A person poverty stricken in words frequently is halting in speech. To this end all teachers should seek to develop in them-

[15] *Ibid*, pp. 98–103.

selves and in their pupils an extensive vocabulary. A dictionary for each pupil is an investment in speech education.

The human values of speech reeducation cannot be overemphasized. People are prone to make allowances for the blind, the deaf, and the crippled in limb, but not for those crippled in speech. A child may actually be punished for reciting. Even though he knows his lesson, a stammering pupil is often a source of merriment to his comrades, a torment to himself, and an object of sympathy to his teacher. The child with defective utterance may take heart from accomplishments of distinguished historic personages like Aesop, Demosthenes, Aristotle, Cato, Virgil, Erasmus, Boyle, Priestley, Lamb, and Charles Darwin. A more modern example is King George VI of England, who gave to Lionel Logue, an Austrian speech expert, membership in the Royal Victorian Order as a reward for personal services in teaching him to overcome a stammer. An interesting organization in the United States for youth and adults is the exclusive Kingsley Club, which is restricted to stammerers, many of whom have become exstammerers through systematic treatment and exercises.

Delicate Children

Identification of Delicate Pupils. This group includes a wide variety of lowered-vitality children who because of weakening conditions are not able to keep pace physically with normal children in their daily school life. Among these are the malnourished, the undervitalized, the nervously unstable, and those suffering from cardiac, tubercular, and other defects. Children differ widely in energy and physical strength. The malnourished child is usually identified by the teacher, nurse, or doctor through observation and the daily health inspection. Although some children are naturally small, underweight is due often to infection, faulty food habits, or incorrect diet. Malnutrition is a matter of diet, either quantitative or qualitative. The child may not be receiving a sufficient quantity of food; therefore he is undernourished and does not do effective schoolwork. This group increased decidedly during the depression, postdepression, and war periods. On the other hand a child may be receiving the proper quantity of food but not the right quality. He may be having an unbalanced diet with overemphasis upon carbohydrates and insufficient emphasis upon other ingredients. This may lead to physical debility.

A delicate child may be one who has a nervous disease. The nervous system is important in every period of human development. From the simple reflex activities of the infant to the highly integrated reactions of the adult, physical or mental stresses and strains may cause excessive nervousness. The diagnosis, prognosis, and treatment for nervous diseases should be assigned to an expert, although the teacher can help identify

these pupils by a functional knowledge of the anatomy and physiology of the nervous system.

The teacher should refer to doctors suspected cases of heart trouble, anemia, and tuberculosis. The most common signs of heart weakness are shortness of breath, cold extremities, and blue lips. Anemic pupils are often identified by absence of healthy color in face and lips. If a child tires readily, sleeps in class, has a persistent cough, and fails to participate in the normal activities, the teacher should refer him to a doctor for tuberculin and X-ray examinations. Periodic physical examinations often reveal incipient tuberculosis.

Provisions for Delicate Children. Outstanding among the provisions for delicate children is the supplying of adequate individual care within the school. The undervitalized pupil is given a school day and program commensurate with his physical ability. Delicate children who are the victims of too much irregularity in the home routine develop regularity. Those with a digestion span requiring food midmorning and midafternoon benefit from eating food and drinking a half pint of milk once or twice daily during school hours. Many school boards have provisions for supplying needy children with food, cod-liver oil, and other essentials. In 1938 the federal government started a program of providing undernourished school children with free lunches. Ten years later, federal aid for the school lunch program was placed on a permanent basis. In large schools the cafeterias are a boon to pupil health. Even in small and rural schools the children should enjoy at least one warm dish for their noon lunch.

In helping tubercular children medical science has accomplished much through preventoriums, sanitariums, and various treatments. Many special rooms or schools have been established for delicate and potentially tubercular children, both abroad and in America. The first "open-air" school was opened in Charlottenburg, a suburb of Berlin, in 1904. The earliest school of this type in the United States was in Providence, Rhode Island, in 1908. As early as 1838 Horace Mann advocated temperature control, ventilation, and a thermometer in each classroom.

A significant treatment for nervousness, debilitation, and other afflictions is the ample use of rest periods during the school day, when the child relaxes completely on a rug or cot. Large windows let in generous amounts of fresh air and sunshine. It is a common criticism that too much emphasis is placed upon instruction within walls. Even with good ventilation in schools, there should be more open-air work for delicate children, who may be dressed in Eskimo suits in the wintertime, and also for the normal pupils. To this end some buildings are erected in such a way that the entire side of a room can be swung open, or the roof can be used for educational activities. Playground space has also been multipled in order to provide facilities for

exercise in the open air. The use of glass windows in pivotable sections and of glass brick has permitted more light and sunshine to enter many classrooms.

The physical care of the undervitalized child should not be discontinued during the summer. Many delicate pupils benefit from a vacation on the farm or in the summer camp. The Tappan school of Ann Arbor maintains a camp 200 miles north to which the children go in school busses. The public schools of Baltimore have a day-camp school which the department of education operates for boys whose attitudes and conduct indicate an extreme need for social adjustment.

More adequate health programs are also needed for students in college, according to the health surveys of college students. The problem of student health is one that extends from the kindergarten through graduate work. It is significant that many men who in infancy or in youthful years were weaklings became physically vigorous and internationally known in later years. Among these men were Voltaire, Rousseau, Isaac Newton, Victor Hugo, Napoleon Bonaparte, and Theodore Roosevelt.

Others Physically Atypical

Several other less pronounced types of physical difficulties exist. Many pupils have posture defects and minor foot trouble. Some children receive an unfortunate start in their school career because of excessive underweight or overweight due to glandular disturbances or improper diet. A puny boy may be an object of scorn, and an oversized girl may be so embarrassed by her "avoirdupois" that she suffers from social maladjustments and mental conflicts. A survey conducted by the dental profession, in cooperation with the United States Public Health Service, revealed that nine out of ten American school children had one or more decayed teeth, or teeth in the process of decay.

Education and health are intimately tied together. The education of a child may be facilitated through the correction of a physical defect like muscular imbalance of the eyes; likewise, the health of a child may be improved through health education, as in the case of preventing diseases. Nation-wide programs, such as prepared by the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation of the National Education Association, by the American Public Health Association, and by the United States Office of Education will help markedly to prevent and correct physical handicaps among children and adults.

MENTALLY EXCEPTIONAL PUPILS

In an address on "Education for a Classless Society," James B. Conant of Harvard said:

> Our schools must be concerned with educating for a useful life a great variety of boys and girls. They must be concerned not only with the able scholar, but

with the artist and the craftsman. They must nourish those whose eye or ear or manual dexterity is their greatest asset. They must educate others whose gifts are in an ability to understand and lead their fellowmen. The school curricula must include programs for developing the capacities of many who possess intuitive judgment on practical affairs but have little or no aptitude for learning through the printed page. . . . And an appropriate ladder must be found for each one of a diverse group of students.[16]

In mental as well as physical ability there are great differences. A standard classification for grouping pupils according to intelligence quotients

(*Courtesy of Illinois Welfare Bulletin.*)

FIG. 10-11. Psychologist administers Arthur Performance Test at Lincoln State Colony, Lincoln, Illinois.

(the ratio obtained by dividing the mental age by the chronological age) is as follows:

Above 140 I.Q.	Near genius or genius
120 to 140	Very superior
110 to 120	Superior
90 to 110	Normal
80 to 90	Dull
70 to 80	Border line

[16] James B. Conant, "Education for a Classless Society," *The Atlantic*, May, 1940, pp. 600-601.

The school pupils in these various groups, except the normal ones, whose growth and development were considered earlier in this unit, are described here under the captions: (1) the mentally gifted, and (2) the mentally retarded or slow learners—each constituting approximately 2 per cent of the age group from five to nineteen years.

Gifted Pupils

Identification of Gifted Pupils. The gifted as discussed here include both the mentally gifted and those with special talents. It was once assumed that mentally gifted children were anemic, undersized, bespectacled, unsocial, and eccentric. They were supposed to come from the homes of professional and highly successful business people. Careful investigations, however, have dispelled these notions.

Among the characteristics of superior children are these: *physical*—usually healthier, stronger, larger, and heavier per unit of height than children in unselected group; *mental*—great intellectual curiosity, wide range of interests and information in divergent fields, copious vocabulary, rapid absorption of knowledge, high ability in making generalizations, ready interpretation of meanings, capacity to recognize relationships, and superior methods of work; *social*—enthusiasm for play, leadership in teams and clubs, desire for self-government and possible inclination toward domination; *emotional*—preference to work out their own methods of study, and relatively free from nervous disorders; *ethical*—high level of character development and generally courteous, careful, and kind.[17]

Subjective methods of identifying the bright have given way to scientific and objective measurement by means of intelligence tests supplemented by other forms of collateral appraisal. Specific knowledge about gifted children dates back to the publication of the Binet-Simon "Measuring Scale of Intelligence" in 1908, which was later revised and improved. Individual tests, such as revisions of the Binet, administered by trained testers, are more reliable than mass methods of identification, although group intelligence tests may serve as a screening device. Daily schoolwork and previous academic record may also form a semiobjective way of identifying bright students, although many average pupils may be overestimated and bright ones overlooked. A child with limited abilities who uses them to the maximum may outrank a brighter one who fails to employ his marked talents. Educational clinics manned by a staff of experts are valuable in the identification of gifted pupils.

Provisions for the Gifted. James Bryant Conant, who served as chair-

[17] Beatrice F. Goodhart, "The Educational Characteristics of Superior Children," *Baltimore Bulletin of Education*, September–October, 1940, pp. 14–17.

man of the Educational Policies Commission's study of gifted pupils, wrote: "To the extent that we now fail to educate the potential talent of each generation, we are wasting one of the country's greatest assets."[18]

It is indeed a social crime to neglect bright children, for they may be the greatest social asset. From the days of Plato's ideal republic to the present many proposals and programs have been advanced for the education of youth in terms of their ability. Good teachers of bygone days tried to challenge the bright pupils in their classes, since there was no separate administrative organization for them.

Educational consideration of gifted pupils has been characterized by flexible promotion, rapid advancement classes, and the present period of enrichment. Among the earlier provisions were W. T. Harris's promotion plans at St. Louis, the Cambridge system of varying the years required for completion of certain grades, and the Winnetka plan of meeting individual differences. Probably the first special school for gifted children in the United States was organized in 1905 at Worcester, Massachusetts.

Today provisions for mentally superior children vary all the way from mild adaptations in teaching methods and curriculums for individual students to special schools dedicated to the development of leadership through cultivation of special talents. Of course, bright children must be trained to serve as well as to lead. Just as society has a special responsibility to educate pupils who are gifted, so too these pupils should feel their unique obligation to render outstanding service to society. In life too frequently it has been assumed that "bright students take care of themselves." This is true in that they seldom become financially dependent upon others; but they do not and cannot take care of themselves in the sense that they make the fullest use of their capabilities. The late Leta S. Hollingworth contended an injustice is done the bright child by not realizing his full potentialities, and that American philanthropy needs a philosophy that pities less the follies of the moron and pities more the deprivations of the gifted girl or boy. Today schools and society are concerned with developing latent giftedness and the unending array of individual assets in human resources.

Recent curriculum studies stress the need of more satisfactory provisions for superior children since traditional curriculums are ill adapted to their needs. Often these provisions are within the scope of typical classroom procedure without special class groupings. It has been shown that enrichment of superior children can be supplied successfully through self-administered work units in the typical classroom. Many school systems have not followed the trend to separate bright pupils into special classes

[18] James Bryant Conant, *Education in a Divided World*, p. 168, Harvard University Press, 1948.

or schools. Instead they have operated on the theory that the capacity for leadership and social service of such pupils is best developed by keeping them with others of the same age and grade. This plan obviously puts upon each classroom teacher the responsibility of adapting instruction to the varying abilities of her pupils and necessitates many interesting and significant adjustments.

Another way of dealing with gifted children is by grouping them in special classes. Pennsylvania was the first state to make such classes mandatory. A common objection to this method is that the pupils may overrate their own importance. It has been shown, however, that when a child is placed with his mental equals, he has less opportunity to excel and consequently works harder. When superior children are held back because others in the class cannot travel at a rapid rate, the effect is apt to be doubly unfortunate—the former may become lazy and the latter may feel inferior. Many bright pupils need not walk the treadmill of exercise in learning; flashes of insight enable them to skip most of the drill. Enrichment classes in some schools allow the advanced pupils, in addition to the regular classwork, to carry on self-initiated projects and activities under the supervision of the teacher. Since much reading is done in these groups, an ample library is necessary. The amazing ability of a group of superior children, known as the Quiz Kids, to answer questions on a wide variety of subjects in a popular radio program has been attributed largely to their extensive reading.

The Los Angeles public schools and others have experimented for several years with special rooms for gifted children. The Buffalo public schools provide a work-study plan. An experiment geared to meet special needs was developed in New York City at the Speyer School, with the late Dr. Leta S. Hollingworth as educational adviser. Only half the school day was required for giving the gifted pupil the necessary training in the specific subjects; the other half was spent in enrichment work which permitted the children under direction to develop their cultural and literary abilities. The series of enrichment units in this elementary school included such everyday subjects as clothing, health, food, and shelter.

Efforts have been made to establish separate classes or high schools for mentally superior or talented students. De Witt Clinton High School in New York City has organized an "honor school" within the school; boys chosen from the school on the basis of tests and previous school records are given special challenges to learn, commensurate with their greater abilities. New York City has also established a high school devoted to development of talent in the fine arts. Many schools, both elementary and secondary, unleash creativeness and self-reliance. Genius and talent

must be developed at all ages, hence the need for scholarships for bright and talented students.

Slow Learners

Identification of the Slow Learner. Equality of opportunity to learn in a democracy demands adequate attention to the slow learner. This term includes the entire range of mental subnormality in pupils; some are so seriously affected that they are accurately called feeble-minded, whereas others are very near the upper border line of intellectual normality and educability. The slow learners may be divided into two groups: those mentally retarded and the larger number of slow learners who are less seriously handicapped but who are unable to make normal school progress. This classification, of course, does not imply rigid demarcation between the two groups or between the dull-normal and the normal. The mentally retarded usually include those with intelligence quotients ranging from 50 to 75 and with a mental age of five or six to ten years, whereas those in the dull-normal group range from 75 to 90 in I.Q.

Among the characteristics of the mentally slow are these: *physical*—they closely resemble normal children of corresponding chronological ages; *mental*—their mental age and I.Q. suggest the limitations of the retarded child's abilities of association, comparison, comprehension, generalization, and symbolization as compared with the normal child; and *social*—because the mentally retarded pupil has less ability to learn from experience, to take in all the elements in a complex situation, to foresee the consequences, and to form judgments than has the normal child, he is less capable of making adequate social adjustments.[19] Some of the characteristics may be detected through close observation by the teacher and through case studies. Any rule-of-thumb judgment must not be final. The American Association on Mental Deficiency recommends a mental examination for all backward children. This involves the use of standardized tests as mentioned for the identification of the gifted. Both physical and mental examinations should be given in many cases. Traveling clinics help to identify pupils who should be in state residential schools or in special classes or who should receive special school consideration because of mental deficiencies.

Provisions for the Slow Learner. Ever since Itard's efforts at the beginning of the nineteenth century to educate the feeble-minded boy whom he found wandering in a French forest, there has been interest in the mentally deficient child. Seguin, a pupil of Itard, aroused comment here

[19] Christine P. Ingram, *Education of the Slow-learning Child*, pp. 12–19, World, 1935.

in America and abroad by his lectures in behalf of special classes. Massachusetts, under the leadership of Samuel Howe, established a school for indigent feeble-minded youths in 1848; Providence, Rhode Island, provided a special class for children of low intelligence in 1896. Today many school systems have special classes for slow learners, owing to the stimulation of L. M. Terman and others.

Most mentally retarded pupils are placed in public-school ungraded classes or opportunity rooms where they are encouraged to work on their own level and at their own rate of achievement. Besides these special classes in the local schools there are also private schools and residential schools for the mentally deficient. Of such institutions in the United States, some are predominately custodial in character with emphasis on physical care of and physical work by the inmates, whereas others are remedial with stress on the educational program.

These residential schools have a marked advantage over the day schools in that the former can work "with the whole child the whole day for the whole year." Unfortunately, however, a stigma is often associated with a slow learner in a residential school. This is no doubt due to the fact that many residents in state institutions for the feeble-minded are idiots and imbeciles, incapable of acquiring an adequate education which would permit their release from an institution except under very unusual circumstances. Some are incapable of even partial self-sufficiency and will be harbored in a state institution all their days, because their condition is that of simple and continuous mental inferiority. There are some idiots who lead a vegetative existence, but, as Elise H. Martens pointed out, all feeble-minded persons are not hopelessly uneducable. No sudden and unpredictable movement or spurt of growth can be expected, but they can and do learn.

The psychology of special education for subnormals emphasizes success rather than failure. It centers around the processes that they are best able to master. It takes into consideration their capacities, limitations, interests, and ultimate social destinies. The subject matter and activities for the mentally retarded should not only contribute to happy childhood but also to their probable needs in adult life. For example, their reading will include only the words that are frequently used; their arithmetic will generally involve the use of money and making change; and their chief goal in handwriting will be legibility. Usually the trainable mental defectives can learn to work with concrete materials better than with abstract ideas. Nevertheless they share the entire gamut of human feelings; they grow hungry and thirsty, they become sad and glad, discouraged and encouraged, and they love and hate. Dull pupils need more than drilling and repetition; they need an enriched and explained program and an oppor-

tunity to do interesting things. If they are given drill work, it must not be above their ability. They should be allowed a wide range of experiences to build up a background. The slow learners may be aided by smaller classes, promotion on the basis of effort linked with attainable achievement, and by remedial teaching, particularly in reading.

Unit organization of experiences and centers of interest are very effective ways of meeting the individual and group needs of the mentally handicapped pupils. Visual aids have also been a tremendous asset in helping them to grasp material, particularly ideas that are usually presented in abstract manner. For slow learners there is too much verbalism in most teaching methods. Activity programs have likewise been instrumental in developing the retarded child into a self-respecting, self-reliant adult.

Wetzel in his *Biography of a High School* pointed out that a term common years ago has been lost, and that this riddance is indicative of great changes in education. The word is "dumb." Nobody is stigmatized today as "too dumb to learn." The problem of educating students of low mentality will be of increasing concern to secondary-school teachers, since great masses of unselected students are entering and remaining in high schools. Intelligence quotients ranging from 75 to 90 are frequent. One of the most important phases of the education for the mentally handicapped is vocational and occupational training. Many of them can be trained for semiskilled or unskilled occupations. Certainly the world would be a much less comfortable place without these citizens who often hold jobs in which normal persons would quickly lose interest.

Mentally Maladjusted

Identification of the Mentally Maladjusted. It is often difficult to discover those children and adults who are mentally and emotionally unadjusted. Their number is legion; hence their early identification is extremely desirable.

As intensive studies are showing, so many of the delinquents and criminals, vagrants and bums, homosexuals, those who commit sex offenses and who otherwise come into conflict with the law, are not the bold transgressors of our legal formulations, but are the unhappy, emotionally starved or distorted individuals who are seeking in these antisocial acts some outlet or release for their own inner conflicts and unhappiness.[20]

Many symptoms and causes can be traced back to early childhood:

Every individual has had a life history, a forgotten childhood, which is actively operating today in his personality or way of seeing, thinking, acting, believing, and

[20] Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Mental Health in the Classroom*, National Education Association, 1940, p. 4.

feeling. Every individual has experienced what may be called the universal childhood, during which he has experienced the process of socialization, of being made a member of our culture. Out of these childhood experiences each individual has developed a personality—his idiomatic way of organizing and interpreting life experience, his "private world" in which he lives, and his persistent way of feeling toward peoples and situations.[21]

The parents, and even his own peers, have often discovered the mentally maladjusted child before he reaches school. The observing teacher may see symptoms and find causes through personal interviews, case histories, and in the daily life of the child. The family physician and pediatrician-psychiatrist can lend a discerning eye and ear in early identification.

Provisions for the Mentally Maladjusted. The first task is prevention:

> The prevention of emotional ill health is a "must." It is a "must" in the opinion of the World Health Organization. It is a yet unappreciated gigantic task. The prevention of emotional ill-health and of delinquency is to be obtained through education, not only of the child but even more especially of its parents who often are little aware of their true influence upon the lives of their offspring.[22]

The chief therapeutic resource, after the child starts school, is the classroom teacher. Paul A. Witty stressed this point in *Mental Health in the Classroom* thus:

> The first responsibility of the teacher is to develop and maintain a classroom situation which is conducive to continuous growth. He will attempt to provide an atmosphere and setting in which success, security, understanding, mutual respect, and opportunity to attain worthy educative goals are all-pervading. He will further safeguard growth by eliminating administrative, supervisory, or teaching practices which disturb this sequence. And finally, he will be prepared to direct children's development in such a way that their emotional life will yield the maximum of human satisfactions and values. In this way, continuous hygienic growth will be an ideal sought for every child.[23]

The teacher's own mental health will affect the learning atmosphere of the pupils.

Often the school contributes to poor mental health through its obsolete methods of teachings, its rigid standards for grade promotions and the consequent huge numbers of failures, and the inflexible curriculum. As to the latter:

> No real effort seems to have been made anywhere to develop a curriculum that deliberately seeks to build many-sided security in children. The child's school

[21] *Ibid.*, p. 24. See also the Association's 1950 yearbook, *Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools*, Chap. II.

[22] Allan R. Cunningham, "The School Physician—in 1960," *The Journal of School Health*, May, 1949, p. 126.

[23] Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development, *op. cit.*, p. 43.

living should provide a sense of direction that is rooted in socially oriented faith in himself and others. This challenges the curriculum maker to face squarely the planning of experiences fundamental to such general moral security.[24]

Socially useful work is one way to meet the need for self-respect, which is related to personal security. Mental hygiene should be an operating principle of the total school program, including cocurricular activities.

Marginally adjusted children—those on the border line of sound mental health—usually respond to group therapy in a democratic environment. Individual therapy in the treatment of psychotic and neurotic children calls for specialized services of the psychiatrist and physician.

The National Mental Health Act passed by Congress in 1946 has helped states, counties, and cities through subsidizing psychiatric services and establishing a National Institute of Mental Health. The work of national, state, county, and local groups can be summarized in the catchword, "We can save the mentally sick."

SOCIALLY HANDICAPPED PUPILS

Social Variants as a Group

Every child is at times socially atypical. Some pupils are oversocial, seeking constantly to be in a crowd; some are nonsocial, striving to avoid people; and others are antisocial, working against human beings and social institutions. These deviates may be termed "socially handicapped."

No one knows how many pupils are socially maladjusted. The White House Conference conservatively estimated that 3 per cent of the elementary-school children in the United States were socially handicapped or potentially so. The socially handicapped are found in every grade from the nursery school through the university. Their behavior problems range all the way from temporary minor infractions of social etiquette to severe problems of delinquency, such as theft, adultery, or murder.

Identification of Socially Handicapped. As with pupils who are physically and mentally handicapped, the classroom teacher who is alert, sympathetic, and understanding can identify many cases of maladjustment. Behavior problem children are not merely disciplinary cases for the teacher to handle. Many have physical disabilities. Some should be institutional charges. All, however, are not severe cases. Some youngsters are merely petulant, plaintive, or overassertive. Often the home conditions are responsible: there is a high correlation between broken homes and child delinquency. Incorrigibility often has been associated with low intelligence, but studies show that delinquent minors in criminal institutions

[24] Harold G. Shane, "Moral Security for Mental Health," *Educational Leadership*, May, 1949, p. 515.

do not differ markedly in intelligence from typical minors on the street, although they are lower in the amount of educational achievement.

Teachers usually are impressed with behavior difficulties that interrupt the work of the class or the smooth functioning of the school, but are not so concerned with social traits that are symptomatic of serious maladjustments to life in general. Wickman's study and similar investigations reveal that teachers label as most serious such behavior problems as untruthfulness, bullying and cruelty, cheating, talking to other pupils in class, impertinence, and truancy. On the other hand mental hygienists note as highly undesirable such traits as depression and unhappiness, unsocial attitudes, withdrawal, suggestibility, resentfulness, fearfulness, overcritical attitude, suspiciousness, and restlessness. The latter traits are the most serious for the general adjustment of pupils to life. Children behave as they do because of the conditions existing at the time. Hence behavior is a symptom of underlying maladjustment and not a disease. Furthermore delinquency is no longer regarded as the result of a single factor; it is explained in terms of the effects from many unfavorable factors in multiple causation.

Classroom teachers need to know more about the significance of certain traits, to have experience in the observation of behavior so that they may recognize undesirable traits, to have training in the treatment of specific problems, and to know where to go for technical help in difficult cases. Asking children to fill out a rating scale on broad general behavior traits, such as loyalty and cooperation, without specific detailed definition is not a very reliable device for locating problem cases. Better results are obtained when the traits listed are carefully defined on a scale of values, such as the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Scales, the more detailed Winnetka Scale for Rating School Behavior and Attitudes, developed by Dorothy Van Alstyne, the Detroit Scale of Behavior Factors, the Comprehensive Individual History, the Diagnostic Child Study Record, and sociograms such as developed by the Division of Child Development and Teacher Personnel for the Commission on Teacher Education. Many of these incorporate data on the pupil's home life and related factors. A reliable way of studying a child intensively is the case study method, which gathers systematically all types of information from all possible sources and then coordinates these many items in such a manner that the case worker or teacher sees the child as a real, living individual reacting to many stimuli in a surveyed environment. The autobiographical letter containing a straightforward self-portrait is a valuable tool in the hands of a qualified diagnostician. Clinics are the best means of identifying behavior problem children and starting them on the right road to better adjustments.

Provisions for the Socially Handicapped. One of the main provisions for the socially handicapped is a constructive attitude on the part of all. The change in attitude toward youth and delinquency has been characterized by successive slogans: punish *him*, reform *him*, deter *him*, and guide *him* and eliminate *it* (delinquency). Genuine help and prevention are directed toward deep-seated causes.

> The basic causes of delinquency lie in unintelligent practices in school, home, and community. The child is given far too little constructive help in meeting his problems. He may be taught delinquent methods through subtle rewards and punishments administered by untrained adults, by his associates, and by his own lack of understanding of how to attain a realistic, exhilarating, and positive ideal of himself. The truly preventive program, therefore, requires classroom teachers who understand child behavior and development, parents who appreciate the child's needs, well-trained group leaders, and an enlightened citizenry that will not allow problems of poverty and housing to become severe. The preventive program provides rich opportunities for the child to learn about his own mental health.[25]

Thus does the National Society for the Study of Education in its yearbook, *Juvenile Delinquency and Schools*, outline a twofold program of helping the child in trouble and, at the same time, drying up sources of infection and changing them into constructive influences. All must help cut down the rate of production on the delinquency assembly line and speed up the development of personalities who live happily and constructively.

The specific treatment varies with the problem in such a marked degree that no single rule can be offered. Physical and mental examinations are very desirable for pupils who are extreme disciplinary problems. Psychiatric services are valuable. Group therapy serves to break down antisocial feeling and stultifying inhibitions. Many nonsocial children need assistance in making adjustments to their surroundings and associates.

The program of prevention and remedial work requires diversified activities and many types of institutions including the day school, parental school, and residential institutions.

Among the first cities that established public-school classes for delinquents during the last quarter of the nineteenth century were Cleveland, Chicago, Providence, New York, Indianapolis, and Newark, New Jersey. Some cities make definite provision for the segregation in special schools of those pupils who are socially maladjusted. Examples in Chicago are the Montefiore and Moseley Schools. An interesting experiment was the special class at the Little Red School House in New York City. Most

[25] National Society for the Study of Education, *Juvenile Delinquency and the Schools*, pp. 6–7, University of Chicago Press, 1948.

special schools have a longer day and term, with a very flexible program adapted to individual needs.

At the close of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the next came the establishment of parental schools, which stand *in loco parentis.* In addition to supplying home needs, such as boarding and lodging, these schools serve to educate delinquents or potential delinquents, whose out-of-school status demands special treatment. A typical parental school is the boys' farm established by the city of Cleveland near Hudson, Ohio. Many youth find adjustments very difficult to make if they remain in their old home environment. In restructuralization through habit formation it is often necessary to substitute a new environment, new associates, and vital new goals for undesirable old ones. A child's effort to improve may be neutralized by other factors. The actions of problem children may often be traced to parents and teachers. Social workers and visiting teachers with superior personalities and a rich socioeducational background can supply valuable contacts between the school and the homes of delinquent or truant children.

The first state institution for the socially handicapped was organized at Westborough, Massachusetts, toward the middle of the nineteenth century. Today residential schools for the socially maladjusted are found throughout the United States. Unfortunately in most cases their administration is separated from that of the public schools. Furthermore the traditional idea persists that the residents are offenders who must be punished and that the institution is correctional rather than reeducative and redirective in social living. Fortunately the objectives and procedures of many of these institutions are being altered. Incarceration gives way to education; the negative is replaced by a positive force. The return of the individual to the community as a fairly well adjusted person, capable of entering into normal life, is the recognized objective of all these schools. Today many states are removing a large number of delinquent girls and boys from residential schools, allowing them to attend a regular day school, and paying for their board, room, clothing, and other essentials in foster homes, where they return to a more normal form of living. The interest and understanding of the foster parents and the continued cooperation of the state in placement and follow-up are factors conditioning the success of such care.

In Berkeley, California, a coordinating council consists of representatives from the police department, the welfare society, the health department, and other agencies interested in the prevention and treatment of juvenile delinquency. The late Father Flanagan, who in 1917 founded Boys' Town in Nebraska, claimed that there never had been a bad boy. His remarkable success in his haven for homeless and abandoned boys helped to stimulate

nation-wide interest in a positive program for combating juvenile delinquency. J. Edgar Hoover, Director of the Federal Bureau of Investigation, has said: "We have youth in crime because we have failed to provide youth with proper outlets and upbringing. . . . Children are driven to crime because of deep-laid faults in society such as poverty, degeneracy, and because their elders neglect them." These problems involve a cooperative attack. The need for constant cooperation between school authorities and all public social service agencies is convincingly presented in the volume of the Educational Policies Commission entitled *Social Services and the Schools.* Through local, state, national, and international agencies, such as city councils, the State Departments of Education, the United States Office of Education, and the International Council for Ex-

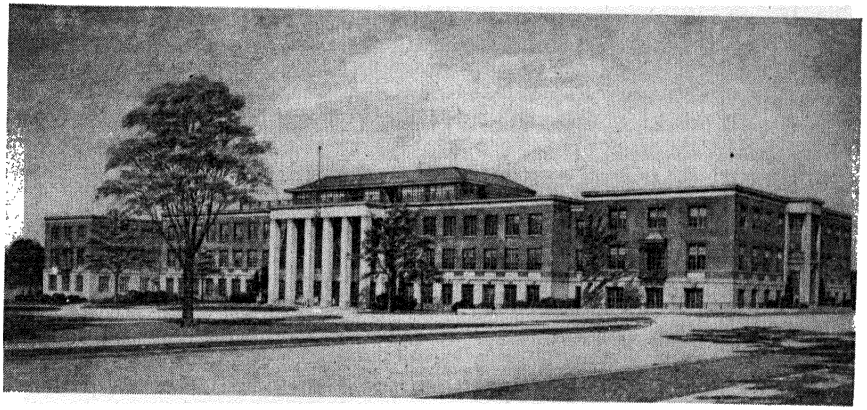


FIG. 10-12. Special Education Building, Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Illinois. This laboratory school is unique in that it is designed to house all types of exceptional children.

ceptional Children, better services can be developed for socially maladjusted as well as other pupils.

OTHER EXCEPTIONAL PUPILS

To the many types of exceptional pupils already mentioned may be added an endless array of pupils with special problems, such as those living on federal reservations, those in rural or sparsely settled areas, those in congested city neighborhoods, the overly ambitious pupils, the lazy, the irregular in attendance, the left-handed pupils, the emotionally unstable, the impaired in mental health, the children of minority groups, the members of low-income families, the children from migrant families, and the refugee children.[5] In connection with English refugees, the story is told of one little guest who was worried about starting school in America. He

wanted very much to go to school, but was worried, he said, "because, you see, I've never learned American!" Transportation, housing, and schooling have been provided here in recent years for many children fleeing from other shores. Unlike the totalitarian or so-called "ism" countries, which aim to regiment children and their thinking, the public schools in America seek to cultivate a profound respect for individual*ism* in society. A democracy believes that every individual—normal or handicapped—is important.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Explain what is meant by a "pupil-centered" school. Evaluate this concept.
2. Defend or refute the statement that the organization of a typical school respects the individuality of the child.
3. Describe the normal physical, mental, and social development of typical pupils in the elementary school, secondary school, and college.
4. Give a brief life sketch of some distinguished physically handicapped person, such as Helen Keller and Franklin Delano Roosevelt.
5. Explain provisions your state laws contain relative to the care and education of handicapped children.
6. Prepare a list of local organizations that cooperate with the schools in educating exceptional children.
7. List specific contributions that the medical profession makes to the welfare of handicapped children.
8. Describe a mechanical device that is a great aid in educating exceptional children.
9. Observe a class dedicated to the education of exceptional children, such as in a sight-saving room or a room for crippled children.
10. Study carefully one exceptional pupil, keeping a careful record of all pertinent data; also, one normal child.
11. List specific ways of helping a bright or a slow learner in school.
12. Explain how the teacher helps to discover the latent interests of children.
13. Describe what is meant by the "mental health" of the school pupil.
14. Examine police records to determine the type of school children who are brought before the court.
15. Visit a child-guidance clinic and observe the children and procedures.
16. Describe the particular problems presented by pupils who come from homes of foreign-born or mixed parentage.

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Accent on Use — Twenty minutes, 16 and 35 mm., sound

This film depicts how the forces of nature—heat, cold, light, water, and electricity—are utilized as adjuncts to the art of healing in infantile paralysis. It accents the role of physical therapy in restoring patients to health. Available for loan from the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, New York.

[26] The figures following the titles of the publications indicate the number of issues annually.

CONQUERING DARKNESS — Twenty minutes, 16 mm., sound

This film records the activities of the New Jersey State Commission for the Blind. It shows views of the department of education, home industries, industrial placement, Braille library, and sight-saving classes. Available from Emerson Yorke Studio, New York.

EPILEPSY—THE GHOST IS OUT OF THE CLOSET — Filmstrip, 45 frames, silent or sound

This filmstrip was prepared in cooperation with the Ohio and Tennessee Societies for Crippled Children. The complete packet contains (1) the picture story filmstrip, (2) a script that matches the frames, and (3) a public affairs pamphlet, *Epilepsy—The Ghost Is out of the Closet*. Available from Public Affairs Committee, New York.

FIRST STEPS — Eleven minutes, 16 mm., sound

This film, produced for the United Nations, shows the psychosomatic approach to the treatment of children crippled by polio and cerebral palsy. It won the academy award for documentary films. Produced by Frederic House, New York.

HEALTH EDUCATION FILMS AND FILMSTRIPS — 16 mm., sound

1. BODY CARE AND GROOMING — Seventeen minutes
2. THE NOSE, THROAT, AND EARS — Eleven minutes
3. THE BODY FIGHTS BACTERIA — Seventeen minutes
4. HUMAN REPRODUCTION — Twenty-one minutes
5. EMOTIONAL HEALTH — Twenty minutes

These films and strips, based upon Harold S. Diehl's *Textbook of Healthful Living*, are available from McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York.

LEARNING TO UNDERSTAND CHILDREN — 16 mm., sound and filmstrips

PART I. A DIAGNOSTIC APPROACH — Twenty-one minutes

PART II. A REMEDIAL PROGRAM — Twenty-three minutes

These films and filmstrips are based upon Raleigh Schorling's *Student Teaching*. An understanding teacher makes the most of school opportunities to improve the social and scholastic achievements of a maladjusted girl of fifteen, Ada Adams. Available with text from McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York.

THE SCHOOL THAT LEARNED TO EAT — Twenty-two minutes, 16 mm., sound, color

This is a film about the program for healthier diets instituted at an Athens, Georgia, elementary school. Produced by and available from the Southern Educational Film Production Service, Athens, Georgia.

TEACHER OBSERVATIONS OF SCHOOL CHILDREN — Filmstrip, 35 mm., color and 16-in. record

This film was prepared with the object of helping teachers to gain a better understanding of the health needs of their children, and of recognizing and reporting noticeable deviations from good health. Available for loan from the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, New York.

TRANSCRIBED RADIO PROGRAMS — Fourteen minutes, 10-inch and 16-inch records

"Hi, Neighbor," is a recorded radio program calling attention to the mental-health aspects of family life. Available from National Health Foundation, New York.

PREVIEW OF UNIT XI

TEACHERS

Teaching, the largest of all professions, permits the practice of idealism such as expressed by Henry Van Dyke in his tribute to the unknown teacher.

Teaching has undergone three stages of development, epitomized as training, preparation, and education.

Teacher education may be divided into two phases. The first, preservice education, involves the selection of students, in-college education, and certification and placement of teachers.

The second phase, in-service education, is concerned with internship in teaching, supervision, and other means of stimulating teacher growth.

The teaching profession collectively is interested in the welfare of its members, in professional ethics, and in professional organizations.

The teaching personnel includes classroom teachers, special teachers, those in federal jurisdictions and foreign countries, and teachers of teachers. A student may well ask: "Shall I become a teacher?"

Outline of Contents

Introduction
- The role of the teacher
- The unknown teacher

Development of Teaching in the United States
- Historical calendar
- Major stages of development

Preservice Teacher Education
- Recruitment and selection of students
- Types of teacher-educating institutions
- In-college education for teachers
- Certification of teachers
- Placement of teachers

In-service Teacher Education
- Internship in teaching
- Supervision of teaching and learning
- Other means of stimulating teacher growth

Teaching Profession
- Teacher welfare
- Professional ethics for teachers
- Professional organizations

Teaching Personnel
- Classroom teachers
- Special classroom teachers
- Teachers in federal jurisdictions and foreign countries
- Teachers of teachers
- Shall I become a teacher?

UNIT XI

TEACHERS

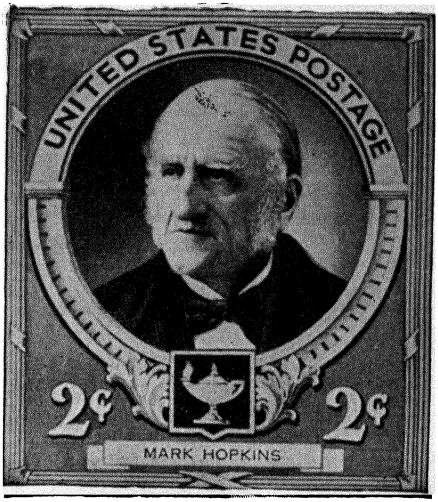
Wholesome pupil-teacher relationships are portrayed effectively in the following verse:

Mark Hopkins sat on one end of a log,
And a farm boy sat on the other;
Mark Hopkins came as a pedagogue
And taught as an elder brother.[1]

Many a successful pedagogue has taught as an elder brother or elder sister. The humanness in the teacher causes the boy on the other end of the log to resolve:

"The kind of a man I mean to be
Is the kind of a man Mark Hopkins is."

This desire of the pupil to imitate his teacher-friend is a genuine tribute. Unfortunately, as President Kenneth C. M. Sills of Bowdoin College has said, "We Americans have put too much emphasis on the log and not enough on Mark Hopkins. Excellent teaching in wooden halls is much better than wooden teaching in marble halls." Teaching has this supreme claim over all other professions: it permits one with broad human qualities to live creatively with youth.



(Courtesy of Nation's Schools.)

FIG. 11-1. Mark Hopkins memorial stamp. This stamp honors one of America's greatest educators. Hopkins, who for many years was professor of moral philosophy and president at Williams College, was elected to the American Hall of Fame in 1915. He possessed the unusual ability of inspiring and developing the latent powers of the individual student.

The Role of the Teacher. Numerically, teaching is the largest of all professions. Approximately a million persons in the United States are engaged in this field. Teachers play an important role in the drama of life, not merely because of their large numbers but also because they work with pupils of all ages. They are found in all the areas considered in Part II of this volume, *viz.*, pre-elementary, elementary, secondary, and higher learning, and education for out-of-school youth and adults. Furthermore,

[1] Arthur Guiterman, *Death and General Putnam*, p. 74, Dutton, 1935.

between the ages of five to eighteen or twenty-one youth spends more time with teachers than with parents. But the number of teachers, the number of years a pupil is in school, and the number of clock-hours he spends weekly with teachers do not make teaching a great profession. In the chapel at Wellesley College, Alice Freeman Palmer, professor of history and Wellesley's "incomparable president," is sculptured by Daniel Chester French as pointing her pupils to the heights. Hope and idealism make the teacher a great force in American life, despite the old barb: "Those who can, do; and those who can't, teach." In answer to this caustic comment, Oliver C. Carmichael of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching says:

> The idealism of the leadership in all phases of American life is more largely affected by the teacher than by anyone else. Hence the potential influence of those who *teach* is greater than that of those who *do* since the outlook, competence, skill, and motivation of the latter are derived in large part from the former.[2]

In other words, the doer could not do if the teacher did not teach.

The Unknown Teacher. It is fitting that Henry Van Dyke should have sung the praises of the Unknown Teacher.[3]

THE UNKNOWN TEACHER

I sing the praise of the Unknown Teacher.

Great generals win campaigns, but it is the Unknown Soldier who wins the war.

Famous educators plan new systems of pedagogy, but it is the Unknown Teacher who delivers 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 leads 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 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."

—Henry Van Dyke

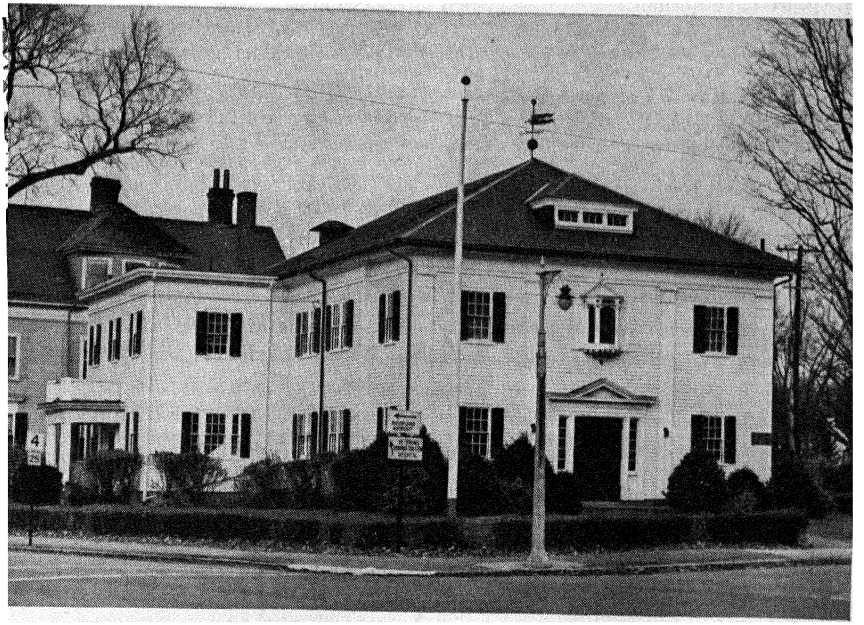
[2] Oliver C. Carmichael, *The Changing Role of Higher Education*, p. 52, Macmillan, 1949.

[3] Henry Van Dyke, "The Unknown Teacher," *Journal of National Education Association*, January, 1927, p. 15.

DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING IN THE UNITED STATES

Historical Calendar—Teacher Education and Contemporaneous Events

The chronological table in this unit juxtaposes significant events in the development of teacher education in the United States and other contemporaneous happenings of social, political, and economic importance.



(Photograph from E. I. F. Williams, Horace Mann: Educational Statesman, p. 206, Macmillan, 1937.)

Fig. 11-2. First state normal school, which was located at Lexington, Massachusetts.

Major Stages of Development

Teaching has undergone three not too well marked stages of development which have been epitomized by the terms: (1) teacher *training*, (2) teacher *preparation*, and (3) teacher *education*.

Teacher Training. The earliest teachers were not even trained: they taught or rather "kept" school by "rule of the thumb" or "with a heavy hand," without any specific practice or pedagogy. Gradually the need for definite training became articulate through the words and deeds of such men as Reverend Samuel R. Hall, who in 1823 established a private academy at Concord, Vermont, for the preparation of teachers; and Horace Mann, Edmund Dwight, and Reverend Cyrus Pierce–all real pioneers.

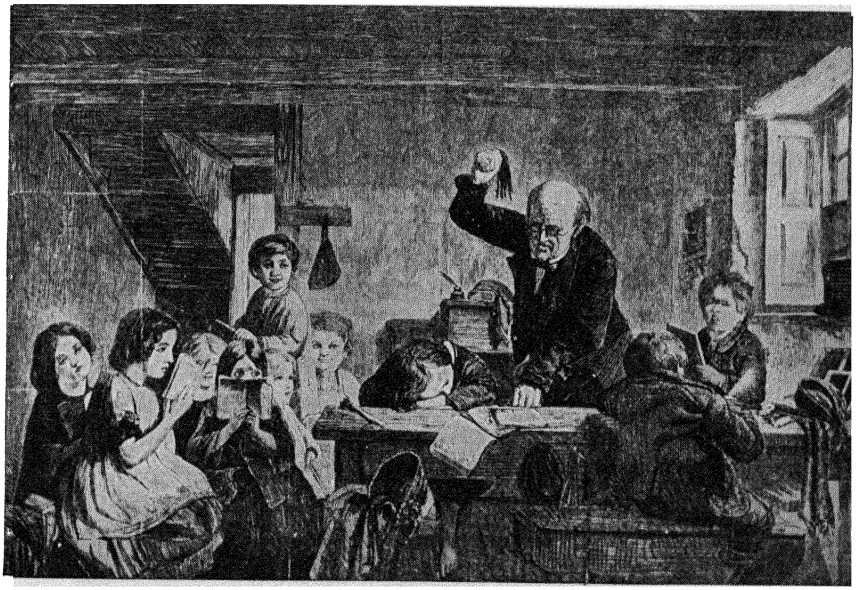
HISTORICAL CALENDAR

Teacher Education	Contemporaneous Events
1823—First private normal school started by Samuel R. Hall (Concord, Vermont)	1823—Monroe Doctrine initiated by President Monroe
1839—First state normal school established (Lexington, Massachusetts)	1839—Vulcanized rubber patented by Goodyear
1848—City normal school established (Philadelphia, Pennsylvania)	1848—Peace pact signed between United States and Mexico declaring Rio Grande as boundary
1857—National Teachers Association formed (later the National Education Association)	1857—Dred Scott decision handed down by United States Supreme Court
1873—First part-time chair in professional education created at University of Iowa. First permanent exclusively professional chair founded at Michigan in 1879	1873—Credit mobilier—one of the greatest political scandals—investigated by Congress
1887—Teachers College, Columbia University, established (New York City)	1886—Statue of Liberty, a gift from France, unveiled on Bedloe's Island, New York
1893—Normal school at Albany, New York, made Albany State Teachers College and given power to grant degrees	1893—Grover Cleveland inaugurated as President of United States for second term
1896—First state-wide retirement system for teachers adopted (New Jersey)	1896—Gold discovered in Klondike, Alaska
1899—Colonel F. Parker chosen principal of Chicago Institute (later School of Education at University of Chicago)	1899—More than two thousand lives lost in Johnstown flood in Pennsylvania
1909—First state teacher tenure law passed (New Jersey)	1909—William Howard Taft inaugurated President of the United States
1917—American Association of Teachers Colleges formed	1917—United States entered the First World War
1919—First meeting of Progressive Education Association held (Washington, D.C.	1919—United States failed to join the League of Nations
1930—National Survey of Teacher Education authorized by Congress	1930—United States represented at London Disarmament Conference

HISTORICAL CALENDAR (*Continued*)

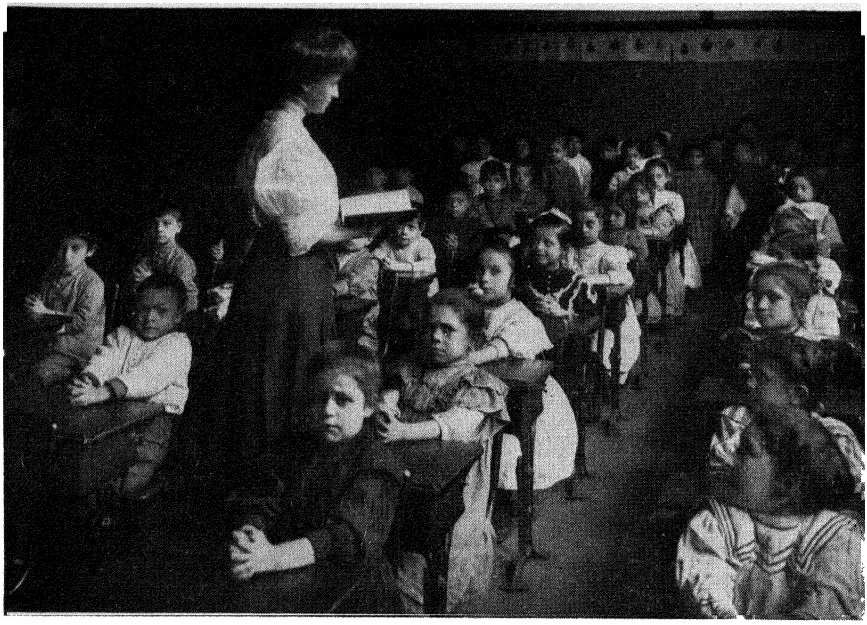
Teacher Education (*Continued*)	Contemporaneous Events (*Continued*)
1938—Commission on Teacher Education organized by American Council on Education	1938—Flight made by Howard Hughes and associates around the top of the world in less than four days
1946—British-American exchange of teachers inaugurated	1946—Commission to study control of atomic energy created by U.N.
1946—World Organization of the Teaching Profession started at Endicott, New York	1946—Meat price controls ended, and other wartime controls except rent relaxed in the U.S.
1948—Three teacher-educating groups merged into American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education	1948—Religious instruction on released time declared unconstitutional by U.S. Supreme Court
1950—The first issue of *Journal of Teacher Education* published	1950—Vienna, Austria art collection shown in 4 major U.S. cities

Pierce became the first principal of the first state-supported normal in the United States, located at Lexington, Massachusetts. In 1939 the nation commemorated the centennial of public teacher education, for it was on July 3, 1839, that three pioneering young ladies presented themselves for



(*Courtesy of Culver.*)

Fig. 11-3. In the olden days schoolmasters ruled the classroom, often with a heavy hand.



(Courtesy of Brown Brothers.)

FIG. 11-4. Then came the control of the prim schoolmistress.

(Courtesy of Public Schools, New York City.)

FIG. 11-5. Today the teacher as a leader directs the pupils in an informal atmosphere.

entrance examinations at the new normal school in Lexington. The enlightenment that came from this fire kindled in Massachusetts spread gradually to and down the Mississippi Valley and to the Pacific Coast. City school systems followed the lead of the states. In 1848 the city of Philadelphia, which as early as 1818 had been given the legal right to train teachers, established the first city normal school.

Teacher Preparation. The course of study at the Lexington Normal School was only 1 year in length; not until 1860 was the period doubled to 2 years. Many of the early students at normal schools attended only one term. Gradually it became apparent to educational leaders that teachers had to be *prepared* over a period of years rather than *trained* in a term of 11 weeks or a summer session or two. The quality as well as the quantity of instruction had to be altered. Instead of equipping the prospective teachers with a bag of tricks, it was necessary to prepare them for teaching and living with children.

For this purpose an institution with a higher rank than a 2-year normal training school was needed. The establishment of Illinois State Normal *University* in 1857 is symbolical of this upward reach in teacher preparation:

> It was set up as the unquestioned head of the state's educational system since there was at the time no state university. It was to prepare teachers for all branches of the common schools, including high schools. Its graduates were supposed to become educational leaders as well as elementary teachers. It was undoubtedly established as a *college for teachers* and to indicate its collegiate status it was called "The Illinois State Normal University." To the New Englander the term "Normal University" was an incongruous jumble of words, but in Illinois a "Normal University" meant a teacher-preparation institution elevated to the collegiate rank.[4]

The interest of higher education in the preparation of teachers was evidenced in the creation of education departments in colleges and universities. The first part-time chair devoted to professional training was established at the University of Iowa in 1873, and the first permanent chair at the University of Michigan in 1879. An institution that has markedly affected teacher education in America and abroad is Teachers College, established at Columbia University in 1887 by Nicholas Murray Butler, then professor of philosophy. A few years later the state normal school at Albany was given power to grant degrees. Toward the end of the century Colonel Francis Parker accepted the principalship of Chicago Institute which later became the School of Education, now the Department of Education, at the University of Chicago.

[4] Charles A. Harper, *A Century of Public Teacher Education*, p. 80, National Education Association, 1939.

Teacher Education. Teacher preparation stresses vocational training, whereas teacher education is professional education at its best. William Heard Kilpatrick stated that one *trains* circus performers, buffoons, and animals, but one *educates* teachers. A modicum of training is necessary, but the real outcome desired is teacher education, which is broader, longer, and deeper than teacher training. It affects all areas of living, it requires many years of learning, and it has its roots in a vital philosophy of daily living with children.

The current emphasis on teacher education has no definite starting point; it was latent in the minds of the early educators. With the beginning of this century the name National *Education* Association came into use as the official title of the national organization of teachers. A 3-year survey, authorized by Congress and conducted under the leadership of E. S. Evenden of Teachers College, Columbia University, was designated "National Survey of Teacher Education." Among its published reports are *Teacher Education Curricula* and *Education of Negro Teachers.* The special committee organized by the American Council on Education in 1938 was entitled "Commission on Teacher Education." The names and content of courses for teachers, and current titles of professional periodicals, such as *Teacher Education* and *Teacher Education Journal,* indicate this shift in emphasis from training to education. The latter may be divided into two major phases: (1) preservice and (2) in-service education.

PRESERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

Preservice education includes such factors as the recruitment and selection of students for the teaching profession, the in-college education of these candidates, their certification as teachers upon meeting the necessary standards, and their placement in teaching positions.

Recruitment and Selection of Students for the Teaching Profession

Recruitment. Driftwood is not the best educational timber. Frank E. Baker, former president of Milwaukee State Teachers College, stated:

> One of the first steps in securing better personnel is recruitment, but recruitment must be used only to get better people, not to increase enrollment or athletic tonnage.... American democracy cannot realize the ideal of the supreme value of the individual personality if it dedicates the teaching of its children to any less than the best of our manhood and womanhood, and we shall not be able to get the best until the teaching profession is placed on a social and economic level with other professions.

To this end many states have established scholarships for prospective teachers and established minimum salary schedules. The best human

resources available must be attracted into the teaching profession through an "up-grading" of student personnel.

In order to enlist in the teaching profession young people of high caliber, a national movement entitled Future Teachers of America was launched in 1938. The National Education Association, sponsor of this organization, has established a Future Teachers *Club* in each junior or senior high school where there is sufficient interest and leadership, and a Future Teachers *Chapter* in each college or teachers college interested in the improvement of the teaching profession.

Need for Selection. There is a marked trend toward continuous selection and elimination, which extends even into the period of in-service education. Medicine, law, and other professions have long been on the selective basis whereby the students must meet certain requirements before being admitted to training. Increasingly teacher-educating institutions are adopting policies of selective admission and retention.

Bases for Selection. The selection of students for the teaching profession is made usually on several of the following bases: the scholastic record of the applicant, participation in extracurricular activities, recommendation from the high-school principal, physical examination, quality of voice, use of English, personal interviews, personality ratings, and scores in a series of entrance examinations and aptitude tests.

The general characteristics essential to superior teaching ability are not revealed by a single measurement. Among the various devices for the prediction of teaching success are the Knight Teaching Aptitude Test and the Torgenson Test of Professional Information. Intelligence tests and psychological examinations are also used together with personality scales. A cumulative record covering the whole previous life of the candidate is also valuable. Selection should be viewed not as a single event but as a continuous process. The idea that any "good" young man or woman will make a good teacher must disappear.

Types of Teacher-educating Institutions

The main institutions for educating teachers are (1) normal schools, (2) teachers colleges, (3) departments of education, and (4) schools or colleges of education.

Normal Schools. The first normal schools were established in order to prepare teachers for the elementary schools. Students were admitted on the basis of their elementary-school record. The curriculum was usually a year in length and contained very little of what is now considered professional education. Today a normal school usually offers a teacher's course of less than 4 years. It may be a state, county, municipal, or high-school normal, all of which are part of the public educational system.

Several private normals prepare teachers for such fields as primary and physical education. Although there are still several normal schools in the United States, they are gradually disappearing in name and function, giving way to the nomenclature, philosophy, and organization of a teachers college.

Teachers Colleges. The teachers college is usually a degree-granting institution for teacher education which has replaced many of the old normal schools:

> The emphasis is shifting from teaching to learning, from teaching how and what and when to teach, to providing copious opportunities for prospective directors of learning to learn how pupils learn. Because there are so many skills and knowledges to be mastered by the prospective teacher, the period of preservice work is being lengthened from 2 to 4 and 5 years of work. The short period of teacher training becomes a longer span of teacher education. The old normal school has developed into a modern teachers college.[5]

Several interesting histories have been written of public teachers colleges. Among the outstanding private schools is Teachers College, Columbia University, concerning which the former dean, James E. Russell, has written his reminiscences. The largest private institution of this type with a wholly independent organization is George Peabody College for Teachers at Nashville, Tennessee. Nearly all states of the Union have established teachers colleges or state colleges with teacher education as one of their functions. Several of these grant masters' degrees, and a few award doctors' degrees. Whereas the old normal school trained teachers for elementary service only, the modern teachers college has spread its offerings to include the education of secondary and special teachers. Some educate teachers for colleges and universities.

Departments of Education. The liberal arts college usually includes a division known as the education department, with a professor as head and one or more teachers. The requirement in terms of hours of education is usually less than the minimum in teachers colleges. Student teaching may or may not be coupled with this program.

In some universities also the work in education is organized as a department, for example, the department of education at the University of Chicago. In some instances teacher education is a function of a department within a larger division such as social sciences or liberal arts.

Schools or College of Education. Professional work in the universities is usually centralized in a separate entity, the school or college of education. It may accept students at the beginning of the freshman year, at

[5] Chris A. De Young, "Mastering Skills and Knowledges," *Teachers College Folder*, National Education Association, 1938, p. 16.

the end of a period of general education in the sophomore or junior year, or for graduate work. An illustration of the evolution of schools of education is shown in the history of the University of Michigan, one of the first American institutions to offer education courses. Its first permanent chair in this field, established in 1879, was called "The Science and Art of Teaching"; in 1921 it gave way to a "School of Education." The latter has rank coordinate with other professional schools of the University of Michigan with its own dean and faculty, a separate budget, and its own degrees. In graduate work, however, the unit serves as a department of the graduate school. The matter of graduate study is treated further in Unit VIII.

In-college Education for Teachers

The teacher is an interpreter of the general culture; hence his preparation must include general education. He teaches some specialized subject or generalized field; hence he needs subject-matter or field preparation. He teaches learning pupils; hence he takes professional work in education and psychology, including student teaching. These three areas—general education, specialization, and professional education—are considered briefly here.

General Education. Teaching is a broad profession and not a narrow trade. Teachers are, therefore, expected to have a rich cultural background as a common denominator. The importance of general education for the teacher is stressed in the following two quotations from the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and the Commission on Teacher Education respectively:

> A broad education program to equip the student with a wide range of competencies is needed by him both as a person and as a professional worker. Many aspects of such general education are also part of the teacher's professional equipment. Students must be helped to see the interrelatedness between this general education and professional education.[6]
>
> Teachers should receive the best possible general education, not only in order that they may share in what ought to be the birthright of all young Americans today, but also because to them is entrusted considerable responsibility for the general education of all young Americans tomorrow.[7]

Certainly the general art of the free man and the citizen is especially required in the American democracy.

[6] Subcommittee of the Standards and Surveys Committee, *School and Laboratory Experiences in Teacher Education*, p. 61, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1948.

[7] Commission on Teacher Education, *The Improvement of Teacher Education*, p. 82, American Council on Education, 1946.

Specialization in Subjects, Fields, or Levels. Prospective teachers should complement a broad cultural and general education with specialization in terms of the subjects, fields, or levels in which they expect to teach. For the elementary school the preparation is usually in terms of grade levels and the subject and fields taught therein, whereas in the secondary schools the preparation is in subjects and fields. For teachers in the smaller high schools it is recommended that preparation be in terms of fields rather than specialized narrow subjects and that at least two fields be selected for possible work. In addition to specialization in academic work there must be concentration in child study and the methodology of learning and teaching, usually termed "professional" education.

Professional Education. The requirements in specific professional education are usually stated in terms of semester hours. A minimum in most states is 15 semester hours for certification; however, most teacher-educating institutions go beyond the legal minimum. A sample program of a teachers college that requires 28 semester hours in education and psychology for secondary-school teaching is as follows:

Courses	Hours
Observation and reading	2
Educational psychology	3
American public education	3
Methods of teaching	3
Schools and community relations	2
Introduction to philosophy of education	3
Electives in education and psychology	2
Student teaching and special methods	10
Total hours in education and psychology	28

In some colleges this professional work is concentrated in the last year or two, but in the majority it is spread over the upper 3 years.

An essential phase of professional education is actual experience with children. In the yearbook of the John Dewey Society, entitled *Teachers for Democracy*, one reads:

> The student must *know children and adolescents*—how they develop and under what conditions learning takes place. This involves knowledge of the child in the home and in the community as well as in the school. All teachers should know children and adolescents as members of a home. The program for the preparation of teachers should include participation in the home care of children, contacts with parents in the campus school, and cooperative planning with parents for parent-teacher meetings and projects.[8]

Some knowledge of pupils can be acquired through student teaching.

[8] John Dewey Society, *Teachers for Democracy*, Fourth Yearbook, p. 141, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1940.

An important aspect of preservice education is experience as a student teacher. Student or cadet or practice teaching, as it is variously termed, gradually inducts the prospective teacher into full responsibility of the teaching-learning activities under the skillful guidance of a supervising or critic teacher. This may well be the summation of all the student's work and the climax to a long period of steady initiation, including directed and undirected observation in the training schools and typical public schools.

Almost every teacher-educating institution provides facilities for students to experience actual teaching either in the campus laboratory school or in the regular public schools. The training school and student teaching will play increasingly dynamic roles.

Curricular Patterns in Teacher Education. These three areas are not organized into the same pattern. The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, in its report on laboratory schools, lifted out for illustration three types of curricular organization on the undergraduate level:

1. Four-year general and professional program, in which both general and professional education are spread through all 4 years.
2. Two-two program, in which the professional education is offered only in the last 2 years, the first 2 years being given to general education.
3. Professional sequence, in which professional education is concentrated in the third and fourth years with one or more professional courses in the first 2 years.[9]

Obviously other patterns exist, including experimental approaches with small groups. Upon completion of a recognized 4-year course the student is usually ready for limited certification as a beginning teacher.

Certification of Teachers

A teacher's certificate serves to protect its holder against unfair competition with unqualified would-be teachers; to give control over teaching personnel to the state and its subdivisions rather than to some other agency; to protect children against incompetent teachers; to provide a means for the improvement of instruction; and to yield information on which a continuous inventory of teachers and their qualifications may be based.[10]

All states require a license, certificate, or permit to teach in the public schools. Most states request a statement that the applicant for a teaching position is in good health. The minimum age requirement for teaching in some states is eighteen years. This is too low if teaching is to be a profession rather than a mere job. In general, standards for and proce

[9] Subcommittee of the Standards and Surveys Committee, *op. cit.*, p. 44.

[10] B. L. Parkinson, "The Certification of Teachers," in volume edited by T. H. Schutte, *Orientation in Education*, p. 422, Macmillan, 1932.

dures in certifying teachers ought to be improved. Edgar W. Knight states that "any real reform is likely to be delayed in the education and certification of teachers until we have had an end of adding machine and clerical bookkeeping devices both in teacher-educational institutions and the state agencies that license teachers."[11]

The better current practices include elimination of substandard or emergency certificates, 4 years of approved teacher preparation with a bachelor's degree as a minimum and with a fifth year as soon as possible, a probationary period of not less than 3 years under professional guidance, the discontinuance of permanent or life certificates, the centralization of certification in a state agency, reciprocity between states in certifying qualified teachers, and greater accent on qualitative competencies and professional growth.

Placement of Teachers

The educated teacher, properly certified or able to meet legal certification requirements, is ready for work. Will she or he receive a position? The answer depends upon several contingencies, not the least of which is the candidate's ability in self-salesmanship.

Placement Agencies. Positions in education are usually obtained through: (1) noncommercial agencies and (2) commercial or private placement bureaus.

The most important noncommercial agencies are those maintained by normal schools, teachers colleges, and universities for placing their graduates and alumni. The services are gratuitous, although a small fee may be charged to cover incidentals of registration. A member of the faculty is in charge and serves as a liaison officer between the employer and future employee. The National Institutional Placement Association is seeking to promote greater economy and efficiency in the placement of teachers by educational institutions. Other noncommercial bureaus are maintained by state departments of education, state education associations, and state employment services.

The commercial agencies, several of which are banded together in the National Association of Teachers' Agencies, are those private bureaus which locate positions for teachers at a fixed percentage of their first year's salary, usually 6 per cent. Thus if a teacher obtains a $3000 position she pays $180. Fees vary with the nature of the services rendered. Usually a registration fee is required in addition to the percentage charge.

[11] Edgar W. Knight, "Intelligent Teacher Certification," *School Management*, April, 1946, p. 22.

Studies of teacher supply and demand like that initiated in 1926 by the Bureau of Educational Research of Ohio State University are needed periodically. Typical studies are those of Irwin in Kansas and Schwiering and Reusser in Wyoming. At present the information available for estimating the demand is limited and spasmodic; furthermore, little is being done toward controlling the supply of teachers. Of course all persons who prepare for teaching do not secure employment. The outstanding reasons for failures in placement are as follows:

Inadequate preparation
Preparation in overcrowded fields
Too narrow specialization
No extracurricular experiences
Low grades in teaching subjects
Low grades in practice teaching
Poor personality
Untidiness in dress
Physical defects
Religious and racial discrimination

Most of these obstacles to placement can be surmounted through programs of selective admission and retention, limited enrollment, and guidance. Although affected by cycles of unemployment, the teaching profession has increased steadily. Including teachers in private elementary and secondary schools, and instructional staff members in all institutions of higher education, the teaching profession in the United States now numbers much more than a million.

Appointment to Position. The prospective teacher must remember that in order to be placed he must be appointed or selected. The appointment of teachers—a power that should be sacredly exercised—is usually made upon the bases of credentials, record in college, participation in extracurricular activities, personality, personal interview, and experience. Then, too, there is a growing reliance upon examinations. The American Council on Education, through its National Committee on Teacher Examinations, and with the aid of a grant from the Carnegie Foundation, launched a series of tests as part of a nation-wide objective basis for testing candidates for teaching positions. The best practice in employing teachers is that whereby the board of education appoints persons recommended by the superintendent. Where there is no school executive, as in the thousands of one-teacher schools, the appointment is made by the board or by the county superintendent of schools. A teacher seeking a position in a village or city school system should apply directly to the superintendent of schools, but, as indicated in Appendix XI-C, Ethics for Teachers, he should not apply unless there is a vacancy. After the candidate has obtained a position, he continues his growth through planned orientation and other phases of in-service education, a requirement that other professions do not have.

IN-SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

Internship in Teaching

In addition to the fact that it very vitally integrates the theoretical and practical aspects of the student's education, internship has many other significant values. It gives the beginning teacher a chance to spend the first year in a superior school under conditions conducive to growth, it provides guidance and supervision at the time when most needed, it makes possible a gradual transition from student to teacher, and it serves as a period of testing and probation. These values and others are derived from internship plans now conducted jointly by many institutions of teacher education and cooperating public schools.

Supervision of Teaching and Learning

Too brief preservice education necessitates much in-service learning. In contradistinction to preteaching, the in-service growth is more a result of doing than of listening. The essential bases for effective in-service teacher education are an inclusive outlook on the role of the school in modern society, an understanding of procedures in learning, the improvement of teaching skill, an appreciation of the role of administration, and, finally, the use of scientific procedures in education.[12]

One means of achieving multiple in-service growth for all teachers is through supervision. At first supervision was limited to matters directly associated with classroom teaching, but now it is extended to the entire field of learning and teaching. This guidance is provided by the superintendent of schools, the principal, the department head, the supervisor, or the teachers themselves. There is a marked trend on the part of supervisors to encourage self-direction for teachers. The helping teacher cannot assume the entire responsibility for the improvement of instruction; all professionally minded teachers are very desirous of self-guidance and development. To this end the supervisor is not content with a laissez-faire policy, but, with complete faith in their ability to advance, she stimulates the teachers to progress. She visits their classrooms less and less as they grow in self-supervision. Just as the modern instructor seeks to teach through pupil effort, so the modern supervisor strives to improve instruction through teacher effort. The endeavors of teachers to reduce pupil failures are likewise being matched by genuine attempts of administrators to decrease the number of teacher failures.

[12] John Dewey Society, *op. cit.*, p. 301.

Other Means of Stimulating Teacher Growth

Over the main entrance to the New Jersey State Teachers College at Newark is the quotation: "Who dares to teach must never cease to learn." No person should decide to teach unless he is resolved to *learn*, for the real teacher is a part-time student all his life in a continuation school

(Courtesy of Public Schools, Saginaw, Michigan.)

Fig. 11-6. Teachers intensely interested in the operations in the stereotyping room of a local newspaper in Saginaw, Michigan. During the fall planning conferences, the teachers in the Saginaw public schools observe various industries on visiting day. This is a valuable phase of in-service teacher education.

from which he does not graduate. Chaucer's description of the clerk of Oxenford applies to many an educator:

> Souninge in moral vertu was his speche,
> And gladly wolde he lerne, and gladly teche.

Learning to teach and teaching to learn are the goals of the artist teacher. The more one teaches the more educated he becomes. As Tennyson wrote:

> Yet all experience is an arch where-thro'
> Gleams that untravell'd world, whose margin fades
> Forever and forever when I move

An old Arab proverb pithily poses this paradox: "The greater the diameter of light, the greater the circumference of darkness." A teacher must grow if his pupils are to develop. Teaching as a profession will advance as long as the individual teachers continue to progress.

The teaching profession, as no other, provides a challenge to continued growth. Yet too many teachers are bound by self-satisfaction and calloused complacency—they do not stretch forward in the pursuit of perfection. On the other hand many of them work too hard, endangering their health. They neglect recreation possibly because they do not know how to relax or to enjoy wholesome avocations or helpful hobbies. Some teachers need a change of environment or rest. The granting of periodic fellowships to teachers has been recommended in addition to paying their salaries. These scholarships would permit a year of travel, further study, or rest for outstanding teachers. It has been suggested that schools employ a "sabbatical stagger plan" whereby teachers who have been in service to the state for a period of six years or more be given a year's or half year's leave of absence with half pay, while substitutes are employed at reduced salaries.

Among the types of in-service educational growth are these:

Curriculum building
Constructive supervision
Demonstration and school visits
Consultative service in school
Summer study
Extension and home study
Professional and cultural reading
Travel
Sabbatical leave
Exchange teaching
Workshops and clinics
Institutes
Professional organization and meetings
Panel method of discussion
Research investigations and surveys
Salary increments and scholarships
Retirement plans
Tenure legislation
Fall planning conferences
Teachers' meetings

Several of these avenues have been explored in the cooperative in-service programs of the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education. With adequate preservice preparation, continuous in-service education can be designed to cover limitless possibilities.

TEACHING PROFESSION

Teacher Welfare

It is natural that teachers as a professional group and as individuals should lookout for their own welfare as well as that of the children. Among the welfare factors in which teachers are usually interested are (1) salaries, (2) tenure, and (3) retirement.

Salaries. Skilled tradesmen earn more on the average than schoolteachers. Over a long stretch of time, salaries of teachers have steadily increased.[13] Costs of living have mounted appreciably, and the educational qualifications for teachers have also risen, necessitating a greater investment in preparation. The National Education Association states that teaching should pay enough:

To attract young persons of the highest personal and professional qualifications.
To hold in teaching those who, beginning with first-class qualities, continue to improve themselves through experience, travel, and further study.
To permit those who remain in teaching to live with the material and the cultural surroundings commensurate with their responsibilities to youth and to the state
To provide savings whereby those incapacitated by age or disability may retire in decency, making way for a new generation of teachers.

Chancellor Hutchins of the University of Chicago has said that society cannot get good schools without good teachers, and that by paying them like coolies society shows no respect for the teaching profession.

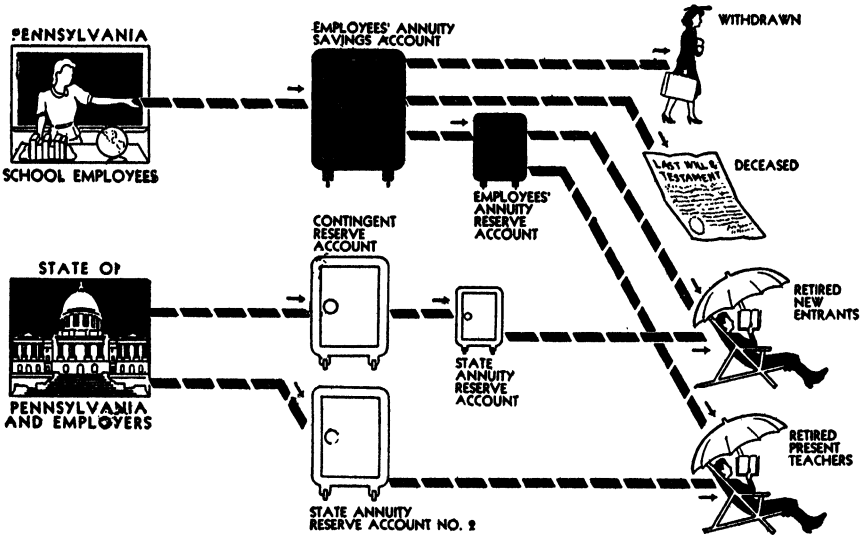
The minimum amount of salary varies widely from state to state. The fact that teacher salaries in some states are very low has given rise to agitation for minimum-salary laws—a floor under wages.

Most school systems adopt a salary schedule. This is a plan for the payment of school employees formally accepted by the school committee or board of education. To a large degree it automatically determines the initial salary, the amount and number of yearly increments, and the maximum salary received by the various employees with specified qualifications. Among the factors determining the place of the teachers on the regular salary schedule are amount of professional education, number of years of service, ratings on an efficiency scale, and position held. A salary schedule obviates the perennial question among teachers: "How much money do you get?"

Teacher Tenure. Another ever-asked question is: "How long have you been teaching here?" Because of the large turnover, teaching has been called a procession rather than a profession. As to length, a teacher's contractual relationships are usually annual agreement, permissive contract for more than a year, continuing contract, or permanent tenure. Insecurity of tenure or uncertainty of holding one's position has always been a handicap to effective teaching. The basic principles that should control the framing and operation of tenure legislation have been prepared by the National Education Association.

[13] Current statistics on teachers' salaries are published periodically by the Research Division, National Education Association.

Although legislation should protect teachers from discharge for political, religious, personal, and other unjust reasons, the laws should not prevent the dismissal of teachers for incompetence, immorality, or any unprofessional conduct. A too-rigorous tenure law may be a boomerang. The best tenure for teachers is that unsolicited security which is bestowed by an appreciative public for services sacrificially rendered beyond the call of daily duties.



(Courtesy of Research Division, National Education Association.)

FIG. 11-7. Pennsylvania's teacher retirement system. Pennsylvania has one fund called the School Employees' Retirement Fund, consisting of the accounts shown in the chart The transfers are merely bookkeeping matters.

A percentage of the school employee's salary, determined by actuarial investigations, is deducted from each pay roll and accredited to the Employee's Annuity Savings Account. The retirement board certifies annually the amount the state of Pennsylvania should contribute. The state pays semiannually into the Contingent Reserve Account for each new entrant, and into the State Annuity Reserve Account No. 2 for each "present employee." When a new entrant retires, an amount is transferred from the Contingent Reserve Account to the State Annuity Reserve Account.

The right-hand side of the diagram indicates that money is paid out when the teacher withdraws from the system, dies, or retires, either as a new entrant or as a teacher who was employed when the system went into effect.

Teacher Retirement. Another moot question among teachers and other professional people is: "When do you expect to retire?" or "What do you expect to do when you retire?"

In bygone years retirement was associated with physical or mental infirmities. Retirement provisions for aged and disabled employees originated as private or local enterprises on a charity basis. Today a different idea prevails: there is a growing sense of social and public responsibility

for old-age protection. Public responsibility for retirement of teachers began in cities and local districts. Establishment of these systems reached the peak about 1915. Since that time many local plans have become inoperative or have been absorbed by state-wide retirement or pension systems. New Jersey was the first state to enact provisions for a state-wide retirement system for teachers in 1896. The majority of states have since followed suit, also Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, and the District of Columbia. Figure 11-7 depicts the operation of a state system. Retirement systems are supplemented by many varied and interesting forms of teacher welfare evolved by individual states and cities. In 1927, the Council of the California Teachers Association, Southern Section, authorized the establishment of a home for retired teachers who could not finance themselves. The first home was a five-room bungalow; larger quarters are now in use. A few associations and cities have similar arrangements. The National Education Association has cooperated with local, state, and national groups in promoting the social security of teachers. Public-school teachers do not benefit from the retirement provisions of the Social Security Act.

Professional Ethics for Teachers

The groups with whom teachers come in contact in their work are the board of education, the administrators, the supervisors, the teachers, the nonteaching staff, the pupils, the parents, and the community. A profession can rise no higher than the code of ethics it adopts and uses daily. As guides in the relationships of teachers with other groups, such codes have been evolved by state associations and the National Education Association. A summary of the Code of Ethics for Teachers adopted by the National Education Association is found in Appendix XI-C.

Professional Organizations

Among the various ways in which educational organizations may be classified are these: by primary objective, such as the promotion of childhood education (Association for Childhood Education); by major function, such as the accrediting of schools (accrediting associations); by the significance of leaders in education (Horace Mann League or John Dewey Society); by type of membership, such as elementary teachers (Los Angeles Elementary Teachers Club); and by scope, such as geographical areas (Memphis Education Association or National Education Association). Because of their simplicity the geographical classifications, (1) local, (2) state, (3) national, and (4) international, are utilized here as a framework for outlining the professional educational associations.

Local Organizations. In some localities teachers are not organized at

all, but nearly all public- and private-school teachers do belong "to a whole or a part of a whole." This banding together serves many purposes. The Department of Classroom Teachers states that it is the peculiar function of local teachers' organizations to provide teachers with an opportunity to understand the problems of their respective communities and to acquaint the public in each community with the needs of its teachers and its schools. As stated by Willard E. Givens, executive secretary of the National Education Association, "In the local education association is found the growing edge of the organized teaching profession."

There is marked variation in types of groupings. Some organizations restrict membership to instructors in a certain field; others are open to all members of an educational staff of a particular school. No one type seems to predominate, although a single organization to include all teachers is growing in favor. Cities with more than one association often have a council, composed of representatives of each group, to look after common interests. Recent years have increased interest in and debate about the affiliation of local teachers' organizations with labor groups. This issue is presented later in Unit XVII. Suffice it here to state that teachers are becoming more sensitized to the problems of labor and that enrollments in teachers' unions have increased markedly in recent years.

State Organizations. The local unit may be organized as part of some larger whole, such as the county or state associations. Many of these are determined by fields, as social studies; by grade levels, as elementary teachers; or by function of personnel, as city superintendents. The main core of organized professional activity within the state, however, is the state-wide all-inclusive society, which is usually known as the State Education Association or State Teachers' Association. The usual purposes of these organizations, as indicated in their state journals and as reflected in their activities, are to perform on a state-wide basis what the local groups seek to do. There is a major emphasis on professional improvement of the members, the advancement of teacher and pupil welfare, service to the schools and communities in the state, particularly through legislation, and active cooperation with the associations of other states and national associations.

In recent years many state associations or state departments of education have set up long-term planning commissions, which seek to view education within the state with a telescopic vision rather than with a microscopic dissection of minute current problems. This movement is one of the bright spots on the educational horizon, especially since it is being matched by long-term planning on a national scale.

National Organizations. The *Educational Directory* prepared periodically by the United States Office of Education lists numerous educational or-

ganizations whose names begin with the word "National" or "American." All these and many others are nation-wide in scope. Although most of them represent some special field, they are permeated with large elements of common interest. In recent years many national agencies have made critical analyses of particular aspects of American public education. *The Directory of Deliberative National Committees* lists over 250 such groups which prepare reports on various school problems. The American Council on Education, composed of representatives from various national associations and educational institutions, is a significant coordinating body. This council, organized in 1918, has sponsored such important projects as the Commission on Teacher Education, the American Youth Commission, and the Commission on Occupied Areas. (See Appendix XI-A.) One of its important member organizations is the National Education Association.

The National Education Association, the all-inclusive educative organization, is also the largest teachers' association in the world. It was organized in 1857 when 43 educators gathered in Philadelphia and formed the National Teachers Association. The name was changed to the National Education Association in 1907, when it was incorporated under a special act of Congress. Its membership is now approaching the half-million mark. Its membership goal is expressed in the ideal: 100 per cent enrollment in local, state, and national associations, with every teacher at work on the problems of the profession.

In brief its purposes are these:

> The National Education Association is dedicated to the upbuilding of democratic civilization and is supported by the loyal cooperation of the leaders of the United States to advance the interests of the teaching profession, promote the welfare of children, and foster the education of all the people.

The National Education Association renders two kinds of services. First come those services that reach the members directly, such as the *Journal*, issued nine times a year, and other publications, as well as conventions of the National Educational Association in July, and of the American Association of School Administrators and allied organizations in February. These help to promote personal growth and educational research and to build up the common mind of the profession. The second type of service is indirect. Like the values which the citizen receives from his taxes, these benefits are often overlooked. An important function of the association is its campaign to create a public opinion that demands good public schools. It aims to elevate the character and advance the interests of the teaching profession and to promote the cause of education in the United States. It is not, however, an agency of the federal government.

The National Education Association, as an all-inclusive voluntary organization of teachers and administrators in pre-elementary, elementary, secondary, higher, and adult education, is a democratic institution. Its policies are determined by the representative assembly coming from all over the United States each summer in connection with the annual convention. This body consists of delegates elected by state and local organizations of teachers. The administration of the affairs of the association is handled by this representative assembly, a board of trustees, an executive committee, and a board of directors. The professional and clerical staff, working under the direction of the executive secretary, is housed in the association's own building at 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. (see Fig. 11-8). The association has 29 departments.[14] The following list prepared by the NEA omits the organizational names (association, conference, council, department), and gives only the field of professional activity:

Administrative women in education
Adult education
Art education
Audio-visual instruction
Business education
Classroom teachers
Deans of women
Educational research
Elementary school principals
Exceptional children
Health, physical education, and recreation
Higher education
Home economics
Industrial arts
Journalism directors of secondary schools
Kindergarten-primary education
Lip reading
Music education
Rural education
School administrators
School secretaries
Science teachers
Secondary-school principals
Secondary teachers
Social studies
Speech educatoin
Supervision and curriculum development
Teacher education
Vocational education

It has served the profession through such national commissions as the following: Legislation, Educational Policies, the Defense of Democracy, Safety Education, and Teacher Education and Professional Standards. It has allied organizations, such as the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, and it coöperates with many agencies, such as the American Council on Education and the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education.

[14] A short history of each department is published annually in the *Proceedings*.

International Organizations. Several organizations listed in the *Educational Directory* contain in their titles the words "world" or "international"; only a few can be mentioned here. The International Council for Exceptional Children holds annual sessions. The National Education Association has an active Committee on International Relations, which aided in the preparation of *Education for International Understanding in American Schools.* The World Federation of Education Associations was a pioneering organization in the field of world-wide general education. Nearly every

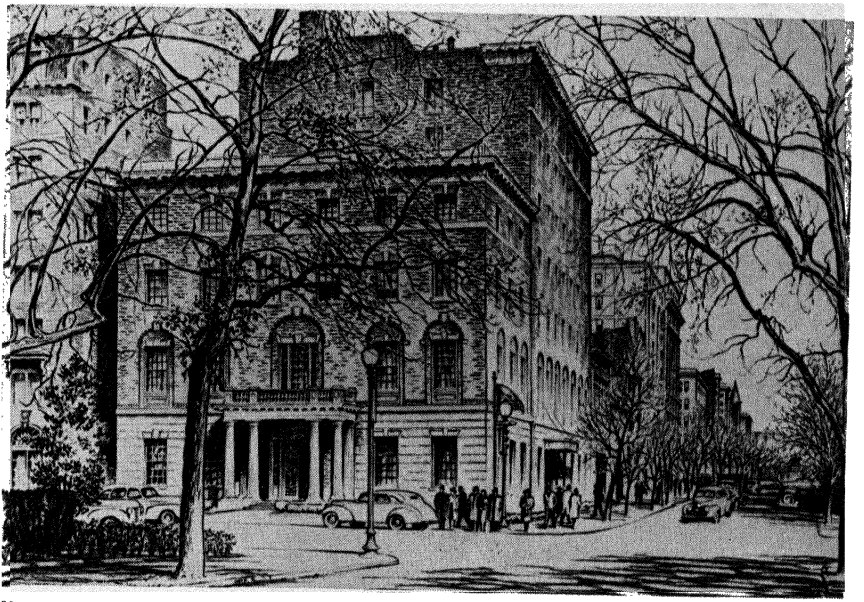


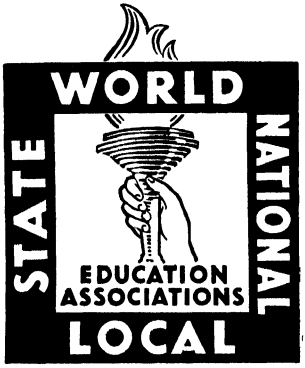
FIG. 11-8. Headquarters of the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. Located in the midst of an historic and important section of the capital city, it is visited by thousands of teachers each year.

land is represented in the World Organization of the Teaching Profession, which was organized in Glasgow, Scotland, in 1947. (See its constitution in Appendix XI-B.) This organization has been recognized by the United Nations as an official consultative body. As previously indicated, the United States has a National Commission for UNESCO—United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization—and is actively working with the United Nations in world-wide education. W. G. Carr states that WOTP is to UNESCO as the NEA is to the United States Office of Education.

The New Education Fellowship, which was founded in Heidelberg in 1918 with the main purpose of making education a "force for improving

the world order," is another world-wide organization. Still another is the International Association of Professors and Lecturers, constituted in Brussels in 1947.

Through educational organizations and publications, the teaching profession is constantly being improved and advanced. According to Mark A. May of the Institute of Human Relations at Yale University, "it is an open secret that in the hierarchy of respectability of professions in American society, the teaching profession ranks rather low." Through continuous and all-inclusive membership in strong, active organizations—local, state, national, and international—teachers can achieve the ethical, economic, and professional respectability toward which they are striving. Although the immediate purpose may sometimes be tinged with the minor motives of personal and professional profit and protection, nevertheless teachers' organizations at their best serve honorable means toward the worthy end of providing better educational opportunities for children through improving teaching personnel.



(Courtesy of National Education Association.)

FIG. 11-9. Four-square education associations—local, state, national, and world. Professional leadership upholds the torch of knowledge.

TEACHING PERSONNEL

Obviously most school positions are for teachers. The major types of teaching personnel described here are (1) classroom teachers, (2) special classroom teachers, (3) teachers in federal jurisdictions and foreign countries, and (4) teachers of teachers. Other persons engaged in educational work are treated in Unit XII.

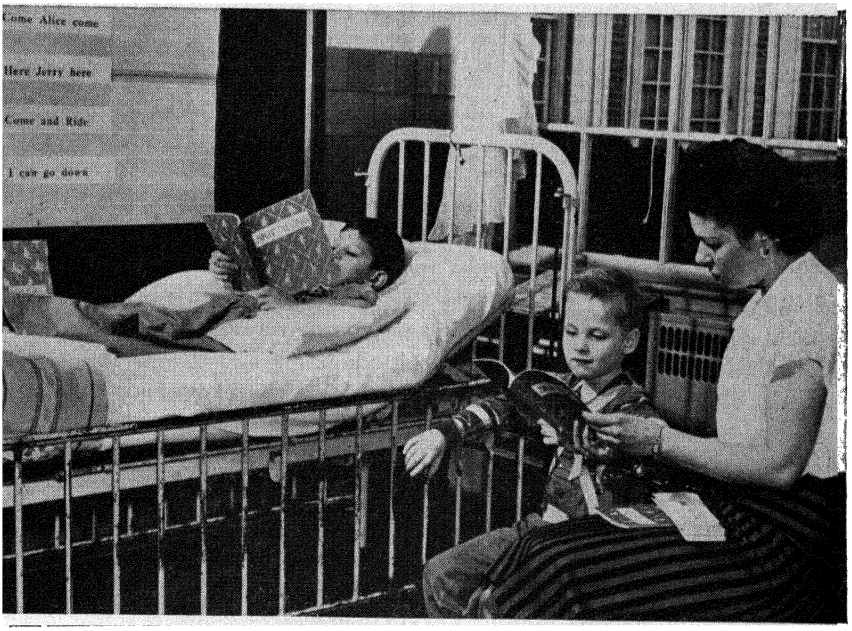
CLASSROOM TEACHERS

Opportunities for the largest number of persons are in what might be called straight teaching or classroom teaching positions. Although there are numerous private and parochial schools, the public-school system affords the largest number of these teaching positions. Classroom teachers are found in nearly all the institutions mentioned in Units I through IV, *viz.*, national, state, county, and local systems. They work in all the academic levels considered in Units V through IX, *viz.*, pre-elementary, elementary, secondary, higher institutions, and education for out-of-school youth and adults.

Special Classroom Teachers

Among the so-called "special teachers" are those who deal with (1) particular types of pupils, as the exceptional; (2) special methods or materials, as audio-visual education; (3) specialized subjects or fields, as vocational education; and (4) special institutions, as hospital schools.

Teachers of Special Pupils. Unit X centers around the two major types of pupils, *viz.*, the normal and the atypical. The former, because of their natural resourcefulness, ability, and ambition, may succeed in school and



(Courtesy of National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis and Toledo Society for Crippled Children.)

Fig. 11-10. Teacher in hospital school aids two crippled boys with their reading lessons.

life despite their teachers, but the disadvantaged pupils may be further handicapped in a marked degree because their teachers are inefficient or not specially educated for their particular tasks. The atypical pupils, especially those severely handicapped, need teachers expert in the special areas appertaining to the major types of exceptional pupil described in Unit X. The laws of most states stipulate that teachers of exceptional children must have specialized preparation and possess particularized teaching certificates.

Many educational institutions offer this special preparation. A number

of residential schools offer preparation for teachers of exceptional children, particularly of the mentally handicapped.

In addition to special education for the individualized work, the teacher of handicapped children should have patience, a sympathetic and thorough understanding of the principles and facts of physical growth, buoyant optimism, and a healthy social philosophy. Several thousand more teachers are needed for the large number of handicapped pupils in the public schools. In view of the specialized preparation, the exacting nature of the task, and the special state aid for such children, the salaries of these special instructors are usually higher than those of the regular classroom teachers. The monetary rewards, however, are insignificant in comparison to the heartful thanks of those who profit most—the pupils, many of whom have ears but hear not, eyes but see not, tongues but talk not, and feet but walk not.

Teachers with Special Methods or Materials. Among the teachers who devote full or part time to instructional procedures or materials of a special nature are those engaged in audio-visual or multisensory education. Schools of the air, made possible by radio, facsimile broadcasting, and television, will need many experienced teachers. Many schools have set up departments with directors of audio-visual instruction. Because of the close relationships between audio-visual education and the school curriculum, the directors and others engaged in this special work ought to understand thoroughly the curriculum and child growth in order to coordinate their efforts with those of the regular classroom teachers.

Teachers of Special Subjects or Fields. In a sense nearly every teacher works in a special subject or field. Each general subject or field offers many specific phases; for example, several different kinds of English are taught. As to English, Walter B. Pitkin states that there is always plenty of room near the top for persons who possess the uncommon blend of artistic sense and teaching skill:

> Proof is to be found in the well-known chronic shortage of good English teachers. Not a high school, not a college is satisfied with its teaching of our mother tongue. Most people who go in for English teaching can scarcely pen a fluent letter, let alone an article fit for publication.[15]

A shortage of superlatively good teachers exists in almost every area of learning.

A particular field that is increasing its number of workers is vocational education in all its phases—agriculture, home economics, trades, commerce, distributive occupations, and prevocational and vocational guidance. Much of the vocational teaching today is being done "on the job."

[15] Walter B. Pitkin, "New Fields for Teachers," *The Rotarian*, May, 1935, pp. 42–43.

Teachers in Special Schools. Many teachers are employed in special schools, like church and Bible schools, technical schools, correctional institutions, experimental centers, and hospital schools. The latter are briefly described here.

Some hospital schools are in private institutions, whereas others are in municipal or state hospitals. The services rendered in this type of teaching are manifold:

> The hospital school has three values: therapeutic, vocational, and general educational. By keeping the child's mind occupied and away from his misfortune it aids in physical recovery. It can assist the patient to select a vocation in keeping with his possible future physical condition and offers possibilities for training in that vocation. It bridges the gap in school progress caused by temporary hospitalization, enabling the pupil to keep up to grade, and for longtime patients it gives the child educational opportunities which would be otherwise impossible.[16]

It seems reasonable to expect that states will give increased financial and moral support to this type of teaching and that many positions will have to be filled in the years to come.

As to the qualifications of hospital teachers:

> Teachers in hospital schools need the same background of training required for normal children. Successful experience in teaching normal children is likewise desirable. In addition, some clinical training or experience would appear to be extremely valuable, but more important than this is the possession of personal characteristics conducive to the creation of a happy atmosphere and the stimulation of interest and effort in the hospital room.[17]

In many states the regular requirements for teachers in general apply to hospital-school instructors, although usually the latter are specially qualified or certified by the state superintendent.

The hospital schools are not merely for children but for adults as well. This type of work promises to increase owing to the individual and nation-wide interest in adult education, the circumstance that patients in hospitals have leisure time to devote to study, and in some cases the fact that the patients have to be rehabilitated in a new occupation.

Teachers in Federal Jurisdictions and Foreign Countries

A large number of teachers are employed or supervised by the federal government. Aside from the instructors in the nation-wide federally aided programs of emergency and vocational education, many persons teach in the federal reservations, in the territories, dependencies, and special areas of the United States. The nine geographical areas mentioned in Unit I,

[16] Clele Lee Matheison, *Hospital Schools in the United States*, p. 45, Superintendent of Documents, 1939.

[17] *Ibid.*, p. 55.

and the officials or offices handling information concerning teaching appointments, are:

1. District of Columbia: Superintendent of Schools, Washington, D.C.
2. Alaska: Commissioner of Education, Juneau
3. Hawaii: Superintendent of Public Instruction, Honolulu
4. Guam: Department of Education, Agaña
5. Puerto Rico: Commissioner of Education, San Juan
6. Samoa: Superintendent of Education, Tutuila
7. Panama Canal Zone: Panama Canal Office, Washington, D.C.
8. Virgin Islands: Superintendent of Education, St. Thomas
9. Trusteeship Islands and Occupied Countries: U.S. Navy, Army, and State Department, Washington, D.C.

In some of the dependencies, only natives or resident white people are employed as teachers.

Exchange Teachers. Another opportunity to teach away from home is provided by exchange teaching. Exchanges in teaching personnel are made between cities and between countries, usually for a 1-year period. The purposes of these temporary transfers are to trade educational and social ideas; to dissolve provincialism; to foster better feeling between sections of the United States and between various countries; to understand better the countries of the world; and to promote a broader outlook on the part of students, faculties, and communities. Teaching experience is usually a prerequisite for appointment as an exchange teacher.

Teachers of Teachers

Thousands of persons are engaged in teaching teachers, including work in public and private schools, normal schools, teachers colleges, and departments and schools of education in colleges and universities. Among the positions are those held by critics or supervisors of cadets in teacher-educating institutions or in affiliated schools, and by members of the various departments in colleges and universities, especially education and psychology departments. Opportunities for entering this work are thus available on all academic levels, from preservice education of prospective teachers for the nursery schools to the in-service education of faculty members in graduate schools.

The minimum academic requirement is a master's degree, with some courses in education and psychology, and practical experience in public schools. Increasingly, actual school experience is required of supervising teachers and regular collegiate staff members in order that they may be familiar with the needs of prospective teachers in these schools. The supply of new capable supervisors of student teachers is very limited. The supreme challenge to engage in teacher education lies in the unsur-

passed opportunities to multiply oneself, since an instructor of prospective or regular teachers potentially reaches thousands of pupils. A teacher of teachers is also an indirect teacher of pupils.

Shall I Become a Teacher?

This unit on teachers concludes with the significant question, "Shall I become a teacher?" On this subject Joy Elmer Morgan wrote: "Your answer concerns not only you but in a most vital way the lives of hundreds and even thousands who for better or for worse will sit at your feet if you choose to devote yourself to the teaching profession, which both in numbers and influence is one of the major occupations of modern times."

Any person conscientiously seeking an answer to the query, "Shall I become a teacher?" should ask himself many other questions, since teaching is a complicated process involving numerous variables.

Personal. Among other queries the prospective teacher asks:

Have I a sound body, physical vigor, and good posture?
Have I good mental health and emotional maturity?
Can I cultivate a sound philosophy of life?
Do I have a constructive and positive outlook on life?
Have I sense of humor?
Have I a balanced ration in hobbies: mental, physical, social, and aesthetic?
Do I like books and other instruments of culture, such as art and music?
Have I a broad background of helpful information and useful skills?
Have I intellectual curiosity and a zeal for scholarship?
Do I or can I cultivate the habitual use of effective English?
Is my voice pleasant and audible?
Is my personal appearance attractive?
Is my pattern of thinking, speaking, and living such as to justify emulation by my students?

Social. Realizing that the teacher deals primarily with human beings, the candidate for teaching asks:

Do I cultivate a friendly, interested, and courteous manner?
Is my "personality quotient" adequate for dealing daily with human beings?
Am I able to get along with people in an interdependent society?
Can I lead or follow as the occasion demands?
Can I work cooperatively with my colleagues?
Do I enjoy working with children and young people?
Am I interested in and capable of directing some phases of the school's cocurricular or extracurricular life?
Have I sufficient training in the social graces and niceties of group living?
Do I possess or can I develop a talent for friendship?
Have I a capacity for sympathetic understanding?

Am I sufficiently sensitized to human needs?
Do I believe in the improvability of the human race?
Am I vitally interested in promoting democracy through education?
Am I interested in community, state, national, and international welfare?
Do I see and feel the interdependence of school and society?

Professional. As a prospective member of a great profession, the candidate for admission asks:

Have I adequate physical vitality to meet the strenuous demands of teaching?
Have I the high moral and ethical standards demanded by the teaching profession?
Have I a basic understanding of children and of the techniques and skills of teaching and learning?
Can I organize materials and activities so that pupils will learn economically and effectively?
Can I teach others how to learn for themselves?
Am I afraid of hard work that brings few monetary rewards?
Can I dedicate myself to a profession that is devoted to the ideals of service and sacrifice?
Would I rather earn my living by teaching than in any other way?
Am I willing and able to prepare for and grow in my profession through a functional program of teacher education?
Can I enter an old profession such as teaching with a pioneering spirit and zeal for creativeness?

All these questions need not be answered in the affirmative instanter, but the prospective teacher who looks forward toward a *career* in his profession must constantly be alert to the present and future implications of these and other queries of a personal, social, and professional nature.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Give a brief history of the life of some great teacher or describe a teacher who helped you greatly.
2. Prepare a history of some institution engaged in teacher education.
3. Explain the purpose and program of the Future Teachers of America.
4. Debate selective admission for institutions engaged in teacher education.
5. Prepare a list of some commercial agencies that place teachers, and investigate their agreements.
6. Write a letter of application for a teaching position.
7. Examine the certification requirements for teaching in your state.
8. Describe some organized means for in-service education of teachers.
9. Make an annotated list of the best professional magazines available in your teaching field or area.
10. Defend your answer to the question, "Is teaching a profession?"
11. Compare codes of ethics of other professions with that for teachers found in Appendix XI-C.
12. Prepare a history of the National Education Association or the American Council on Education.

13. Make a list of educational organizations in your state.

14. Visit the headquarters of your state educational association.

15. Examine the laws of your state dealing with teacher tenure, salaries, and retirement.

16. Describe the best elementary- or secondary-school teacher you know.

17. Interview an experienced teacher as to the handicaps and rewards of teaching. List in two parallel columns on one sheet the disadvantages and the advantages of teaching.

18. Visit a teacher of special pupils.

19. Investigate the opportunities and rewards in teaching in a federal jurisdiction, such as the District of Columbia or the Hawaiian Islands.

20. Investigate the types of positions available for teachers of teachers.

21. Make a critical self-evaluation to determine whether you should enter or remain in the teaching profession.

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Official organ of the American Federation of Teachers.

Journal of Teacher Education (4)
Issued by NEA's Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards.

Journal of the National Education Association (9), *NEA News*, *The Public and Education*
Official organs of the National Education Association.

Local, State, or Regional Journals
A large number of local, state, and regional journals published in the interests of the teaching profession.

News Bulletin (3)
A bulletin published by the Department of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association.

Novels
Among the many novels about teachers are Loula Grace Erdman's *Separate Star* and *Fair Is the Morning*; Paul Eldridge's *And Thou Shalt Teach Them*; and Elizabeth Yates's *Nearby*.

Periodicals for Teachers of Handicapped Children
See the list of periodicals at the end of Unit X.

Periodicals in Religious Education
Catholic Educational Review, *Catholic School Journal*, *Christian Education*, *Christian Education Magazine*, *International Journal of Religious Education*, *Lutheran Education*, *Religious Education*.

Periodicals of Honorary Educational Organizations
Official periodicals of education fraternities, such as Phi Delta Kappa, and sororities, such as Pi Lambda Theta.

Periodicals of Institutions for the Education of Teachers
Numerous journals issued by teacher-educating institutions, such as the *Harvard Educational Review* and *Teachers College Record* (Columbia University).

Proceedings and Yearbooks
Proceedings of the annual meetings of the National Education Association and yearbooks of the several departments. Also proceedings of the World Organization of the Teaching Profession.

[18] The figures following the titles of publications indicate the number of issues annually.

Research Bulletins (5)

Several bulletins on teacher welfare by the National Education Association.

The Newsletter

Issued periodically by the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education.

Audio-visual Aids

Assignment: Tomorrow — Twenty-five minutes, 16 mm., sound

This documentary film was produced by the National Education Association. It deals with tomorrow's most exciting assignment—that of teaching children. The cast of characters consists of typical American children and their teachers. If not available from the state education association, it can be obtained from the National Education Association, Washington, D.C.

Broader Concept of Method

Part I. Developing Pupil Interests — Thirteen minutes, 16 mm., sound

Part II. Teacher and Pupils Planning and Working Together — 16 mm., sound

See end of Unit VII for descriptions of these films.

Cheers for Miss Bishop — Ninety-five minutes, 35 mm., sound

This film was produced some years ago by United Artists from the book of the same title by Bess Streeter Aldrich. The heroine, Ella Bishop, is a teacher. She enters a midwestern college as a freshman, becomes a teacher of English at the same institution, and retires triumphantly after a long career in one of the noblest of professions. Available from United Artists.

Goodby, Mr. Chips — One hundred fourteen minutes, 35 mm., sound

This film chronicle of Mr. Chips's years at the Brookfield School is based upon James Hilton's story of the same title, written some years ago. Though somewhat sentimental, it shows the human side of the grand old man the students loved.

The Hoosier Schoolboy — Sixty-two minutes, 35 mm., sound

A moving story of the affection of a young boy for his shell-shocked father who has taken to drink, but who is rehabilitated through the efforts of his son's teacher. Available from Ideal Picture Corporation.

Maintaining Classroom Discipline — Fourteen minutes, 16 mm., sound

See end of Unit VII for a description of this film.

Teachers for Tomorrow — Twenty-two minutes, 16 mm., sound

This film, produced by the University of Wisconsin, is designed to give high-school seniors and prospective teachers a better idea of the course in teacher education at the University. Available from the University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.

You and the NEA — Filmstrip, 98 frames, sound, color

This filmstrip tells the story in color and sound of the services of the National Education Association to the children and teachers of the nation. Available on loan from the National Education Association, Washington, D.C.

PREVIEW OF UNIT XII

OTHER PERSONNEL

In addition to classroom teaching, described in Unit XI, many other opportunities for service are available in American education.

Among the semiteaching personnel are part-time teachers, such as substitutes; off-campus leaders, as extension workers; personnel workers, as guidance and placement officials; and other specialists, including curriculum and research directors.

Many positions in the higher salaried group are of an administrative and supervisory nature. These positions are found in elementary, secondary, and higher education.

From professions other than teaching come many educational workers, such as librarians, doctors, nurses, accountants, architects, lawyers, and social workers.

Among the other nonteachers employed in public education are clerks, cafeteria workers, school custodians, bus drivers, publishers, salesmen, and day laborers.

Outline of Contents

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- Varied opportunities in education

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- Librarians
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UNIT XII

OTHER PERSONNEL

The following story is taken from a bulletin of the United States Office of Education:

> Set in the wall of the main corridor of a public school in a small city of Iowa is a bronze tablet bearing, in low relief, the heroic likeness of a man and the inscription—"He gave thirty-two years of faithful service to the youth of this community." From the dedicatory program we learn that the tablet was placed "by its hundreds of donors with the belief that all those who shall frequent these halls in the years to come will be inspired, as we who present it were inspired, by him."
>
> This superior personage, so memorialized, was not a member of the board of education; he was not a superintendent; not a principal; nor an exceptional teacher, but the school janitor or custodian.[1]

The janitor is usually one of the many forgotten men and women who daily serve the youth in school.

Varied Opportunities in Education. In the average mind those adults who are associated rather exclusively with the learning of children are the classroom teachers. For many nonclassroom positions of significance in education, classroom teaching is a prerequisite, but many persons in education work are not directly engaged in teaching. No one can overestimate the importance of teachers, but neither should he ignore or forget the hundreds of other educational workers. Unfortunately the emphasis in recruitment of personnel for public education has been unbalanced—it has been delimited to the customary and established positions such as classroom teaching and has not revealed the wide range of educational activities in which careers have been established or are now emerging. This has tended to inhibit social progress and to drive away from educational service many talented persons.

There are now several hundred different positions in education. Approximately fifty types of educational work are described briefly in Units XI and XII. No rigid groupings can be made, since duties overlap, but the educational employees are listed under the following major types:

1. Teaching personnel—especially classroom teachers (see Unit XI)
2. Part-time and semiteaching personnel
3. Administrative and supervisory officers
4. Educational personnel from other professions
5. Other nonteaching personnel in education

[1] James Frederick Rogers, *The School Custodian*, p. 1, Superintendent of Documents, 1938.

Teaching personnel, especially classroom teachers, are described in Unit XI. The pages that follow are concerned primarily with those persons engaged in educational work other than full-time classroom teaching, as listed in the four remaining divisions.

PART-TIME AND SEMITEACHING PERSONNEL

Many educational workers do not devote a full school year or their entire time to teaching. Those who are not administrators may be grouped in four categories, *viz.*, (1) part-time teachers, (2) off-campus workers, (3) personnel workers, and (4) other specialists. Various persons within these groups are described briefly.

Part-time Teachers

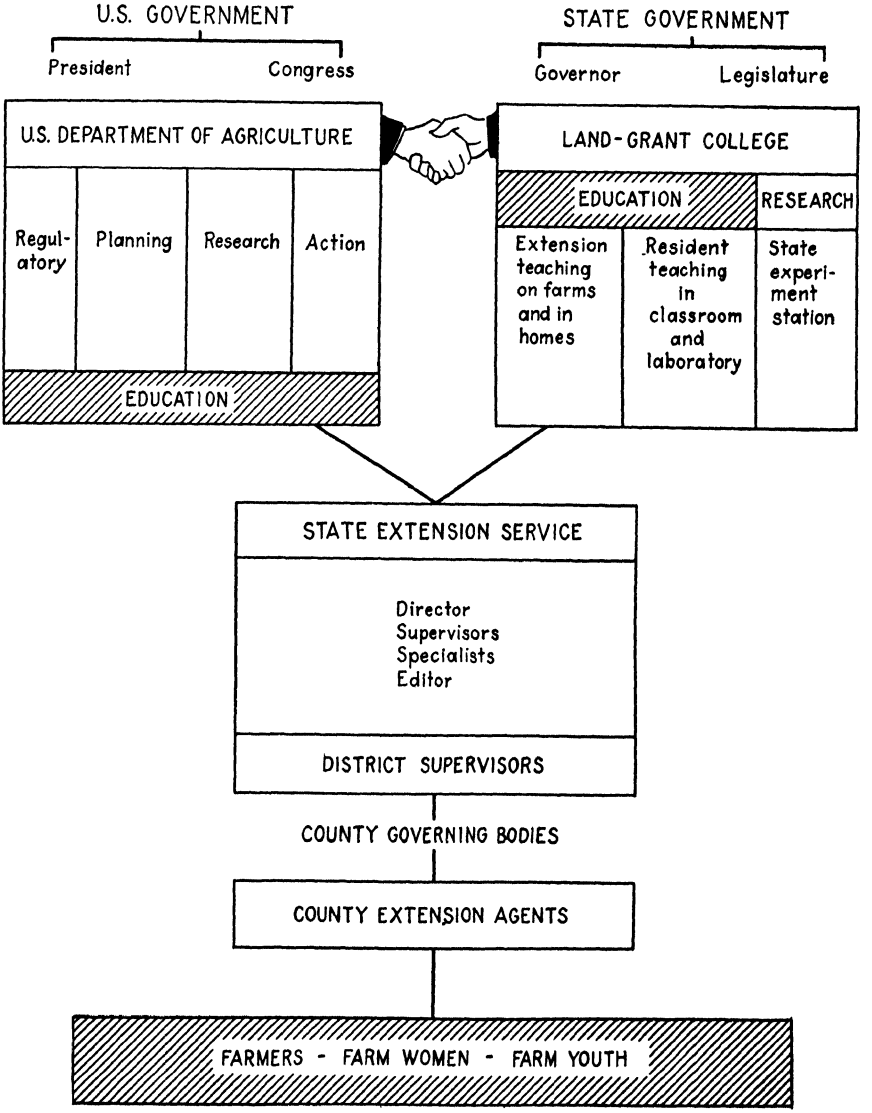
Substitute teachers. Opportunities for many persons, particularly married women, are afforded by part-time instruction in the form of substitute teaching. Occasional teachers should be carefully chosen according to definite standards. The fact that an unemployed person who taught 20 years ago needs a few dollars should not be the sole basis for selection. The candidate for substitute teaching is usually required to fill out and file with the superintendent of schools an application blank giving data as to education, ability, past experience, and certification. The applicant is also subject to an oral interview before being placed on the eligibility list. Adequate preparation is essential, since a poor substitute in one day may undo a week's work of the regular teacher.

Other Part-time Teachers. Among others who give a portion of their time to instruction are those special teachers employed for only a part of a day or week on a regular schedule. For example, a special music teacher may work a few hours daily; in college a specialist from the business world may teach an economics class or an expert surgeon may serve part-time as a special lecturer in certain aspects of surgery. Teaching provides part-time employment for many persons.

Off-campus Workers

Extension Workers. Many college and university instructors devote part of their time to teaching extension work. One important type of off-campus activity is the Cooperative Extension Service which involves the federal government through the United States Department of Agriculture, the federal government and the states through their land-grant colleges, the counties through their governing boards, and the local communities through their cooperating organizations and committees (see Fig. 12-1). All workers must be approved by the state and federal officials. This approval makes them employees of the agricultural college, which acts

for the state, and of the United States Department of Agriculture. Several members of the federal Extension Service devote themselves to extension administration, research studies, and teaching; an additional number are engaged in visual instruction and editorial activities. Foremost in the



(Courtesy of United States Department of Agriculture.)

FIG. 12-1. Organization of the cooperative extension services in agriculture and home economics.

Cooperative Extension Service are the resident agents in the counties and their assistants, *viz.*, the agricultural adviser, usually called the county agent; the home demonstration agent; and the boys' and girls' club agents or counselors. The National Association of County Agricultural Agents has recommended that county agents pursue systematic graduate study as a part of their activities. It is significant that the Advisory Committee on Education stated: "Everywhere in the Extension Service the work is considered as teaching."

Other Off-school-ground Workers. Today many others of the educational personnel spend much of their time away from the school grounds. For example, the coordinators in the federally aided vocational plan are constantly making contacts with employers and workers. Some of the personnel workers mentioned later spend much of their time in homes, fields, and factories.

Personnel Workers

This unit and the preceding two deal with the personnel of American public education, including pupils, teachers, and other workers. Obviously many employees are especially delegated to tasks that deal almost entirely with the human or personal agents in education. This very important group, segregated here as personnel workers, includes (1) visiting teachers, (2) attendance officials, (3) guidance personnel, (4) placement officials, (5) deans of boys and men, (6) deans of girls and women, and (7) recreational leaders. These are singled out from a larger number for special emphasis in the succeeding pages.

Visiting Teachers or Counselors. A challenging form of service with dual duties is that performed by a visiting teacher or counselor, who acts as educator and social worker. Since she works with the two groups of adults who have the greatest influence on the child, *viz.*, parents and teachers, the visitor with her dual contacts is able to study the child as a product of both home and school. As a member of the teaching staff, she works closely with the school, and, as a social worker, she cooperates with existing social agencies. In many instances the visiting teacher is the home teacher or counselor. She is the representative of the classroom teacher in dealing with the pupil who must for physical or other reasons remain at home. As a social worker, she knows the organized social agencies upon which she can call for assistance in the material needs of the underprivileged pupil and his family. The visiting teacher also calls in the homes of well-adjusted, successful pupils.

The role of the visiting or home teacher requires insight, skill, conversational ability, a high degree of personal fitness, and the twofold basic training and experience of a teacher and a social case worker. Through a

well-qualified visiting teacher the school looks *out* as well as *in* and stresses preventive as well as remedial procedures for normal and problem pupils. Visiting teacher work has its hardships, like any profession. The hours are irregular, including calls in the evening and often on Saturday and Sunday. Furthermore, tackling one serious problem after another brings a certain discouragement, and the constant handling of children's difficulties means a drain on the emotions. Despite these hardships, visiting teachers all over the United States are finding and losing themselves in this new educational profession.

Attendance Officials. Among the employees of the school district are full-time or part-time census enumerators and attendance officials. Sometimes these two functionaries are combined in the same person, who may also be engaged in teaching. Although the trend is toward the establishment of a continuous school census, the enumeration of pupils of school age usually is a periodic task, especially in the small cities.

The enforcement of attendance is a continuous obligation assigned to full-time workers in the larger school administrative units. These personnel workers are relatively recent in certain areas, for only since 1918 have all the 48 states had compulsory attendance laws. In the early days these employees were called "truant officers." Current practice favors a title such as "attendance worker," since it emphasizes the positive philosophy of improving the attendance of all pupils rather than the negative and often temporary remedy whereby a burly policeman caught a truant and dragged him back to school. The old practice aimed at making the pupil conform to the school laws, whereas the modern objective implies the willingness of school authorities to adjust the program to the pupil's peculiar needs, interests, and abilities.

Whereas an officer's badge and knowledge of school laws were formerly the prerequisites for an attendance worker, now the qualifications demand an understanding of child welfare problems and social case work. A national organization of attendance officers as well as state and local agencies are trying to raise the present level of school attendance service so that it will attract a competent personnel. The attendance supervisor should be a well-balanced, dynamic person, broadly experienced and adequately trained.

Guidance Personnel. Marked improvement in school attendance results from the adoption of guidance programs. Many persons are employed in this work which has been defined previously as "seeing through John and then helping John to see himself through." It involves studying an individual, learning his capacities, needs, and interests, guiding his efforts, and then seeing him through until he obtains a position and succeeds in it. Guidance ought to be systematic and functional so that students

will not make important educational decisions, vocational choices, and life adjustments on mere guesses, false assumptions, or meager information.

It is desirable for the counselor to have had experience as a classroom teacher. The Joint Committee on Counselor Preparation stated that adequate training for this position should include graduate work in the following areas:

1. Philosophy and principles of guidance and counseling
2. Growth and development of the individual
3. Techniques used in the study of the individual for the purposes of counseling
4. Techniques in collecting and using occupational, educational, and other information
5. Techniques used in counseling
6. Administrative and community relationships
7. Supervised experience

Training is adjusted to the type of counseling.

One type of specialized counseling is vocational, which has been defined as "the process of assisting the individual to choose an occupation, prepare for it, enter upon, and progress in it." The work of the vocational counselor is outlined in the "Principles and Practices of Educational and Vocational Guidance," formulated by the National Vocational Guidance Association, which lists the following specialized activities: study of the individual through interviews, school records, questionnaires, examinations and tests, and employment records; study of the occupations, through surveys and compilations of literature; interviews with groups and individuals; employment certification and placement; follow-up services; and related activities, such as club work.

Placement Officials. Junior placement or employment for youth is becoming an increasing responsibility of the schools. In Detroit the junior consultation service for out-of-school youth is also sponsored by the public schools. All placement workers have certain basic duties, whether they perform them in a school, social service agency, or state employment service. The duties include: registering applicants, interviewing them, classifying registrants, receiving employers' orders, selecting and referring applicants to the prospective employer, verifying placement, following up the employee, doing field work to contact employers, keeping records, and preparing reports and statistical data.[2]

The placement worker's stock in trade is information about the world of work. Furthermore, he has to establish numerous contacts with school staff members, parents, school psychologists, employers, and community

[2] Roy N. Anderson, "The Work of the Placement Officer," *Teachers College Record*, 1938, pp. 60–67.

agencies. He must have as varied an occupational experience as possible, with prolonged training and education in the same disciplines as are required of other professional personnel who are dealing with human beings in their individual and social adjustment. This task is being increasingly recognized as a career that requires professional standards, certification, and supervised internship.

Many public and private agencies cooperate with the schools in solving the problems of youth placement. Some junior placement services are affiliated with state and federal employment bureaus.

Deans of Boys and Men. Many counselors for male students are called deans of boys in the high schools and deans of men in the colleges. In the secondary school some titles are dean of boys, vice-principal, assistant principal, administrative assistant, boys' adviser, boys' counselor, director of guidance, coordinator, class adviser, and guidance teacher.

The outstanding qualifications for deans in secondary schools are sympathetic understanding of boys, their problems, psychology, and activities; special training in guidance; a liking for boys; the ability to inspire their confidence and respect; and patience.[3] Usually a master's degree is required. Among the responsibilities are attendance problems, vocational guidance, curriculum development, discipline, food and clothing for needy students, interviews with parents and prospective employers, supervision of leisure-time activities, and individual counseling.

Deans of men are found in most colleges and universities. Paramount among their many duties is that of counseling. The National Association of Deans and Advisers of Men is one of the many professional organizations.

Deans of Girls and Women. The guidance of pupils is usually assigned to a person of their own sex. Obviously the administrative and supervisory responsibilities of the position vary with the size and type of school. The qualifications for deans of girls and women are similar to those for the deans of boys and men. The former have a National Association which is a department of the National Education Association.

Recreational Leaders. "The education which is not also recreation is a maimed, incomplete, half-done thing. The recreation which is not also education has no recreative value."[4] The inextricable relationship of recreation and education is evidenced in the similarity of their objectives. In many communities, school authorities have incorporated play and leisure-time activities into the program at preschool, in-school, and post-school levels. The practice of providing for community recreation as part of a broad educational program is growing. Many communities have

[3] Lawrence Riggs, "Deans and Advisors of Boys in Secondary Schools," *Teachers College Record*, February, 1939, pp. 412–422.

[4] L. P. Jacks, *Education through Recreation*, p. 2, Harper, 1932.

recreation in conjunction with school services. Although most communities do not supply the recreational-educational workers, the joint programs are steadily increasing.

The persons selected for the recreational leadership in school or community or joint programs should be carefully chosen for their personal and professional qualifications. Many directors are college graduates who have specialized in teaching and in group activities. Courses for developing leaders cover a broad range of subjects and activities, since recreation, which was once delimited to play or sports, now includes all activities involving the free use of leisure time. The most popular are swimming, picnicking, softball, and skating.

Other Specialists with Semiteaching Duties

Among the many specialists engaged in semiteaching in American education the following are mentioned here: (1) curriculum personnel and (2) research workers.

Curriculum Personnel. Several state departments, institutions of higher learning, and many city school systems employ persons especially trained in curriculum procedures. Such a worker is usually designated as director of the curriculum bureau, assistant superintendent in charge of the curriculum, curriculum supervisor, or director of surveys. The effort to adjust curriculums to the pupils and to societal needs, as indicated in Unit XIII, is a challenging task.

Research Workers. Early school administrators were guided primarily by guess, intuition, and practical experience earned by dint of trial and error. Today local, state, and federal educational divisions ferret out pressing problems and subject them to research.

A broad program of research operates as a steadying force in the expansion of school efforts, making possible more objective evaluations, improving the quality of educational services, and furnishing a common method of approach for all members of the staff.[5] The classroom teacher may be a research worker. There are indeed many types of studies and experimentation that classroom teachers can and should make.

Usually the formal research of a school system is conducted or summarized by an administrator or a semiteaching worker known as the director of research. Such directors are usually located in large school systems that employ also one or more full-time workers, clerks and statisticians. Many of the latter are members of such national associations as the American Educational Research Association and the American Statistical Associa-

[5] Harold E. Moore, "The Place of Research in the Expanding Role of Education in a City School System," *North Central Association Quarterly*, April, 1949, p. 377.

tion. Directors of research are among the best trained workers in the educational system; several possess doctors' degrees. Many are women.

In many large cities a bureau of research makes investigations and collects and interprets data with a view toward the improvement of school procedures. The most common functions, according to Witsky, are preparation of reports; achievement testing; guidance of research studies; mental testing; classification of pupils; test construction; preparation of records and report forms; surveys of the school system; educational guidance; training others for testing, finance, and budget studies; publicity; and curriculum revision.

Despite the rather limited number of positions available at present as directors of research in various schools, opportunities in this field are multiplying. Furthermore, assistants are required in the various bureaus of research already established to conduct needed studies. Then, too, most state departments of education and many state educational associations employ a director of research and assistants. Many persons have been engaged in research conducted through the cooperative efforts of the Office of Education and various universities. In addition to the agencies already mentioned, educational foundations require annually a large number of skilled, well-trained persons who have the technical precision and professional background for educational research.

ADMINISTRATIVE AND SUPERVISORY POSITIONS IN EDUCATION

Several thousand positions of an administrative or supervisory nature are available in American public education, particularly for persons with experience, leadership, and initiative. Contrary to general belief, these positions do not exclude women. Many county superintendencies are held by women; grade-school principalships and supervisory work are shared by women and men; the field of city superintendencies alone offers few opportunities for women.

Among the persons engaged in an executive capacity are (1) superintendents, (2) principals, (3) supervisors of instruction, (4) department heads and deans, (5) presidents, and (6) other administrators, including business and building officials.

Superintendents of Schools

On the basis of the main geographical divisions, the superintendents of schools are (1) local, (2) county, and (3) state, whereas the chief school superintendent for the United States is known as the Commissioner of Education. American education also employs many assistant superintendents.

Local Superintendents. The multiple duties of the city superintendent of schools are listed in Unit IV. His main function is to serve as the chief administrative officer of the board of education. He is usually called the city superintendent of schools, but in some instances he is designated as the community high-school principal or the supervising principal. Technically a local superintendent is the professional leader who works directly with the board of education as its chief educational officer. His is the best paid position in the public schools and also the most difficult. But the local superintendent finds many rewards other than monetary. Although a village may engage as superintendent a person just graduated from college, most accredited schools, especially in cities, require the superintendent to have graduate work, plus experience either in the classroom or as a principal or assistant superintendent. In addition to these professional qualifications the highest personal attributes are expected in the local superintendent of schools.

County Superintendents. Nearly all the 3000 counties in the United States have a chief educational officer, usually designated as the county superintendent of schools. The duties and qualifications of these superintendents are enumerated in Unit III. The legal eligibility requirements in most states are low. Unfortunately most counties in the United States, instead of appointing their superintendents or commissioners from the best candidates available, elect them on a partisan ticket. A man or woman (many women are county superintendents in the United States) of demonstrated ability may lose an election because of wrong political affiliations. The situation is improving, however, and today in many states the county board of education or a similar body selects the superintendent from a list of thoroughly qualified persons. Low standards, popular election, and small salaries deter many promising candidates from an office which should call for educational statesmanship, rather than political strategy.

State Superintendents. The usual tasks of the chief state educational officer are mentioned in Unit II. As in the case of the county superintendents, political affiliation is often a determining factor in the selection of a state superintendent or commissioner of education.

Many states have no minimum professional qualifications for the chief state school officer, and only a few states make any requirement as to graduate preparation. The opportunities for securing state superintendencies obviously are restricted by the number of states and dependencies, but unfortunately the vicissitudes of the office occasion frequent turnovers.

Assistant Superintendents. Since good administration involves both the centralization of authority and the delegation of responsibility, a school system employs not only an executive but also a staff of assistants. The

increasing demands laid upon the chief educational officers have led to the development of many well-paid positions for assistant superintendents in charge of educational supervision, business management, and buildings and grounds. Many persons in the business side of education are known as business managers, secretaries, or clerks of the board.

To assistant county superintendents are usually delegated special activities, such as supervision or clerical work. Likewise the assistant state superintendents, directly under the chief official, head a special form of work in the state department of education. In many instances, local, county, and state assistants bear the brunt of the work. Assistant superintendencies are excellent training grounds for other educational positions; in and by themselves they also constitute an enviable opportunity for continuity in selfless service for others.

Principals of Schools

The unit of education that means the most to children, parents, and community is the individual school of which the principal is the head. Upon him rests a great responsibility:

> Leader of teachers and vicarious teacher of every child, the principal has the most delicate and exacting job in the whole system of schools. In the span of a single lifetime no other personality touches directly so many lives. Thus the principal's life achieves a kind of immortality spreading its influence down the years in ever-widening circles.[6]

Many of these principalships are open to well-qualified leaders with teaching experience; for example, they may become elementary, secondary, assistant, or supervising principals.

Supervisors of Instruction

Many educators are engaged in instructional supervision, a work that has been broadened to involve the entire field of teaching and learning, deepened to reach down into a functional philosophy of education, and elevated to higher altitudes through the better attitudes of teachers toward supervision. Six major functions of this work, according to an analysis of duties performed by supervisors, include study of the pupil, in-service education of teachers, conduct of curriculum investigations, preparation and installation of courses of study, selection of textbooks and preparation of materials of instruction, and conduct of public relations program. Most of these duties call for teaching experience and special preparation. The typical supervisory positions are those in elementary schools, secondary

[6] Worth McClure, "The Future of the Principalship," *The Elementary School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow*, p. 263, National Education Association, 1948.

schools, and other educational institutions. Many counties and all state departments of education also employ supervisors. Supervision on all educational levels helps to implement the objectives of education through improving both teaching and learning.

Department Heads and College Deans

Heads of Departments. The large secondary schools and the colleges have semiadministrative officials known as heads or chairmen of departments. To them are delegated details of administration and supervision within their fields of instruction. Department heads in high schools were known as early as 1858 when Malden, Massachusetts, established commercial and Latin departments. At the present time some high schools with only a few hundred students designate heads for the larger departments, usually English, social science, and commerce. These persons are appointed frequently on the basis of seniority or desire to increase salaries, rather than on professional qualifications. In the secondary school the department head should hold a master's degree, whereas in colleges and universities he is usually expected to have a doctor's degree. His main task in all educational institutions is to improve instruction through aiding members of his department and cooperating with others on the staff.

College Deans. The liaison officer between departments and between them and the president of the institution of higher learning is usually the dean. Some universities have several: a dean of instruction, an administrative dean, and deans of women and men. These officers must possess at least a master's degree, several years of teaching experience, and administrative ability. In very few institutions is the position of dean a highly centralized administrative office. The dean's office almost universally combines teaching with administrative duties. With the recent rapid development of graduate work many colleges and universities have added a graduate division under the direction of a graduate dean or a chairman, who has a doctor's degree.

Presidents of Educational Institutions

Almost 1850 presidents direct the colleges and universities of the United States. Many of them have charge of private or parochial institutions, but a large number are directly engaged in public education, particularly the presidents of junior colleges and state teachers colleges and universities.

Presidents of Junior Colleges. The executive officer of the community or junior college, especially if it is linked with the high school, is usually known as the principal or superintendent. His duties are similar to those of a local superintendent of schools, although technically he is president of the institution.

Presidents of Colleges and Universities. Among the coveted and well-paid positions in American education are college and university presidencies, several of which are held by women. A presidency is not, however, a bed of roses devoid of thorns. Says one president in a caustic vein: "A college president is so harassed by the time-consuming minutiae of administration and finance that he cannot be an educator." William A. Neilson, former president of Smith College, once urged a "Be-kind-to-college-presidents Week." The administrator of higher education has a difficult task but also unexcelled opportunities for educational leadership and for a permanent influence upon many phases of American life. The late Nicholas Murray Butler, in his autobiography, reveals the multiplicity of activities—social, economic, political, and educational—in which he engaged during his presidency of Columbia University for over fifty years. Busy years await anyone who ascends to the leadership of an American institution of higher learning.[7]

Other Administrative Officers

Long and varied is the list of administrative officers in schools, colleges, universities, and other educational work. Two of the many remaining officials engaged in administrative or supervisory activities are (1) business and (2) building officials.

Business Officials in Educational Institutions. Since education is a big business involving an annual expenditure of several billion dollars and an invested capital of many billions more, obviously schools and colleges must be run on a businesslike basis. The business official in the small town is the superintendent of schools, who works with the board of education in solving the financial problems of the district. In the large schools a business manager, an assistant superintendent in charge of business, or a board secretary or clerk carries the major financial responsibilities.

The ideal business manager has a practical background and teaching experience—a sharp business outlook and an educational point of view. There is a dearth of well-educated persons with teaching and business experience plus personal assets to qualify them for the office of assistant superintendent of schools in charge of business. A similar lack of well-educated business officers is evident in colleges and universities. Nation-wide organizations are seeking to improve business personnel and procedures in schools and colleges.

Building and Grounds Superintendents. The business aspects of public education embrace the care and maintenance of buildings and grounds. Usually in the large city systems and in the colleges a separate administrative officer, such as the superintendent of buildings and grounds, is in

[7] For further information on the administration of institutions of higher learning, see Unit VIII.

charge. His duties are to supervise repairs, make inventories, direct the maintenance and operation of the plant, improve the grounds, and assist in the planning of new structures. Practical experience as a building contractor or in the building trades aids in the successful execution of these duties. As considered in Unit XV, the erection, operation, and maintenance of educational buildings call for a well-trained personnel.

EDUCATIONAL PERSONNEL FROM OTHER PROFESSIONS

Obviously most educational workers are teachers and administrators, but doctors and lawyers may also perform school duties. Among the other professions mentioned in the succeeding pages are (1) librarians, (2) health personnel, (3) business and building personnel, (4) lawyers, and (5) other professional or semiprofessional groups such as sociologists and social workers.

Librarians

The library is indeed an indispensable educational and social institution in a democracy. The role of libraries and books is treated further in Unit XV; attention is here directed to librarians. Among the staff members are librarians of public, school, college, university, government, and special libraries; reference librarians; readers' advisers; children's and young people's librarians; circulation, periodical, and special collection librarians; librarians in health and penal institutions; and librarians assigned to special subjects and to political units such as the city, county, and state. Several states have created the position of field visitor for school libraries. Every state has a library association.

The major fields of employment for librarians are in (1) schools and colleges, (2) public libraries, and (3) combined school and public libraries.

School and College Librarians. Broad culture, enthusiasm, approachability, tact, poise, and understanding are indispensable traits for school librarians, who are slowly being recognized as important members of the faculty.

Many institutions in the United States now provide thorough library education. The first school of library training was opened in 1887 at Columbia University. Today a school librarian should have a college education and at least one year of library-school training. In several states she must also possess a teacher's certificate or special state certificate.

Unfortunately elementary-school libraries are the last to be recognized for their importance in lifelong learning. Most elementary schools today are sorely in need of libraries and librarians. Many junior-high-school and high-school libraries are unorganized and inadequately staffed. Col-

lege libraries, too, offer many opportunities for employment in this educational service.

Public Librarians. The status of the public library as an educational institution has long been established in America.

> There can be no doubt that the founders of the Boston Public Library, like the founders of the New York district libraries, conceived of the public library as a natural and essential continuation of the public-school system. In their preliminary report of 1852 the first Board of Trustees said: "We consider that a large public library is of the utmost importance as a means of completing our system of public education."[8]

Unfortunately more than a third of the United States—mostly rural territory—is without any kind of library service. Additional library personnel and equipment, especially for bookmobile services for rural areas, are urgently needed. If the successful librarian could be described in general terms, scholarship, professionalism, social consciousness, imagination, sense of humor, and acceptable personality would be requisite. The librarian is no longer a mere keeper of books but a scholarly administrator who uses scientific methods in making available library materials. This challenge to work in public libraries will be met by thousands of young people who yearn to live with people and recorded communications.

Combined School and Public Librarians. Some persons work in public libraries controlled by boards of education. The Educational Policies Commission envisioned the ultimate unification of all public educational activities, in communities or areas of appropriate size, under the leaderhip of a public education authority.

Health Personnel

The school health program is composed of the following services, in whole or in part: health instruction, health examinations, medical attention, communicable disease control, promotion of mental health, provision of healthful environment and regimen, and health supervision of teachers and employees. To perform these services well, a large and varied personnel is needed, including the school (1) physician, (2) dentist, (3) nurse, (4) health educator, and (5) psychiatrist and psychologist.

School Physicians. Ever since the city of Boston, faced with an epidemic of dreaded diphtheria, initiated in 1894 a program of school health inspection, the physician has assumed an important role in education.

[8] Carleton B. Joeckel, *The Government of the American Public Library*, pp. 17–18, University of Chicago Press, 1935.

In an article captioned, "The School Physician—in 1960," Allan R. Cunningham, M.D., a consultant in school health in the Massachusetts Department of Public Health, wrote:

> While I will not attempt to cover in detail the total activities of the school physician in 1960, I believe: that no examination will be carried on except in the presence of parent or guardian; that the physical examination will be no less but the psychiatric examination will be much more; that no child will be examined without a preliminary study by the teacher and nurse; that the physician himself will have watched the child as well as his classmates—in work and at play; he will have studied the environment including the teachers, and including the school personnel; he will study the parents as well as the child. Remembering that his work is essentially preventive, he will spend much of the time consulting with and advising the parents concerning their influence upon the health of children, and many of the evenings will be devoted to talks before groups of parents.[9]

The "pediatrician-psychiatrists" will increase in number and influence during the second half of the twentieth century. The health of the pupils is not the responsibility of the school physician alone; all doctors may promote this cause through participation in campaigns for immunization against contagious diseases, and in their daily duties as family physician. In their private practice the physicians, especially the pediatricians and psychiatric workers, have numerous heavy educational responsibilities devolving upon them.

School Dentists. Theirs is an important role in the health program of the school. The school physician or dentist, whether a full-time or part-time employee of the board of education or the city, has educational obligations:

> It is his task, when examining the child, if possible in the presence of the parent, to teach both child and parent about the functions and care of the human organism. Even beyond this, he may inform them regarding what needs to be done, the types of services available, and, if desired, the approximate cost. Not all physicians or dentists will stress the educational aspects of examinations. It is desirable, therefore, not only that school physicians and dentists be carefully selected but also that they be carefully and thoroughly inducted into school health work with all its ramifications and unique aspects.[10]

These inspections by the school dentist or doctor do not take the place of a careful and thorough examination by the family dentist or physician. Furthermore, medical care is not a public-school function.

[9] Allan R. Cunningham, "The School Physician—in 1960," *The Journal of School Health*, May, 1949, pp. 127–128.

[10] Educational Policies Commission, *Social Services and the Schools*, p. 72, National Education Association, 1939.

School Nurses. The school nurses usually devote part of their time to the preparation of instructional materials, to giving individual health instruction and examinations, and to interpreting the results of the examinations to parent, child, and teacher. Success in this field requires certain natural qualifications:

> A work so closely allied with people and their affairs calls for a genuine liking for people and for real interest in their doings. The school nurse should be young enough to have an understanding of the interests and problems of the school child, but not too immature to comprehend the moods and emotions of the adolescent or to inspire the confidence of parents and teachers. Emotional balance and emotional maturity are essential. She must have social grace and self-control which imply dignity, poise, and reserve; good judgment; breadth of interest; respect for pupil personality; intellectual honesty, a willingness to say "I do not know"; and a sympathetic understanding of the unspoken desires and the problems of children and youth.[11]

In addition to natural accomplishments the school nurses must have high professional and educational qualifications. It is significant that the field of nursing which was formerly almost 100 per cent for women is now being entered by a number of men.

Health Educators. A position that is increasing in number and significance is that of health educator or coordinator. Many state departments, county boards, and local school systems employ personnel experienced in health and education to work with nonschool children, pupils, parents, teachers, nurses, doctors, and dentists. The professional preparation usually required is training and experience in health and teaching, with the technical degree of Master of Public Health. Some are Doctors of Public Health.

School Psychiatrists and Psychologists. A broad health program includes mental and emotional as well as physical health. Many schools and colleges are employing psychiatrists and psychologists in an effort to treat causes rather than symptoms of unusual pupil behavior, and to prevent mental illness and maladjustments. Only in the large school systems is a full-time psychiatrist or psychologist needed; part-time psychiatric services are obtained from hospitals, universities, foundations, or other agencies, such as clinics.

Clinical psychologists are increasing in demand. Groups such as the Association of Consulting Psychologists and the American Psychological Association have helped to establish and elevate standards for clinical psychologists and for their training programs. The National Committee

[11] Superintendent of Public Instruction, *Health Service in Education*, p. 10, Department of Public Instruction, Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, 1939.

for Mental Hygiene has made the following recommendations for the training of clinical psychologists and internships and externships:

A student seeking clinical training should aim to have at least an M.A. degree before taking an intern- or externship. He should choose a training center where the supervisor of interns meets the requirements of the American Psychological Association for supervisor of a training program. Also, if the intern or extern expects to become proficient in the use of projective material, particularly the Rorschach and the Thematic Apperception Test, he should select a training center where he can receive training in these tests by individuals who are qualified to give instruction along these lines. Further information concerning training in the projective techniques might be obtained from the Rorschach Institute. A training center with university affiliations will in the future provide the best educational opportunities for an intern, since the center will be recognized by the university as giving the student part of the requirements necessary for the Ph.D. degree in clinical psychology. It is advised that the student seek training in a clinical organization which has a professional staff consisting of a team of psychiatrist, psychologist, and psychiatric social worker.[12]

Students contemplating a career in clinical psychology will find helpful the report "Recommended Graduate Training Program in Clinical Psychology."[13] Obviously, since they are to work with school pupils, they should have teaching experience.

Business and Building Personnel

In addition to the business manager and the building and grounds superintendent previously mentioned as administrators, schools and colleges employ other members of the business and building professions on a part-time or full-time basis. These who belong to groups considered as professions are (1) accountants and auditors, (2) architects, and (3) engineers.

School Accountants and Auditors. Many accountants are employed in educational work periodically or full time. They should be trained not only in accountancy but also in education:

The accountant needs to know something about the educational program of the school, so that he may make interpolations and comments of an educational nature. There is a dire need for educational auditors—men and women seasoned by experience as school administrators, who are as thoroughly grounded in accountancy as is a C.P.A. Schools of commerce and education should assume aggressive leadership

[12] National Committee for Mental Hygiene, "The Training of Clinical Psychologists and Internships and Externships" (undated), pp. 1–2.

[13] Committee on Training in Clinical Psychology, "Recommended Graduate Training Program in Clinical Psychology," *The American Psychologist*, December, 1947, pp. 539–558.

in preparing these experts. Improvement of current accountancy practices can be hastened by the appointment of educational auditors in the state departments of education.[14]

With the increased tendency toward uniform accounting systems in schools and colleges, and for compulsory audits of educational and extracurricular funds, the demand for school accountants and auditors will rise to new levels.

School Architects. Large city systems and some state departments employ full-time school architects. Some architectural firms specialize in school buildings, and others have a department of school architecture. The definite relationship of buildings to the curriculum makes school architecture extremely important. The school architect must have a thorough knowledge of modern education so that the building he designs will facilitate the education of the pupils. (See Unit XV.)

School Engineers. Most school buildings are in charge of engineer custodians. In the small systems the persons who direct the maintenance, operation, and care of school plant and properties are often called "janitors." In the large systems engineers are assigned to definite tasks in terms of their specialties, such as mechanical or electrical work, usually after having passed civil service examinations.

School Lawyers

Law is the basis for all school transactions, hence the significance of the legal profession in education. Among those engaged in school law work are (1) lawyers and (2) other legal advisers.

Lawyers. Most positions in this service, full time or part time, are available only to persons who hold a bachelor of laws (LL.B.) degree and membership in the bar. The Association of American Law Schools and the Council on Legal Education of the American Bar Association maintain certain standards for approving law schools. The typical law curriculum has had marked leanings toward the needs of private practice and has not given much emphasis to the needs of the schools. Only a limited number of law schools and teacher-educating institutions offer courses in school law. There is some demand in large school systems for well-qualified lawyers who have taught and have specialized in school law.

Other Legal Advisers. Many state departments have legal advisers who may nor may not hold a legal degree although they have studied both school and general law. Their business is to help interpret the school laws. Occasionally lawyers who specialize in certain phases of law are called upon for school service.

[14] Chris A. De Young, *Budgeting in Public Schools*, pp. 450–451, Swift, 1948.

Other Professional or Semiprofessional Groups

Among the many other professions or semiprofessions having representatives engaged in educational work are (1) school sociologists and (2) social workers.

School Sociologists. At present the public schools employ few sociologists. Courses in sociology, particularly in the secondary schools, would be far more functional if a sociologist were engaged to make actual community contact through social surveys and other means. The school has too long tried to insulate itself against direct community service. Administrators have been likely to think in terms of education but not of society. A crying need exists, therefore, for educational sociologists who seek the improvement of society as a whole rather than merely that of the schools. In addition to excellent personal qualifications the educational sociologist should possess at least a master's degree.

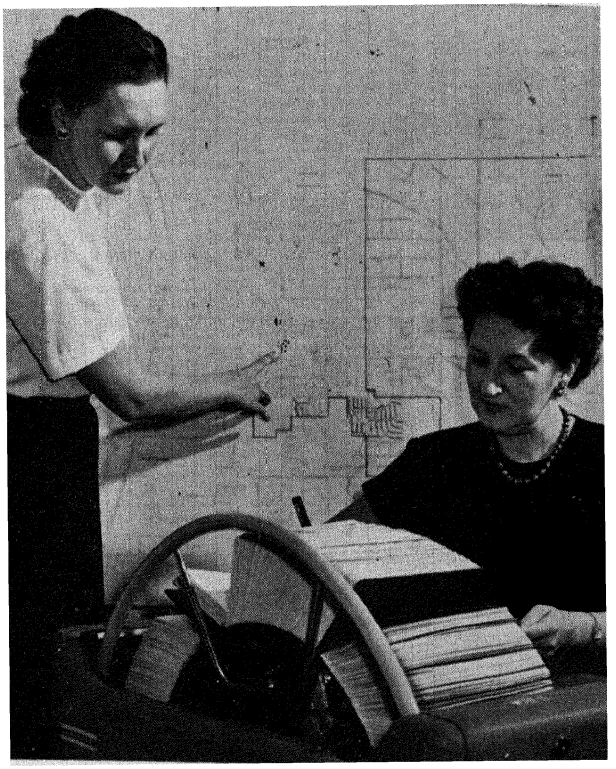
Social Workers. Social responsibility is the keynote of twentieth century legislation. In its publication, *Social Services and the Schools*, the Educational Policies Commission states that "the schools, in particular, are obligated not only to see and provide for their educational responsibilities to the community but also to cooperate in providing welfare services that are closely related to education." Although guilty of exaggeration, John Steinbeck in his novel, *The Grapes of Wrath*,[15] has shown the need for this cooperation as he pictures the migrant who teaches his children to pick fruit or cotton as long and as fast as their aching backs will permit, with never any thought of school. The task of social workers is economic and educational as well as social.

The social worker of today in contrast with the lady bountiful of yesterday is a trained member of a profession, usually holding one or more college degrees. Employees in some public agencies must have civil service status. Among the many forms of individual and group social services are child welfare, family welfare, community organization, institutional work, parole, probation, psychiatric social work, public assistance, unemployment relief, social group work, social research, visiting teacher, and the teaching of social service. Organizations such as the National Association of School Social Workers and the Russell Sage Foundation are seeking to make social service an attractive career. The schools need not only specially trained teachers, nurses, and counselors but also social workers who have the desire and ability to interpret democracy in terms of human betterment, as did Jane Addams, Julia Lathrop, and Florence Kelly.

[15] John Steinbeck, *The Grapes of Wrath*, Viking, 1939, 619 pp.

OTHER NONTEACHING PERSONNEL IN EDUCATION

Amid the vast array of nonteaching workers not definitely ranked as a professional group are the following: (1) school clerks and secretaries, (2) cafeteria and lunchroom workers, (3) building service personnel, (4) those engaged in school transportation, (5) school publications and sales personnel, and (6) others employed in education. Each of these groups is described briefly.



(Courtesy of Public Schools, Denver, Colorado.)

FIG. 12-2. Educational workers in the Department of Pupil Personnel, Denver, Colorado. The attendance clerks check the census records in the circular card file (Cardineer) with the district map of the city.

SCHOOL CLERKS AND SECRETARIES

Many opportunities for educational work are available in the field of clerical and office service, which includes typists, stenographers, secretaries, bookkeepers, and similar employees. These persons can and do

perform many tasks of an educational nature, thus releasing administrators and teachers for purely professional duties. So important to the schools and colleges is the office personnel that many an executive would rather accept the resignation of two teachers than that of one clerk or secretary. An important school business official, especially in the East, is the school board secretary. Secretaries should be provided for every administrator, especially the county superintendent, in the number needed to relieve him and his professional assistants from clerical duties. Many attendance clerks are needed in public schools. Obviously secretaries, as well as all school employees, should be appointed upon strict professional bases rather than because of political influence or nepotism.

Many opportunities are available in the school offices for young people who do not care for classroom teaching but who like the school atmosphere. It is not to be inferred that clerical help is of inferior quality; in fact some of the best secretaries are those who have an academic degree and who have had some teaching experience. In order to secure and maintain a stable, efficient, and loyal group of office workers, it is necessary to have careful selection and training of new clerks, an adequate salary schedule, and justly planned provisions for tenure, working hours, leaves of absence, and retirement. The National Association of School Secretaries is developing a service program that seeks to make the secretarial positions in school systems a profession requiring specialized training and experience.

Cafeteria and Lunchroom Workers

The school cafeteria and lunchroom are powerful factors in the educative process. Their functional relationship to the health program is evidenced in that a trained dietitian or home economics worker, often paid in part from federal funds, is usually a member of the cafeteria staff. Too much care cannot be exercised in the selection of a manager for the cafeteria or lunchroom.

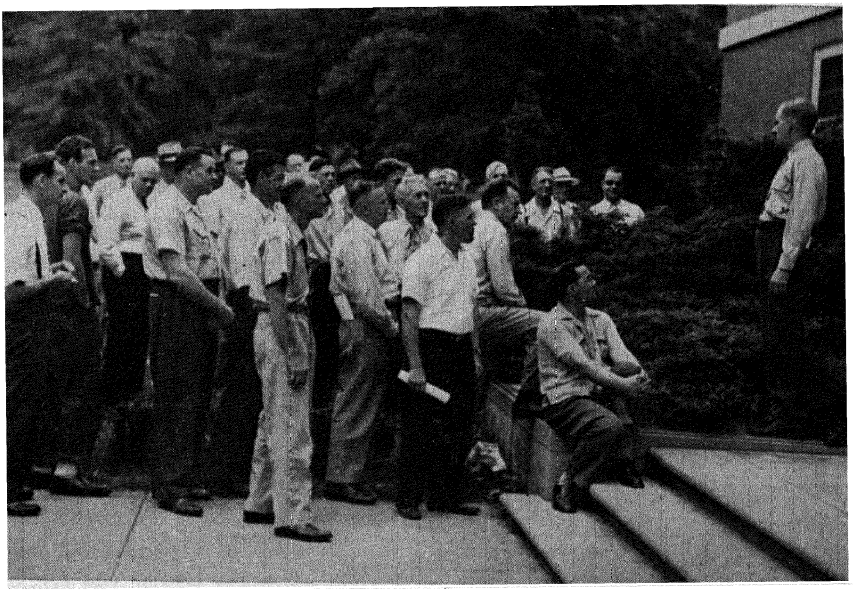
Since cleanliness is essential to health, all the workers in the cafeteria must be immaculately clean. Periodic inspections should be made by the city health officers, the school nurse, or the cafeteria committee. The lunchroom can be a real asset to the school if it emphasizes the educational rather than the financial, and if it seeks to train children in health habits, in food standards, in business sense, in self-control, and in social niceties.

Building Service Personnel

In the early colonial days most teachers performed the housekeeping duties in the schools, a practice that still exists in many rural communities. Today the large schools employ numerous caretakers and assistants with

(Courtesy of Public Schools, Chicago, Illinois.)

FIG. 12-3. Lunchroom workers play a vital role in the educational program.



(Courtesy of Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Illinois.)

FIG. 12-4. School custodians and engineers go to school. "Keep the school yard, shrubs, and trees in good shape," the landscape gardening expert advises men attending the summer school for custodians.

specific titles and definite responsibilities, such as engineer, fireman, cleaner, carpenter, mower, electrician, and playground caretaker. In most systems, however, these duties devolve upon one person, who in the past has usually been called the "janitor." The more acceptable nomenclature today is school custodian (man) and school maid (woman).[16] Whatever the term, the modern school requires from its custodian less manual labor but more knowledge and skill than were formerly required.

(Courtesy of Public Schools, Bloomington, Illinois.)

FIG. 12-5. The school custodian is often the "forgotten man." He performs many duties including health and public-relations activities.

The custodian must be trained in the installation and care of delicately adjusted equipment and various machinery. The pioneer work of the late George F. Womrath of Minneapolis and others in providing this practical training is being expanded by colleges, universities, state departments, and other agencies. Eventually preservice and in-service training will be required of all custodians. Some systems have a civil service examination for the purpose of selecting desirable custodians. Among the great hindrances to the improvement of the school maintenance and operation personnel are too frequent political interference in their appointment,

[16] Henry H. Linn, Leslie C. Helm, and K. P. Grabarkiewicz, *The School Custodian's Housekeeping Handbook*, p. 1, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1948.

insecurity of tenure, no retirement allowance, low pay, and inadequate recognition.

School Transportation Personnel

Transportation has developed into a major educational enterprise, particularly in states that have adopted larger units of school administration. Several states are now paying part of the costs of conveying pupils, and many local districts have added the school-bus driver to their pay roll. In some instances the school-bus driver is accompanied by an assistant who flags the bus over unprotected railroad crossings and other hazards. The large systems employ various mechanics in their garages and repair shops. School transportation has developed to such significance that specific qualifications and training have been set for those engaged in this all-important work of bringing pupils in safety to the teachers.

Educational Editors, Publishers, and Sales Personnel

Thousands of persons who render educational services are employed in the publication of textbooks, in the manufacture of educational supplies and equipment, and in sales work. Contrary to general belief, those who enter the publishing and editorial field do not lose their educational status.

Educational Editors and Publishers. One aspect of textbook publication is editorial work. In addition to the editors, numerous persons are employed as directors of educational research service with publishers of textbooks. The work of field consultant for a textbook company is largely professional and includes such activities as lecturing or making informal talks to groups, training of teachers in service, and conferences with various kinds of committees and individuals. Opportunities for women, especially teachers, are multiplying in the textbook field. A challenging task for all educators, especially for classroom teachers, is that of writing articles and books for publication. More teacher-authors are needed.

Sales Personnel. Many persons are engaged in selling schoolbooks, supplies, and educational equipment.

Undoubtedly the best textbooks, educational supplies, and school equipment in the world are made in America. These are available as teaching tools for American schools, but unfortunately the best is not generally used. Restricted budgets and the apathy of the general public account in part for this situation. Then, too, many classroom and laboratory teachers are not acquainted with the wide variety and high quality of modern educational materials. Promotional and sales personnel, traveling from schools to colleges, from educational exhibits to state and national

conventions, serve as so-called "educational missionaries" and spread the news of improvements. The best preparation for this salesmanship is teaching and business experience. In Appendix XII is a Code of Ethics for Schoolmen and Bookmen.

Others Employed in Education

Workers in Educational Organizations. Organizations of an educational, recreational, and professional nature employ thousands of trained workers. For example, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, the Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts of America, the 4-H Clubs of America, educational fraternities, sororities, foundations, national educational associations, and countless other groups, some of which are enumerated in Unit XIV, draw heavily upon the teaching profession for their personnel. Among professional groups in education is the national organization known as the National Association of Secretaries of State Teachers Associations.

Career Service in Education. The three largest groups in the employed personnel of the typical city school system have been mentioned, *viz.*, teachers, custodians, and clerks. Among the many others not yet listed are day laborers, laundresses, electricians, plumbers, and messengers. Some of these have detailed, pigeonhole jobs, but most of them perform tasks that permit initiative and growth.

The improvement of many nonteaching positions requires more than higher standards of recruitment. These positions, especially for clerks and stenographers, must become a "career" service if they are to enlist an adequately trained personnel. By a career is meant a lifework in an honorable occupation, which one normally takes up in youth with the expectation of advancement and pursues with happiness and profit until retirement. School service should be a public service so organized and conducted as to encourage careers.

Though the role of some employees in education may appear insignificant, yet each professional or nonprofessional worker, from the chief executive officer of the educational institution down to the lowest paid day laborer, can make a direct and significant contribution to American education.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Explain the type of educational work other than teaching that might interest you. Why?
2. Compare the salaries, other rewards, and opportunities for personal and professional growth in several different positions in education.
3. Enumerate some of the obstacles faced by substitute teachers.
4. Investigate the nature of extension work.
5. Discuss the type of personnel work in education that appeals to you. Why?
6. Investigate the opportunities for training as a school librarian.

7. Find out what qualifications your state requires for city, county, and state superintendents of schools.

8. List some of the advantages and disadvantages in being a school principal, supervisor, or head of a department.

9. List types of positions available in higher education.

10. Describe the ideal qualifications for a college president.

11. List the duties of a school or college business manager.

12. Find out what positions in health work are offered in the large schools.

13. Evaluate the role of the school architect.

14. Tell why accountants and auditors are needed in public education.

15. Give the duties of school attorneys.

16. Explain some of the functions of a school psychologist.

17 Describe the role publishing firms play in education.

18. Interview a salesman for a textbook company and learn some of the qualifications for his work.

19. List what you consider the ideal qualifications for a school custodian.

20. Discuss the importance of transportation services in education.

21. Prepare a list of national professional organizations of educational personnel other than teachers.

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YAUCH, WILBUR A.: *Improving Human Relations in School Administration*, Chaps. VI–X, Harper, 1949.
The principal as interpreter, coordinator, plant and office manager, executive of the superintendent, and school representative.

Current Pertinent Periodicals and Publications

Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals (8)[17]
Official publication dealing with work of principals.

Journal of School Health (10)
Publication of the American School Health Association.

Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women (4)
A quarterly helpful to deans of girls and women.

National Elementary Principal (6)
Official bulletin concerned with work of elementary-school principals.

National Secretary (3)
Publication of the National Association of School Secretaries.

Social Service Review (4)
A journal for social workers edited by the School of Social Service Administration, University of Chicago.

State Department Publications
Publications on work of personnel in state departments, such as the *California State Department of Education Bulletin.*

Wilson Library Bulletin (10)
One of several publications helpful to librarians.

Yearbooks and Proceedings (1)
Yearbooks and annual proceedings published by national organizations of educational personnel, as the National Association of School Business Officials.

Audio-visual Aids

Counseling—Its Tools and Techniques — Sixteen minutes, 16 mm., sound
This film is designed to indicate the important guideposts in counseling and to demonstrate good counseling procedures. Available from Carl F. Manke Productions, Des Moines, Iowa.

Duties of a Secretary — Thirty minutes, 16 mm., sound
This film depicts the first day's work of a new secretary, revealing good and bad office practice and her successful adjustment to an office. Available from Business Education Films, New York City.

The Bus Driver — One reel, 16 mm., sound
This film, designed for pupils, shows the work of a bus driver, the role of busses in transportation, the operation of motor vehicles, and problems of traffic safety. Available from Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Chicago, Illinois.

The Librarian — Eleven minutes, 16 mm., sound
This film shows that the first requisite for librarians is a liking for people, since they bring people and books together. The five general types of librarians are depicted in action, as well as specialized workers in adult education, films, recordings, music, etc. Available from Carl F. Mahnke Productions, Des Moines, Iowa.

Your Friend, The Public Health Nurse — Fifteen minutes, filmstrip with record
This sound filmstrip depicts the public health nurse in action: the kinds of people she serves, the variety of problems she meets, and some of the results in protecting family and community health. Available on free loan from Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, New York City.

[17] The figures following the titles of the publications indicate the number of issues annually.

Part IV

PROVISIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL MATERIALS AND ENVIRONMENT

Preview of Part IV

PROVISIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL MATERIALS AND ENVIRONMENT

The pupils and teachers need plans, tools, and a place in which to live creatively. The program, facilities, and environment markedly affect teaching, learning, and living.

The design for education is found in the curriculum, which consists of all the experiences that pupils have under the guidance of the schools. It is life material used in building soul structure. The modern curriculum is developed cooperatively by administrators, teachers, pupils, and laymen. Most schools are engaged in the continuous task of curriculum revision (Unit XIII).

Related to the curriculum as a dynamic part of a pupil's education are the extracurricular or cocurricular activities of the school. The cocurricular programs have accumulated great importance at all levels of American education. They help the youth of America to conserve and develop a democratic way of living (Unit XIV).

In order to work effectively, the teacher and pupils need supplies and tools. They must also have a place to use these tools. The school grounds and buildings constitute the workshop or laboratory of American education. The modern school building is intimately fitted to human needs—physical, educational, psychological, and aesthetic. The students and teachers breathe into the architect's creation the breath of wholesome life. The building is not merely located in the community; the school is a part of the community (Unit XV).

The curricular and the cocurricular activities, the supplies and the equipment, and the grounds and buildings are made available through public expenditures for education. Equalization of educational opportunity and burden is the golden rule of educational finance—"Thou shalt educate thy neighbor's children as thine own. . . ." (Unit XVI).

Part IV

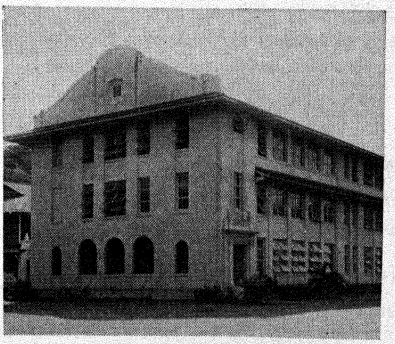
PROVISIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL MATERIALS AND ENVIRONMENT

(Courtesy Public Schools, Bloomington, Illinois.)

Curricular activities. One of the most important curricular activities on all educational levels is that of global relationships and world understanding.

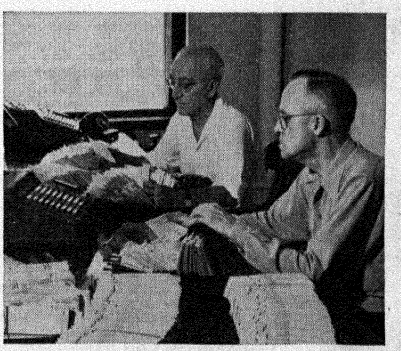
(Courtesy Public Schools, Camden, New Jersey.)

Cocurricular activites. The work of safety patrols or junior officers is a cocurricular activity that contributes to safety education.



(Courtesy Panama Canal Zone, C. Z.)

Educational buildings. Buildings like this Canal Zone Junior College at Balboa are sorely needed in the 48 states and dependencies because of obsolescence and increased demands.



(Courtesy of Public Schools, Chicago, Illinois.)

School finance. Men reconciling school checks before they are filed in the Department of Finance, Chicago Public Schools.

FIG. 13-1. Educational materials and environment provided through financing.

PREVIEW OF UNIT XIII

CURRICULUM

In the educational glossary prefacing this unit the curriculum is defined as consisting of all the experiences which pupils have under the direction of the school. Among the related elements are the program of studies, the course of study, and schedules.

The curriculum is the tangible expression of educational objectives wrought by dint of individual and collective thinking and working. It is a means toward the end of better teaching, learning, and living.

Numerous principles underlie curriculum development: the curriculum is rooted in a philosophy of education; it is developed cooperatively; it is constantly modified; it must provide for individual differences; it must encourage the creative; it must link itself with guidance; and it should accent constant evaluation.

Diversity characterizes the manner in which curriculums develop in the various educational areas and geographical sections of the American scene. The most common technique is that of democratization through committee production of curricular materials.

Many of the patterns for curricular materials employ unitary procedures in some vital reorganization of experiences.

From a limited offering the curriculum of American public education has steadily evolved through the cross-fertilization of educational theory and school practice.

Outline of Contents

Introduction
  Curriculum glossary
Objectives of Education
  What is education?
  Objectives defined by individuals
  Objectives prepared by professional groups
Principles Underlying Curriculum Development
  General principles
Procedures in Curriculum Development
  Major steps in curriculum development
  Specific techniques in building curriculums
Organization of Curricular Materials
  Types of curriculum organization
  Unitary procedures in teaching and learning
Curriculum Development in the United States
  Historical development of curriculums
  Current status of curriculum development

UNIT XIII

CURRICULUM

Stuart Chase, in his book *The Tyranny of Words*, writes thus about the current babel of tongues:

> The student of semantics is embarrassed with the sheer richness of evidence that people do not know what they are talking about. . . . Seeing the things behind the names will help us to understand the structure of the world we live in. Good language will help us to communicate with one another about the realities of our environment where now we speak darkly, in alien tongues.[1]

Education is an area of life to which this criticism applies directly. Particularly bewildering is the terminology used in curriculum work. Hence at the outset an effort is made to define the more common curricular terms in a brief glossary.

Curriculum Glossary[2]

activity curriculum—movement—program. A curriculum, movement, or program in which emphasis is placed on active participation of the pupil, as distinguished from one in which the pupil is relatively passive and the teacher active. Activity involves goal-seeking with purpose as its conscious manifestation. Care should be taken to avoid the common error of conceiving of activity in its overt physical aspects only.

articulation. The fitting together of parts. The term is most used with reference to the provision of continuity in the educational offerings of the various levels of the school organization, such as between the junior high school and the senior high school.

assignment. A term becoming obsolete with the spread of modern philosophies of education accenting pupil initiative, pupil activity, and problem situations. The role of the teacher is that of guide and counsel. Thus, the term "assignment," with its connotation of formality and teacher domination, is not appropriate for this type of school situation. Activities imposed by the group, including those suggested by the teacher as a group member, and those imposed by the individual upon himself, constitute the modern version of the traditional assignment.

class period. Class period or conference period used in preference to the outmoded term "recitation period," except where reference is actually made to the traditional recitation.

core curriculum. The basic curriculum, consisting of experiences considered desirable for all. It comprises the persistent problems of living. It is preferred to "common subjects." The core is also designated as "common learnings."

[1] Stuart Chase, *The Tyranny of Words*, pp. 350, 361, Harcourt Brace, 1938.

[2] Adapted from Superintendent of Public Instruction, *The Language of Modern Education*, Department of Public Instruction, Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, 1939, 46 pp., and Carter V. Good, *Dictionary of Education*, McGraw-Hill, 1945, 495 pp.

correlation. Relation of materials from different subject fields. The term represents a transition from the subject organization of the curriculum to the new organizations, which abandon subject lines.

course of study. An element of the curriculum consisting in the activities or experiences designed to achieve the objectives of the field, arranged in sequence. The course of study embraces the objectives, materials of instruction, method, outcomes, and means of evaluation for the curricular segment covered. It constitutes, therefore, a guide to the teacher and is usually set up in written form. The course of study is beginning to give way to a teacher's guide.

curriculum. The organized experiences of an individual under the guidance of the school. Accurately, it can be defined only in retrospect, since each individual has a different set of experiences and thus a different curriculum. The original meaning, from the Latin derivation, is race course, thus, the track or route followed under the school's guidance. For practical purposes, the term is applied to the series of experiences in which pupils are expected to engage. In the elementary school there is but one curriculum, disregarding special classes. In the secondary school, where groups of pupils have different objectives, there are commonly two or more curriculums, such as the college preparatory, scientific, general, and homemaking curriculums.

education. (Defined later in this unit.)

examination. A device used to discover the extent to which an individual or class has achieved a given level of accomplishment or has mastered certain knowledge. Its connotation is formal, teacher-imposed; hence it is not best suited to the uses of modern education. "Evaluation" is suggested as a more effective term. It implies the interpretation of the testing results.

experience. A term used frequently with reference to the curriculum, since the learner's experiences are understood to be the means by which learnings are developed and therefore are the significant elements of the curriculum. Care should be taken not to limit its meaning to overt activities, since many significant experiences are largely mental or emotional, even though the situations that stimulate them are external to the learner.

general education. The common denominator of the education of all. It is designed to equip a student with a wide range of competencies needed by him both as a person and as a professional worker. It accents the "general art of the free man and the citizen."

grade. The school-year level of a pupil or class, as grade 6 or eighth grade. This is to be distinguished from "mark."

group dynamics. Working together in such a way that each member of the group contributes to the maximum of his ability in reaching decisions and in implementing them. The group and individual become dynamic in the application of democratic principles to all areas of living, including education.

guidance. Help given to aid an individual in making a choice or in changing his behavior. Guidance as an activity of the school is concerned with needed adjustment. In its best form, it occurs before the need arises, thus enabling the individual to make his own choice at a time of crisis. True guidance does not indicate the choice to be made but provides the data necessary for intelligent choice. The term has become so closely associated with vocational guidance, in connection with which it was first used, that to avoid confusion, it is advisable to indicate the phases of guidance intended, as health guidance, emotional guidance, or educational guidance.

instruction. Since Roman times, the concept of teaching has been associated with the term "instruction," literally, to build into. The modern concept involves more than teaching. As now understood, instruction is the process that gives form and direction to educative experience. Thus museums, libraries, textbooks, school journeys, curriculum planning are all instructional, having as their direct purpose the furtherance of education.

integration. A process of unifying, or making whole, characteristic of living organisms. Personality may be described as integrated, being an attribute of a living organism. A curriculum, on the other hand, cannot rightly be said to be integrated, since it is not biological. It is suggested that the term "fused" be used.

learning. Growing or changing, as a result of experience. The term is essentially synonymous with education, its product being a modification of personality resulting from experience as opposed to maturation.

lesson. This term is fast becoming obsolete, for its implication of the acquisition of a small segment of information during a brief period is not in accord with modern methods of studying subject fields organized into relatively broad areas of activity for considerable periods. Especially is the related term, "lesson-plan" in disfavor, implying a rigid procedure rather than the flexible planning characteristic of the best modern practice.

materials of instruction. All materials used to further pupil activities. These include books, pictures, films, notes, exhibits, and construction materials. Broadly conceived materials of instruction comprise the whole body of content and experiencing with which the child is concerned in school—recognizing also out-of-school experiencing which may be directly related to and which conditions in-school experiencing.

objective. That which is set up as a goal, to give direction to procedures. "Aim" and "goal" are widely used terms which may be regarded as synonymous, though attempts are sometimes made to differentiate between them. Of the three, objective is preferred. The term "objective" may be broken down and classified. An ultimate objective is an objective that was set up for the pupil to attain at some remote time, possibly during the school year, possibly in a later grade, and even possibly later in life. An immediate objective, on the other hand, is one that could be attained in a very short time, possibly during a particular school period or possibly during the study of a unit. Immediate objectives are used as steppingstones in attaining ultimate objectives.

personality. Generally considered to be the total of an individual's characteristics, distinguishing him from other individuals. It is also commonly used to indicate the emotional aspects of the individual as distinguished from physical and mental qualities.

philosophy of education. A basic attitude in the light of which educational practices are interpreted, evaluated, and criticized. There are many philosophies of education; for example, the philosophy of Dewey or a teacher's philosophy of education.

problem. A situation calling for solution and requiring a choice among several alternatives. Exploration of all possible alternatives and a weighing of their values is implied. Such a situation has special value as a stimulus to learning if it involves issues closely related to the interest of the learner.

program of studies. The outline of curricular offerings of a school; the complete array of courses of study comprising all the curriculums. (See also curriculum and course of study.)

project. In its essential features a problematic situation and its solution in a natural setting. A project comprises four essential steps: purposing, planning, executing, and judging. It is essentially self-motivating.

recitation. In the traditional sense, class time devoted to a particular subject, in which pupils reply to questions covering the content of the textbook. It is replaced by such terms as "conference," "work period," "meeting," and "discussion," which carry the connotations of modern philosophies of education.

schooling. Attendance at school. This is to be distinguished from education.

semester hour. A credit unit of one class-hour per week for one semester. It is preferred to "credit" or "unit" as a more definite term.

subjects. Usually applied to areas of human knowledge that are so arranged because of the similarity of knowledge involved rather than because of their relatedness in life experiences. Because of its logical, rather than psychological, nature, and because of its implication of subject matter mastery for its own sake, the term is misleading when used in relation to modern educational viewpoints. "Area of experience" is suggested as a substitute.

teaching. Basically an activity on the part of a person more mature with respect to learning experience, designed to further the education of another. Thus it is possible for a child to teach an adult. In the school situation, teaching may be defined as the provision for experiences and guidance of activities designed to promote learning on the part of those engaging in the activities. The essential element of guidance is deemed so important by the so-called "progressive education" that some of its proponents altogether reject the term "teaching," for which they substitute "guidance."

unit of learning. A group of coordinated activities resulting in the adjustment of the individual to a life situation. The unifying element is not, as frequently conceived, the subject matter or pupil interest, but the learning product. This outcome is a definite adaptation of personality representing the ability to meet a whole life situation.

OBJECTIVES OF EDUCATION

Since the curriculum is a direct outgrowth of the aims and purposes of education, attention is here centered upon some definitions and the major goals of education.

What Is Education?

This common but difficult question may be attacked from both the negative and the positive sides.[3]

What Education Is Not. Education is not a mere preparation for life—getting ready to do things, rather than doing them. Education is not synonymous with schooling; it begins with the parents before the child's birth, whereas schooling usually starts about the fifth year of life. Education is not simply the acquisition of knowledge or the accumulation of grades, credits, and degrees. Education is not book learning; much wisdom comes from activities other than reading a textbook. Education

[3] Another approach is to define education in terms of biology, psychology, sociology, etc.

is not something apart from life; it does not thrive in a cloistered atmosphere. Education is not a summation of discrete parts; it is a whole that is greater than its components.

What Education Is. On the positive side education has been defined literally and figuratively. Here are some of the old and new concepts:

A good education consists in giving to the body and to the soul all the beauty and all the perfection of which they are capable.

—Plato

What sculpture is to a block of marble, education is to the soul.

—Addison

'Tis education forms the common mind;
Just as the twig is bent the tree's inclined.

—Pope

Education is the instruction of the intellect in the laws of Nature, under which name I include not merely things and their forces, but men and their ways; and the fashioning of the affections and of the will into an earnest and loving desire to move in harmony with these laws.

—Thomas Henry Huxley

Education has for its object the formation of character.

—Herbert Spencer

Education is what is left after you have forgotten what you have learned from books.

—Anonymous

Education alone can conduct us to that enjoyment which is, at once, best in quality and infinite in quantity.

—Horace Mann

Knowledge does not comprise all which is contained in the large term of education. The feelings are to be disciplined, the passions are to be restrained; true and worthy motives are to be inspired; a profound religious feeling is to be instilled, and pure morality inculcated under all circumstances. All this is comprised in education.

—Webster

Education is a social process; our schools and colleges neither operate in empty space nor serve identical communities.

—James Bryant Conant

Education 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.

—John Dewey

The popular concept today is that of Dewey, *viz.*, that education is growth resulting from experiences. This education may be good, bad, or indifferent, although common usage refers to socially desirable develop-

ment. If education is conceived in terms of growth, then it is as difficult to "educate" children as it is to "grow" plants. The teacher as a gardener of human growth seeks to provide conditions conducive to development through learning. Basically education is a lifelong learning process involving all-round development accompanied by adjustments within oneself to things, circumstances, and people. Intrinsic self-adjustment and extrinsic social adjustment are both concomitants of healthy growth. Educators must be concerned with the direction in which such development should be kept moving, and the ultimate goals toward which it should be directed. In the final analysis, the objectives of education are determined by the very nature of man himself.

The depth, length, and breadth of education are revealed more pointedly in its objectives, aims, or purposes than in terse definitions. These objectives when implemented by a functioning curriculum become a program of social action.

Objectives Defined by Individuals

Just as education is a process of growth, so too the objectives of education slowly evolve. Every statement of purposes develops from the judgment or scale of values held by some person or group. Educational leaders and professional groups have listed the objectives in various ways. A few illustrative statements by individuals and groups are included here.

Herbert Spencer's Classification of Objectives. Herbert Spencer, who has never been accorded his just place in the field of education, as early as 1861 revealed his social insight through his published classification of human activities as a basis for grouping educational objectives. His five major areas of human conduct were as follows:

1. Self-preservation
2. Securing the necessities of life
3. Rearing and discipline of offspring
4. Maintenance of proper social and political relations
5. Activities which make up the leisure part of life, devoted to the gratification of the tastes and feelings[4]

This list helped to popularize the practice of classifying human activities.

Chapman and Counts' List. In their publication, *Principles of Education*, Chapman and Counts listed the following as objectives and touchstones for each individual to develop in consonance with his capacity:

1. Furthering health
2. Promoting family membership

[4] Herbert Spencer, *Education*, p. 32, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1861.

3. Humanizing industry
4. Advancing civic interest
5. Enriching the recreational life
6. Fostering religious aspirations[5]

Stephen M. Corey's Must Tasks. Stephen M. Corey summarizes thus the goals of education in terms of the "must" tasks of young people:

1. Coming to terms with their bodies
2. Learning new relationships to their age-mates
3. Achieving independence from parents
4. Achieving adult social and economic values
5. Acquiring self-confidence and a system of values[6]

While these tasks are especially applicable to secondary youth, they serve as challenges for all.

James Bryant Conant's Objectives for Public Education. In answer to his own question, "Why should one be taxed to provide schools for other people's children?" James Bryant Conant gives these reasons:

1. Education for citizenship
2. Education for the good life
3. Vocational education of which professional education is a special case[7]

This threefold division of education, Conant states, may serve as a rough guide to a layman seeking to penetrate the tangle of verbosities that surrounds many academic discussions.

The foregoing are among the many recognized objectives of education.

Objectives Prepared by Professional Groups

Collective professional opinion as to what constitutes the goals of education has been crystallized periodically in statements prepared in connection with local, state, regional, and national programs, such as those described later in this unit. Illustrative group statements on the purposes of education, *viz.*, the North Central Association objectives and The Life Adjustment Principles, as formulated respectively by a regional and a national committee, are presented in Unit VII. Here are summarized general objectives or the purposes of education in American democracy, prepared by the Educational Policies Commission.

[5] James C. Chapman and George S. Counts, *Principles of Education*, pp. 195–364. Houghton, 1924.

[6] Stephen M. Corey, *The American High School*, pp. 70–99, Harper, 1946.

[7] James Bryant Conant, *Education in a Divided World*, p. 69, Harvard University Press, 1948.

Purposes of Education in American Democracy. These are both general and specific. Some of them undoubtedly possess the important quality of universality and eternal validity. The commission identified four aspects of educational purpose, centering around (1) the person himself, (2) his relationship to others in home and community, (3) the creation and use of material wealth, and (4) socio-civic activities.[8] The first area calls for a description of the educated *person*; the second, for a description of the educated *member of the family and community group*; the third, of the educated *producer or consumer*; the fourth, of the educated *citizen.* The four great groups of objectives are stated as those of:

1. Self-realization
2. Human relationship
3. Economic efficiency
4. Civic responsibility

Each of these, related to the others in a whole, is capable of further subdivision. A summary of each major objective is presented here.

The Objectives of Self-realization

The Inquiring Mind. The educated person has an appetite for learning.

Speech. The educated person can speak the mother tongue clearly.

Reading. The educated person reads the mother tongue efficiently.

Writing. The educated person writes the mother tongue effectively.

Number. The educated person solves his problems of counting and calculating.

Sight and Hearing. The educated person is skilled in listening and observing.

Health Knowledge. The educated person understands the basic facts concerning health and disease.

Health Habits. The educated person protects his own health and that of his dependents.

Public Health. The educated person works to improve the health of the community.

Recreation. The educated person is participant and spectator in many sports and other pastimes.

Intellectual Interests. The educated person has mental resources for the use of leisure.

Aesthetic Interests. The educated person appreciates beauty.

[8] Educational Policies Commission, *Policies for Education in American Democracy*, National Education Association, 1946, pp. 185–252. In this volume a chapter is devoted to each major objective.

Character. The educated person gives responsible direction to his own life.

The Objectives of Human Relationship

Respect for Humanity. The educated person puts human relationships first.

Friendships. The educated person enjoys a rich, sincere, and varied social life.

Cooperation. The educated person can work and play with others.

Courtesy. The educated person observes the amenities of social behavior.

Appreciation of the Home. The educated person appreciates the family as a social institution.

Conservation of the Home. The educated person conserves family ideals.

Homemaking. The educated person is skilled in homemaking.

Democracy in the Home. The educated person maintains democratic family relationships.

The Objectives of Economic Efficiency

Work. The educated producer knows the satisfaction of good workmanship.

Occupational Information. The educated producer understands the requirements and opportunities for various jobs.

Occupational Choice. The educated producer has selected his occupation.

Occupational Efficiency. The educated producer succeeds in his chosen vocation.

Occupational Adjustment. The educated producer maintains and improves his efficiency.

Occupational Appreciation. The educated producer appreciates the social value of his work.

Personal Economics. The educated consumer plans the economics of his own life.

Consumer Judgment. The educated consumer develops standards for guiding his expenditures.

Efficiency in Buying. The educated consumer is an informed and skillful buyer.

Consumer Protection. The educated consumer takes appropriate measures to safeguard his interests.

The Objectives of Civic Responsibility

Social Justice. The educated citizen is sensitive to the disparities of human circumstance.

Social Activity. The educated citizen acts to correct unsatisfactory conditions.

Social Understanding. The educated citizen seeks to understand social structures and social processes.

Critical Judgment. The educated citizen has defenses against propaganda.

Tolerance. The educated citizen respects honest differences of opinion.

Conservation. The educated citizen has a regard for the nation's resources.

Social Applications of Science. The educated citizen measures scientific advance by its contribution to the general welfare.

World Citizenship. The educated citizen is a cooperating member of the world community.

Law Observance. The educated citizen respects the law.

Economic Literacy. The educated citizen is economically literate.

Political Citizenship. The educated citizen accepts his civic duties.

Devotion to Democracy. The educated citizen acts upon an unswerving loyalty to democratic ideals.

In the years to come, many other individually or collectively ascertained principles will guide American education, but these objectives of the Educational Policies Commission are destined to affect educational thinking and to effect changes in school curriculums. Since objectives are a statement of declarations or preferences, individuals or groups can accept these or prepare their own list of educational aims. Furthermore, as pointed out by the Educational Policies Commission, the applications of values vary from place to place and from hour to hour; hence it is impossible in a dynamic, changing world to develop detailed purposes that are universally applicable and perpetually enduring. Therefore both the philosophic fundamentals of education and the curriculums must be subject to constant revision if they are to be meaningful to the people and effective in schools, colleges, and life. Furthermore, realistic objectives should stimulate goal-directed activity and develop into desirable outcomes. Too often objectives exist merely for historical purposes and are as ineffective as New Year's resolutions.

PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

A common practice in the initiation of programs for curriculum development is to prepare a list of basic principles or guiding assumptions. This initial attack provides a unified point of view and a basis for consistency of action among the educational workers as they develop curriculums.

General Principles Basic to Curriculum Development

The Curriculum Is Broad and Comprehensive. As defined previously, the curriculum consists of the "organized experiences of an individual

under the guidance of the school." Some authorities go to the extreme in stating that the curriculum consists of all the experiences a person has, irrespective of what, when, and where. Obviously there must be some delimitation. Generally, however, the term curriculum is interpreted broadly.

The curriculum is not simply a series of printed pages written in some central office for the information and guidance of the teachers in the classroom. Such published materials are often extremely helpful to the teachers in their work, but the curriculum itself is not what is written but what is done.[9] Today's program for youth accents the kind of experiences he ought to have rather than the names of the subjects he should take. These experiences are facilitated and directed through the development of curricular materials. The activities and materials are as broad as life itself. The curriculum is life material used in building body, mind, and soul structure.

The Curriculum Has Its Roots in a Philosophy of Education. A broad well-grounded curriculum reaches down into the bedrock of the school's educational principles. Since educational philosophy is primarily concerned with a criticism of experience, it is obvious that its formulation follows prolonged study. As William James once stated, philosophy is a particularly obstinate effort to think closely. A deep, sustaining philosophy is more likely to result from the leisure meditation of the Indian oriental who spends hours in contemplative thought than from the mile-a-minute dash of the occidental who does much of his thinking while he talks. There is imminent danger that teachers will seek to "Simonize" their curriculums by applying hastily a thin top coat of diluted educational philosophy. A frame of reference cannot be formulated in one teachers' meeting—it is evolved from life through continual reflection. Furthermore, caution must be expressed against the current practice of parroting the trite phrases of educational theorists instead of building a strong philosophy upon the inner convictions and firsthand knowledges of those who work daily with pupils and who have digested the thoughts of yesterday's and today's scholars.

Curriculum Building Is a Democratic, Cooperative Enterprise. Whether it be a local, state-wide, or national program, cooperative effort is essential in curriculum work. One postulate of democracy is that persons enjoy those things in the building of which they have shared. This is doubly true in regard to the curriculum of the school. The course of study is not a dictator's manifesto or an executive fiat. The modern curriculum is based upon the democratic tradition that the purposes and programs of

[9] Educational Policies Commission, *Education for all American Youth*, p. 99, National Education Association, 1948.

education should be developed cooperatively through the "interactive processes of living." Furthermore, participation is not limited to teachers and administrators. Pupils, parents, interested patrons, and specialists, as active agents in the educative process, can contribute to the broadened offerings of the community school. Hence of extreme importance in curriculum building are "group dynamics"—the productive processes of collective actions and interactions in furthering school and society.

(*Courtesy of Public Schools, Saginaw, Michigan.*)

FIG. 13-2. Panel discussion for the high-school divisions, Saginaw, Michigan. Parents, teachers, and businessmen participate in the discussions of curriculum and related topics.

The Administrative Organization Should be Simple and Flexible. An individual teacher, zealous for curriculum reform, need not wait for complex administrative machinery to be installed locally or for a slow-moving state-wide program to be launched. The organization for curriculum production, especially in the typical school, may be very simple, with equipment and personnel added as needed and as funds become available. The committee system can be employed with a wide degree of fluidity and a high degree of effectiveness.

The Housing of the School Should Conform to the Curricular Needs.[10] A

[10] American Association of School Administrators, *American School Buildings*, Chap. VI, "Planning Instructional Features to Fit the Educational Program," National Education Association, 1949.

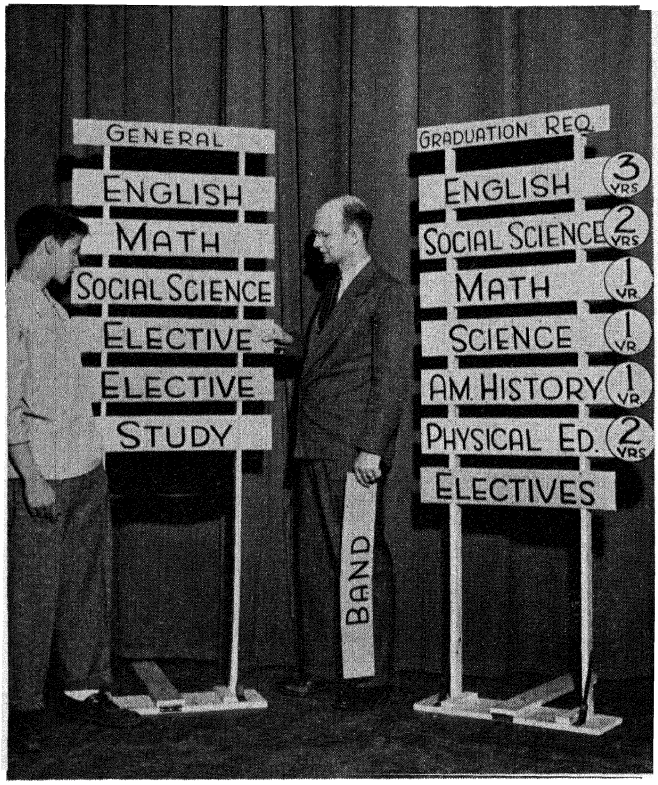
principle hard to apply in many schools is that of adjusting the building to the educational program rather than that of developing a curriculum that will conform to the brick and mortar limitations imposed by existing structures. Many school buildings are obstacles to educational progress. A typical illustration is a high school erected before the course in auto mechanics was introduced so that today it is impossible to bring an automobile into or near the building. The housing as well as the educational supplies and equipment should function in the service of educational goals.

The Curriculum Must Provide for Individual Differences. A basic principle is that the curriculum should recognize the pupil as an individual who has a right to his own characteristic type of personality development under such guidance as is needed. Figuratively, some puny pupils are required to struggle with a 20-pound load when all they can carry is 10 pounds, whereas mentally husky individuals who can shoulder 50 pounds with ease are permitted to play with ounces. The former practice results in retardation, and the latter produces lazy workmen. A difficulty with the old order of curriculums was that the child was divided: the teacher demanded one thing and the pupil's nature and interest dictated another loyalty. Individual differences must be considered if the pupil is to develop his "personality quotient," to use his own leisure time wisely, to select a suitable vocation for himself, and to be a dynamic part of a larger whole. Meeting these individual requirements does not necessitate a contest between individual and societal needs, and between specifics and generalities. Education has general principles applicable to the whole of its citizenry, but it must be individualized even in social application.

The Creative Must Be Encouraged. Since education tends to become too wooden and mechanical, much emphasis today is placed upon developing creativeness in the pupil and teacher. The school, which often stifled genius, now encourages deviations from a fixed pattern. Gone is the day when all pupils in an art class drew a flower in identical patterns and with the same color. Creative self-expression is the antithesis of moronic imitation. Intrinsic interests rather than extraneous assignments goad pupils to action. *Memoriter* learning except in basic essentials is being dethroned. Skills are taught through functional use in meaningful situations. Curriculums are built out of knowledge about the individual pupil. The modern curriculum functions best under an eclectic procedure, which necessitates that teachers think creatively and ingeniously of many learning-teaching possibilities.

Guidance Is Inextricably Linked with the Curriculum. One cannot isolate a guidance program from the curriculum; their synthesis is inevitable. A growing practice is to map out in advance a tentative curriculum for all four years of the student's proposed stay in the high school. This tends

to make the student feel that each course is a part of a larger plan for rounding out his education. This long-term curricular outlook is also being provided for college students in an increasing number of institutions. Guidance is not a disparate service to be performed only by specialists.



(*Courtesy Public Schools, Idaho Falls, Idaho.*)

FIG. 13-3. Preregistration coupled with curricular guidance in the junior high school. The Junior High School of Idaho Falls has four curriculums: college preparatory, vocational, commercial, and general. As pictured above, the general curriculum calls for all ninth-graders taking English, some type of mathematics, social science, two electives, and "study."

The classroom instructor through the curriculum, makes many adaptations to allow the pupil a maximum of self-direction. The course of study is in itself a mere guide for the teacher. Modern school administration is designed to provide curricular help for both students and teachers through person-to-person guidance and individual therapy as well as group advisement.

The Curriculum Should Be Life-centered. Although the individual pupil must be recognized, the modern school is not restricted to a child-centered curriculum. Neither should the curriculum be adult-centered. The focal point is life itself. A life-centered curriculum recognizes the past of the race plus the present and future life of the learner and society. To be life-centered the modern curriculum must function 24 hours a day.

Evaluation Is Essential for Pupil and Curriculum. Evaluation in its broad scope is replacing tests. Many instruments of diagnosis and reliable measures of pupil growth are employed rather than mere pencil-and-paper tests and lesson reciting, which often consists of repeating to the teacher stereotyped phrases and clauses. The atomistic character of appraisal revealed itself in yesteryear in the extreme emphasis upon subjects rather than upon pupils, upon what they wrote rather than what they did.

Evaluation of curricular materials is also inevitable. Sometimes this is made voluntarily; often, however, circumstances such as a financial stringency force a reappraisal of a school's offerings. Accretions in course offerings do not necessarily mean improvement; elimination is unavoidable in curricular reform. This involves a related principle expressed many years ago by Herbert Spencer in the query, "What knowledge is of most worth?" A pupil receives his formal education in a relatively short span; hence evaluation must result in the elimination as well as the addition of curricular materials.

Constant Curriculum Revision Is Imperative. It is law of growth that things must change; hence constant curricular modifications are inevitable. Teachers are likely to work feverishly on curriculum reform for a few years and then write an indelible "finis" to materials committed to permanent print. The curriculum at its best is an evolving series of experiences; hence it does not need to be copyrighted for 28 years or registered in the United States Patent Office. Constant revisions, which should be made in such a manner as to avoid educational chaos, will lead to intellectual emancipation for the schools and will enable educators to meet the challenges of contemporary life. A changeless curriculum postulates a static society, and, vice versa, an unchanging society demands no curricular innovations. Education must recover what is valuable in the residue of the past, but it must also break away from the authority of outworn tradition.

PROCEDURES IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Intertwined with the principles just enumerated are the procedures or techniques in curriculum development. Several major steps are listed and then a few detailed techniques are described.

Major Steps in Curriculum Development

The usual approaches to curriculum activity are: the cooperative development of basic principles that underlie the evolution of curriculums; a study of the characteristics and needs of pupils, adults, and society; or the immediate direct attack upon subject matter and content, as through a production committee for mathematics. Often these approaches are combined, or each is lifted up for periodic emphasis as curriculum building progresses.

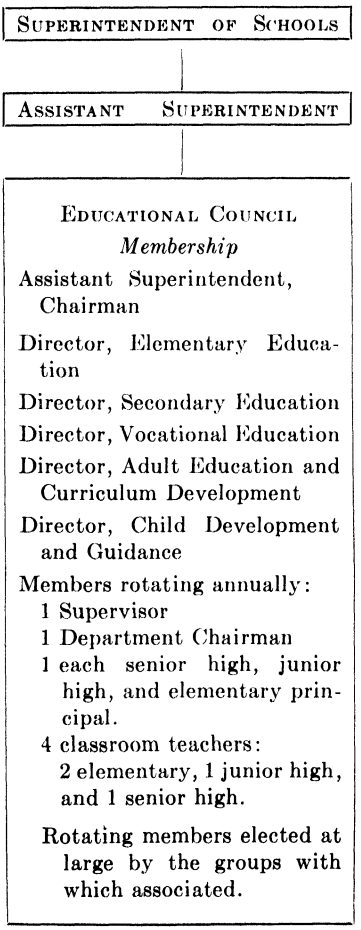
Curricular procedures are influenced so markedly by the community, school, and personnel engaged in the work that it is impossible to set up a uniform series of sequential steps. Some of the major procedures followed in a local school system are as follows:

Inviting cooperation and support for curriculum reorganization
Organizing personnel for curriculum development
Formulating tentative statement of guiding curricular principles
Selecting procedures for developing curriculums
Educating teachers in techniques of revision
Consulting outside specialists for assistance
Formulating general aims, objectives, or functions of education
Studying needs, interests, and abilities of pupils
Surveying legal prescriptions affecting the curriculum
Making historical surveys of curriculum development
Getting parental opinion on the curriculum
Investigating community and societal characteristics and resources
Making detailed activity or job analyses
Collecting and analyzing curriculum materials and research studies
Selecting and organizing content
Suggesting teaching-learning procedures
Correlating work in various areas and levels
Determining approximate time allotments
Establishing minimum standards of achievement and growth
Organizing experimental groups and conducting extensive tryouts
Checking content for unnecessary duplication or omission of essentials
Editing material for expression and form
Selecting textbooks and library materials
Recommending other supplies and equipment
Educating teachers in the use of reorganized curriculum
Preparing materials for evaluating pupil growth
Appraising results of curricular reconstruction
Providing for continuous development of the curriculum
Interpreting the program continuously to the public

A few of the detailed techniques employed by curriculum workers will be described briefly.

Specific Techniques in Building Curriculums

Organization of Personnel. Curriculum work is best promoted under a simple but effective coordination of workers. An illustration of how a school system is organized for curriculum building is depicted in Fig. 13-4. One notes the use of an educational council which works closely with the curriculum department in the development of materials.



Educational Council

Responsibility: The educational council is directly responsible to the superintendent and reports only to him.

Function: Formulation of the philosophy, principles, and objectives essential to a sound educational program in a democratic society.

Duties:

1. Analyze critically the educational interests and needs of the City of Wilmington.
2. Work closely with the curriculum development department in the development of curriculums to be followed at all levels.
3. Prepare recommendations to the superintendent and the administrative cabinet suggesting procedure designed to implement the program required.
4. Plan procedures for the integration and coordination of the program from kindergarten through adult education.
5. Recommend procedures for the examination and evaluation of the program now in effect in each division of the school system to determine its effectiveness in achieving its purposes.
6. Suggest ways and means of improving the educational program.
7. Recommend to the committee on professional growth desirable steps in the development of greater professional competence among the entire staff.
8. Suggest ways and means of demonstrating the power of education to develop competent American citizens, thus gaining public understanding, cooperation, and support.

(Courtesy of Public Schools, Wilmington, Delaware.)

Fig. 13-4. Organization of educational council at Wilmington, Delaware. The council works closely with the curriculum development department in promoting curricular activity on all levels.

Survey of Legal Prescriptions. No group engaged in curriculum work can afford to ignore the mandates of the lawgivers. To the courses of study the lawmakers have added many requirements, from the general order in the first grade that basic instruction must be in the English language to the federal stipulation that land-grant colleges must teach military science. The most frequent legal accretions to the curriculum concern the teaching of United States history, civics, safety education, and the evil effects of narcotics and alcohol, plus the obligatory observance of special days.

Investigation and Use of Community Resources. The community school as an agency for achieving social ideals seeks to draw upon curriculum resources in the local setting as well as in larger spheres. Periodic inventories of the community resources made by pupils, teachers, and others will help to locate potential sources of curriculum enrichment and of work experiences for pupils.

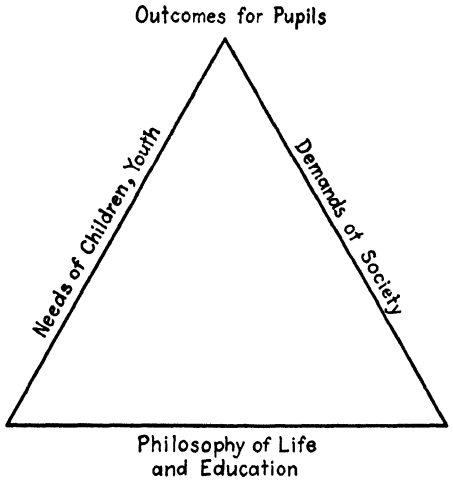
Activity or Job Analysis. In this technique the surveyor makes a detailed study of the various duties entailed in a particular job, such as office secretaryship. After the minute tasks have been located and defined, the school can better prepare a student for this position by giving him much specific information and many direct experiences. One of the chief proponents of these analytical procedures has been W. W. Charters, who has applied this technique to teaching. The curriculum at Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri, has been built primarily upon an analysis of activities performed by women.

Research and Experimentation in Curriculum Development. With the twentieth century began that emphasis in education which is called the "scientific movement," although from the days of Benjamin Franklin a small group of educators have been interested in objectivity and the scientific spirit. Gradually educators in larger numbers turned to experimentation and research instead of to opinion, tradition, and the paste-pot-and-scissors method of making courses of study.

Some research, however, does not merit the name, since it is mere busy work. Robert S. Lynd, in *Knowledge for What?*, has written "Research without an actively selective point of view becomes the ditty bag of an idiot, filled with bits of pebbles, straws, feathers, and other random hoardings."[11] Not only is much research of inferior quality, but significant findings obtained scientifically have been interpreted and applied in an unscientific manner. Teachers must become educated consumers as well as indefatigable producers of research. Among the genuine research investigations that have had a marked influence on the curriculum are

[11] Robert S. Lynd, *Knowledge for What?*, p. 183, Princeton University Press, 1939.

controlled studies of how human beings learn, as Gesell's investigations of the early years of childhood; experimentation with learning in animals, particularly white rats and monkeys, as Kofka's work with the insight in monkeys; research to find the most needed subject matter, as Hocking's early study of place geography; investigations of maturation and grade placement, as the work of the Committee of Seven in Arithmetic; observation to discover the effectiveness of certain types of teaching procedure, as Ellwood's study of the use of the unit method in high-school social studies; construction of intelligence tests, as the new revision of the Binet test; the development of various types of achievement tests, as the well-known Stanford achievement tests for elementary schools; and the perfecting of the newer types of evaluation, as the measures prepared by Tyler and his associates. Pioneers who gave much thought and effort to research in building curriculums are E. L. Thorndike, W. W. Charters, and Charles Judd. Today research and experimentation have numerous implications for the classroom teachers ss well as for the builder of a more scientifically prepared mental diet for the pupils.



(Courtesy of Ivol Spafford, Vergil Herrick, and Paul R. Pierce.)

FIG. 13-5. Factors in curriculum development. The base of the triangle is a philosophy of life and education.

Illustrative Diagram. Some of the techniques and principles in curriculum development are illustrated by the equilateral triangle shown in Fig. 13-5. The three factors to be given paramount consideration are indicated by the sides of the triangle:

1. A factor basic to the modern curriculum is the philosophy of life and education possessed by those who are making the curriculum. Here the question of values, understandings, and procedures essential to the democratic society arises.

2. There are the needs of society. Social changes are occurring rapidly and new issues are constantly emerging. Among the areas of social change are population movement, technological development, and home living. The curriculum must take into account the need for dealing with such developments.

3. But in a democratic society the interests and needs of the individual pupils

are as important as the needs of society. Changes in psychological principles, enunciation of new laws of learning, and data from pupils' physical, mental, and emotional development profoundly affect the building of an educational program.

The relationship of the three factors is shown in the diagram, in which the philosophy of life and education of those responsible for the educational program forms the baseline of the chart, the needs of the pupils and the needs of society the sides, and the apex the outcomes for the pupils.[12]

The outcomes for the pupils are affected by the way in which curricular materials are organized.

ORGANIZATION OF CURRICULAR MATERIALS

Types of Curriculum Organization

Curricular patterns range from the traditional type to extreme experimentation. Five of the curricular patterns with alternate designations are (1) subject or traditional, (2) correlated or fused, (3) broad fields or areas, (4) core or common learnings, and (5) experience or functional curriculums. These types, which are not mutually exclusive and have numerous variations, are described as follows:[13]

Subject Curriculum. This is characterized by a large number of subjects taught independently of each other. Most of the time of the pupil is spent in learning from books and other written and printed materials in various subjects in which the accumulated wisdom of experts in that field has been recorded. The emphasis is upon the learning of subject matter selected long before the children appear in the classroom.

In such a curriculum, history, geography, and civics usually are isolated subjects (see Fig. 13-6).

Correlated Curriculum. Here the underlying ideas are those described for the subject curriculum. The starting point is subject-matter-set-out-to-be-learned. The correlated curriculum can be carried out in numerous ways which can be conveniently arranged on a scale. At the bottom would be located the casual and incidental efforts to make relationships between or among subjects. At the top of the scale would be located those conscious and definitely planned efforts to see that relationships among subjects were made and carried out effectively.

[12] Adapted from Paul R. Pierce, "The Curriculum Council of the Chicago Public Schools," *Chicago Schools Journal*, March–April, 1949, p. 177. See also Vergil E. Herrick, "Developing a Curriculum for a Democratic Social Order," *Significant Aspects of American Life and Postwar Education*, pp. 28–29, University of Chicago Press, 1944.

[13] Adapted from L. Thomas Hopkins, *Integration: Its Meaning and Application*, pp. 197–275, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1937, and Good, *op. cit.*, pp. 113–114.

Among the correlations may be those between subjects within a field, as social science, or between subjects within two or more fields, as English and history. Subjects may be fused so that boundaries disappear.

The Broad Fields Curriculum. This is composed of a few fields rather than a large number of small subjects. In broad fields under the subject philosophy

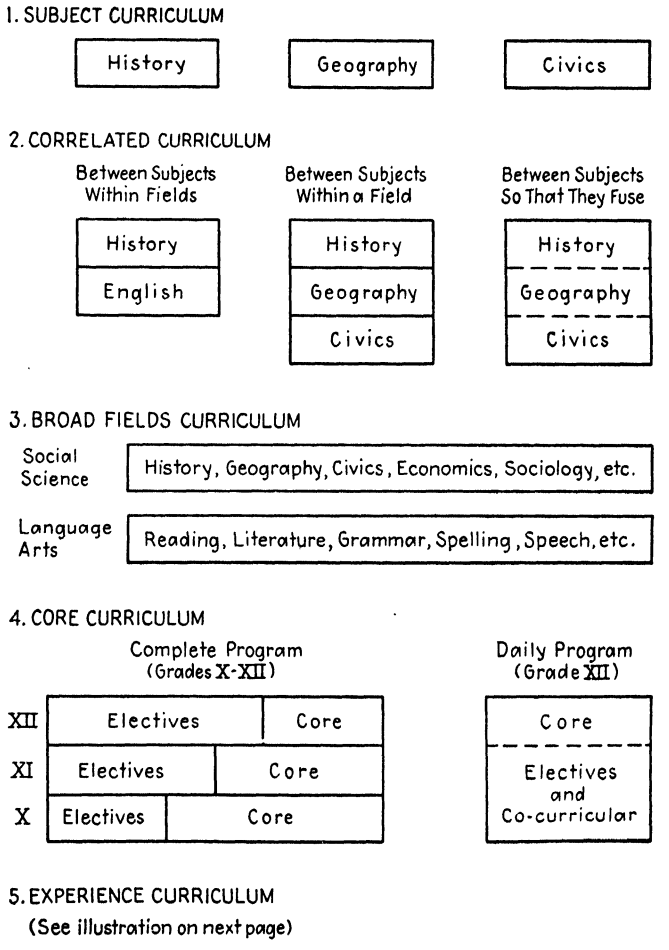


FIG. 13-6. Major types of curriculums.

the learning area is restricted, although definitely broader than what would be expected as a summation of various subjects. In broad fields under the experience philosophy the learning area is greatly increased.

Examples of these broad fields or areas are social science and the language arts.

The Core Curriculum. This includes subjects or a common body of experiences required of everyone but with variability of content and activities to meet the varying needs of individuals. The term core is used to cover a wide range of types of curriculum practice.

Part of the work in the senior high may be a basic core running through grades 10, 11, and 12 with variable time allotments. A certain portion of each day may be devoted to the core, or common learnings.

(*Lester Dix, A Charter for Progressive Education, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University,* 1939, *p.* 62.)

FIG. 13-7. A plan for the emerging curriculum. Lester Dix suggests for the four major areas the study of self-development, social environment, natural environment, and human expression and communications as represented in the arts. The disciplines named in the outer parts of the three circles do not form an exhaustive list. In the pure science area, for instance, there might be twenty-five or thirty. Moreover, the appropriate emphasis in this plan would be upon the most lately developed and currently functional aspects of these disciplines, for instance, biochemistry or biophysics. A similar emphasis is proposed for the social sciences

The Experience Curriculum. This is a series of purposeful experiences growing out of pupil interests and moving toward an ever more adequate understanding of and intelligent participation in the surrounding culture and group life. The experience curriculum has its beginnings in the situations which confront children in their immediate living.

The example that follows is the directly functional curriculum suggested by Lester Dix. Dix proposes for the general divisions of his functional curriculum:

1. The Study of Oneself—embracing the functions of guidance, of health development and emotional adjustment, of the provision of basic necessities, of play, recreation, club, and hobby interests, and all social activities.
2. The Study of the Social Environment—the evolution, functions, and structures of cultures, particularly American society.
3. The Study of the Natural Environment—the relationship of man and nature; his sciences of control, adaptation, and utilization.
4. The Study of the Arts—the evolution, materials, skills, and attitudes of the arts of human expression, communication, and imagination.[14]

These areas are pictured in Fig. 13-7.

The directly functional type is a variety of experience curriculum. Another is the organization of subject matter and activities in teaching-learning units. Because of the significant role of units in current curriculums, this organization of materials and activities is described further.

Unitary Procedures in Teaching and Learning

Much confusion exists in regard to the term "unit," which is applied to many aspects of American public education.

An *administrative unit* is a school district—a geographical area which constitutes usually the territory legally under the direction of a board of education. It may be a small rural district or a large county unit of school administration.

The *attendance unit* may be identical in area with the administrative unit where there is but one school building to which all pupils go. In most cities the one administrative unit consists of several attendance units—schools that pupils in designated parts of the city attend.

The term is also applied to a level or *unit of school organization* such as the elementary school, or the secondary unit.

Sometimes the term designates a *unit of school construction*, as a school building, or a part of a building, as the home economics unit.

Toward the close of the nineteenth century the New York State Board of Regents started to measure a pupil's work in the high school in terms of "counts." The currently accepted method of calculating a high-school pupil's work quantitatively is the *Carnegie unit*, which was defined by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching as "a course of

[14] Lester Dix, *A Charter for Progressive Education*, p. 57, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939.

five periods a week throughout the academic year." More recently suggestions have been made that this count be altered to semester hours or some other measure.

The term is now widely applied to *teaching-learning units*—organized instructional materials and experiences that emphasize the organismic point of view that the individual functions as an organic whole.

In its broadest sense, a teaching-learning unit is a teacher-pupil designed series of significant experiences so related as to function in the all-round development of an integrating person in a dynamic world. This concept stresses the fact that the unit embraces both learning and teaching, involves both pupil and teacher activity, calls for planning, includes significant experiences, aims at many-sided development through a totality of learnings, and seeks to develop not an integrat*ed* but an integrat*ing* person who can adjust to ever-changing situations in a kaleidoscopic world. Furthermore, unit procedures are not designed exclusively for children but are used extensively and effectively for any learner—be he child, youth, or adult.

Historical Evolution of Teaching-learning Unit. The forerunner of the unit method was probably Johann Friedrich Herbart (1776–1841). The five Herbartian steps were: preparation, presentation, comparison, generalization, and application. One center of the Herbartian movement in the United States was Illinois State Normal University at Normal, Illinois, where Charles De Garmo, the brothers Charles and Frank McMurray, and other great teachers, several of whom studied in Germany, helped spread Herbart's ideas and started the Herbartian Society, now the National Society for the Study of Education. The Herbartian method was especially well adapted to the logically organized materials of instruction.

The current emphasis on the unit method of instruction was stimulated by Professor Henry C. Morrison of the University of Chicago. Through his classroom instruction and his writings, Professor Morrison's interpretation of the unit became widely accepted throughout the United States and abroad. The five Herbartian steps have their modern counterpart in the Morrisonian operative technique of exploration, presentation, assimilation, organization, and recitation. This is coupled with the mastery formula which is to pretest, teach, test the result, adapt procedure, teach and test again to the point of actual learning.[15]

Mary G. Kelty, John P. Wynne, Robert S. Ellwood, Arthur J. Jones, E. D. Grizzell, W. J. Grinstead, Roy O. Billett, and others have modified and interpreted the Morrisonian technique. Many state curricular groups

[15] Henry C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*, p. 81, University of Chicago Press, 1936.

and local school systems have adopted and adapted the unitary procedures in teaching and learning.

Organization of a Teaching-learning Unit. The order and number of elements included in a teaching-learning unit vary with the pupils, teacher, supervisor, school, and community, but the following list covers most factors in its organization:

1. A meaningful title—relationship with other units
2. Objectives—teacher and pupil; general and specific; minimum essentials
3. Grade placement—academic level
4. Approximate time elements—hours per day; number of weeks
5. Orientation—setting the stage; preparing pupils, teacher, and community; gathering data on pupils and local situation; pupil-teacher planning
6. Initiation of unit—pretest; suggested leads or approaches, exploratory questions; problem raising; presentation; lecture
7. Guidance of pupils—oral and written directions; developmental discussion; plans for work; unit guide sheets
8. Organization of teaching-learning materials—outline of content
9. Suggested activities—individual and group; curricular and cocurricular; initiating, developing, and culminating
10. Proposed teaching-learning procedure—directed study; assimilation of materials; recitation; organization of responses; provisions for correlation
11. Suggested materials and equipment—basal text or texts; elements of the environment; articles of achievement; audio-visual aids
12. Adaptations—provisions for flexibility and individual differences
13. Descriptive bibliography—pupil and teacher
14. Evaluation—actual outcomes in terms of objectives achieved, as measured by tests, reviews, reports (oral and written), anecdotal records, and other measures of personal growth and social living; evaluation of the unit
15. Report and historical record of the unit—illustrative teacher and pupil materials; diary of progress
16. Provision for continuous revision—perfecting the unit

The mechanical make-up or format of the unit should give consideration to such elements as initial page, table of contents, numbering of pages, title headings, binding, and other physical features.

As previously indicated, the eclectic method of teaching and learning employs many techniques and curricular patterns, including the teaching-learning unit just described. The unit does not have any rigidly fixed content but is flexible to meet times, places, and circumstances. One of its chief assets is that it involves more than a mere reorganization of traditional subject matter. A realistic unit of work is a designed program of dynamic living.

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN THE UNITED STATES

Historical Development of Curriculums

In the early days of American public education the curriculum was very simple in pattern although its content was heavy—too substantial for many. The pre-elementary program did not exist. The elementary school stressed four R's—reading, 'riting, 'rithmetic, and religion. In the high school the emphasis was on college preparation, whereas in the college there were no electives. The curriculums for out-of-school youth and adults were unknown. Today offers a marked contrast. Some of the curricular changes that have taken place are mentioned in Part II, Units V–IX, where historical overviews are presented for pre-elementary, elementary, secondary, and higher education, and for education for out-of-school youth and adults.

Various Committees. Important factors in the historical development of curriculums have been and still are the efforts of various national committees. The *Report of the Committee of Ten,* published in 1893, was a significant document in the history of American education. Associated in this work with Charles W. Eliot, then president of Harvard University, were such eminent leaders as William T. Harris, James B. Angell, and Henry Churchill King. Their report marked the beginning of the emancipation of secondary schools from the domination of college entrance requirements interpreted largely in terms of mathematics and language requirements; it included the findings of nine national conferences made up of leading educators in as many subject matter fields.

The *Report of the Committee of Fifteen,* published in 1895, was another pioneer document in the fields which it covered, *viz.*, the training of teachers, the correlation of studies in elementary education, and the organization of city school systems. This committee included in its membership William T. Harris, William H. Maxwell, and Andrew S. Draper.

A Committee of Nine on "The Articulation of the High Schools and Colleges," which, like the two preceding committees, was named by the National Education Association, recommended in 1911 that the completion of practically any broad, well-planned, high-school curriculum should be accepted as preparation for college. A year later this committee recommended that a "Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education" be appointed with 12 subcommittees to study the reorganization of high-school subjects. Among those who served on this commission and its subcommittees were: Thomas H. Briggs, Alexander Inglis, Henry Turner Bailey, James F. Hosic, Philander P. Claxton, and William H. Kilpatrick. This commission formulated in 1918 the Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education, previously mentioned.

A dynamic influence in curriculum development, through establishing

goals and policies, has been the National Education Association. Its Educational Policies Commission, in collaboration with the American Association of School Administrators, has published several monumental works affecting curriculum development. These include *Policies for Education in American Democracy*, one section of which dealt with the general purposes of education in American democracy; *Educational Services for Younger Children*, which recommended the extension of school services downward to at least the third or fourth year and outlined the characteristics of an educational program for children of these early years; *Education for All American Children*, which focused attention on the elementary schools, from the kindergarten through the sixth grade and even a wider range of ages; and *Education for All American Youth*, which dug beneath statements of general principles and suggested in some detail how approved principles could be applied in secondary education. The Commission will undoubtedly issue further statements of policies for the education of adults. On the international situation the Commission published *American Education and International Tensions*, which tried to forecast the general shape of things to come internationally and to indicate the ways in which the American schools might respond. The National Education Association has also published such curricular statements as *Education for International Understanding in American Schools*. Various departments of this association have issued and will continue to disseminate publications in the field of curriculum.

Among the other national societies that have stimulated curriculum reform are the National Society for the Study of Education through its yearbooks, the Progressive Education Association through its Eight-year Study, the Commission on Life Adjustment through its efforts to meet the imperative needs of youth, and the American Council on Education through its various commissions, such as the American Youth Commission and the Commission on Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs. The United States Office of Education has also been active in promoting two programs, "Zeal for American Democracy" and "Life Adjustment."

Of course it is difficult for youth and adults to walk democratically in a century that has witnessed totalitarian speed. No rose-strewn path is pictured for democracy in *American Education and International Tensions*:

> If the democratic way of life is to survive, democratic nations must withstand the challenge of communism. The prospect is that the challenge will be successfully met, although the degree of success cannot be accurately foreseen and the final outcome is by no means certain. It is certain that enlightened and consistent effort will be required.[16]

[16] Educational Policies Commission, *American Education and International Tensions*, p. 4, National Education Association, 1949.

Despite the possible setbacks now and then, the years to come will find pupils and teachers gaining strength in learning, teaching, and living democratically through their curricular and cocurricular activities.

Current Status of Curriculum Development

As just indicated, the curriculum of today is the result of a slow but steady development. Through the combined efforts of local, county,

(Courtesy of Public Schools, San Diego County, California.)

Fig. 13-8. Curriculum conference in service center, San Diego County, California.

state, regional, and national agencies the curriculum is becoming functional and elastic. In no area of public education has so much improvement been effected in the last decade as in curriculum.

Some General Curricular Trends.[17] Among the trends discernible today in the development of curriculums are the following general indications:

1. A broadened concept of the curriculum to embrace all the experiences which pupils have under the guidance of the teacher
2. An understanding of the philosophy that undergirds society, education in general, and the local school system

[17] For specific trends in pre-elementary, elementary, secondary, higher, out-of-school youth, and adult education, see the concluding portions of Units V–IX, respectively.

3. An application of the best developments in the psychology of learning and physical growth, particularly maturation
4. An increased emphasis upon actual outcomes rather than ethereal objectives
5. A functional concept of integration—an integrating child
6. An extension of the classroom through utilization of community resources
7. A reorganization of the program of studies on the bases of great central concepts, understandings, themes, fields or units, but with protection for pupils against the neglect of necessary skills, informations, and attitudes
8. A supplementing of measurement through pencil-paper tests by a many-sided program of qualitative evaluation
9. An elimination of some of the "deadwood" in the curriculum and the substitution of validated content
10. A development of a cooperative program of continuous curriculum revision by all pupils, teachers, administrators, and laymen
11. An unleashing of individual creative efforts by pupils and teachers
12. A specific remedial program based upon careful individual diagnosis
13. An incorporation of cocurricular activities in the school program for character development
14. A utilization of a wide variety of materials and equipment, including multisensory aids
15. A designing of school buildings to meet the requirements of a flexible program
16. A development of curricular guides containing "rich sources of raw materials" and curriculum laboratories for materials
17. A functional program of curricular services to meet fundamental human needs—mental, physical, social, and emotional (see Fig. 13-9)

Lester Dix describes four patterns of curricular emphasis as trends proceeding in the order named: the *traditional*, which addresses itself to the maintenance of the present status, with little planned relationship to the needs of young people who have been required to accept it; the *society-centered*, which is the chief type of current modification, with its social emphasis induced by the recently developed social consciousness in American thought; the *personality-centered*, which is hardly yet discernible in actual existence, with its efforts to utilize the mounting knowledge of individual growth and development; and the *directly functional* curriculum, which remains largely in the form of theory and verbal description, with its emphasis upon the study of the great fundamental areas of life activity.[18]

Although the curriculums of today are more functional than those of yesteryear, the future demands a critical evaluation of both current offerings and future accretions in order that present gains may be consolidated and dynamic growth guaranteed to the pupils of today and tomorrow.

[18] Lester Dix, *op. cit.*, pp. 51–56.

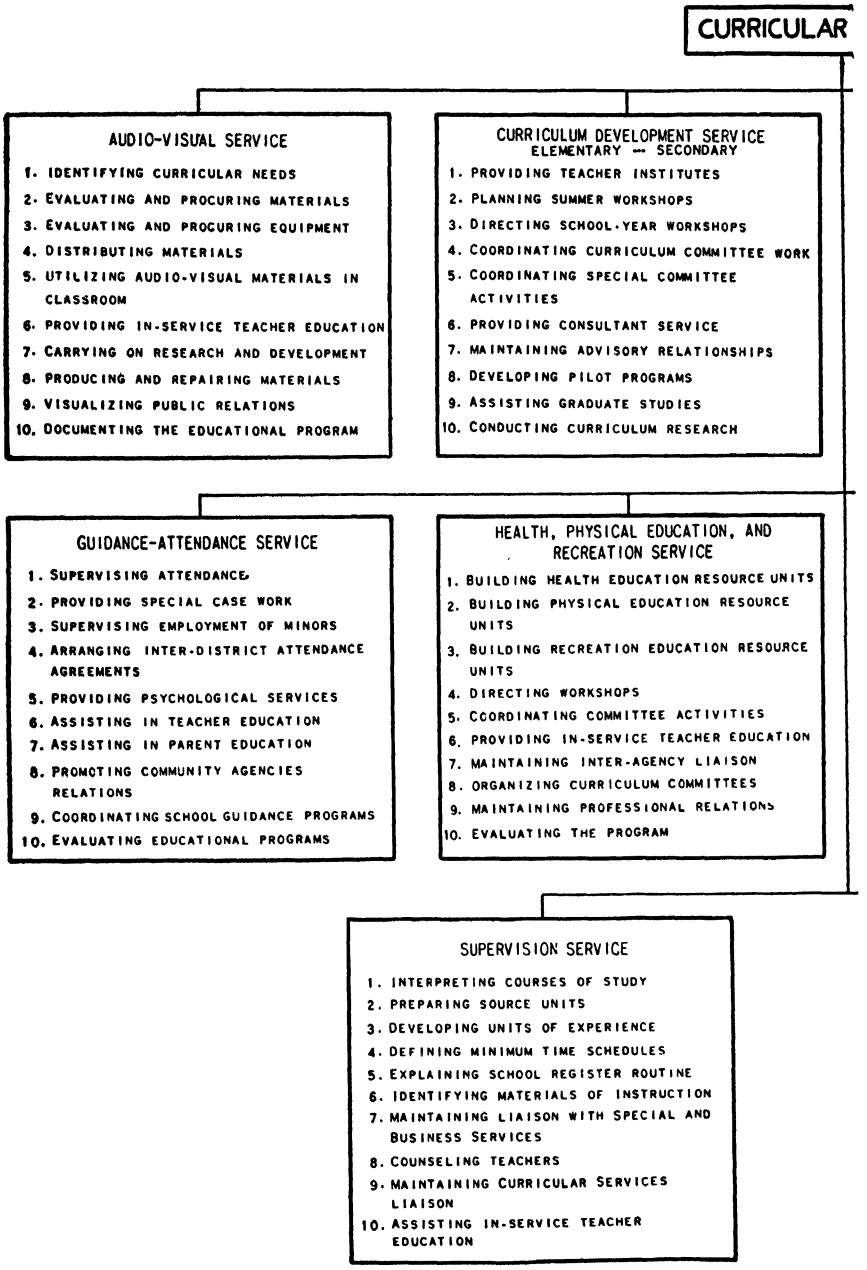
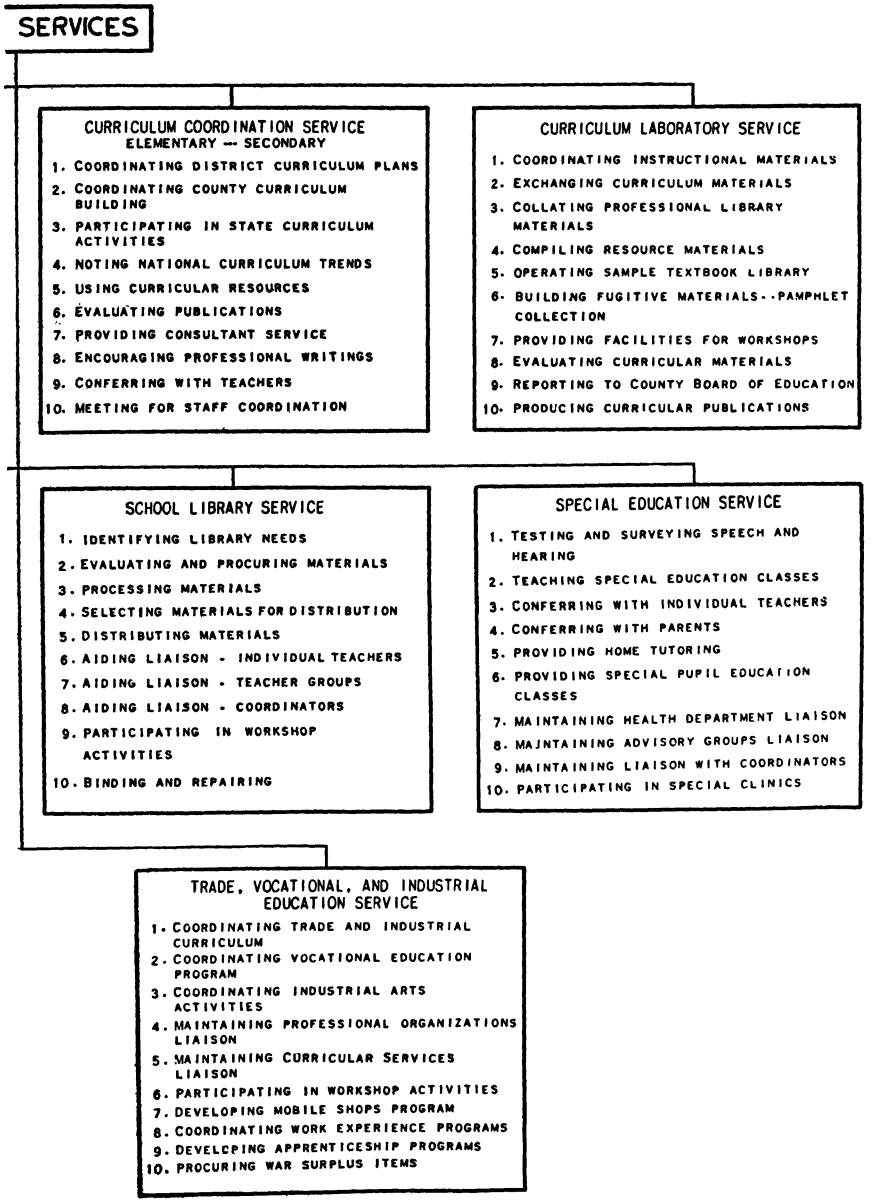


FIG. 13-9. Curricular services,



San Diego County, California.

In conclusion, perhaps the most conspicuous current trend in the development and organization of curricular materials on all educational levels, and particularly in the elementary and secondary school, is the emphasis upon democratic living. Democratic ideals and practices have been receiving mere lip service in many schools. Too many pupils do not even know what democracy is, and too many teachers are hazy on the subject.

To counteract this serious shortcoming various groups are striving to implement the great goals of democracy through citizenship-laden content in curriculums. In this age, aptly called "an upset in the metabolism of human history," the need for democratic living is great, the danger is greater, but the opportunity is the greatest in American education.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Differentiate clearly between curriculum, course of study, program of study, and syllabus.
2. Collect from various sources definitions of education. Write in one paragraph your definition.
3. Analyze critically several sets of objectives of education.
4. Prepare a list of principles that underlie curriculum development.
5. Describe in detail a specific technique employed in curriculum building.
6. Discuss the part the classroom teacher plays in curriculum development.
7. If possible, attend a meeting of teachers working on curricular problems.
8. Draw a diagram of the organization of school personnel engaged in curriculum work in some school system with which you are familiar.
9. Make a visit to a curriculum laboratory and analyze the materials there.
10. Examine courses of study in your major field of interest.
11. Investigate the legal prescriptions set up by your state legislature for the curriculum in elementary schools and in high schools.
12. Make an investigation of the resources in your community with a view to discovering teaching-learning materials.
13. Gather a few illustrations of scientific findings established by research and applicable to a school curriculum.
14. Give a brief life sketch of a pioneer in curriculum work such as Edward L. Thorndike.
15. Discuss the function of educational measurement and evaluation.
16. Describe some major ways of organizing curricular materials, such as core curriculum.
17. Examine several teaching-learning units.
18. Visit a class in which the teacher and pupils are engaged in working on a unit.
19. Describe a state program of curriculum building.
20. Prepare a report on the curriculum recommendations of national groups, such as the Commission on Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs.

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Characteristics of a curriculum developed with learners at the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation.

Current Pertinent Periodicals and Publications

Building America (8)[19]

A publication sponsored by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development which contains much helpful curricular material, especially of a pictorial nature.

Educational Leadership (8)

Official organ of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development and the best journal in the curriculum field.

Periodicals in Specific Subjects and Fields

Numerous periodicals in specific subjects and fields, such as *School Arts Magazine*, *Journal of Business Education*, etc. See also periodicals for various areas of education, such as elementary and secondary.

Progressive Education (7)

Official magazine of the Education Fellowship, with many articles on school curriculums.

Review of Educational Research (5)

A magazine of the American Educational Research Association with periodic résumés of research on curricular problems.

School Life (10)

Official organ of the United States Office of Education, featuring many articles on curriculum, especially vocational education.

Yearbooks (1)

Publications of various national organizations, such as the American Association of School Administrators and the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Audio-visual Aids

A Core-Curriculum Class in Action — Filmstrip

This filmstrip presents the work of a ninth-grade class organized on a core-curriculum basis. The pictures and text follow the core class from its first class meeting through various pupil-teacher planned activities and evaluation. Available from Audio-Visual Materials Consultants Bureau, College of Education, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan.

Building an Outline — One reel, 16 mm., sound

This film on the mechanics of outlining shows the process of a pupil reducing material to an organized list of ideas—one of the curricular tasks. Available from Coronet Films, Chicago, Illinois.

Democracy — Eleven minutes, 16 mm., sound

This film depicts a major goal of the curriculum, *viz.*, developing democracy. Shared respect and power are defined and described in simple terms. Two important conditions that promote the growth of democracy—balanced economic distribution and enlightenment—are portrayed. Available from Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Chicago, Illinois.

[19] The figures following the titles of the publications indicate the number of issues annually.

DISCUSSION IN DEMOCRACY One reel, 16 mm., sound, color or black and white
A typical group of students learn the relationship of organized discussion to a democratic society. The students evolve for any discussion group a three-point program involving preparation, planning, and personalities. Available from Coronet Films, Chicago, Illinois.

IMPORTANCE OF GOALS Nineteen minutes, 16 mm., sound
This film, which is a case study of a thirteen-year-old girl, illustrates the kinds of goals not often met in the classroom. It is one of the films in the series correlated with Herbert Sorenson's *Psychology in Education*, McGraw-Hill, 1948, 535 pp. Available from McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York.

MOTIVATING THE CLASS Eighteen minutes, 16 mm., sound
This film presents the vivid contrasts between proper and improper motivation in a junior-high-school mathematics class. It is another in the film series correlated with Herbert Sorenson's *Psychloogy in Education*, McGraw-Hill, 1948, 535 pp. Available from McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York.

MOTIVATION AND REWARD IN LEARNING Fifteen minutes, 16 mm., sound, color
This is a photographic story of experimental demonstrations, illustrating with white rats the importance of motivation and reward in learning. Trial and error learning is obvious. Available from Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pennsylvania.

PREVIEW OF UNIT XIV

COCURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

In modern education many of the old *extra*curricular activities are becoming less *anti*curricular and more *co*curricular. These activities play an important role on all educational levels. The validity of the democratic faith is demonstrated daily in numerous cocurricular activities.

Among the objectives of cocurricular activities are educating for democracy, promoting good citizenship, developing leadership, building sound character, promoting social living, and using leisure time wisely.

The major types of cocurricular work are guidance activities, student participation in democratic government, journalism, music, speech, clubs, athletics, and auxiliary organizations and activities.

Among the essential elements in a cocurricular program are a functional organization of the local program, capable sponsors for the activities, stimulation and restriction of student participation, adequate financing of the program, and cooperation with state and national organizations. A well-balanced program of cocurricular activities offers to every student some organization of which he can be a member, to which he can render service, and by which he in turn can be helped.

Outline of Contents

Introduction
- Relationship of curricular and cocurricular activities
- Role of cocurricular programs

Principles That Underlie Cocurricular Activities
- Fretwell's Seven Signposts
- Supplementary principles

Major Types of Cocurricular Activities
- Guidance activities
- Student participation in democratic government
- Journalistic activities
- Musical organizations and activities
- Speech activities
- School clubs
- Athletic activities
- Auxiliary organizations and activities

Organization and Administration of Cocurricular Programs
- Development of the local program
- Sponsorship of cocurricular activities
- Participation in activities
- Financing the activities
- Cooperation with state and national organizations

UNIT XIV

COCURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

Edna Ferber, in her interesting autobiography, *A Peculiar Treasure*, devotes more space to the extracurricular or cocurricular aspects of her school life at Ryan High School of Appleton, Wisconsin, than to the curricular side of her formal education there. Thus she reminisces:

> The ancient ramshackle firetrap was not merely the place in which I and my classmates had spent four years grubbing away at algebra, geometry, economics, English and physics. We had had four miraculous years of the most exhilarating and heartening fun. I have never seen a public school like it. It was for us, a clubhouse, a forum, a social center, playground, a second home. We danced, flirted, played tennis there; learned to think and speak on our feet, learned a sense of humor and fair play, learned, in the best sense of the word, freedom of thought and conduct.[1]

The permeating influence of character-building activities in schools is generally acknowledged. The most classic tribute is the oft-quoted phrase of the Duke of Wellington that the battle of Waterloo was won on the playing fields of Eton. Today the various *extra*curricular activities of the school are becoming less and less *anti*curricular and more and more *co*-curricular.

Relationship of Curricular and Cocurricular Activities. Formerly the curriculum was so formal, academic, and teacher-dominated that any informal, semiacademic, and pupil-initiated undertaking was labeled as "extracurriculum." The latter included all those pupil enterprises that were not a part of regular classroom subjects. They were usually under the direction of the school but were conducted at the close of the school day. Their phenomenal growth was due largely to the dullness and monotony of the regular curriculum. Fortunately, the term "extracurricular" is disappearing.

In many schools the old extracurricular activities are assuming a prominence and function parallel with the curricular undertakings. Wherever possible, extracurricular activities should grow out of the curriculum and return to it.[2] They are so closely related to the curriculum that they are properly called "cocurricular." They may also be called extracurricular,

[1] Edna Ferber, *A Peculiar Treasure*, p. 84, Doubleday, 1939.

[2] E. K. Fretwell, *Extra-curricular Activities in Secondary Schools*, p. 2, Houghton, 1931.

extraclass, collateral, semicurricular, incurricular, or nonclass. These activities do not exist by or for themselves—they contribute to the whole program of the school. This broad accent makes it desirable that the active sponsors of the organizations be regular staff members of the school.

Role of Cocurricular Programs. These programs have accumulated importance on all levels of American public education. In the pre-elementary and elementary school the cocurricular enterprises are so closely allied to the curricular program that there is often no distinction between the two. On the secondary level, particularly in the junior and senior high schools, many cocurricular meetings are scheduled during the school day but are not arranged as classes. In the junior and senior colleges the student activities revert to being almost extracurricular. Usually graduate students in universities are so busily concerned with study, research, and other problems that they neglect nonacademic activities, ofttimes to the detriment of their physical, social, and mental health.

PRINCIPLES THAT UNDERLIE COCURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

In the preceding unit are listed several basic principles that underlie the development of the curriculum. Here some prime tenets of the program of cocurricular activities are enumerated.

Fretwell's Seven Signposts

E. K. Fretwell, a pioneer in promoting knowledge of and practice in extracurricular activities as an important phase of teacher education, has erected seven signposts as guides along the extracurricular way. They are paraphrased thus:

1. The school shall develop a constructive program of extracurricular activities.
2. This constructive plan of extracurricular activities shall grow out of the life of the school.
3. This constructive plan shall recognize the pupil as a citizen of the school.
4. Teachers shall accept wholeheartedly the responsibility of developing the school's extracurricular activities.
5. Extracurricular activities shall be supervised.
6. Intelligent public opinion shall be developed concerning extracurricular activities.
7. The principal is responsible for the school's extracurricular activities.[3]

In elaboration and supplementation of these helpful directions, some additional principles are cited.

[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 1–18.

Supplementary Principles Affecting Cocurricular Activities

Educating for Democratic Living. A cardinal tenet governing the school program is that America must educate for a progressing democracy. Cocurricular activities can help the school youth of America to conserve and develop the cultural pattern of a democratic way of living. Educational leaders have urged greater opportunity for pupil participation in the government of the public schools, so that by the time the students have reached the senior year in high school they are able to take over a major part of the responsibility for their own education and for their life together within the institution. The validity of the democratic faith is demonstrated daily in numerous cocurricular activities.

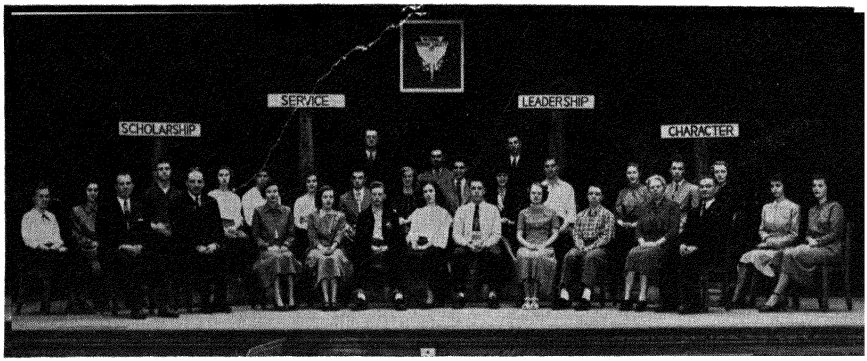
Promoting Good Citizenship. The school promotes good citizenship within its walls and out in life. The cocurricular activities provide excellent opportunities for pupils to study citizenship and "to put their creed into deed." Students may acquire civic intelligence and loyal citizenship through having membership in a democratic group, drawing up a constitution and bylaws for the organization, becoming eligible for holding school offices through the filing of petitions, registering for elections, voting intelligently in an election, taking the oath of office, demanding integrity and efficiency in officeholders, and submitting to a rigorous daily examination of conduct as citizens in the school and in society. These activities help to bridge the gap between the formal knowledge of the structure of government as gleaned from books and the informal but functional daily practice of citizenship in the complex arena of life.

Of specific interest in this connection, especially to out-of-school youth and those of college age, is the growth in Citizenship Recognition Day, which is designed to receive annually into citizenship with suitable ceremonies all those young men and women who have reached voting age.

Developing Leadership. The principle that school activities should develop leadership is compatible with promoting good citizenship and democratic living. As former congressman T. V. Smith has pointed out, each person should lead his fellows where his knowledge justifies and follow where his ignorance compels. Both leading and following are essential in conserving human resources. Cocurricular activities are potential producers of leadership qualities in students. Unfortunately some sponsors inhibit rather than inspire leadership. This is true of the athletic coach who gathered the boys around him before the game and said: "Now, boys, the purpose of this game is to develop character and leadership; now go in there and do just what I tell you to do." The old practice whereby the coach appoints the captain is replaced by the democratic election of the captain by the team. The debate coach who writes the speeches for his

team does not stimulate independent thinking thereby. By and large the sponsors and students sense the leadership training possibilities in cocurricular activities, for they know that the future leaders of the nation are now in the classroom and on the playgrounds.

Promoting Social Living. Although cocurricular activities seek to develop the individual, their larger emphasis is upon group living. The fraternal rather than the differential marks these organizations, which provide many opportunities for teachers and pupils to meet as friends, to foster the sharing mood, and to cultivate the art of companioning. These groups stress the fact that the school is society and that social life is a part of the racial heritage.



(Courtesy of Public Schools, Delaware, Ohio.)

FIG. 14-1. A chapter of the National Honor Society. Here are the chapter members of the Frank B. Willis High School, Delaware, Ohio. Note the fourfold slogan of the National Honor Society and its emblem.

Utilizing Effective Motivation. The individual as a dynamic organism living in a social environment releases his energies and talents under personal and social motivation. The cocurricular acts are psychologically sound and are in greater consonance with human nature than are many curricular activities. The former are builded upon inner urges and intrinsic drives of pupils. They are concerned in a large degree with the release of potential energy under internal and environmental stimuli. They epitomize learning by doing. The cocurricular program, through such means as eligibility lists for athletes and membership in honor societies, may motivate lagging students to improve their curricular work. Many situations outside the classroom unlock powers of genius and unleash the highest development of human personalities.

Using Leisure Time Wisely. As work time decreases, leisure time increases. Unfortunately many leisure activities of youths and adults are

merely time-killing amusements. Too often recreation wrecks rather than builds. As Dean Inge wrote, "Our minds are dyed the color of our leisure thoughts, and the inner man makes the outer." Therefore, as John Dewey stated, "A new conception of the uses of leisure has to be created; boys and girls need to be instructed so that they can discriminate between the enjoyments that enrich and enlarge their lives and those which degrade and dissipate." The quality of life and one's success in it are often determined by the degree of intelligence with which one uses his leisure time. Youth cannot solve this problem alone; the cocurricular program of the school should help him to develop the ability and inclination to spend his spare time wisely. Clubs, especially those of a recreational and hobby nature, make distinctive contributions to the present and possible future needs of the pupils. The school's educational-recreational program is a positive means for promoting the worthy use of leisure time, through what Thomas Briggs called teaching pupils to do better those desirable activities that they will do anyway. Many lifelong avocational interests that pay generous social annuities are started in the school's cocurricular program. The carry-over power of school activities can be raised even higher through better and wider selection of activities and greater individual mastery of the skills involved.

Exploring Vocational Possibilities. Vocational as well as vacational possibilities are explored in a broad program of school activities. Often a student's abilities are inventoried and developed during the presentation of a class play, the production of a school annual, the editing of a school paper, or the business managership of a school event. Therefore every school should have a club or organization to meet the needs, interests, and abilities of each pupil. Then the cocurricular program can supplement the curricular offerings by promoting vocational interests and special aptitudes.

Building Sound Character. The cocurricular activities are not designed with the negative purpose of killing time but with the positive intent of building sterling character. If a youth has warped ideals, low standards of conduct, or improper attitudes, the school program of activities seeks to modify them. This is not accomplished through sermonizing, for character is caught rather than taught. Through the impact of group mores, ideals of sportsmanship, and a perennial program of character-in-action, the organizations of the school strive ceaselessly to elevate individual as well as group standards. To this end the sponsors must themselves seek to raise their "personality quotient" and to lead lives that are positively above reproach and impeccably honest. The sacred principles of careful custodianship and honest stewardship of funds must be maintained by sponsors and students alike. Time-honored civic and moral values must be stressed if

the varied and extensive program is to justify the time and money expended upon it.

MAJOR TYPES OF COCURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

The complex interrelation of the numerous cocurricular activities makes it difficult to group them, since many may be classified properly under several headings. The following eight classifications are arbitrarily established here for the purposes of organized arrangement:

Guidance activities
Student participation in democratic government
Journalistic activities
Musical organizations and activities
Speech activities
School clubs
Athletic activities
Auxiliary organizations and activities

These various undertakings might have several subdivisions.

Guidance Activities

Although all cocurricular activities contribute to personal, social, educational, avocational, vocational, or other phases of life guidance, some organizations are directly characterized by their guidance function. Chief among these are (1) the class organizations, and (2) the home rooms.

Class Organizations. An old and prevalent cocurricular activity is that of class or grade organizations. These groupings may be found all the way from the kindergarten through higher education. The classes usually elect a president, vice-president, secretary, treasurer, representatives to the student council and other organizations, and a class sponsor or sponsors from the faculty. Preferably all classes, except the incoming freshman class, choose their officers and sponsors in the spring before the close of the school year. This permits more careful planning, more mature selection of plays to be given in the fall, and enables other organizations dependent upon class elections, such as the student council, to function early in the fall.

The main function of the class organization, particularly in the freshman year, is that of orientation and guidance. This orientation may well begin before the freshmen arrive on the grounds. A spring visitation day when the whole school plays host to the visiting eighth graders is a growing practice. In many institutions of higher learning a freshman week is an effective phase of a larger program of adjustment. Special assemblies for freshmen and the utilization of class meetings are common methods of

orientation. The guidance function is particularly effective again in the senior year when in class meetings and home-room organizations particular emphasis is given to the student's adjustment to his future college or out-of-school activities. Although this aspect of guidance is stressed usually in the later years of the student's schooling, it should be a part of a pyramidal program which has its broad base laid early in his school career.

Home Room. The class organization is affected by the existence of a home-room program. Most elementary pupils are assigned to a room which is their home during the school day. This plan is continued in the secondary school and helps to bridge the gap between grades. Under the guidance of an older person, the teacher, the pupil finds in his school home the common bonds of understanding and allied interests that characterize family life.

This integration center serves many purposes, such as helping the pupil feel at home, developing desirable pupil-teacher relationships, guiding the pupil, building desirable ideals and habits of citizenship, and expediting the handling of administrative routine. Thus the home room is not merely an administrative arrangement; it is a learning environment rich in opportunities for cultivating citizenship and democracy through well-organized procedures. The group and personal contacts stimulate friendships and make the student feel that he has a place even in a large high school. The Detroit house plan, employed in a modified form in Evanston (Illinois) Township High School, is an example of this individualized administration, which encourages students to share in the task of ruling themselves and to develop poise and assurance.

The membership of the room is arranged on any one of several bases such as by alphabet, by intelligence or ability ratings, by horizontal sectioning (as by grades), by vertical arrangement cutting across all years, by first-period class, by chronological age, by sex, by previous school, by major interest, or by curriculum. Each school should select the organizational pattern that best fits its peculiar needs.

The predominating activity of the home room is guidance. Therefore the teacher in charge must be genuinely interested in pupils and their welfare. Some sponsors visit the homes of their counselees in order to learn more about them and their background. Through arrangements made by parent-teacher organizations a home-room father or mother often cooperates with pupils and teachers.

To be educationally effective, the home room needs a well-balanced program of activities planned by a special room committee or all-school committee on programs and activities. An important feature is the daily meeting arranged as a part of the regular school schedule. Appropriate

programs are often exchanged between rooms or presented in assembly. All school members should participate in some home-room activity—this is the essence of democratic participation in home life. The home room may well be the starting point in the organization of the cocurricular activities, as shown in Fig. 14-2, which indicates that representatives from it serve on the student council.

Student Participation in Democratic Government

The decades of the 1940's and the 1950's in American public education will undoubtedly be known for the emphasis upon democracy. The American Council on Education, the Educational Policies Commission, the Institute for Democracy at Columbia University, the United States Office of

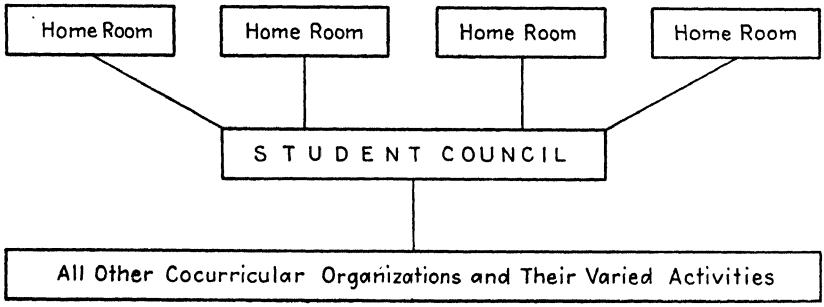


Fig. 14-2. Organization of cocurricular activities. In this type of organization the genesis is the home room, from which representatives are elected to the student council designed as the controlling and centralizing agency for all cocurricular organizations and activities. In several schools the classes elect representatives to the council. Often representatives from various clubs and organizations send delegates to the council meetings.

Education, and many state and local organizations have directed attention to the current problem of making democracy work, especially in education. As John Dewey has said, "If there is one conclusion to which human experience unmistakably points it is that democratic ends demand democratic methods for realization."[4] A cocurricular group that fosters the practice of democratic procedures is the student or school council. Also designed to help students share in some or all phases of self-government are school service organizations, such as the safety and citizens' clubs; boards of control; student-faculty committees; home rooms; and interclub and interfraternity organizations. Since the student council seems the best and most prevailing activity, it is discussed here under the headings What the Student Council Is Not, and What the Student Council Is.

[4] John Dewey, *Freedom and Culture*, p. 173, Putnam, 1939.

What the Student Council Is Not. The following statements are intended to correct a few misconceptions regarding the student council:

1. It is not a substitute for school administrators. The public pays the school executives to manage the school, thus centering responsibility in trained educational leaders.

2. A student council is not a supreme court. It is not a substitute for the board of education, which is the highest legally established authority for the conduct of the affairs of the school district.

(Courtesy of Public Schools, Akron, Ohio.)

FIG. 14-3. Student explains the program for "clean-up day" to Student Council at Garfield High School, Akron, Ohio.

3. It is not a robot of the administration or faculty. The council president and secretary are not just radio announcers making announcements, often in the preordained words of the principal.

4. It is not a secret society. Its business is not conducted behind closed doors.

5. It is not a spy system. It is not instituted as a "snooper council" to ferret out violations of school regulations.

6. The council is not a group of do-nothings. Seldom do the members refuse to work at challenging tasks.

7. The student council is not a spasmodic organization that is here this

year and gone the next. It provides a long-term program for improving the school.

What the Student Council Is. On the positive side, the student council is all-important:

1. It is a body of school citizens dedicated to cooperative living in a democratic society. The school council promotes a democratic way of living through providing an "apprenticeship in the practical processes of self-government."

2. The student council is a training ground. The development of continuous constructive citizenship among its members and the student body is its chief challenge.

3. It is a parliamentary body. A concomitant learning from student council work is the opportunity for the members to practice parliamentary procedure. They draw up their constitution, bylaws, rules, and regulations and abide thereby. (See Appendix XIV for a suggested outline of a constitution for a student council.)

4. The council is an organization for building school morale at all times. A vigorous council is a dynamo which daily generates energy, enthusiasm, and loyalty to the faculty and school.

5. The student council is a challenge to a high sense of honor and honesty. Its task is to make the ethical health of the entire student body so wholesome that cheating and stealing will be condemned.

6. The student council is a stimulant to scholarship. The members should be intelligent representatives of the school community.

7. The student council is for the development of satisfactory leadership in school and society. Although followers are needed to cooperate with leaders, student council membership provides opportunity for leadership.

8. The council is supposed to stimulate and regulate cocurricular activities. In many schools all organizations are chartered by the council.

9. To develop intelligent voters is one goal of student council activities. Voting in student council elections should be such an interesting and stimulating experience that the student looks forward to the time when he can vote as a citizen of his community, state, and nation.

10. Finally, the student council through its numerous activities is a personalized instrument for unifying the school. The story is told of a piccolo player who stopped in the midst of a selection because he felt he was not making a contribution. The orchestra leader, whose ears detected the inactivity, stopped the entire orchestra to remind the piccolo player that his efforts counted. So too a student council seeks to make each person in school feel that he has a part to play in the harmonious symphony of the socialized school in a democratic society.

Journalistic Activities

The benefits of journalistic activities in schools are manifold:

> Students learn to: read and buy newspapers intelligently; gather, evaluate, interpret, and present significant information objectively; communicate simply, clearly, and effectively with others in written English; write creatively in so far as individual capacities permit; develop qualities of character and personality desirable in a citizen of a democracy; learn journalistic techniques necessary to the production of a good school publication.[5]

These are the objectives toward which journalistic efforts are directed in elementary, secondary, and collegiate institutions. The major types of student publications are (1) newspapers, (2) annuals, (3) handbooks, and (4) magazines and other publications.

School Newspaper. The most common form of student publication is the newspaper. These papers may be daily, biweekly, weekly, bimonthly, or monthly. Many elementary-school papers are mimeographed, whereas in the larger high schools and colleges the papers are printed. Often in elementary and small secondary schools the pupils and teachers cooperate with the local newspaper in producing a school page.

At least half of the public high schools have some form of news organ. Paralleling the growth in scholastic journalism has been the increase in state, regional, and national press associations for schools, among these being the National and the Columbia Scholastic Press Associations. Annually the Educational Press Association publishes a helpful yearbook. The cumulative efforts of these associations, the courses in school journalism, and the enriched training of the sponsors of publications have all contributed to making the school newspaper today an important agent in the transmission of ideas and school spirit. Furthermore, through this medium many young people first learn the privileges and responsibilities involved in the freedom of the press in a democracy. Significantly, in a national survey of high-school journalism the principals of the schools ranked the newspaper as the most important extracurricular activity.[6]

School Annual. The yearbook, which may be traced as far back as the collegiate booklet, "Profiles of Part of the Class Graduated at Yale College, September, 1806," is usually an expensive publication. In many quarters justification for its costly existence is seriously questioned. Numerous schools now print a less expensive brochure dedicated especially to

[5] Laurence R. Campbell, "Journalism in High School," *Curriculum Journal*, February, 1940, p. 74.

[6] Laurence R. Campbell, "A High School Newspaper Is the Most Important Extracurricular Activity," *Educational Press Bulletin*, January, 1940, p. 6.

the senior class; others have their annuals mimeographed or typewritten. Many benefits that might acrue to the students from creating an annual are sacrificed when the make-up of the book is planned solely by the sponsor and executed by paid commercial talent. The yearbook, once the only publication in most schools, is now being subordinated to the school newspaper, although its archival function will always give it a place in the program.

Handbook. A publication of growing popularity is the freshman or institutional handbook. This manual is a far more effective aid in freshman orientation than the old-fashioned hazing. Inexpensive handbooks packed with useful information and published in concise and attractive form are welcomed by newcomers to the complex life of the modern high school or college, whether they be new students, teachers, or board members. These small books also provide an inexpensive vehicle for interpreting the schools to the parents and general public.

Magazines and Other Publications. The current emphasis upon unleashing creative efforts and developing literary interests of pupils has focused attention upon school magazines and similar avenues for expression. The number of magazines submitted to the National Scholastic Press Association is steadily increasing. These periodicals, issued in duplicated or printed format, constitute outlets not only for literary creativeness and insight, but also for expression through drawings, cartoons, and photographs. A unique publication is a carefully designed and cleverly edited student-faculty magazine, which presents, chiefly through photographs, a story of the students and faculty members at home, at school, and in their cocurricular activities.

Many school organizations issue their own publications. For example, the Future Farmers of America may prepare its local program for the year in a printed form. The student council often publishes a bulletin in connection with its activities. School publications of all types and the numerous allied journalistic clubs, such as the Quill and Scroll, are vitalizing agencies in the education of the consumer and the producer—the reader and the writer.

Musical Organizations and Activities

Many curricular and cocurricular activities center around music, which is classified here as (1) vocal and (2) instrumental. Singing is often combined with acting, as in operettas, and with instrumental accompaniment, as in a cantata. The music groups are naturally interested in both performing and listening. A separate music appreciation club may be organized for nonperformers who are unable or unwilling to produce music

but who as consumers are desirous of raising their level of music appreciation. "Music for everyone and everyone for music" is fast becoming a school realization.

Vocal Organizations and Activities. The chief vocal organizations, either curricular or cocurricular, are glee clubs—boys', girls', or mixed. Their chief objectives are recreation, entertainment, and appreciation. Their origin may be traced to the old "singing schools." Today a typical secondary school or college has several glee clubs, such as a first, second, and freshman group for either or both sexes. The *a cappella* choir is increasing in popularity. The operetta, allowing opportunity for solos, duets, quar-

(Courtesy of Public Schools, West Springfield, Massachusetts.)

FIG. 14-4. High-school band on parade grounds, West Springfield, Massachusetts.

tets, and other combinations, is a pleasing musical entertainment, especially in the elementary and junior high schools.

Instrumental Organizations and Activities. The instrumental groups most frequently formed in secondary schools are bands and orchestras. Smaller groupings such as string ensembles present chamber music, whereas harmonica and other instrumenal clubs meet the music hobby interests. The various musical organizations may contribute jointly to a public program or festival, the latter usually being given outdoors. In some cities skilled musicians from the various schools are selected for an all-city glee club, orchestra, or band. Many states stage an annual program of high-school talent.

Speech Activities

The drama is one of the oldest mediums of organized human speech, extending from the Greek plays down through the French and Elizabethan plays to the present period of drama, which includes legitimate, motion-picture, and television acting. The greatest forensic activity in American life was during the revolutionary period when oratory flourished. Today the emphasis is upon informal techniques, such as panel discussions and forums.

Dramatic Activities. Generally school dramatics are handled either in regular classes or through cocurricular activities such as class plays. The latter may be promoted by a drama club or similar group, or by the junior or senior class. Usually the work is divided among various committees for costuming, lighting, scenery, and advertising. The drama coach may encourage the more backward students to self-expression through acting; he may even contribute to the legitimate stage through the development of latent histrionic talent in his pupils. Many by-products accrue from drama whether it be a farce, comedy, melodrama, tragedy, or socio-drama. Among these concomitants are the extensive reading of many plays and the acquiring of clear enunciation. In fine, the school drama helps students to see, to read, to hear, to act, to construct, and to write their own plays.

Forensic Activities. The chief forensic activities are declamations, orations, debates, poetry reading, extempore speaking, choral reading, telecasting, radio speaking, panel discussions, and forums. Several speech activities, for example, decision or nondecision debates, are conducted on an interschool basis. Original oratory appeals especially to students who possess creative literary talents and who hope thereby to inform, impress, or persuade the audience to thought or action. Debates constitute the chief activity in the field of public speaking and are the most criticized. If properly conducted, however, debates may help pupils to think logically, to organize materials carefully, to cultivate mental alertness, to analyze an argument critically, to promote reliance upon facts and research rather than prejudice, and to develop a lifelong interest in socioeconomic and governmental problems. Poetry reading, extempore speeches, choral reading, broadcasting, forums, junior town meetings, classrooms organized as national congresses, model United Nations assemblies, and panel discussions are among the popular forms of speech activities, all of which can contribute markedly to wholesome character development. A major objective in contests in speech and other competitions should be "not to win a decision or to secure a prize but to pace each other on the road to excellence."

School Clubs

Nearly all cocurricular activities may be classified as clubs. Nowhere in the school life is more freedom and variety displayed than in the names of the clubs. Their amazing variety testifies to the individualistic interests of youth as well as to its gregariousness. Because it is impossible to classify all clubs on a single basis, the National Survey of Secondary Education established the following seven categories on the basis of an

(Courtesy of School Executive and Public Schools, Elkhart, Indiana.)

Fig. 14-5. High-school students combine curricular and extracurricular activities. Forty students from Elkhart, Indiana, used the "flying classroom" in a flight to New York City for a sightseeing tour. The trip was a part of the students' preflight aeronautics course. Each student earned his own fare by doing odd jobs here and there.

analysis of their constitutions and programs: (1) student government, school service, and honorary; (2) social, moral, leadership, and guidance; (3) departmental; (4) publications and journalistic; (5) dramatic, literary, and forensic; (6) musical; and (7) special-interest clubs. To these should be added (8) the athletic clubs, which are a part of the sports activities considered later.

Louis Adamic has said, "People without a firm sense of 'belonging' cannot properly develop, cannot play their full parts in the American scene." Through a wide variety of organizations, the school seeks to interest each student in at least one meaningful cocurricular activity in

which the desideratum is not mere membership but active and voluntary participation on the part of the boy or girl. Unless there is some surveillance the clubs are likely to grow up like mushrooms and then die; hence all charters should be granted by the student council or a similar organization and adequate sponsorship provided. Any club that fails to function or to live up to the tradition of the school should be warned and then disbanded if no improvement results. Emerson once said, "We send our children to the master but the boys educate them." School clubs, an outlet for the urge to gregariousness, should have definite educational and recreational values.

Athletic Activities

Often the extracurricular activities of schools and colleges that receive the major share of financial support and the largest amount of publicity are of an athletic nature. A well-balanced physical education program in secondary schools and colleges includes at least two phases: (1) intramural sports and (2) interscholastic athletics. These are not disparate elements but parts of a larger whole.

Intramural Sports. The term "intramural," derived from the Latin words meaning "within the walls," refers to the activities conducted within the walls of a particular school. The intramural sports program may also include several schools within a city.

Intramurals, as distinguished from interscholastic sports, encourage participation by local boys and girls with a minimum of the competitive spirit. Based upon the theory of athletics for all, the intramural program seeks to maintain many sports for the sake of all students rather than for the sake of a few athletic teams. It is directed toward developing lasting recreational interests and sport skills in people who must live in a highly industrialized civilization.

Many intramural sports have been transferred from the open lot or street to the school grounds; many of them carry over during the vacation periods. Initiative is maintained through a system of student managers. Units of competition vary: in one school it may be by classes and in another on the basis of physical aptitude tests. In addition to the activities listed later under interscholastic athletics, the following are among the favorite intramural sports: swimming, hockey, touch and flag football, softball, badminton, ping-pong, volleyball, shuffleboard, horse shoes, archery, hiking, camping, and various winter sports. In recent years intramural programs, sports days, and physical activity clubs have enlisted many students under the direction of well-trained instructors and coaches.

Interscholastic Athletics. This is the most maligned part of the entire

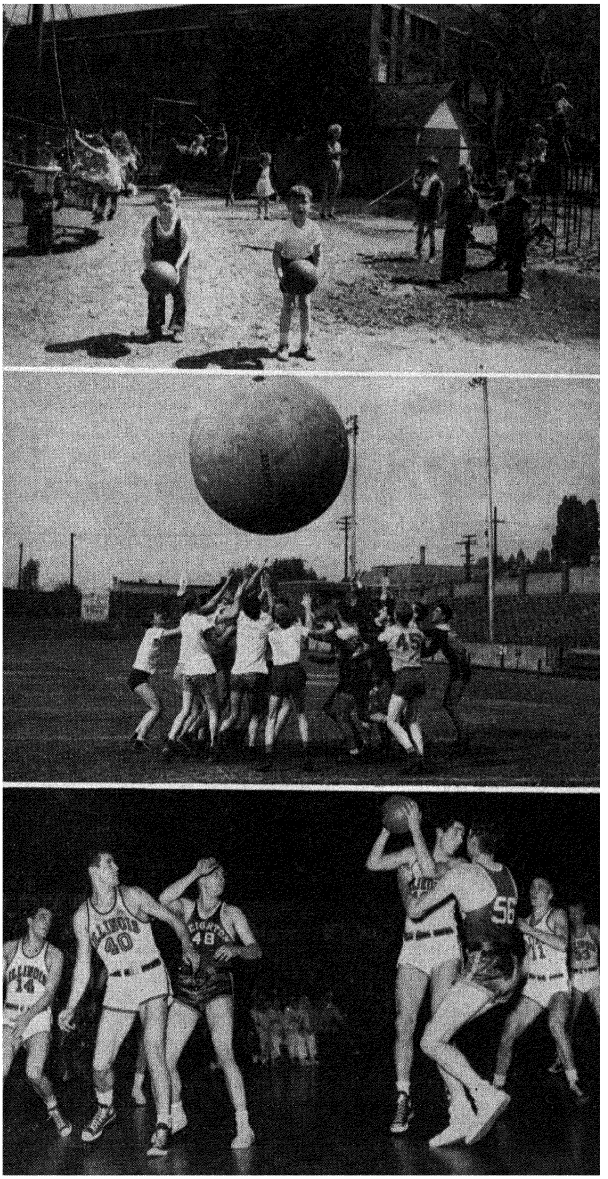


FIG. 14-6. Youth of all ages enjoy physical activity. Upper view—two kindergarten boys in the foreground are ready to toss the small ball during play period (Zeeland, Michigan). Center view—high-school boys toss the 6-foot ball in the air during intramural competition (Erie, Pennsylvania). Lower view—Creighton University plays the University of Illinois in intercollegiate basketball competition (Champaign-Urbana, Illinois).

cocurricular program in schools and colleges, particularly the latter. The critics find fault with the huge football stadiums, large gate receipts, larger expenditures, postseason games, salaried athletes, athletic scholarships, lax scholastic requirements for athletes, long practice sessions, injuries, game schedules that take athletes away from their school work, poor sportsmanship, and zealous coaches whose tenure depends upon the production of winning teams. Despite these accusations, interscholastic athletics continue to grow. Conscientious efforts are being made to eliminate or reduce the evils in the system, including "athlete's head."

Most schools have developed a system of major and minor sports. The former usually includes football, basketball, track, and baseball; the latter embraces tennis, swimming, wrestling, golf, fencing, and boxing.

Many changes occur in athletic competition through progressive modification of the rules. For example, several innovations have been made in football since it first started, as witnessed by a bronze tablet on the brick wall surrounding the football field at the Rugby school in England:

> This stone commemorates the exploit of William Webb Ellis, who with a fine disregard for the rules of football as played in his time first took the ball in his arms and ran with it, thus originating the distinctive feature of the Rugby game.
> —A.D. 1823

This "shocking" change was followed years later by the introduction of the forward pass in American football. Many small high schools have turned to six-man football teams in order to play football despite their small enrollment and limited funds for athletic equipment. Modifications such as these mentioned are constantly being made for the benefit of either the players or the spectators or both groups.

Auxiliary Organizations and Activities

Ancillary to the curricular or extracurricular programs are the following: (1) assemblies and programs, (2) commencements, (3) parliamentary procedures, (4) social, and (5) miscellaneous activities.

Assemblies and Programs. In the early days the assembly was a period of devotional exercises, perhaps an outgrowth of the college chapel. These "morning exercises" are found even in the small rural school where a few minutes each day are devoted to announcements and other activities.

The purposes of the assembly, which Fretwell calls "the town meeting of the school," are numerous, but conspicuous among its modern uses are the following: orientation into school life, cultivation of school spirit, unification of the entire school, dissemination of general information, inspirational help, spiritual aid, opportunity for pupils and faculty to appear before

an audience, all-school special convocations, installation of student council, and cultivation of effective listening and courteous audience habits.

The programs are planned by an assembly committee and usually given once a week. Something is lost in the school or college where assemblies or convocations are held only once or twice a year. The growing practice of increased student and audience participation in assemblies is a wholesome trend. These convocations may be held outdoors.

FIG. 14-7. Commencement exercises, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois. Many high schools and colleges use an outdoor setting for such events as the annual commencement exercices.

Many programs are presented by students and faculty sponsors for community organizations like the parent-teacher association, noonday luncheon clubs, and women's clubs. These performances help to interpret the school to the community; therefore the participants and the type of program should be carefully chosen. Usually a large number of pupil performers increases not only the benefits to the participants but also the number of interested spectators.

Commencement. The old-style graduation program has been replaced by the modern vitalized commencement, often held outdoors. Even the old-fashioned mottoes, banners, and streamers have given way to a simpler

and more effective decoration. The present commencement means more than the mere handing out of diplomas to graduates after they have listened to a long-winded orator. It means a pupil-planned program in which the activities are a culmination of the year's work. Elaborate graduation exercises for eighth graders have been superseded by promotion exercises designed to shift the emphasis from graduation to continuation. Such a program centers attention on the students and helps to enlist community interest in the school and the results of its work. The important parts of the older graduation programs, as class history, will, poem, and prophecy, are scheduled on class night during commencement week. The senior vesper service in the high schools and the baccalaureate service in the colleges and universities sound a spiritual note in the commencement week activities. Each year the National Education Association publishes a very useful *Commencement Manual,* which contains numerous suggestions for improving commencement programs.

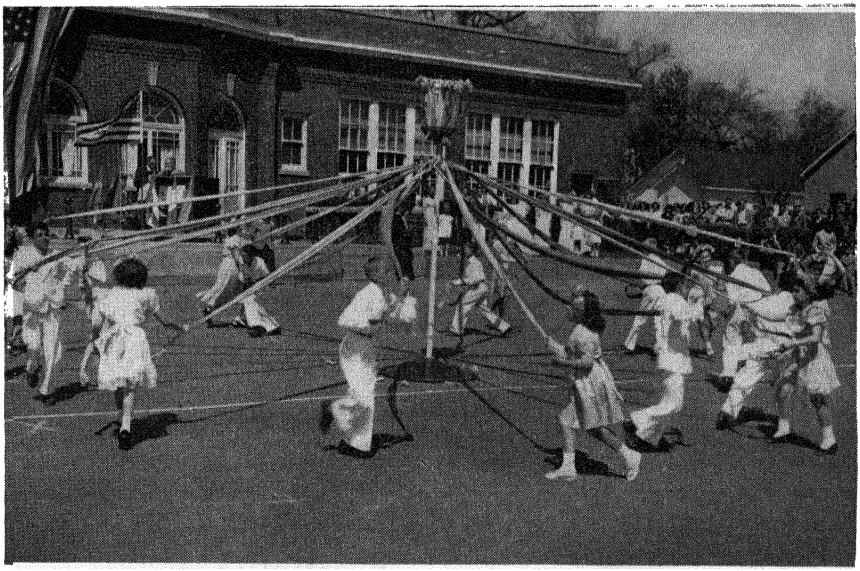
Parliamentary Procedures. Nearly all cocurricular organizations employ parliamentary procedures in the conduct of their meetings. As the name indicates, parliamentary law and practice have been derived from the traditions and rules for transacting business in the British Parliament. Later the terminology was applied to the routine usages of any deliberative assemblage. In America, which as a young nation has not had the time or inclination to develop respect for moldy traditions, a unique system of written and unwritten laws has evolved for the conduct of legislative assemblies and organized bodies. The person responsible for the plan most widely used in the United States is General Henry M. Roberts of the United States Army. His *Rules of Order* is usually the final dictum regarding actions taken or to be taken by deliberate bodies. Some organizations select a member as parliamentarian whose chief function is to rule on questions relating to the proper conduct of meetings

A functioning knowledge of these procedures gives grace, poise, and dignity to the presiding officer and helps to ensure the rights of the members. In a democracy these rules for the conduct of meetings protect the rights of the minority and restrain the majority from undue privileges. Naturally parliamentary law is designed as a facilitating tool and should not be used as an end in itself so that it obstructs rather than abets efficiency.

Social Activities. An individual must learn to live not only with himself but also with others. Nearly all cocurricular activities encourage companionship between the individual and his associates and provide social functions that "rub down the rough spots." These may be parties, teas, banquets, homecoming celebrations, or dances. Participation in these festivities, particularly in the preadolescent and adolescent ages, helps a

student to feel at home in a social environment and gives him a lifelong appreciation for the little niceties, the social techniques, and pleasurable amenities so necessary in a human world. School parties, properly supervised, promote simple pleasures and platonic relationships between boys and girls, and counteract in a measure the present undue emphasis upon commercialized amusements.

Unfortunately, for some students the socializing process is carried to excess through too many social affairs. Furthermore, the school environment alone does not ensure fraternizing on the part of the participants.



(Courtesy of Public Schools, Highland Park, Illinois.)

FIG. 14-8. Elementary-school pupils participate in the Maypole dance on "Friendship Day" at Highland Park, Illinois.

Overstreet, in his *Guide to Civilized Loafing*, caustically pictures the couples who attend a dance in perfect isolation from every other couple. In his words these dancers, insulated against sociability, "express their peculiar aloofness by restricting their attentions to one partner or to a select few. A modern social dance, in short, is as often as not a most unsocial phenomenon. It is a dance of isolated atomic pairs, who look over their shoulders at faces they do not know and do not wish to know."[7] Under reasonable guidance, periodic school-sponsored social affairs can be associational activities for social therapy and character development.

[7] H. A. Overstreet, *A Guide to Civilized Loafing*, p. 46, Norton, 1934.

School Lunch Program. Most schools today have a lunch program. At its best this is more than merely serving food—it is a broad curricular and cocurricular activity. The following is a brief description of certain of its aspects:

Food values and food preparation are discussed by grade-school teachers and pupils during health periods. Charts, pictures of food, menus, eating habits, and their relationship to the school lunch program are presented daily for discussion. Teachers for the kindergarten and first six grades eat with their groups. Each grade room accepts the responsibility for clearing the table and preparing the room for the next group. In grades 7 through 12, a discussion of the program during the home-room period is encouraged. Student assistants sit at the head of the students' tables and accept responsibility for conduct.

Occasionally, some students are advised by the school nurse about the value and purpose of eating certain foods. The school lunch program replaces the old sandwich type or cold pancake lunch brought from home. Nutrition values are stressed. It has given some youngsters the opportunity to eat their only planned meal of the day. Physical development, mental attitudes, lasting habits, and etiquette have improved. Pupils eat together and share the interests of the day as adults would in a cafeteria or restaurant. This is life itself, lived by ordinary, normal citizens.[8]

The financial support of programs such as this one has traveled the long road from the national emergency aid of the 1930's, to the federal surplus program of the 1940's, to the local, state, and federal-subsidized aid of the 1950's.

Camping and Outdoor Education. Ranking high in character-building potentialities are camping and other forms of outdoor learning, teaching, and living. Historically it was only yesterday that most of the education for the original Americans—the Indians—took place in the freedom and reality of God's great out-of-doors. Today, too much education is limited to windowed walls, firm floors, and ceilinged classrooms. L. B. Sharp, executive secretary of National Camps and Life Camps, states:

To meet the situation squarely the curriculum would have to be divided on the basis of where is the best place to learn each of the things that ought to be learned. And on this basis, it would be found that a considerable part of the total learning entrusted to the schools could take place outside the classroom. Much would still stay inside. But more than would first appear might well be moved beyond the walls. This would be realism in education.[9]

[8] Robert B. Shafer, "The Program at Delanson, New York," *Nation's Schools*, May, 1949, pp. 65–66.

[9] L. B. Sharp, "Camping and Outdoor Education," *Journal of National Education Association*, May, 1947, p. 367.

Various educational organizations have long recognized the value of outdoor education, especially camping. Charitable associations sponsor camps for the underprivileged and private ones often cater to the well-to-do, but millions of youth do not enjoy continuous out-of-door living. Hence many school systems seek to provide outdoor education and camping as curricular and cocurricular activities. Of increasing popularity are the various types of outdoor camps—the permanent, the summer, the week-end, the overnight, and the travel camp or youth hostel. The camp is becoming one of the school's best laboratories.

(Courtesy of Life Camps. Photograph made at The Clearing, National Camp, Sussex, New Jersey.)
FIG. 14-9. Around the campfire in God's great out-of-doors.

Miscellaneous Activities. Many auxiliary organizations are found in schools and colleges. Of a military nature are military training camps, schools, and special units, as the Reserve Officers' Training Corps (ROTC). Among the organizations meeting the religious needs of students are the Young Men's Christian Association, which was formed in 1844, the Young Women's Christian Association, the Hi-Y, and the Girl Reserves. Secret societies, as a rule, are not permitted in public elementary and high schools, though numerous in most colleges and universities.

Growing in favor are the school-sponsored educational trips. These afford students the opportunity to visit local, county, state, and national sites. A favorite destination for senior classes is Washington, D.C. The National Capital School Visitors Council, a daughter organization of the

Bureau of University Travel, has been organized to assist groups visiting the nation's capital.

Among the hundreds of other cocurricular activities found in American public educational institutions are alumni organizations, student speakers' service bureau, correspondence and personnel exchange with students in foreign countries, visitation of other schools by students, and social service work, particularly at Thanksgiving and Christmas. The organization and administration of these activities constitute a major task in American education.

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF COCURRICULAR PROGRAMS

The remaining phases of cocurricular activities to be considered here are (1) development of the local program, (2) sponsorship, (3) participation, (4) financing, and (5) cooperation with state and national organizations.

Development of the Local Program

Many teachers and administrators who formerly tolerated extracurricular activities as necessary evils are now aggressively promoting the program that pays increasing dividends on society's investment.

Initiating the Activities. Most cocurricular programs have their genesis in the home rooms and in class organizations from which come the student council representatives. All proposed organizations should be evaluated carefully before they are started. Furthermore, they should be begun on a modest scale. For example, if a school does not have home rooms, such a system is best introduced gradually, preferably after a close study and visitation of other schools by both teachers and pupils. The plan can then be presented by student leaders. Unless there is a demand for it, an organization should not be launched. The formulation of objectives for the entire cocurricular program may well constitute an important element in its organization and administration. Furthermore, the program must be consonant with the peculiar needs of the community.

Administering the Program. Since the principal of the school is responsible to the board of education, he should have the right of veto power over any and all actions of extracurricular groups. Of course, he will seldom exercise this direct control, and then with discretion. Greater diplomacy on the part of principals, superintendents, teachers, and boards of education will prevent many a "school strike."

Scheduling the Activities. A growing practice is to schedule the cocurricular activities in the daily program, just like the curricular offerings. This increases the participation of pupils, especially of those who, because of bus transportation or early home-going, cannot remain after school. A special portion of the day is allotted in the regular schedule, usually a

set time, as the first or last hour in the morning, or a floating period. If there have been seven regular periods, an eighth period is added during which all organizations meet. Such arrangements reduce the sponsor's afterschool work and obviate parental criticism that pupils spend most of their afterschool hours at school.

The scheduling of the activities as a whole is not sufficient; the programs for each organization must also be carefully planned. A complicated problem is that of avoiding conflicts between groups, particularly in a high school where the gymnasium and auditorium are combined. Wherever possible, it is very desirable to make school activities a part of a community calendar.

Evaluating the Activities. The activities must constantly be evaluated. Ofttimes a club starts with much gusto and then disintegrates. An annual report, plus periodic checkups by a student-faculty committee, will aid in determining whether the charter should be regranted the next year. If a group is guilty of misconduct of a serious nature, a warning may be issued and the charter revoked if the abuse continues. Every organization should seek a worth-while project for its year's work. A stepping-up program, like that of the Scouts with their tenderfoot, second-class, and first-class stages, aids in evaluating individual and group progress. The staff of the Civic Education Project sponsored by the Educational Policies Commission found in its field work that those institutions with strong extracurricular programs made outstanding contributions in promoting an active, intelligent loyalty to democratic ideals.

Sponsorship of Cocurricular Activities

Qualifications of Sponsors. The success of many an extraclass organization may be traced to the sponsor. Although the latter does not assume the dominant role that she does in the classroom as a teacher, nevertheless she can exert a real influence. Some general qualifications for sponsors are sympathy with boys and girls, their temptations, and problems; ability to win the confidence of both youth and parents; capacity to lead and to follow; willingness to be identified wholeheartedly with the organization and to put in extra hours of work in its interest; high standards of personal conduct and morals; sense of humor; alertness to what is going on outside as well as inside school; and good sense of values in the expenditure of time, money, and talents. Besides these general requirements, the directors of certain groups need specialized training, for example, the sponsors of journalistic, athletic, and music events. There is no set pattern for sponsors. On the whole they must possess the quality of "teaching as though they taught not," while bearing constantly in mind the purposes for which the activity is designed.

Selection of Sponsors. How shall the sponsors be chosen? Usually the procedure involves selection by the principal, election by the pupils, or a combination or compromise. For example, pupils may choose a sponsor from a recommended list. Often the advisers for activities that call for technical training are appointed to that task when employed by the board of education and superintendent of schools. Both sponsors and pupils should be happy and congenial in their cocurricular relations.

Training of Sponsors. The typical secondary-school teacher is called upon to supervise at least one extraclass activity. A good preparation for this assignment or choice is to have participated in this activity in high school and college and to have taken a course in extrainstructional duties, such as offered in many colleges and universities. These courses are designed to give prospective or experienced teachers a knowledge of the entire cocurricular program and an opportunity to assist in sponsoring a specific group. Furthermore, many books and periodicals aid the sponsors of school activities. A popular periodical is *School Activities*, published nine times a year. A magazine helpful to both students and sponsors of student councils and chapters of the National Honor Society is *Student Life*, issued under the aegis of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. Many secondary and college teachers secure positions because of special qualifications for sponsorships of extracurricular activities.

Coordination of Efforts. In recent years, particularly in large schools, concentrated efforts have been made to coordinate the entire extracurricular program. To this end a director supervises all the activities or a committee of sponsors may meet periodically to plan the coordination of efforts. An example of the recognition given to extraclass life in general education is the extracurriculum division at Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri, one of the coordinate educational divisions of the college. It is administered by a director, who, with the aid of teachers, advisers, and residence-hall counselors, encourages students to utilize out-of-class life as a means of attaining individual objectives.

Participation in Activities

Stimulation of Participation. A goal in extraclass work is that of universality—all pupils in the school participating in at least one cocurricular activity. This necessitates promotion and stimulation, preferably by the student body. Many schools and colleges now require a certain number of extracurricular units toward graduation. Most activities, except those overemphasizing interscholastic competition, are based upon the slogan, "The more the merrier."

Restriction of Participation. A corollary is the principle that participa-

tion must be restricted. These are two parts of the same basic idea that cocurricular activities must be regulated in order to avert the danger that the pendulum for some pupils will swing to the extreme of nonparticipation and for others to that of overparticipation. In the latter case the cocurricular becomes anticurricular. Two methods of curtailing the ambitions of the overzealous or talented individual are a point system and a program of majors and minors. The former assigns to each activity a specified number of points and stipulates the maximum permitted each student. The latter divides activities or offices into majors and minors, each student being restricted to a specified number. Sometimes an effective control is a sliding scale whereby the aggregate number of points or majors that a student may carry is determined by his scholastic and health records and his years in school. A system of checks and balances tends to distribute more evenly the opportunities for both participation and leadership. Any method of encouraging, limiting, or redirecting participation necessitates an accurate record of the membership and officers of the various organizations.

Participation in Contests. Many school people are contest minded—they accept numerous invitations to compete for prizes and honors. Several boards of education have been forced to pass rulings against the abuse of contests; many state educational organizations are aligned against competition. Some state-wide high-school activities associations decide which contests shall be held. The Contest Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals periodically issues lists of approved national school contests in which the educational values outweigh the direct or implied commercial or propaganda aspects. The tendency is to replace highly competitive events by festivals, play days, nondecision debates, and other forms of talent matching which are not dominated by the slogan "anything to win."

Financing the Activities

Budgeting. Too often, extracurricular organizations "go into the red" because of poor initial planning of finances. Each group ought to prepare a budget consisting of its proposed program of activities, estimated expenditures, and proposed receipts. Furthermore, a central committee should draw up one consolidated budget for all the school activities. Aside from its function as a control, the budget has a definite educational value if the students participate in planning and executing it.

Sources of Receipts. Among the usual sources of revenue for the cocurricular program are the following: student fees, funds from the board of education, sales, donations, and gate receipts. A common procedure is an

activity fee whereby each student pays a fixed amount that covers all activities. An allotment board composed of students and teachers allocates the funds to specific organizations and activities.

Expenditures. All expenditures for extracurricular activities must be carefully accounted for. Usually both receipts and expenditures are administered through a central treasurer who may be a clerk in the principal's office or an instructor in the commerce department. He is usually assisted by student treasurers who work under his immediate surveillance.

Auditing and Protection. All extracurricular accounts should be carefully checked. This includes the preaudit of bills before they are paid, the monthly audit, and the annual audit. The audits should be of two

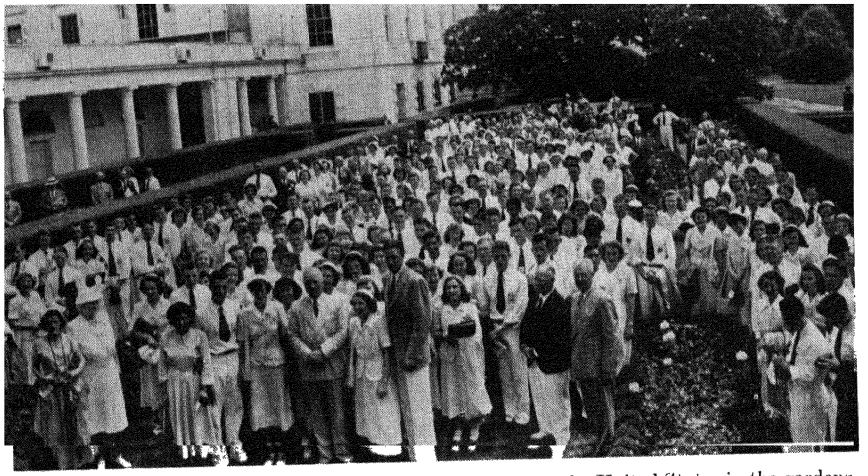


FIG. 14-10. National 4-H Club leaders visit the President of the United States in the gardens at the White House, Washington, D.C.

types: the administrative check usually made by students, faculty, or a fiscal officer within the employ of the school; and the independent examination of accounts conducted by a person not connected with the school system. Some states require that all extracurricular school funds be audited by a bonded person employed by the school district. Everything should be done to ensure protection of both money and persons who handle it, particularly since many schools use public funds to finance part of the cocurricular activities.

COOPERATION WITH STATE AND NATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

State Organizations. Many local cocurricular groups are chapters of state organizations or are banded informally in state groupings. Interscholastic high-school athletic groups are often affiliated in a state high-

school athletic association, which divides the state into districts. Some states have a high-school activities association that encompasses a large number of varied cocurricular undertakings. The principals, sponsors, and students meet in conferences and conventions. A noticeable trend is the development of a formal state-wide organization with a competent executive staff to direct and coordinate all interscholastic activities.

National and International Organizations. Some local and state associations are affiliated with national and international organizations. Among the projects of the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education was that of gathering information about national agencies that serve youth. Names of several hundred organizations of nongovernmental character have been published in the book *Youth-serving Organizations.* Many are primarily youth membership organizations. Several groups listed below have local and state chapters in the schools:

Girls	Boys	Mixed Groups
Camp Fire Girls	Boys' Clubs	Allied Youth
Future Homemakers	Boy Scouts	Catholic Youth
Girl Reserves	Fraternities	4-H
Girl Scouts	Future Farmers	Future Teachers of America
Thespian Society	Hi-Y	Quill and Scroll
New Homemakers	New Farmers	Junior Red Cross
Sororities	R.O.T.C.	National Forensic League
Y.W.C.A.	Y.M.C.A.	National Honor Society
		Protestant Youth
		Student Councils
		Student Editors

In Appendix IX-B are enumerated 45 of the national youth-serving organizations and their affiliation with four national coordinating bodies. Among the many national organizations in which secondary-school youth hold memberships are those shown in the accompanying table. Then, too, many national meetings are held for students, as for example the National Conference on Student Participation in School Administration. America does not have "a" youth movement—it has many movements, since its youth belongs to many organizations and has many allegiances. A well-balanced program of cocurricular activities includes not only independent organizations developed locally but also chapters of such state, national, and international organizations as are demanded and approved.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Develop a series of principles that you think should govern cocurricular activities in a small high school.
2. Define the qualities required of student leaders.

3. Contrast the wartime youth movement in Italy or Germany with that in the United States.

4. Investigate as to why so many class and home-room organizations are ineffective in schools.

5. List the main criticisms against student councils as generally found in elementary and secondary schools and in colleges. Tell what some of their accomplishments are.

6. Collect samples of school publications, such as newspapers and handbooks, and evaluate them.

7. List the musical organizations your elementary or high school had.

8. Tell in what typical speech activities students engage outside of classwork.

9. Enumerate on a sheet of paper all the clubs that are found in your high school or college. Evaluate their programs.

10. Describe a good intramural physical education program in a typical high school.

11. List in two parallel columns the advantages and disadvantages of interscholastic competition in high-school athletics.

12. Attend a meeting of an elementary- or secondary-school club.

13. Outline an assembly program for some high-school club.

14. Describe a "new type" vitalized high-school commencement.

15. Evaluate one or more social affairs held in high schools and colleges.

16. Describe a military organization found in high schools or colleges.

17. Show by means of a diagram a plan for coordinating the various extracurricular activities of a school.

18. List the desirable qualities of a sponsor for a specific extracurricular activity.

19. Indicate how an activity program is financed in a high school.

20. List some of the national organizations that have chapters in local secondary schools. Describe one in detail.

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[10] The figures following the titles of the publications indicate the number of issues annually.

Girl Scout Leader (9)

Periodical published by the program division of the Girl Scouts.

Handbooks (1)

Various helpful guides, as the Handbook of the National Honor Society.

Recreation (12)

Periodical of the National Recreation Association.

School Activities (9)

National extracurricular magazine—the best in the field.

School Press Review (8)

Publication of the Columbia Scholastic Press Association of Columbia University.

Scouting (11)

Official magazine for Boy Scout leaders.

Student Life (8)

Periodical sponsored by the National Association of Secondary School Principals to encourage better practices in student activities in secondary schools.

Yearbooks (1)

Many yearbooks of practical aid to students and sponsors of cocurricular activities, as the Yearbooks of the Educational Press Association.

Audio-visual Aids

Beginning Tennis — Five slidefilms, 35 mm., sound

The five slidefilms deal with (1) the game, (2) the forehand drive, (3) the backhand drive, (4) the service, and (5) the rules simplified. The package contains the slides, transcribed tennis instruction on records, a teacher's manual, and a set of pamphlets for students. Available from the Athletic Institute, Chicago, Illinois.

Championship Basketball — Ten minutes, 16 mm., sound

The film opens with discussion and demonstration of the man-to-man defense, and then follows with various techniques. Scenes from Madison Square Garden contests show the applications. Available from Official Films, New York.

Democracy, "Junior Style," in Action — Twelve minutes, 16 mm., sound

This film is a dramatic production of the Junior Red Cross program. Available from the American Junior Red Cross, New York.

Football Parade of the Year — One reel, 16 mm., sound

This film depicts college football scenes from coast to coast. Available from Castle Films, New York.

Learning Democracy — Twenty minutes, 16 mm., sound

This shows how typical public schools and communities in Michigan serve as proving grounds for democracy, utilizing young people and adults. Scenes include an elementary-school student council and a rural field day. Available from Audio-visual Aids Center, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

Learn to Swim — Twenty minutes, 16 mm., sound

This film teaches swimming by inspiring confidence. It demonstrates various strokes. Available from Castle Films, New York.

Manners Made Easy — Five filmstrips, 35 mm., silent

The five filmstrips are captioned: (1) Home Ground, (2) School Spirit, (3) As Others See Us, (4) Table Talk, and (5) Stepping Out. They are correlated with

the textbook *Manners Made Easy* by Mary Beery. Available from McGraw-Hill, New York.

ON THE ROAD TO TOMORROW — Ten minutes, 16 mm., sound

The 4-H clubs and the significance of their work is portrayed. Available from Castle Films, New York.

PLAY BALL, SON — Seventeen minutes, 16 mm., sound

A group of fourteen-year-old boys demonstrate the teaching of Bert V. Donne, whose textbook, *Play Ball, Son,* is correlated with the film. Available from Young America Films, New York.

THE FIGHT GAME — Eighteen minutes, 16 mm., sound

Starting from the days when the rules of boxing were first formalized, this film gives glimpses of such heroes as Gans, Nelson, Richard, Dempsey, Tunney, and Louis. Available from the March of Time, New York.

THE SAFEST WAY — Fifteen minutes, 16 mm., sound

The film and manual teach elementary-school children pedestrian safety. Available from local American Automobile Association club.

TRACK AND FIELD SPORTS — Ten films, 16 mm., sound

These films cover every track and field subject and illustrate various styles. Available from United World Films, New York.

WANTED—FACILITIES FOR LEISURE — Fifteen-minute radio script

This radio script was written by W. K. Streit, a leader in physical education. Available from National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

PREVIEW OF UNIT XV

EDUCATIONAL SUPPLIES, EQUIPMENT, AND BUILDINGS

In the learning-teaching process, pupils and teachers need educational tools and a place in which to work. These constitute the educational environment that stimulates learning.

Books are the tools most frequently used. Extensive reading requires many books. In their selection the educational interests of the pupil should be the basic criterion. The library is the heart of the school, with arteries running into each room.

Other instructional supplies and equipment include ancillary reference material such as the dictionary, and audio-visual aids such as the sound film. All these materials ought to be selected in terms of the educational program of the school.

The supplies and equipment are housed in school buildings located on suitable sites. The school site conditions the development of an adequate building program. The building should be a functional creation so artistically designed and equipped that its beauty charms the student. The school of tomorrow will be a community workshop designed to meet the daily needs of all learners in the community. The ideal expressed in "we, the people," should permeate the planning of school buildings in community, state, and nation.

Outline of Contents

Introduction
- Role of materials in education
- Supplies and equipment defined

Schoolbooks
- Historical development of textbooks
- Selection, adoption, and purchase of schoolbooks
- School libraries

Other Instructional Supplies and Equipment
- Ancillary reading materials
- Multisensory aids in learning
- Miscellaneous supplies and equipment
- Selection, purchase, and use of materials

School Sites, Buildings, and Equipment
- Building programs
- School sites
- Educational buildings
- Equipment for buildings and sites
- Community schools

UNIT XV

EDUCATIONAL SUPPLIES, EQUIPMENT, AND BUILDINGS

"What is the greatest invention in human history?" To this question there are many answers but for education there is only one: "The greatest invention is printing." The first press in the territory now included in the United States was set up at Harvard College, Cambridge, Massachusetts, by Stephen Daye in 1639. In the three hundred and more years that have elapsed since that time the relationship between the printing press and institutions of learning has been vital. The publishing of educational books today constitutes a big business. Linked with printed publications is the manufacture of educational supplies and equipment.

Role of Materials in Education. No farmer would send his hired help to work in the fields without providing suitable supplies, tools, and equipment. Many school board members, however, ask their teachers "to make bricks without straw"—to teach without the necessary learning materials. Paradoxically, in America, which leads the world in the publication and manufacture of school supplies, thousands of school pupils are empty-handed or poorly supplied with educational materials.

Much school equipment is archaic. Although many teachers drive to school in this year's model of automobile, they use constantly in the classroom much equipment and many supplies of Model T vintage. The quality of school supplies is as important as the quantity. For example, an inferior grade of penmanship paper may be a decided handicap to neatness in handwriting. Restricted budgets and the apathy of the general public account in part for the failure to provide the best. Then, too, many classroom and laboratory teachers are unfamiliar with the wide variety and quality of modern educational materials. Even after being supplied with the latest tools of learning, teachers and pupils often do not use them effectively. For a proper learning-teaching environment, supplies and tools are essential; they are, however, merely physical means for facilitating the educational process. All aids to teaching may prove sterile unless they are applied intelligently.

Supplies and Equipment Defined. A supply item is usually distinguished from a piece of equipment in that the former has a shorter service life than the latter. An illustration of the first is school chalk, which is used up in a short period of time; an example of equipment is a school desk, which may last for several years. Textbooks are technically considered as equipment, whereas workbooks may be either equipment or supply items. Supplies

and equipment may also be classified on the basis of whether they are primarily instructional or building items. Instructional supplies and equipment are exemplified respectively by chalk and books, whereas two building items are illustrated by sweeping compound and drinking fountains. Building supplies and equipment are given special emphasis in the last part of this unit. Here the educational supplies and equipment are grouped as (1) schoolbooks, and (2) other instructional supplies and equipment.

SCHOOLBOOKS

Historical Development of Textbooks

Early American Textbooks. The change in schoolbooks forms a fascinating chapter in the history of American education. The hornbook, a paddle-shaped contrivance which hung from the pupil's neck, usually contained the Lord's Prayer and the alphabet. *The New England Primer*, an example of the small morally compact textbook used in the colonial days, is said to have taught millions to read and not one to sin. *McGuffey's Readers* emphasized the Bible and morals by means of intersting stories. America's textbook best seller—over 100,000,000 copies—was the *Elementary Spelling Book*, the "blue-back" speller of Noah Webster, about which it has been written: "No other secular book has reached so many minds in America as Webster's Spelling Book, and none has played so shaping a part in our destiny."[1] In this speller one finds a list such as the following "words of seven syllables having the accent on the fifth":

im ma te ri al′ i ty	im pen e tra bil′ i ty
in com pat i bil′ i ty	per pen dic u lar′ i ty
im per cep ti bil′ i ty	in de fen si bil′ i ty
ir re sist i bil′ i ty	val e tu di na′ ri an
in com bus ti bil′ i ty	an ti trin i ta′ ri an

Another speller bore the ambitious title, *New England's Perfect Schoolmaster*. The titles of books reveal marked changes between yesteryear and now.

In early American education, memory was a cardinal virtue. For the schoolmaster there was a book entitled *Mnemonics Applied to the Acquisition of Knowledge*, whose authors, Pike and Pike, challenged any six men to learn as much as the Messrs. Pike could in any given length of time. For pupils there was Grimshaw's huge volume devoted to "tables and explanation necessary to be learned by heart by every pupil studying arithmetic." Often the textbooks, which contained valuable materials in small-type footnotes, failed to challenge the interest of the reader.

[1] Harry R. Warfel, *Noah Webster: School Master to America*, p. 53, Macmillan, 1936.

In the development of modern schoolbooks the three main influences were a study of the child, the establishment of the textbook business as a specialized industry, and the revival of interest in printing.[2]

The Textbook in Modern Education. Over a century ago Emerson, in his memorable address, "The American Scholar," distinguished clearly between the use and the abuse of books. Although books contain the inheritance of past thinking and as such are invaluable to the scholar, they should not be a substitute for his own thinking. On the other hand, some things can be learned better and more economically from books than from other sources.

Selection, Adoption, and Purchase of Schoolbooks

Procedures in Selecting Textbooks. In contrast to the old practice, whereby one person, usually the administrator, selected the textbooks used by the teachers and pupils, is the more democratic procedure by which an appointed or elected committee of teachers recommends the texts. In this way teacher and pupil interests, needs, and likes are known and given consideration. The National Society for the Study of Education, through its very stimulating yearbook *The Textbook in American Education*, recommended that "the educational interest of the pupil must at all times be the primary consideration in appraising plans for making and selecting textbooks."

The two general techniques in evaluating textbooks prior to their adoption are subjective judgment and objective appraisal. Usually both are employed. The one is a casual examination of the book or books, often preceded by a sales talk by a representative of a book company or the receipt of a letter or descriptive folder. The other technique is a painstaking scrutiny by means of a check list, score card, or guide for textbook analysis. Some of these are intended for all books in general, whereas others are for a specific field or an area, as first-grade reading. One guide for textbook analysis contains the following major items: authorship, content and organization, vocabulary and readability, methods and motivation, teaching and study aids, mechanical make-up, and miscellaneous items, such as copyright date.[3] Content and format are the major bases for textbook selection.

The content of American textbooks has been criticized severely as being either too radical or too conservative.[4] The National Association of

[2] Frank A. Jensen, *Current Procedure in Selecting Textbooks*, pp. 5–6, Lippincott, 1931.

[3] Willis O. Underwood, "A Guide for Textbook Analysis," *American School Board Journal*, March, 1941, p. 24.

[4] This issue is discussed further in Unit XVII.

Manufacturers launched an attack upon textbooks, especially those in social science, stating that, although few could be classified as subversive, many of the books tended to instill in the reader's mind a discontent with American democracy and the workings of private enterprise. Certain members of the Congress of the United States have questioned the content of textbooks as "un-American." In answer to the question, "In your opinion, how satisfactorily do school textbooks help pupils to attain the American ideal of 'equal opportunity for all'?" a professor in the teaching of social studies expressed the following opinion: "No book that attempts to deal with any vital issue or problem in a vital way can be published at the present time without balanced sentences in which one pressure group is played off against another, or without the usual dodges of a so-called judicious character." Such surveys as those reported in *A Study of National History Textbooks Used in the Schools of Canada and the United States*, *Intergroup Relations in Teaching Materials*, and *Textbook Improvement and International Understanding* stress the need for using objectivity and coming to grips with basic issues. As Howard E. Wilson has pointed out, the fault lies often in the courses of study for which the textbooks are prepared. Discretion must of course be used in selection of materials for schoolbooks, but there is too much timidity in the writing and publishing of materials not only on American democracy but on many controversial issues. Some textbooks in American history are published in two editions, one to be used north of Mason and Dixon's line and the other south of it. Frequently books have to be written for particular states because of legislation that prohibits the inclusion of certain materials. Schools should furnish enough books on a particular subject to present different points of view, particularly for older pupils. The texts should be chosen not only for content but also for eye appeal.

The format or mechanical construction of the book is a very important factor. The physical appearance is affected by size of page and book, binding, cover, paper, illustrations, type, spacing, and margins. Many schoolbooks have been too "textbooky." Today better paper, types, and binding materials, plus stronger binding processes, make textbooks attractive, appealing, and durable. The modern textbook is an invitation to learning, silently saying, "Look, and read me." Most of the changes in format that have been effected through the joint efforts of teachers, administrators, librarians, authors, and publishers are improvements. A few of the modern tendencies, such as freakish page make-up that presents broken lines of varying lengths and placements, present difficulties, especially to young readers. The American Institute of Graphic Arts, through leading book designers and printers, has launched a nation-wide

campaign for better looking books—books that please the eye as well as the mind. Several awards are issued annually, including the Newberry medal to the author of the outstanding book for children, and the Caldecott award to the illustrator of the most distinguished picture book for children.

Adoption of Textbooks. Textbooks, supplementary readers, and workbooks usually are adopted by (1) local authority, (2) the county superintendent or county board of education, or (3) a state textbook commission.

The most usual procedure in the choice of basal textbooks is that of local selection. This permits adaptability to conditions such as the length of the school year and the nature of the community. A major handicap in this method is that students moving from one district to another, even within the same county, do not find uniform textbooks.

Many times the selection of textbooks is made by either the county superintendent or the county board of education. The county superintendent is frequently assisted by a committee of teachers in the adoption of textbooks.

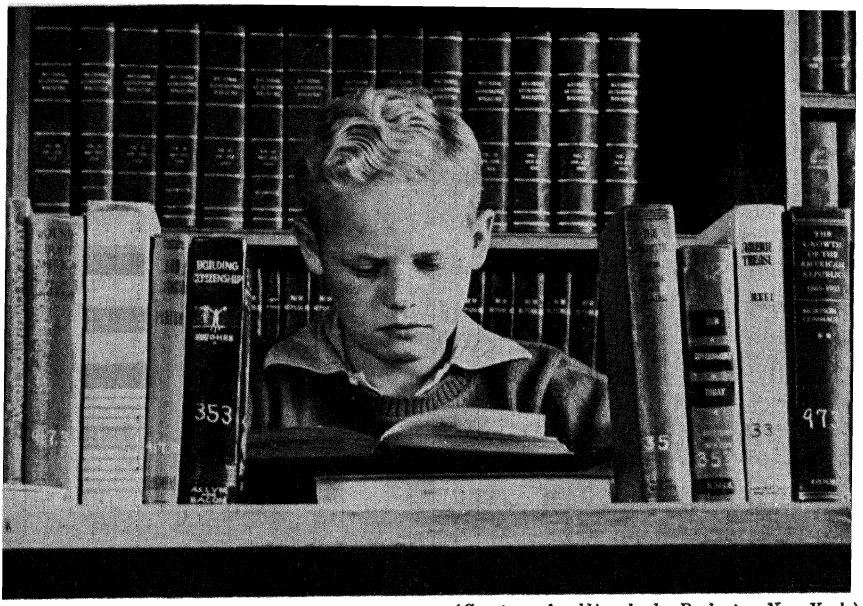
Another method is that of state-wide adoption, usually by a state schoolbook commission. Approximately half the states have statutes requiring uniform textbooks. The largest single purchaser of textbooks in the United States is Texas, which buys books for all elementary-school children in the state.

Purchase and Distribution of Textbooks. After the textbooks have been selected and adopted, they are purchased and distributed for use. The distribution of books to pupils is usually accomplished through three major purchasing procedures: (1) pupil purchase, (2) school ownership, and (3) other methods.

The common practice whereby pupils purchase their own books may be argued pro and con. It stimulates a learner to begin the acquisition of his own library and relieves school board finances. On the other hand it retards the introduction of up-to-date textbooks. The basic objection to this procedure is that it is not fully in accord with the democratic concept of supplying free education and free instructional materials. To furnish free instruction but to require the purchase of educational tools is an anomaly.

Frequently a caste system prevails in American public education, since the pupils who live on one side of the railroad tracks are able to purchase textbooks while those on the other side are denied equal opportunity to learn because their parents cannot afford to buy adequate learning material. The supplying of free textbooks by the board of education is far more common on the elementary than on the secondary level. There are many pertinent obstacles, especially that of defraying the cost.

The rental of textbooks has been called "a child of the depression." The books, purchased by the board of education or other agencies, are rented to the pupils on a per capita or per subject basis. The fee system is similar to the rental plan: the school or pupil may purchase the basal text for a course such as high-school English, and then upon payment of a fee the pupil is supplied with the classics and other required supplementary materials. There are numerous other deviations and combinations of



(Courtesy of public schools, Rochester, New York.)

FIG. 15-1. Pupils should be surrounded by books.

systems. No matter what procedure is used in supplying children with textbooks and materials, it is necessary to keep these tools up to date and to increase in most schools the amount of money thus expended.

SCHOOL LIBRARIES

Their Role in Education. The role of libraries is described in the statement, A Library Bill of Rights, found in Appendix XV-A. The library ought to be the heart of the school, with arteries running into each room. The plan of extensive reading requires much supplementary material. This means that administrators and teachers should be familiar with library work and competent to guide pupils in the use of library and supplementary materials.

Schools and libraries should have a close and cooperative relationship.

In a few large cities and in many small districts the school library is operated as a branch of the city or county public library and draws freely on the larger library collection. "Rolling libraries" and "bookmobiles" are increasing in number and in services to rural areas. Tennessee is one of several states where the county circulating library system has proved very successful. Several school districts cooperate in the establishment of a central library system whereby the books obtained are made available by a well-planned system of circulation.

Evaluation of School Library. In measuring the adequacy of school libraries, a publication of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards states that a satisfactory book collection for a secondary-school library should have a fairly high rating in number of titles, balanced distribution, appropriateness for secondary-school purposes, and recency of publication.

A rough index of balance is the number of volumes in the various areas of the Dewey Decimal System whereby nonfiction books are arranged according to numbers and decimals. The major classifications in this system are as follows:

000	General works	500	Natural science
100	Philosophy	600	Useful arts
200	Religion and mythology	700	Fine arts
300	Sociology	800	Literature
400	Language	900	History

Subdivisions of these major classes are used. Fiction books are listed alphabetically by author. Modern education requires a well-balanced library in every building as a central opportunity for extended reading experience. Furthermore, in a pupil-centered library the emphasis is on the reader rather than the book.

Equipment for the Library. Among the items of equipment other than books are reading tables and chairs, charging desk for librarian, cabinet and stand for card catalogue, magazine rack, vertical files, bulletin boards, display racks, dictionary stand, book truck, and, in large schools, an atlas case, a display case, and a regulation executive's desk for the librarian.[5] These articles should be selected from dependable firms and should harmonize with the other school furnishings.

OTHER INSTRUCTIONAL SUPPLIES AND EQUIPMENT

Space does not permit a detailed list of all the supply and equipment items other than books that are found in a modern school. The two types singled out for emphasis are (1) ancillary reading materials, and (2) multisensory aids to learning.

[5] Martha Wilson, *School Library Management*, p. 41, H. W. Wilson, 1939.

Ancillary Reading Materials

The Dictionary. An important book, which should receive special attention in all educational institutions, is the dictionary. A large dictionary placed on a bookshelf or desk in the front or rear of the room is not adequate. Each pupil ought to have an attractive dictionary gauged to his level and at hand for steady use. This may be supplemented by larger lexicons available for the group. Extensive reading and frequent reference to a dictionary help to develop a copious vocabulary and fine discrimination in meanings.

The Workbook. Recent years have witnessed a growing demand for workbooks and kindred materials. Valuable as workbooks may be, an intelligent teacher will not rely implicitly upon anything mechanical; she will vary the mediums of work as well as the methodology.

Newspapers. Students are interested in newspapers. Today thousands of classrooms contain newspapers. Many teachers employ the news, magazine, financial, and sport sections as means of general knowledge enrichment; they depend upon the book review, magazine, theater, movie, art, music, radio, science, travel, and hobby sections for cultural guidance and enrichment. Yale's famous professor of English, William Lyon Phelps, once said the newspaper is one of the greatest aids to vitality Americans have. The emphasis on newspaper reading in schools has been primarily for keeping up with current events. The habit of reading current news is, of course, a first step, and the human-interest story is probably a natural starting point. The ultimate aim is to develop an intelligently critical attitude.

Magazines. Allied with the use of newspapers is that of magazines and periodicals. Many schools subscribe to publications such as *Our Times*, *Reader's Digest*, *My Weekly Reader*, and *Scholastic*. The current emphasis on candid photography and pictorial sections in popular magazines introduced these aids in the public school. A good example of the pictorial periodicals is the publication *Building America*. It is obvious that the school must give attention to the selection and use of periodicals.

Tests. An important function of the school is that of comprehensive evaluation, which includes testing. Many good standard tests are available for schools; these are helpful for grading and promoting pupils, for evaluating the efficiency of instruction, and especially for diagnostic purposes. Each school should include in its budget an allowance for the purchase of such materials. Obviously the choice of a test will depend upon the purpose for which it is to be used. Standard tests are usually accompanied by a manual giving data on their validity and reliability, and containing instructions for giving, scoring, and interpreting the tests.

The weakness in most testing programs is that the papers accumulate dust in an office and that teachers and administrators do not translate the implications into action. Many educational supplies and pieces of equipment deteriorate from disuse or abuse.

Multisensory Aids in Learning

Multisensory aids, usually delimited to audio-visual, include many facets of learning. Utilizing the five senses of seeing, hearing, smelling, tasting, and feeling, the multisensory materials run the gamut of the alphabet from the touch-and-see ABC block in the nursery to the smell-and-taste of zymurgy in the college chemistry laboratory. The audio-visual aids in teaching and learning are grouped as follows by Edgar Dale, one of the leaders in the field:

1. Direct experiences 2. Contrived experiences 3. Dramatic production	involve *doing* in order of decreasing directness
4. Demonstrations 5. Field trips 6. Exhibits 7. Motion pictures 8. Radio, recordings, still pictures	involve *observing* in order of decreasing directness
9. Visual symbols 10. Verbal symbols	involve *symbolizing* in order of increasing abstractness[6]

These divisions, ranging between the two extremes of direct experience and pure abstraction, obviously overlap and include many specific mediums such as filmstrips and television.

Of the motion picture, George F. Zook, president of the American Council on Education for many years, said, "It is the most revolutionary instrument introduced in education since the printing press." The Council has helped to improve the educational possibilities of the motion picture and other audio-visual aids through its Projects on Motion Pictures in Education, its Committee on Filmstrips and Slide Projects, and its Commission on Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs.

The action of the Federal Communications Commission in allotting several channels on the ultrahigh radio waves to nonprofit educational broadcasting is of extreme significance to schools. The United States

[6] Edgar Dale, *Audio-visual Methods in Teaching*, p. 52, The Dryden Press, 1946.

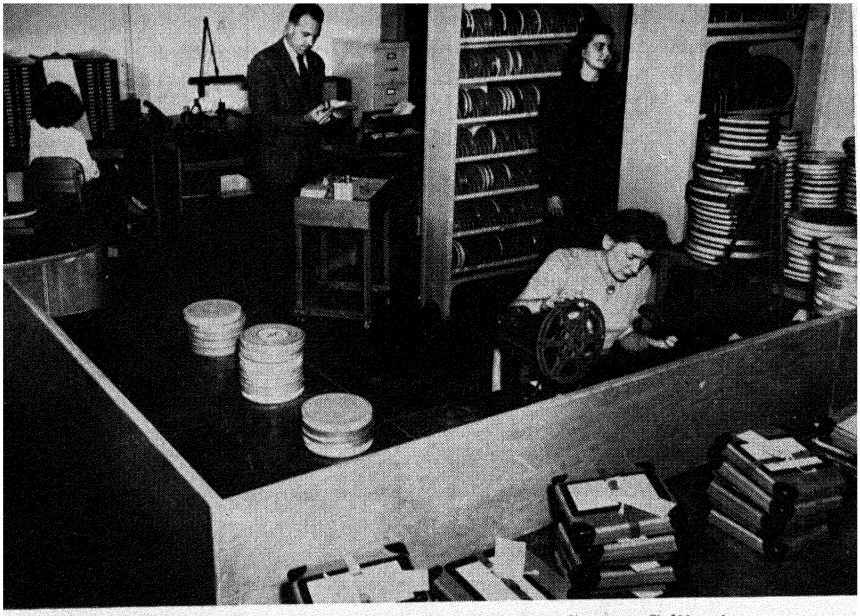


FIG. 15-2. Audio-visual aids center, San Diego County, California.

(Courtesy of Public Schools, Detroit, Michigan.)

FIG. 15-3. High-school students try their luck in radio broadcasting over WDTR, Detroit's own FM station.

Office of Education, through its Federal Radio Education Committee, is promoting a much-needed educational emphasis in radio. H. V. Kaltenborn, news commentator, speaking of the radio as the "fifth estate," has said that the radio, wrongly exploited, is capable of creating confusion, discontent, ignorance, incompatibility, intemperance, and moral and social disintegration; but just as easily it may concentrate on public enlightenment, intellectual stimulus, social awareness, diplomatic cooperation, greater understanding, and economic recovery. Wayne Coy, chairman of the Federal Communications Commission, has added:

> The potentialities of radio as a tool for the educator are generally conceded. Still, we are faced with the fact that this tool is largely unused by the nation's schools. . . . Educators should make the fullest possible use of the regular commercial broadcast service. . . . Every schoolroom in America should be equipped with a radio set. It should be freely integrated with classroom work as a major educational tool.[7]

The commission has allocated numerous channels for the noncommercial educational FM (frequency modulation) service, with its static-free, high-fidelity bands. Increasing in use is the audio-correspondence course, the lesson material for which is broadcast. Through the addition of the so-called "fourth R" (radio) many rural schools are losing their one-teacher status. Many large schools have installed central sound systems in order to multiply speech and learning.

The latest and potentially the most powerful educational tool is television, linked with facsimile broadcasting. What will it mean to the school?

> It should be obvious that if you add sight to sound, plus motion, immediacy, and somewhat realistic color, so that the distant-present becomes real—the teacher has a valuable assistant. . . . Schools have been collecting the raw materials of television for years. Films, slides, charts, models, and photographs provide a reservoir of television materials. The film serves television, as transcription now serves radio. Outstanding teachers aided by these materials, the familiar blackboard, and animated cartoons or puppets, will be seen and heard in the classroom.[8]

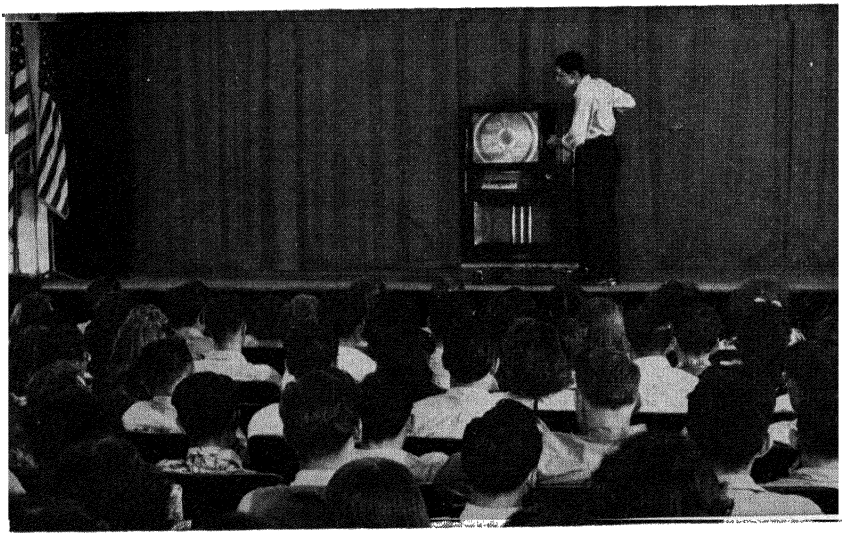
A lesson received through the eye and ear gates has a double chance of retention by the learner. Like radio, television has its limitations, but it also has great potentialities as a teaching device. The television screen may become the electronic blackboard of the future.

[7] Wayne Coy, "Radio Tower versus Ivory Tower," *Journal of the National Education Association*, November, 1948, p. 494.

[8] William B. Levenson, "What Will Television and Facsimile Broadcasting Mean to Schools?" *School Management*, April, 1948, p. 32.

(*Courtesy of RCA Victor.*)

FIG. 15-4. Television producers. In this telecast the pupils in a Philadelphia school music class demonstrate how to use rhythm instruments. This was one of a series of telecasts called "Know Your Schools." Such programs, through sight and sound, bring the school closer to the stay-at-home parent.



(*Courtesy of RCA Victor.*)

FIG. 15-5. Television consumers. Students at Upper Darby High School, Pennsylvania, watch station identification on the television projection console. The set is stored in a specially constructed closet at the rear of the auditorium stage. A homemade dolly permits easy moving. Students and faculty make active use of television in the school curriculum.

Miscellaneous Supplies and Equipment

A study of current school budgets or of supply catalogues reveals an endless array of educational supplies and school equipment, from a small piece of chalk to a large expensive grand piano or organ. All special types of rooms, such as household arts, industrial arts, fine arts, laboratories, cafeterias, gymnasiums, and auditoriums contain special supplies and equipment.

Selection, Purchase, and Use of Materials

Many principles and procedures are involved in the selection, purchase, and management of materials. Supplies and equipment should be selected in terms of the educational program of the school. For that reason teachers should be consulted as to the need.

Ethics in Handling School Supplies and Equipment. In order to improve the selection of school supplies and equipment and to maintain a high professional standard of conduct, a code of ethics has been developed by the Associated Exhibitors of the National Education Association. This code should be supplemented by a nation-wide code for schoolteachers and administrators relative to the handling of textbooks, supplies, and equipment.[9] For example, some administrators, teachers, and professors have a penchant for collecting free textbooks by asking publishers for samples, under the pretext of possible adoptions. Another unethical procedure often followed by teachers is that of duplicating or mimeographing portions from textbooks. Portions of a copyrighted book should not be duplicated unless the permission of the publisher has been obtained. The present standard of ethics in the selection, sale, and use of textbooks and school materials is a challenge to the teaching profession and to those engaged in schoolbook and supply business to improve current practices.

Use of Supplies and Equipment. A survey of United States patent records shows that the earliest patent for a teaching device was issued to H. Card in 1809 for a "Mode of Teaching to Read."[10] Despite this so-called machine age, schools do not use enough mechanical aids in making their work more scientific, interesting, and accurate. Administrators and teachers should take advantage of technically accurate and professionally useful devices, like the audiometer, which is the best known way of testing the hearing of pupils, and the lightmeter, which is an accurate measure of the foot-candles of light in any part of a room.

[9] For a good illustration of a specific code, see Appendix XII, Code of Ethics for Schoolmen and Bookmen.

[10] Ibert Mellan, "Teaching and Educational Inventions," *Journal of Experimental Education*, March, 1936, p. 291.

Modern classrooms are equipped with steel file cases. The teacher should know how to file personnel records and other materials for present and future use. Records and reports are becoming more numerous as activity increases in the field of child and teacher accounting. The classroom furniture—desk, files, and cupboards—should be arranged economically, for many useless steps can be eliminated through an alert analysis of arrangements within the room.

(Courtesy of designer, J. W. Baldwin, College of Education, University of Texas.)

FIG. 15-6. Social-science laboratory. This is a corner of the busy social-science laboratory in the demonstration school of the state-supported University of Texas. Large tack board and ample map holders are in evidence.

Consumer education in the purchase and use of educational supplies and equipment is on the increase. Information in regard to analyses of products is available from federal agencies, like the United States Bureau of Standards, and from organizations, like the National School Supply Association. Additional literature and corroborating research are needed in connection with the manufacture, purchase, and use of school supplies and equipment. In order to make teaching-learning aids more readily accessible to teachers, many schools have established special rooms as instructional service centers. Pupils and teachers need instruction in the wise and economical use of school materials. Unfortunately many pupils willfully destroy property and some unwittingly damage materials through improper use, as in the careless handling of a textbook or of playground apparatus.

FIG. 15-7. Educational displays of Associated Exhibitors of the National Education Association, Atlantic City, New Jersey. Thousands of teachers, administrators, and board members visit the exhibit of school supplies and equipment held in connection with the annual meeting of the American Association of School Administrators.

SCHOOL SITES, BUILDINGS, AND EQUIPMENT

The influence of environment in the life of a child is appropriately expressed in the following lines from Walt Whitman:

> There was a child went forth every day,
> And the first object he look'd upon, that object he became,
> And that object became part of him for the day or a certain part of the day,
> Or for many years or stretching cycles of years.[11]

School sites, buildings, and equipment are a material part of the daily scenes of the child. The building should be intimately fitted to human needs—practical, psychological, and aesthetic. The building ought to be planned as a unified collection of functional relationships, erected in such close sympathy with its surroundings, and so fittingly furnished that its beauty charms the students who breathe into the architect's creation the breath of life.

Building Programs

School Building Needs. One of the most critical problems in American education is that of providing adequate and satisfactory school housing. Three major factors contribute to the needs that now exist or are in immediate prospect:

> First, there is the accumulation of unmet needs because of curtailed school building activities for nearly a score of years. During the depression of the 1930's and the war years which followed, schoolhouse construction was limited, in most cases, to projects which were absolutely necessary.
>
> Second, a wave of greatly increased enrollments has begun to surge through the schools as a result of the unprecedented rise in birth rate which began in the early years of World War II.
>
> Third, the problem is still further complicated by high building costs.[12]

School housing shortages may seriously impair the quantity and quality of learning.

Long-term Master Plans. The erection of educational building is a long-span proposition. Inasmuch as a new structure usually involves bonded indebtedness, it is necessary to project the estimated cost 15 to 20 years in the future. This is not unwarranted, since the building may be used for 50 years or more.

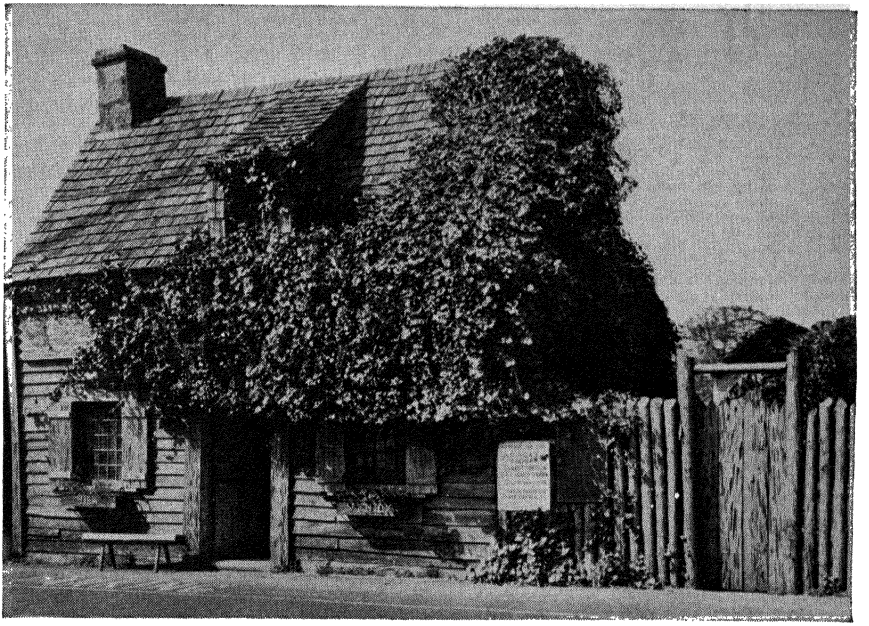
The master plan is a complete, comprehensive, and long-range plan made by a school district to meet the anticipated growth of a school system over a period of

[11] Walt Whitman, *Leaves of Grass*, p. 306, Doubleday, 1931.

[12] *Research Bulletin*, "School Housing Needs in City-School Systems, 1947–48," National Education Association, 1948, p. 144.

years. It must be flexible enough to allow for unforeseen contingencies. It must be regarded as a document of considerable authority and yet it is not so sacred but that it can be revised if changed conditions seem to warrant it.[13]

Each individual building is a part of the ultimate master program, which should embrace three essential and integrated phases, *viz.*: (1) the educational, (2) the expenditure, and (3) the financing plan.



(Courtesy of Ewing Galloway, New York)

FIG. 15-8. One of the oldest schoolhouses in the United States, if not the oldest. This schoolhouse, at St. Augustine, Florida, probably antedates by a few years the still-standing Nathan Hale school in Connecticut and the one erected at York Village, Maine, in 1745.

Educational Plan. School building and sites are merely facilitating mediums for the instructional process. Functional planning demands that the educational aims of the school be translated into an actual workable program for the architect, and then that his drawings and specifications be checked with it.

One of the first prerequisites to an improved school plant is a clear-cut statement of the community's beliefs regarding public education. . . . Since the schools belong

[13] Charles Wesley Bursch and John Lyon Reid, *You Want to Build a School?* p. 45, Reinhold, 1947.

to the public, the school's aims should be also the public's aims. A joint enterprise, such as the public schools, requires joint participation in crystallizing beliefs. . . .[14]

Expenditure Program. Costs fluctuate with the price of materials and labor, and the purchasing power of the dollar. It is not improbable that building costs will increase, especially if beauty as well as utility is to be considered. Certainly there should be a difference in the appearance of a manufacturing plant and a school building. On the other hand too much money has frequently been spent. New schoolhouses have not always been based upon real necessity; sometimes they have been erected because of local pride, competition with a neighboring district, or selfishness. School board members and administrators seeking to perpetuate their names on a brass plate in the entrance to a new school may saddle the community with a debt that outlasts the building. Some building programs halt educational progress. Teachers and pupils are better off in a less pretentious structure that can be financed than in one that has so taxed the fiscal resources of the district as to drastically curtail funds for educational purposes.

Financing Plan. The erection of new school buildings or the rehabilitation of old structures is usually financed by the community through the pay-as-you-go plan or some means of borrowing. Since the former method calls for payment out of the current school budget, it is used sparingly and only in large cities. The second plan calls for either long-term or short-term bonds or loans. It is recommended that bonds should not extend over a period longer than 20 years. Usually the erection of a building is preceded by a school election that authorizes the board of education to bond the district. A marked trend is that of paying some of the building costs from the state treasury as part of the minimum foundation program. Several bills in Congress have included the provision of federal funds for the planning and/or construction of local school buildings.

School Sites

The school site—its size, dimensions, character of the ground, location of the building, and space for play—is of fundamental importance since it conditions not only the development of an adequate recreation program but also possible additions to the existing school plant. In the early days plots of ground unfavorable for other purposes were chosen for schoolhouses. Conditions were so deplorable that Horace Mann, in a supplement to his first annual report in 1838, pleaded for the improvement of school sites and buildings. Much advance has been effected in the last hundred years.

[14] American Association of School Administrators, *American School Buildings*, pp. 45–46, National Education Association, 1949.

Development of the Site. The school site, which is as important to the complete educational program as classrooms, must be planned to serve its many uses effectively. Among the factors in site selection and development are: (1) its location, (2) nature of the soil, (3) size and shape, (4) location and orientation of the building, (5) outdoor activity spaces, (6) service areas and facilities, and (7) planted areas. Two of the factors—size and landscaping—are here lifted out for brief emphasis.

Size of Sites. Most school sites are too small. Even in rural communities where farm land can be purchased rather inexpensively, many elementary schools have a fenced-in area so small as to prohibit a game of baseball. The grounds around many secondary schools are hopelessly inadequate, especially in parking facilities. Furthermore, the modern program of health and physical education requires several additional acres. The National Council of Schoolhouse Construction recommends, as minimum site areas for elementary schools, five acres, plus an additional acre for every 100 pupils of ultimate enrollment; and for secondary schools, 10 acres, plus an additional acre for every 100 students of peak enrollment.

Landscaping and School Gardens. Much importance must be placed upon the aesthetic influence of the school site. Its beautification and upkeep may depend upon a standing committee on school grounds and buildings from the board of education, a teacher-pupil committee, or a special group from the parent-teacher association. Landscaping helps to soften the building and to hide some of the ugliness of foundations. The daily picture of a beautiful school in a natural setting is uplifting and beneficial to all. The wonders of nature upon the school premises, as trees, shrubs, grass, and flowers silently unfold their splendors, may initiate a program for beautifying the entire community.

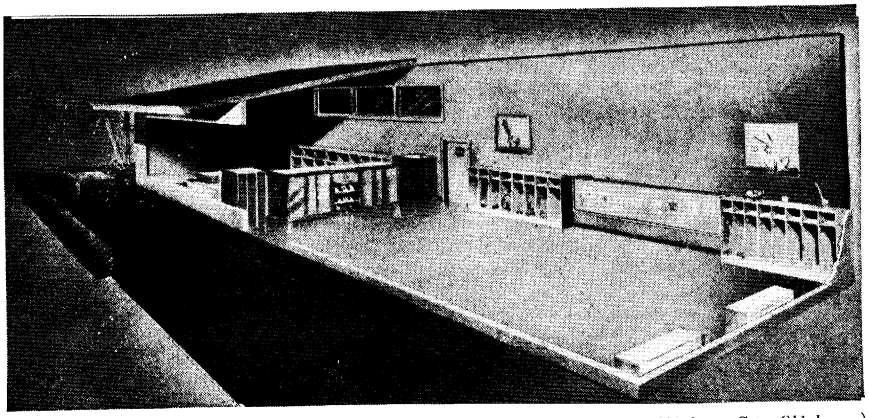
Educational Buildings

Types of Construction. After the site has been selected, the next major step is to erect the carefully planned structure. Aside from classifications as to style of architecture, buildings are also grouped in terms of the degree of fire safety: A, B, C, D, and E. Type A buildings represent the greatest protection in materials of construction, since the gross structure and interior are of fire-resistive materials. The term "fire-resistive," which is preferred to "fireproof," means that the parts of the building so labeled are made of nonburning or fire-resisting materials such as steel, stone, brick, tile, and metal lath. Types B, C, D, and E make increasing use of more inflammable materials, the last being constructed chiefly of wood. Records of the National Fire Protection Association reveal an average of seven or eight school fires a day, very few of which originate in Type A buildings.

One development in architecture is dimensional coordination of building materials and equipment, popularly known as modular or unit construction.

The basis of dimensional coordination is a continuous three-dimensional grid with lines 4 inches apart to which all building dimensions and details are referred. Four inches was determined as the optimum size for the standard module. As the program develops, more products will be so designed that their dimensions, plus the required joint, will fit the 4-inch dimension (or multiples thereof) in the modular grid.[15]

When all building materials and equipment are designed in 4-inch multiples, large savings in construction may be expected.



(Courtesy of Bramblet and Baldwin, Architects, and Public Schools, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.)

FIG. 15-9. Drawing of the inside of a classroom in the neighborhood-primary school, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.

The types of construction materials defy classification. Technical mediums are extremely varied, including directional glass blocks, pressed wood, colored plastics, hard and spongy rubber, and many metallurgical miracles. Factory-fabricated materials are used in increasing quantities. Many schools employ structural materials and architectural designs indigenous to the particular region.

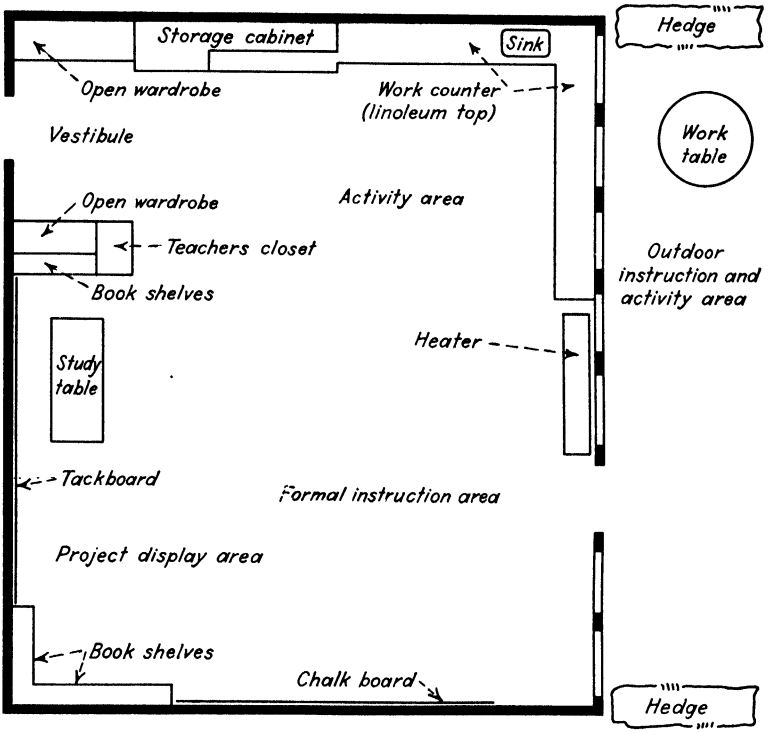
School buildings are also classified on the basis of temporary and permanent structures. Among the temporary types is the so-called "portable building," usually found in large cities or in areas of rapid growth in school population. Today thousands of pupils are housed in these temporary or war-surplus structures rather than in permanent fire-resistive buildings.

As to shape, school buildings are usually erected in the form of the letters T, I, U, N, B, E, H, X, or O. Each shape possesses distinctive advantages and limitations. Buildings may have three degrees of enclosure: the closed,

[15] American Association of School Administrators, *op. cit.*, p. 211.

the semiopen with porch or patio effect, and the enclosed but unroofed play space.

The height varies from a one-story structure, the prevalent type, to "skyscraper" schools in large cities, as, for example, an eight-story elementary school in New York City. In California the one-floor type has become



(Courtesy of Public Schools, Bakersfield, California and American Association of School Administrators.)

FIG. 15-10. Modern elementary classroom, Franklin Elementary School, Bakersfield, California. Points to note, beginning at the upper lefthand corner: Open wardrobe at either side of entrance door. Storage cabinet, which has shelves with doors and drawer units. Work table with linoleum top, tackboard above, and cabinets below. Sink near the corner. Work counter continued under windows, making two sides of the activity area. Heater under windows. Door to outside activity area, which is two-thirds paved and one-third left clear for planting. Chalkboard at one end of formal instruction area. Tackboard continued around corner above low shelves. Alcove for project display and study center formed by study table, bookshelves, and teacher's closet.

increasingly prevalent, owing in part to the safety factor in times of earthquakes. Among the many interesting and functional school buildings today are the homemaking cottages, like that in Hatfield, Pennsylvania. The building of superior schoolhouses is of course a highly technical task requiring the cooperative efforts of school superintendents, school consultants,

engineers, building architects, landscape architects, health specialists, contractors, lawyers, and experts in air conditioning, lighting, and sanitation.

Characteristics of a Good School Building. Buildings can have a personality. The essential qualities of a good school structure include:

1. Educational adequacy
2. Safety
3. Healthfulness
4. Efficiency
5. Economy
6. Expansibility and contractibility
7. Flexibility
8. Durability
9. Utility
10. Beauty

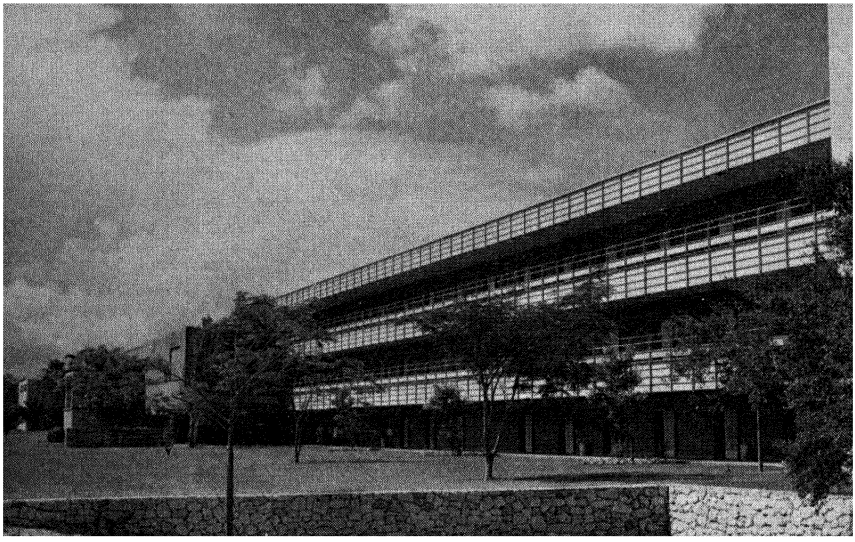


FIG. 15-11. Classroom building on the new main campus of the University of Miami, Coral Gables, Florida. This building contains 56 classrooms and a lecture hall. Of contemporary style of architecture, it is designed to take full advantage of daylight, yet to exclude direct sunlight. Each room is, therefore, evenly lighted by daylight. Also, on cloudy days and at night, the electric lighting is automatically and rheostatically controlled to keep the light standard uniform. The building is so situated as to take full advantage of prevailing breezes. Overhanging walkways and roof permit open doors and windows at all times, excepting in driving rains. The structure will accommodate 2100 students.

Many buildings actually mar the beauty of the landscape and make a sad contrast with surrounding structures. The architect must be allowed the reasonable luxury of artistic creativeness if school buildings are to be satisfyingly beautiful and functionally useful.

Steps in Planning and Constructing a School Building. Many steps are involved in the erection of a new school building. The major sequences are (1) preliminary steps, (2) the preparation of educational plans, (3) financing plans, (4) spending plans, and (5) evaluation. These processes

are detailed in Appendix XV-B. Here the last two substeps—maintenance and operation, and evaluation—are treated briefly.

Operation and Maintenance of Plant. The daily operation of the school plant should be so efficient as to facilitate instruction and to house healthfully the pupils and teachers. For this reason, custodial service is an outstanding factor. (See Unit XII as to the role of the janitor-custodian.)

By maintenance of the school plant is meant the care and upkeep of the structure, which involve necessary repairs and frequent painting of the rooms and buildings. In addition to resistance to the "wear and tear" of its human occupants, a building must wage a perpetual battle against the elements of water, wind, sun, and extremes of temperature. A school painting renaissance is needed in many communities. Paint, usually regarded as a mere protection, is an integral part of a structure. The use of bright color, an essential phase of Egyptian architecture, has been revived. Large school systems have specially trained maintenance men for carrying on needed renovations. Teachers and pupils, through cooperation with the administration and the custodial force, can make decided contributions to effective and economical operation and maintenance of the school equipment, plant, and grounds, as well as to their beautification.

Evaluation of School Buildings, Sites, and Equipment. Two general criteria in the evaluation of school facilities are: How effectively do they promote the instructional process, and how do they protect the health of the pupils and teachers? In many school districts an independent survey of buildings is made to determine strengths and weaknesses. Usually a score card or check list is employed in evaluating physical facilities. The *Strayer-Engelhardt Score Card for Elementary School Buildings* has the following major captions with numerous subheadings:[16]

SITE
- *A.* Selection
- *B.* Location
- *C.* Topography
- *D.* Provisions for use

BUILDING
- *A.* Placement
- *B.* Gross structure
- *C.* Internal structure

SERVICE SYSTEMS
- *A.* Heating and ventilating
- *B.* Fire protection system
- *C.* Cleaning system
- *D.* Artificial lighting system
- *E.* Electric service system
- *F.* Electric teaching aids
- *G.* Water supply system
- *H.* Toilet system
- *I.* Mechanical service system
- *J.* Locker service
- *K.* Laundry service
- *L.* Storage service

[16] George D. Strayer and N. L. Engelhardt, *Strayer-Engelhardt Score Card for Elementary School Buildings*, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933, 2 pp. (A manual is also available.) See also Ralph D. McLeary, *Guide for Evaluating School Buildings*, New England School Developmental Council, 1949, 52 pp.

General Classrooms
- *A.* Location and connection
- *B.* Construction and finish
- *C.* Illumination
- *D.* Movable equipment

Kindergarten

Special Activity Rooms
- *A.* Art room
- *B.* Home economics room
- *C.* Industrial arts rooms
- *D.* Library
- *E.* Music room
- *F.* Science and nature study
- *G.* Other rooms

General Service Rooms
- *A.* Auditorium or assembly
- *B.* Gymnasium
- *C.* Playrooms or shelters
- *D.* Swimming pool
- *E.* Cafeteria or lunchroom

Administration Rooms
- *A.* Administrative offices
- *B.* Teachers' rooms
- *C.* Health service rooms
- *D.* Custodial service rooms

The score card is based upon a total of 1000 points, with ratings from 600 to 1000, superior; 500 to 599; good; 400 to 499, fair; 300 to 399, poor; and less than 300, inferior. This card gives a general overview of a school building and its content.

An important test in evaluating a school building program is the utilization of the plant. The percentage of utilization usually is calculated by taking the number of class periods when each room might be utilized and then checking that against the periods it is actually in use.

Equipment for Buildings and Sites

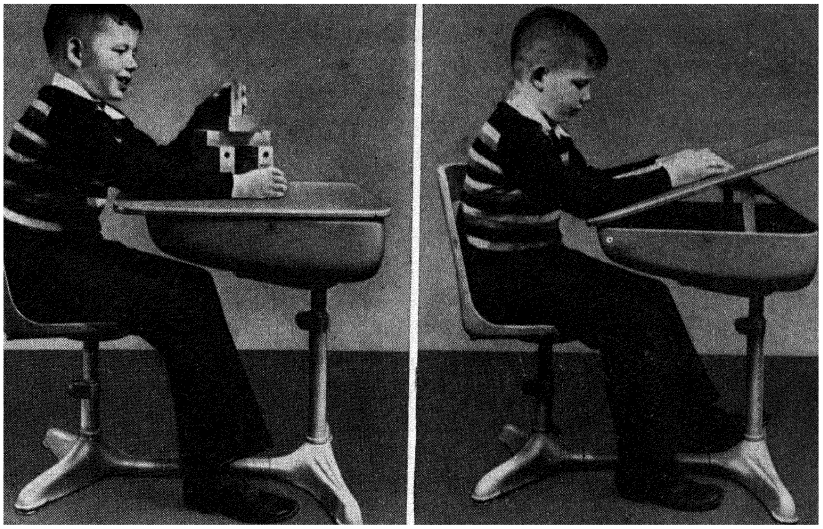
Building Equipment. The various service systems enumerated on the Strayer-Engelhardt score card indicate the types of equipment found in most schools. The one discussed here is lighting.

Gradually organizations like the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, the Illuminating Engineering Society, and the American Institute of Architects are making the public conscious of eye health. Few classrooms have adequate and appropriate lighting, either natural or artificial. "Better light for better sight" means basically the admission of abundant natural light through careful, efficient window planning, and the controlled use of artificial lighting when needed. Among the many trends reported in *American School Buildings* are these:

Emphasis in school lighting now is less than formerly on quantity and more upon quality of light, which is determined by the location and intensity of the source of light and its surroundings or environment.

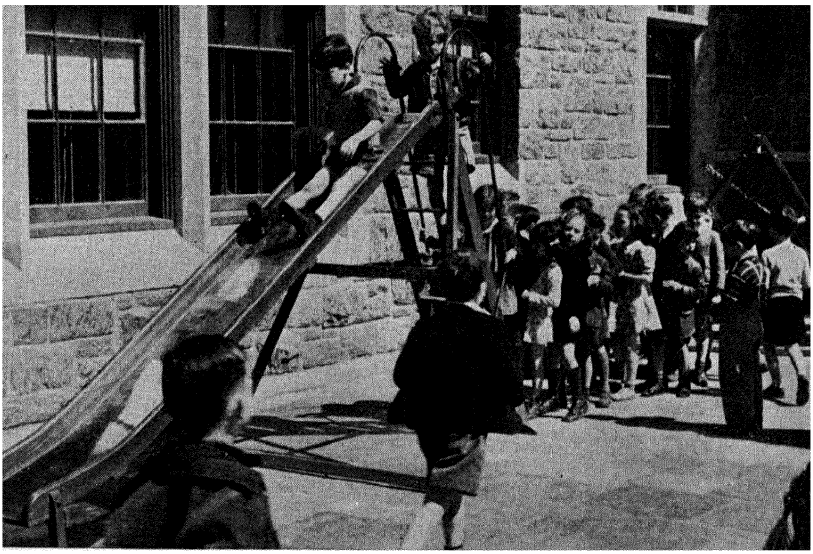
Light intensities of from 20 to 40 foot-candles are desirable for classrooms.

The brightness of any light source or other surface in the schoolroom environment should not exceed 500 foot-lamberts. (The foot-lambert is a measure of surface brightness. Foot-candles times reflection factor equals foot-lamberts.)



(Courtesy of American Seating Company.)

FIG. 15-12. Seating is extremely important. The photograph at the left shows a pupil at a universal-type desk with top horizontal for three-dimensional construction activities. The one on the right shows him reading with the desk top at 20-degree angle. The seat can be reflexly adjusted to different lateral positions to meet the line-of-sight needs of the pupil.



(Courtesy of public schools, New Rochelle, New York.)

FIG. 15-13. Taking turns on the slide helps to develop group consciousness.

Bilateral lighting, clerestory lighting (windows on the wall opposite or above the main windows), and directional glassblock in properly designated installations increase the quantity and aid the distribution of natural light in a room.

Natural lighting should be controlled, and children should be seated so that no excessive glare is within the normal visual field.

Properly chosen colors help to provide desirable brightness-balance in schoolrooms. . . .[17]

The *total* goal in lighting is visual comfort and efficiency.

Site Equipment. The establishment and maintenance of school playgrounds are so important that most states have provided for them in their school laws. The immediate vicinity of a school building is often used for kindergarten playground and for apparatus for small children. Older children also need play space and equipment. They look forward to the recess period because they can go out to play. The major criteria for selecting equipment should be benefits to an interests of pupils, initial cost and upkeep, and safety. In this era of cycling, simple stands for parking bicycles should be provided on school property.

On the secondary-school level the athletic fields and areas for intramural sports should be well supplied with suitable equipment and storage spaces. Bleachers are an important part of the grounds equipment where a stadium is not provided with seats. In addition to the regular athletic program of the public schools, playground work and recreation in general have spread out into many new situations. The demand for winter-sports facilities is increasing.

Community Schools

Community Playgrounds. The school's program for leisure should be integrated with the community's needs. The facilities in and out of school must be available to persons in and out of school. School grounds should be planned with an eye not only to future generations but also to the adult life of the community.

One neglected phase of school and community life is the summer program. Too many schools are closed for two, three, or four long months, the very time when they might be directing play activities. Articulation of all community efforts in the development of a 12-month program of education includes a flexible, unregimented vacation plan for children. The grounds of the public schools are a part of the community's recreational resources.

Community School Buildings. The school is not merely located in a community; it is part of the community. Paid for by the people, it pays back dividends through helping to raise ideals and practices. The iso-

[17] American Association of School Administrators, *op. cit.*, pp. 242–243.

lationist policy is disappearing, and school buildings are becoming community structures. In some territories and dependencies of the United States, particularly Alaska, the school buildings are centers of economic, social, and recreational life for the natives. School buildings ought to be designed not merely for children but for all learners. The community reaches into the school, and vice versa.

The Educational Policies Commission recommends that school boards become public education authorities charged with full powers and full responsibility for the conduct of all public educational activities within the community and that the educational plant be planned for use by the whole population according to a definite program for meeting neighborhood social needs.

School Planning and Community Coordination. Cooperation and coordination between the town and the school are essential if the community is to be school-centered. The erection of a building is facilitated through a coalition between the school district and the city government. In New England this coordination is easily effected since the building of a school is primarily a function of the city government. The same cooperation is possible in cities where the entire school budget is under the direction of a board of education.

In many localities schools have been constructed without regard for adult and community requirements. Cooperation between schools and other youth-serving or adult education agencies depends in a large measure on the degree to which those responsible for schoolhouse design are building the schools for community use. For example, too frequently there is insufficient space, or none at all, for museum collections. It is the exception rather than the rule to find adequate provisions for such important phases of modern educational offerings as conferences, community activities, recreation, adult education, medical and dental clinics, student activities, vocational subjects, music, and community as well as school libraries.

The first three words of the Constitution of the United States, "we, the people," express the thought of cooperation. This ideal should permeate the planning of school buildings and educational programs in the community, state, and nation.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Explain the difference between supplies and equipment by giving examples.
2. Prepare a short history of schoolbooks in American education.
3. Contrast an old schoolbook with a modern one in the same field.
4. List some titles of schoolbooks published prior to 1900 and of recent books.
5. How are textbooks adopted in your district or county?
6. Arrange a debate on the subject of state-wide adoption of textbooks.
7. Examine or prepare a score card for evaluating a textbook in your major field.
8. Prepare a list of the books given the Newberry or the Caldecott award.

9. Investigate the methods by which textbooks are furnished to pupils in the elementary and secondary schools of your community.

10. Explain what is meant by the statement, "The library is the heart of the school."

11. Prepare an assembly program for national book week.

12. Investigate thoroughly the Dewey Decimal System for classifying books.

13. Visit a public-school library. Report on the books, equipment, and librarian.

14. List the advantages and disadvantages in the use of a workbook.

15. Make a scrapbook from the contents of one issue of a daily newspaper, showing how the clippings might be used in various school subjects or areas.

16. Examine two standardized tests in your major field of interest.

17. Investigate equipment used in audio-visual education.

18. List for one week the radio programs that have an educational emphasis.

19. Suggest how teachers can promote more effective use of school supplies and equipment.

20. List the steps necessary in securing a new school building.

21. Examine a score card for evaluating school buildings.

22. Arrange a panel discussion on the school building as a community center.

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Books

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School plant and equipment suitable for the new challenges in education.

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The building in relation to the curriculum.

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Three-dimensional training aids and their production and use.

GRACE, ALONZO G.: *Educational Lessons from Wartime Training*, Chaps. IX, X, American Council on Education, 1948.

Audio-visual aids and special textbooks and manuals used in the Second World War, and their educational lessons for civilians.

HOBAN, CHARLES F., JR.: *Movies That Teach*, The Dryden Press, 1946, 189 pp.

Comprehensive discussion of the role of films as a basic supplement in teaching.

HUTCHINSON, THOMAS H.: *Here Is Television*, Part II, Hastings House, 1947.

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LINN, HENRY H., HELM, LESLIE C., and GRABARKIEWICZ, K. P.: *The School Custodian's Housekeeping Handbook*, Chap. VII, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1948.
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NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION: *Audio-visual Materials of Instruction*, Chap. II, University of Chicago Press, 1949.
School use of audio-visual instructional materials.

PACKER, HARRY Q., and HAAS, KENNETH B.: *Preparation and Use of Visual Aids*, Chap. XIII, Prentice-Hall, 1946.
Suggestions for the use of television.

CURRENT PERTINENT PERIODICALS AND PUBLICATIONS

American Library Association Bulletin (13)[18]
Helpful publication of the American Library Association.

American School Board Journal (12)
Special issue of January each year devoted to supplies, equipment, utilization, and maintenance of educational buildings and grounds.

American School and University (1)
Yearbook, devoted to the design, construction, equipment, utilization, and maintenance of educational buildings and grounds.

Architectural Forum (12)
Frequent articles on school architecture.

Booklist (23)
Helpful guide with information on new books.

Consumers' Research Bulletin (12)
Information for buyers of school equipment and supplies.

Educational Screen (10)
Periodical devoted to audio-visual education.

Federal Radio Education Committee Service Bulletin (12)
United States Office of Education publication on radio activities in education.

Film News (12)
A bulletin listing new films and selected old films.

Magazine of Art (8)
Publication of American Federation of Arts.

Nation's Schools (12)
Descriptions of new school supplies, equipment, and buildings.

Review of Educational Research (5)
A periodic summary of the research studies and investigations dealing with school buildings, ground, apparatus, and supplies.

School Arts Magazine (10)
Information regarding school supplies, equipment, and buildings.

School Life (10)
Publication of United States Office of Education with numerous references to new books, teaching aids, and buildings.

School Management (12)
Detailed information on supplies and equipment for schools.

See and Hear (9)
A helpful journal on audio-visual learning.

[18] The figures following the titles of the publications indicate the number of issues annually.

Television Forecast (52)
Weekly television magazine listing Chicago programs.

Yearbooks (1)
Several yearbooks, such as those of the American Library Association and National Audio-Visual Association.

Audio-visual Aids

Blueprints
A collection of blueprints of school buildings will prove interesting. A print of a single room may be used as a starting point.

Building for Learning — Nineteen minutes, 16 mm., sound, color
This film tells the story of modern classroom and school design, making its presentation around the human interest of a seven-year-old girl. By means of models and pictures of actual buildings, it shows how light, air, sound, function, and structure affect the child's learning and health. A set of 59 slides with notes is also available from Texas Engineering Experiment Station, Texas A. and M. College, College Station.

Exhibits
An exhibit of old and new textbooks and equipment, and pictures of buildings can be prepared by the class. Exhibits held in connection with educational conferences are very instructive.

Find the Information — One reel, 16 mm., sound, black and white or color
This film shows how to use library card files and general references such as *World Almanac*, *Who's Who in America*, etc. Available from Coronet, Chicago, Illinois.

How to Use an Encyclopedia — Filmstrip, 35 mm., 51 frames
This filmstrip shows four elementary-school children and a librarian who explains simply the basic elements of encyclopedias and their uses. Available from Popular Science Publishing Company, New York City.

Instructional Films—The New Way to Greater Education — Twenty minutes, 16 mm., sound
This film on audio-visual teaching methods shows how these aids save time. Suggestions are made for the selection, integration, and administration of film services. Available from Coronet, Chicago, Illinois.

Radio and Television — Four hundred feet, 16 mm., sound
This film sketches the development of radio, photoelectric cell, wirephoto, and television. It discusses basic principles and preparation for radio work. Available from Carl F. Mahnke, Des Moines, Iowa.

Records
Numerous recordings have been made for classroom use. An example is the R.C.A. Record Library for Elementary Schools, available from local record dealers.

The New Book — Filmstrip, 35 mm., 27 frames
This filmstrip is designed to show the proper use of a book. Available from the Society of Visual Education, New York.

USE YOUR LIBRARY — Filmstrip, 35 mm., 77 frames

This filmstrip shows the how and why of the library. It tells how to find books, references, etc. Available from American Library Association, Chicago, Illinois.

WALLS OF DAYLIGHT — Twenty-five minutes, 16 mm., colored

This film gives the story of the glass block and its use in many types of buildings including schools. Available from American Structural Products Company, Toledo, Ohio.

WHAT IS A MAP? — Ten minutes, 16 mm., sound

This film shows a little girl drawing a map of her room. The camera shows the real room and fits the map right over it. Then a map of the town is made. Available from Teaching Films, New York.

PREVIEW OF UNIT XVI

FINANCING OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

Educational materials and other elements in the teaching-learning environment are made possible through public financing. Bitter battles have been fought on behalf of public support for education. Complete support is not yet won.

Among the principles that underlie the financing of public education are these: public-school finance must be related to public finance; educational opportunities and burdens should be equalized; and fiscal planning is necessary for public education.

The principal instrument in fiscal planning for public education is the school budget, which is a complete financial forecast consisting of (1) the educational program, (2) the estimated expenditures, and (3) the probable receipts. The first of these has been treated previously.

School expenditures are classified in various ways. A constant question is: "Where does the school dollar go?" Answers are usually expressed in terms of unit or total expenditures.

School receipts are likewise grouped under various classifications. "Where does the school dollar come from?" Its main source is local support in the form of taxation, although state treasuries are providing a larger percentage of fiscal support for education.

Public-school finance embraces all educational institutions and undertakings supported in part or whole by taxation.

Outline of Contents

Introduction
  The battle for publicly supported education
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  Receipt of school revenue
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  Publicly supported higher education
  Other publicly supported education

UNIT XVI

FINANCING OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

Chance, charity, churches, commodities, credit, and cash were common sources of fiscal support in the early days of American public education.

Lotteries and similar games of chance were legitimate means of raising money for schools and colleges in colonial America. These indirect and painless ways of obtaining funds took the place of direct taxation. Then too, much education was financed through charity. Direct gifts by individuals and groups to semipublic or charity schools enabled many poor children to obtain some "pauper schooling." Churches through their denominational schools have always financed the education of many children. Barter, the exchange of commodities and services, has been frequent even in the present century. One commodity was wood. In lieu of money a parent furnished the equivalent in wood to keep the schoolroom warm in winter. The teacher often "boarded around," receiving his board and room in exchange for part of his services. The practice of barter was revived during the depression of the 1930's when many school employees received gasoline coupons, grocery purchase orders, and I.O.U.'s in return for part or all of their services. Many novel methods have been resorted to in the long effort to finance the public schools through the use of credit.

The best means of support, *viz.*, cold cash, was gradually made available for the operation of schools. Tuition was charged at an early date. A unique form of cash support was provided in the "rate tax," which was assessed pupils on a per capita basis to cover the costs of schooling above the funds provided locally.

Taxation for school support was at first on a permissive basis. The little word "or" in early legislation proved a mighty obstacle in the development of mandatory public support. It was not until about 1825 that direct taxation of all property for the support of schools was generally recognized.

The Battle for Publicly Supported Education. Cubberley uses the term "battle" to describe the efforts to win public funds for education. It was indeed a prolonged war in which the major victories may be recorded as follows:

1. Permission to communities to organize a school district and to levy a local tax for schools on the property of those consenting
2. Local taxation extended to all property, regardless of consent
3. The organization of school districts made easy, and mandatory on proper petition
4. Small state aid to all organized school districts to help support a school

5. Compulsory local taxation to supplement the state aid
6. Permissive, and later compulsory, township or county taxation to supplement the district taxation
7. Larger and larger state support, and assumption of public education as a state function
8. Extension of the taxation idea to include high schools as well as elementary schools[1]

The present era is marked by two additional struggles in financing schools:

1. Extension of the taxation idea to include pre-elementary education, college education, and education for out-of-school youth and adults
2. Equalization of educational opportunity and burden through state and national equalization funds

The extension of public education from the pre-elementary age through adult life has been considered previously; the equalization principle is presented later as one of the basic tenets in modern school financing.

Today public educational finance includes: such local educational provisions for the public as are supported solely by local funds; community and state financing of pre-elementary, elementary, secondary, and, in certain sections, higher and adult education; state financing of the educational institutions, especially schools of higher learning and residential schools for handicapped children; state and federal support of certain joint efforts, as the land-grant colleges; federal financing of several projects, as veterans' education; and local, state, and federal support of certain special fields, as Smith-Hughes vocational education. In addition millions of dollars are spent annually for the support of private and parochial educational institutions and of numerous foundations.

PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING THE FINANCING OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

The basic assumptions underlying American public education should and do have a profound effect upon the expenditures for the public schools. The financing of American public education today is based upon numerous political, economic, and social postulates, several of which have been incorporated in The School Finance Charter. Several desirable objectives are found in "School Finance Goals" published by the National Education Association,[2] and reproduced in Appendix XVI.

Twelve Basic Principles

Twelve related principles basic to the financing of American public education are presented here. These principles are neither automatic nor all inclusive.

[1] E. P. Cubberley and Walter C. Eells, *An Introduction to the Study of Education*, p. 478, Houghton, 1933.

[2] *Research Bulletin*, "School Finance Goals," National Education Association, October, 1946, pp. 87–128.

1. *Public-school Finance Must Be Related to Public Finance.* Public-school finance is only a part of the larger whole, *viz.*, public finance, which deals "with the provision, custody, and disbursement of the resources needed for the conduct of public or governmental functions."[3] The fact that public-school finance is a part of public finance is illustrated in the distribution of the tax dollar in any community. The implications of this fact are far reaching:

> Since the school is only one of the many enterprises supported by the public taxation, schoolmen may well approach their own isolated interest from the broad view of *public* rather than *school* financing. Other general activities, such as those of fire and police departments, aim at goals similar to those of education—they seek to protect the individual, his property, and his right. Education, in the long run, serves as a form of local, state, and national insurance for which the public ought to be both willing and able to pay.[4]

Schoolteachers and administrators must see the financing of schools in relationship to the problem of support for all public functions, just as public officials must see the correlation of school and public finance. This first tenet, therefore, may be termed the principle of economic interdependence. It calls for economic and social vision.

2. *School Finance Should Be the Servant of Education and Society.* Finance should function as the servant, not as the master of education and society. The child is more important than the dollar. In many school systems, however, money is the dictator, and education is the slave. The opposite condition is likewise unfortunate, whereby lavish spending brings financial diaster to the school district and the allied taxing units. School finance helps to give a child the best education possible within practical limits.

Educational finance serves not only schools but also society. It is a social as well as economic factor. The social motive, thus far subordinated, now bids fair to assume a larger control in public education. In his treatment of principles basic to school finance, W. G. Carr of the National Education Association has written:

> Since organized education is a social instrument, and the school a social institution, the financial support of the schools must rest squarely on social ideals and values. . . . Not only the total amount of money but also the ways in which the money is secured, the purposes for which it is spent, and the controls exercised over the spending are likewise affected by the status and aspirations of the society of which the school forms a part.[5]

[3] H. L. Lutz, *Public Finance*, p. 3, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1936.
[4] Chris A. De Young, *Budgeting in Public Schools*, pp. 4–5, Swift, 1948.
[5] W. G. Carr, *School Finance*, p. 23, Stanford University Press, 1933.

Educational finance is indeed the servant of society as well as the handmaiden of education. Money spent for public education is an investment for the defense of the American faith in democracy.

3. *Public Education Should Be Fiscally Free for All Pupils.* Basic to the financing of public education is the democratic concept of free education. How long education should be provided at public expense is a debatable question. Practices vary markedly between states, but there is general agreement that children should be educated through high school at public expense. Some authorities would extend tuition-free schooling through the junior-college years. This does not mean that everything is free. There is disagreement as to the number of elements that should be provided without cost to pupils. For example, in the education of rural high-school pupils, some states furnish only tuition, whereas others include free transportation, textbooks, or board of pupils in lieu of transportation. Many states have set up what is called a defensible minimum program to be furnished tuition-free to all pupils. Along with the American bill of rights, including guarantees for freedom of speech, of religion, of the press, and of assembly, is the dictum that American public education shall be free to all pupils. The emancipation proclamation in school finance precludes dependence upon charity, fees, and tuition. Free public education is the American's birthright.

4. *The State Should Be Primarily Responsible for Public Education.* The Tenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States made education the primary responsibility of the individual states (see Unit II). Hence the support of public education became mainly a matter of state concern. Today every state makes some contribution from its revenues for the support of public schools through many types of funds, some of which are described later. An inconsistency exists, however, between the legal intention to provide state support and the many cases of neglect and inadequacy. For the nation as a whole, state governments supply only about 40 per cent of the cost of schools. Furthermore, the method of distributing such aid is an important factor. Despite favorable argument for federal support of public education, the fact remains that the individual states will have to give more assistance to schools, particularly through the application of the next principle.

5. *Educational Opportunity and Burden Should Be Equalized.* Strayer and Haig were the first to give a clear-cut picture of the equalization principle. Their analysis interpreted this principle as the complete equalization of the burden of a satisfactory minimum educational program below which no locality could be allowed to go, but above which any locality would be allowed to rise by means of local support.[6] In contradistinction to the pay-

[6] G. D. Strayer and R. M. Haig, *The Financing of Education in the State of New York*, pp. 173–176, Macmillan, 1923.

ment-for-effort or matching principle, the operation of the equalization plan tends to shift to more able communities some of the undue burden carried by less wealthy localities (see Fig. 16-1).

In brief, the equalization principle means that governmental agencies collect educational funds where the money is and spend the money where the pupils are. Every man's property and income must be taxed to educate every man's child. Even though a man chooses to send his own children

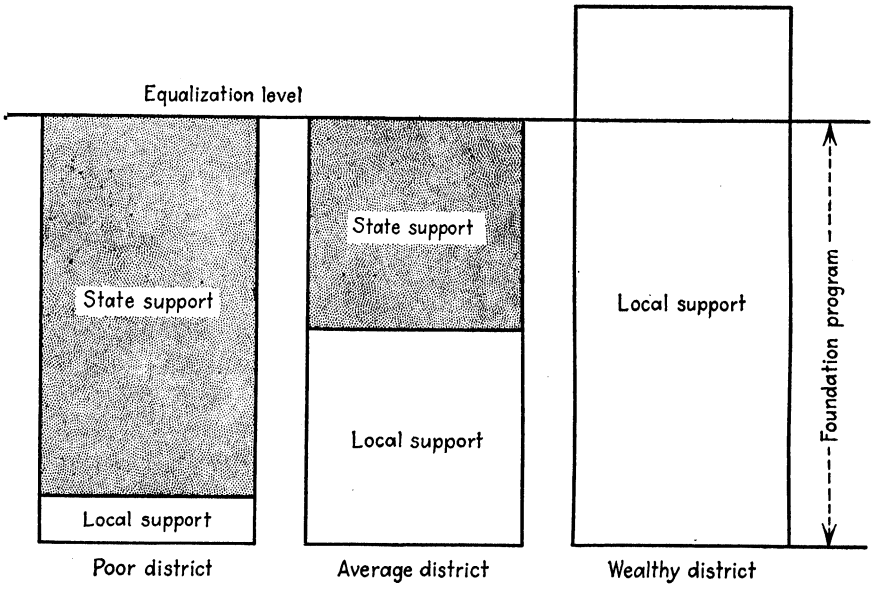


FIG. 16-1. How state equalization works in three types of districts. In the poor district local effort to support schools produces only a small fraction of the cost of a state-guaranteed minimum or foundation program. In the district of average wealth, the same effort produces about half the needed fiscal support. The wealthy district receives no state equalization aid because the local wealth back of each child is great enough to more than finance the minimum program. This district serves as a lighthouse to indicate better practices. Obviously there are state funds in addition to those for equalization.

to a parochial or private school he is not exempt from contributing his support to the education of all children. The golden rule in educational finance is: "Thou shalt educate thy neighbor's children as thine own."

At first this idea of equalization was applied to small areas, as the county and state. Now the old slogan "the wealth of the state must educate the children of the state" is being supplemented with the clause "and the wealth of the United States must be used to equalize the education of all the children in the nation." Furthermore, the phrase "a[illegible]t[illegible]e children in the nation" implies that more adequate educational opportunities and greater financial support be provided for exceptional or atypical children,

since their learning opportunities, as in the case of the blind, are below par, and the costs of their instruction are above average. American public education will not be genuinely democratic until there is nation-wide application of the principle that opportunity and burden shall be equalized for all learners. In the opinion of Henry W. Holmes, emeritus dean at Harvard, the equalizing of educational opportunity in the United States "is an issue so pressing, so momentous for common life that people ought to be gossiping about it on the street corners, wondering when the President will call a special session of the Congress to deal with it."

6. *Efficiency Principle Must Be Utilized in Educational Finance.* The efficiency principle is double-barreled. One barrel is aimed at promoting expertness in school management. Despite the fact that most school people are conscientious, they may at times be inefficient. A cardinal principle of public-school finance is that efficiency shall always be promoted.

Related to the promotion of proficiency in order to reduce costs is the second barrel, or "efficiency principle," sometimes referred to by experts in school financing as the principle of adaptability. According to this rule, "the state tries to keep schools progressive by preserving local initiative and utilizing other devices." Its early application consisted in a program of fiscal rewards to a community for supporting its schools. This "reward for effort" device is being modified because in practice it gave most help to the rich district. The modern interpretation of the efficiency principle makes for the continuous adaptation of the local schools to changing needs and demands. It enables many districts to stand out as lighthouses to warn of dangers and to point the way to better lanes of travel. The successful operation of the efficiency or adaptability principle necessitates state aid but not 100 per cent state support. It requires an underburdened property tax which can respond to local initiative. This explains why school people generally want boards of education to be fiscally independent, that is, free from fiscal dependence upon other governmental functions.

7. *Education Should Be Economically Administered.* Every school system must practice economy at all times. Groups as well as individuals should heed the advice of Ralph Waldo Emerson "to make money spend well." The term economy is often misunderstood, since there are false and true economies:

> To some people economy represents low first costs regardless of value received. To these people economy in school administration means employing teachers who will work for the lowest wages, using the cheapest type of supplies for instructional purposes, housing children in poor inadequate buildings, abolishing playground activities or health service, eliminating kindergartens, or shortening the school term.[1]

Another group think of economy as the wise spending of money to secure the greatest worth-while returns from the amounts expended. The first cost to them is not the main consideration. . . . To them education has a definite value that cannot be measured merely in terms of immediate cost. They are thinking of future generations and not only of the present tax bill. To them economy means wise spending.[7]

Educators and laymen must distinguish between retrenchment and economy. Retrenchment is merely a reduction in expenditures. Genuine economy is effected through intelligent spending and vigilant administration. Benjamin Franklin wrote: "Human felicity is produced not so much by great pieces of good fortune that seldom happen, as by little advantages that occur each day."

8. *Increased Responsibilities Must Mean Increased Costs.* Those who are prone to cut the educational budget with one hand and to give the school increased responsibilities with the other should realize that the two acts are incompatible. Among the major causes for rise in school expenditures are (1) decline in purchasing value of the dollar, (2) increase in enrollments, (3) increase in the size of the educational tasks, especially in the relatively expensive junior-college years, and (4) higher standards of educating, akin to the higher standards of living in vogue today. The first causal factor is primarily monetary. The last three are educational in nature and account for a large share of the enlarged costs. The extension and enrichment of educational services call for expansion in school revenue.

9. *Fiscal Management of Schools Cannot Be Identical with That of Private Business.* A common fallacy is to liken the fiscal management of public schools to that of private business. Although both strive after economy and efficiency, they differ decidedly. In the first place the former is a public matter, and the latter is mainly private. Then too, one is education and the other is business. Furthermore, although money is invested in both public education and private business, the major objective of the latter is quarterly cash dividends, whereas the former seeks long-time returns in character, personality, skills, and the changes wrought in the child through growth and development. A business, although employing many people, is run for the special benefit of a few stockholders; public education is conducted cooperatively for the benefit of all members of society. Of course, the public schools can profit much from observing private business even though they are dissimilar in philosophy and function.

10. *Personnel in Fiscal Management Should Be Well Trained and Honest.* Both business and school officials advocate that those engaged in fiscal management be well trained. The persons handling school finances

[7] H. H. Linn, *Practical School Economies*, pp. 14–15, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934.

should have specific training for their jobs. The school treasurer, the superintendent, the business manager, or whoever is in direct charge of school finances should be versed in the theory and practice of business accounting. Increasingly, superintendents of schools and other staff members are taking courses in school finance and business management.

FIG. 16-2. American Education Week. This is a joint effort to interpret public education as an investment.

The personnel should be not only efficient but also impeccably honest. As a precautionary and custodial measure, all persons who handle school money should be bonded. The staff is usually trustworthy, but unfortunately the schools are tempting objects for despoliation by greedy politicians and racketeers.

11. *Expenditures for Public Education Should Be Recorded and Reported.* A person may be careless about recording his personal receipts and expenditures, but he cannot be so with public money, which must be accounted for meticulously and honestly. The receipt of money and its expenditure should be registered promptly and accurately. Records ought to be kept

in a fire-resistive vault and subjected to scientific scrutiny through periodic audits, preferably by independent auditors.

Not only must school money be accounted for, but its receipts and expenditure should be reported to the board of education, the teachers, the taxpayer, and the public. The old cry was "taxation without representation," but the new complaint is "taxation without explanation." Fiscal reports are improved by numerous explanations and attractive illustrations. The concept of stewardship, also termed the fiduciary or prudential principle, calls for a perennial procession of publicity. A periodic channel for publicity is provided through the nation-wide annual American Education Week.[8] One objective of such organizations as the National Congress of Parents and Teachers and the National Citizens' Commission for the Public Schools is to interpret and improve public education continuously through grass-roots programs.

12. *Fiscal Planning Is Necessary for Public Education.* Educational welfare necessitates fiscal planning. Many administrators build their curriculums carefully but estimate their finances hurriedly. Many school boards spend months going over blueprints for buildings but devote a half hour to the fiscal framework for the education of children.

Education is a long-term investment by the public, which reaps dividends in the enriched lives of its citizens. A long-term fiscal program is essential, since schooling extends forward not backward; the education of a child calls for a long-period plan not only because he requires eight to fifteen years of schooling, but also because the entire cost is often borne by one school district. Long-period budgeting for education is an attempt to substitute intelligent forecasts for the opportunism of a laissez-faire philosophy. Effective long-range forecasting must rest upon improvement in the short-term fiscal plan; that is, the annual school budget.

BUDGETING IN PUBLIC EDUCATION[9]

The budget is an important instrument in education. Through it, many of the basic principles of public-school finance, if not all, are applied to actual situations.

Function of the Budget in Public Education

Evolution of the Modern School Budget. Formerly the school budget consisted of one major item, *viz.*, expenditures. One director probably met another in the country store and asked, "How much money shall we spend for the school next year?" "We spent $1200 last year—" So the budget for that district became $1200, which indicated the limit on expenditures.

[8] Helpful information on the observance of this week may be obtained from the National Education Association, Washington, D.C.

[9] Additional material may be found in De Young, *op. cit.*, 610 pp.

Later, school officials, imitating the business world, drew up a budget not only of estimated expenditures but also of probable receipts, with the latter presumably greater than expenditures. The modern school budget, as indicated in Fig. 16-3, differs visibly from a commercial or a traditional budget in that the first is represented by an equilateral triangle. In this balanced triangle, the educational program is the base, which represents the working plan of the school, the qualifications of the teachers, and other educational specifications including supplies, textbooks, and program of supervision. The estimated expenditures necessary to conduct this educational program form the spending plan. The proposed receipts to pay for putting the plan into operation constitute the financing plan. The school budget, then, is a detailed professional forecast, consisting of both (1) estimated expenditures and (2) receipts, based upon (3) the proposed educational program.

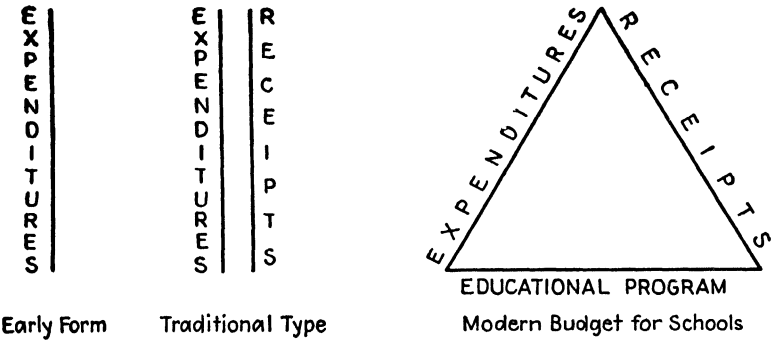


FIG. 16-3. Evolution of the school budget.

Function of the School Budget. Despite its numerous shortcomings the public-school budget serves many practical purposes, some of which are as follows:

1. The budget is a servant of education.
2. It gives an overview of the entire school system.
3. It aids in analysis of new and old school activities.
4. It develops cooperation within the school.
5. It stimulates confidence among the taxpayers.
6. It estimates the receipts.
7. It determines the tax levy.
8. It authorizes expenditures.
9. It aids in administering the school economically.
10. It improves accounting procedures.
11. It aids in extracurricular activities.
12. It projects the school into the future.[10]

[10] *Ibid.*, pp. 9–14.

The entire period of time covered by the budget is designated as the fiscal year, which usually extends from July 1 through June 30. An increasing number of schools, however, prepare long-term as well as annual budgets.

Progress of the Annual School Budget

Budgeting in public education may be divided into four major steps: (1) preparation, (2) presentation and adoption, (3) administration, and (4) appraisal.

Preparation of the Budget. Budget building is a continuous job. The starting point is the development of an educational program that helps to make the school budget a professional document rather than a statistical report. This educational emphasis in school accounting is made possible through the cooperation of all staff members and the board of education. The preparation of the educational specifications is inextricably linked with the development of the spending and financing plans for the budget.

Presentation and Adoption. After the budget has been prepared in tentative form it is usually presented to the board of education and to other legal and extralegal groups. Fiscal publicity plays an important part in the broader program of public relations. Various techniques aid in interpreting the budget to the boards of education, the school personnel, and the general public. After the budget has been presented with interpolations, it is legally ratified by the proper body or bodies, such as the board of education and the city council.

Administration of the Budget. After the estimated figures have been transferred to the school accounting books as initial entries, the budget is ready to be administered. It functions not as a dictator but as a definite guide for the economical and efficient conduct of the schools.

Appraisal of Budgets and Budgetary Procedures. One means of appraising budgets and budgetary procedures is the school audit. Then there is also the objective appraisal of the format and content of the document itself. The annual document can best be appraised in relation to a long-term budget of two or more years. In the final analysis the role of budgeting in public education must be evaluated in terms of the service it renders to the learner and society.

SCHOOL EXPENDITURES

The school budget, as previously mentioned, consists of three parts, *viz.*, the educational plan, the expenditure program, and the financing plan. The educational plan is treated throughout this volume and particularly in Unit XIII. The remainder of this unit is devoted to the two other programs, *viz.*, those for expenditures and receipts.

Classification of School Expenditures

School expenditures may be classified in at least five different ways, *viz.*, by (1) character, (2) organization units, (3) objects, (4) functions, and (5) funds.

Character Classification. This arrangement of school expenditures is a uniform system usable in schools of all sizes. The eight major headings in the character classification, with typical disbursements, are as follows:

Expenditures by Character	*Illustrative Expenditures*
General control (Administration)	Superintendent's salary, school board expenses
Instruction	Teachers' salaries, school supplies
Auxiliary services (Auxiliary agencies, coordinate activities)	School services, transportation, and community services
Operation of plant	Janitors' salaries, water, fuel, light
Maintenance of plant	Upkeep on ground and buildings
Fixed charges	Fire insurance, taxes, rents
Debt service	Principal and interest on loans and bonds
Capital outlay	Purchase of sites, buildings, and equipment

The first six of these major headings are often grouped under current expenditures. Supplementary classifications, such as "stores," "revolving funds," and "advancements," are also used.

Organization Units. In many schools the expenditures are classified according to organization units, for example:

Kindergarten	Buildings
Elementary grades	Departments
Junior high school	Subjects
Senior high school or high school	Vocational education
Junior college	Adult education
College	Summer school
University	Administration

The number of units depends upon the size and administrative organization of the district.

Object Classification. J. G. Fowlkes defines object classification as follows:

> The object of the payment shows the actual thing purchased or obtained. The objects of the payment may be classified under several general headings such as: equipment, supplies, services of all kinds, buildings and lands, retirement fund, taxes, interest, insurance, contributions, contingencies, payment of debt, etc.[11]

This plan of grouping facilitates the obtaining of bids from vendors.

[11] J. G. Fowlkes, *Principles and Practices of Financial Accounting for Schools*, p. 12, E. M. Hale, 1934.

Functional Classification. F. Engelhardt and F. von Borgersrode enumerate these nine functions which may be utilized in tabulating expenditures:[12]

Administrative
Attendance
Extracurricular
Health
Instructional
Maintenance
Janitorial
Social
Supervisory

Because of overlapping and other difficulties encountered in functional classification this system is not widely used in public schools.

Fund Accounting. Many states stipulate that expenditures must be segregated according to special allotments, such as educational or building funds. There is a marked trend, however, away from earmarking school money by creating special funds.

Combination of Classifications Recommended. The basic method of grouping expenditures is the character classification already mentioned. A combination of several systems may be used. In the following arrangement the five systems are combined:

INSTRUCTION (character) (educational fund)
  High school (organization unit)
    Textbooks (object)
    Supervision (function)

The classroom teacher, as well as the administrator, increases his effectiveness through his ability to identify expenditures and to interpret school costs.

COSTS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

Where the School Dollar Goes. The school tax dollar does not go into hiding; it is seen in circulation. But teachers and administrators are frequently asked: "Where does the school dollar go?" "How is the money spent?" The classroom teacher as an agent in the public relations program should be fortified with facts so as to give an intelligent answer to such inquiries. Naturally the dollar is not spent in the same way in every school system. Two extremely variable items listed under character classification are debt service and capital outlay.

For the entire United States, the percentage distribution of the school dollar for current expenditures is revealed in Fig. 16-4.

Annual Cost per Pupil in Average Daily Attendance. The percentage distribution of the school dollar is not the only way of calculating school costs. Another method is that of figuring the cost per capita for an area

[12] F. Engelhardt and F. von Borgersrode, *Accounting Procedure for School Systems*, p. 32, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927.

as large as the United States or as small as a local school district. The basis in determining these units costs is usually the average daily attendance (a.d.a.), the number enrolled in school, or the total population of the United States.

Annual Cost per Pupil Enrolled and per Capita of Population. The cost of education in the public elementary and secondary schools can be calculated also on the basis of the number of pupils enrolled. This total unit cost is less than the cost per pupil in average daily attendance (see the fourth column in the accompanying table). Another unit, less reliable than

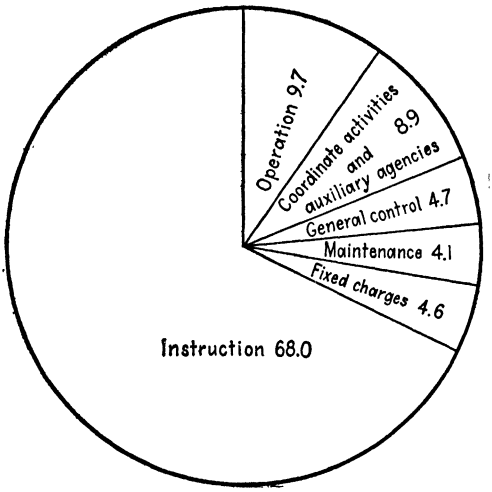


FIG. 16-4. Where the school dollar goes.

per pupil average daily attendance, is the cost per person in the United States (see the third column).

Year	Total expenditures for elementary and secondary education	Cost per capita of population	Cost per pupil enrolled
1876	$ 83,082,578	$ 1.88	$ 9.37
1886	113,322,545	1.96	9.72
1896	183,498,965	2.59	12.66
1906	307,765,659	3.59	18.49
1916	640,717,053	6.36	31.48
1926	2,026,308,190	17.39	81.90
1936	1,961,103,765	15.27	74.38
1946	3,124,550,348	22.06	134.10

The tabulation shows interesting trends in public-school expenditures both per pupil enrolled and per capita of population by 10-year periods from 1876 to 1946. As the nation develops a program of lifelong learning for all individuals, the cost per capita of population will be increasingly indicative of the rough cost of public education per consumer.

Daily Costs per Pupil Enrolled. Costs for education may also be calculated on the basis of the daily rather than the annual expenditures indicated thus far. Illustrative of the daily costs per pupil enrolled in a state are the figures from Wisconsin, shown in the accompanying table. In that state the total was 89 cents per day.

Character Classification	Daily Cost per Pupil Enrolled, Cents[13]
General control	2.39
Coordinate activities	0.29
Auxiliary agencies	7.13
Instruction	58.79
Operation of plant	9.63
Maintenance	3.80
Fixed charges	1.10
Capital outlay	2.91
Debt service	2.97
Total per day	89.01

The pennies spent daily for each of these services are pictorially presented in Fig. 16-5. The cost-per-day unit for calculating school expenditures is advantageous, since it is small, easily handled, and readily understood by the man in the street.

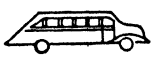
These data on school expenditures, either for a state or for the nation as a whole, refer only to the direct expenditures for public schools. The complete cost of education in America embraces expenditures by a large number of private and parochial schools, by institutions of higher learning, by libraries, by children for school supplies, and by parents who pay indirect costs such as the loss of possible earnings by older students.

The total expenditures are inadequate measures of either the cost or the worth of education. Increasingly the public is learning to evaluate this service not in terms of dollar aggregates but by means of standards and results achieved. The quality and quantity of educational returns must be considered as well as the nature and amount of expenditures. Furthermore, expenditures are made possible only through the receipt of adequate revenue.

[13] Calculated by Victor O. Hornbostel from information contained in Tables 7 and 31 from Department of Public Instruction, 33d Report, Wisconsin, 1945–1947.

GENERAL CONTROL
(Census, elections, school board, admin. salaries)

CO-ORDINATE ACTIVITIES
(Med. & dental inspect., nurses, & attendance)



AUXILIARY AGENCIES
(Libraries, transportation, tuition, lunches, etc.)

INSTRUCTIONAL COST
(Teachers, books, supervisors, teaching supplies, etc.)

OPERATION OF PLANT
(Janitor's salary, fuel, power light, janitor supplies)

MAINTENANCE
(Repairs, upkeep of grounds and buildings)

FIXED CHARGES
(Rents, insurance, taxes contributions and contingencies)

CAPITAL OUTLAY
(Land, new buildings, equip. for new bldgs.)

DEBT SERVICE
(Payment of bonds, interest on bonds and loans etc.)

FIG. 16-5. Division of school expenditures in Wisconsin per pupil per day.

SCHOOL RECEIPTS

Classification of School Receipts

There is less uniformity in classifying school receipts than in classifying expenditures. Receipts are usually grouped by:

1. Taxing or political unit
2. Method of production
3. Accounting classification
4. Specific funds

Each of these methods is briefly described here.

Taxing or Political Unit. A convenient way to group estimated or actual school receipts is according to the taxing unit that provides the revenue. These main political units are local, township, county (parish), state, and federal. Patently these geographical categories overlap somewhat. For example, property taxes may come from more than one political unit.

Method of Production. The more common forms of financing public education are these:

Personal property tax	Tuition
Real estate tax	Rentals
Gas tax	Fines
Sales tax	Interest
Income tax	Endowments
Poll tax	Emergency funds
Liquor tax	Grants
Inheritance tax	Subventions
Chain store tax	Miscellaneous sources

It is difficult to determine the exact methods by which all school revenue is obtained.

Accounting Classification. School accountants usually label receipts as: (1) revenue, (2) nonrevenue, and (3) advancements or revolving funds:

Revenue receipts may be defined as those receipts that do not result in increasing school indebtedness or in the depletion of school property. Furthermore, they are derived more or less regularly from specific sources and the amounts of revenue receipts may usually be accurately estimated.

Nonrevenue receipts are those which incur an obligation which must be met at some future date and may or may not produce a decrease in the amount and value of school property.

Advancements cover many items that have too often been entered as either receipts or disbursements without further discrimination. Take for example the purchase of ten copies of a textbook in geometry which are later sold to pupils. This constitutes not a true expenditure but rather an advancement.[14]

[14] Fowlkes, *op. cit.*, p. 13.

Revolving funds receipts are so called because they include money received from services which the board renders as an agent. They may relate to cash which has already been obligated or expended and for which an accounting has been made and for which a return is anticipated.[15]

The term "revolving fund" is more generally used than the newer term "advancements."

Examples in the three main categories are as follows:

Revenue Receipts	Nonrevenue Receipts	Revolving Funds
Tuition	Sale of school land	Textbooks resold
Real-estate tax	Sale of school bonds	Cafeteria funds

This accounting classification is endorsed by several national and state organizations.

Specific Funds. It has been suggested that legal stipulations separating school money into special distinct funds be abolished. Many of these regulations, however, have long histories that fortify them against change. Rigidity in accounting is exemplified in Illinois where school money must be separated into educational and building funds. Numerous special school funds have been created by state legislatures.

State and National Uniformity Recommended. Many other systems of revenue classification are employed. The most common practice is that of listing receipts by local, state, and federal sources. As in the case of expenditures, a combination of systems is recommended, with due regard to state laws and national uniformity, as advocated by the United States Office of Education, which uses the plan of revenue and nonrevenue funds, plus ancillary classifications, such as abatements, balances, and transfers. The coalescence of the four major systems is exemplified thus:

Revenue Receipts (accounting classification)
  Educational (fund)
    Taxation (method of production)
      City tax roll (political unit)

The last two of these classifications are illustrated in detail later.

Sources of School Revenue

Where the School Dollar Comes From. People are usually more interested in the answers to the question, "Where does the school dollar go?" than in those to the query, "Where does the school dollar come from?" The latter, however, is more important, for it goes to the root of the American economic system. Since school finance is a segment of public finance, the teacher and administrator are drawn into broad problems of public financ-

[15] Engelhardt and von Borgersrode, *op. cit.*, p. 19.

ing when they seek the deep sources of the dollar that the school receives. As in expenditures, there is little uniformity in receipts throughout the United States.

For the entire United States the sources of public-school revenue and the percentage of the school dollar that rolls or gets pushed into the school treasury are indicated in Fig. 16-6. This graph for the nation as a whole reveals the onerous burden of support laid upon local districts, and the meager contribution from the federal government.

Small Amount of Federal Aid. The federal government spends less for education than for any other major administrative function. It pays but a small proportion of school costs. Prospects are, however, that it will

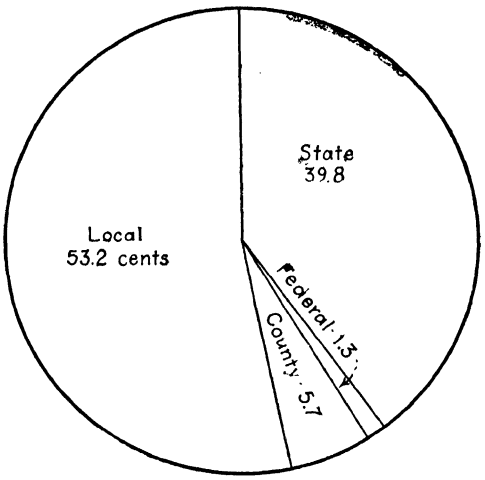


FIG. 16-6. Where the school dollar comes from.

provide a gradually increasing percentage of local school costs in the years to come.

Increase in State Aid. During recent years the amount of state aid granted to schools by the various state governments has mounted steadily. Schools in a third of the 48 states receive more than 48 per cent of their revenue from state appropriations and taxes. Delaware contributes from the state treasury nearly 90 per cent. With the increased emphasis on state participation in the support of education, the percentage contribution from state treasuries will undoubtedly rise to a higher level.

Decrease in Revenue from County. In continental United States the county contributes a small part of the school revenue. Although the proceeds of county-wide property taxes equalize educational costs somewhat, they do not remove the tax burden from general property. The consolidation of schools and the enlargement of the taxing units will

eventually increase the percentage of school revenue raised in areas larger than the typical small district of today.

Decrease in Revenue from Local Sources. The proportion of school revenue derived from the local districts in the United States as a whole has decreased markedly in the past two decades, from 75 per cent to approximately 50 per cent. This decrease parallels the increase in state aid.

Receipt of School Revenue

Although all school revenues are derived from federal, state, county, township, and local units, the types of receipts and the methods of financing public education vary widely. Two main sources, *viz.*, taxation and nonrevenue receipts, are presented here elliptically and briefly. A third source, apportionments, is treated later under the caption Distribution of School Funds.

Taxation. Edwin A. Seligman defines a tax as "a compulsory contribution from the person to the government to defray the expense incurred in the common interest of all without reference to special benefits conferred."[16] In other words, through taxes people contribute to the cost of different services and common social purposes. Since most of the support for American public education comes from taxation in its myriad forms, laymen, teachers, and administrators desire a good tax system, which is not too dependent upon a single tax, such as that on property.

The main forms of property tax are as follows:[17]

1. Taxes on real estate
   a. Taxes on land and its improvements
   b. Taxes on land resources, such as mines and forests
2. Taxes on personal property
   a. Taxes on tangibles, such as furniture and cars
   b. Taxes on intangibles, such as money and securities

The general property tax is becoming increasingly unsatisfactory because of the difficulty in assessing all kinds and classes of property at the same rate. Many European nations have to a large degree abandoned this method, but in America some modified plan of taxing property for schools will exist for a long time.

A tax bill is rarely welcome. The first school-tax notice may seem to a new homeowner like a request from the school: "Let us place your name on our wailing list." But the late Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes, who willed his estate to his country, said: "I like to pay taxes. It is buying civilization." Certainly when the American citizen pays his taxes for public education he is helping to buy civilization.

[16] Harley L. Lutz and William G. Carr, *Essentials of Taxation*, p. 3, National Education Association, November, 1933.

[17] *Ibid.*, p. 7.

Among the numerous plans for making the property tax less painful are classification of property; equalization of assessments; more economical, efficient, and honest administration in assessing, levying, and collecting taxes; and the inclusion of the property tax as a part of a broader tax base. It is the abuse rather than the use of the property tax that constitutes a menace to the schools. As Emerson wrote in his essay on "Compensation," "If you tax too high, the revenue will yield nothing."

If the property tax is to have a smaller share in supporting schools, what other revenues are available? Among the potential sources are the following:

Amusements	Fees of state departments	Radio
Athletic events	Fees of state institutions	Retail sales
Auction sales	Gas distribution	Severance
Automobiles	Gasoline	Soft drinks
Bank checks	Income	Telegraph companies
Cigarette	Inheritance	Telephone companies
Cosmetics	Liquor	Television
Driver's license	Miscellaneous	Tobacco
Electric distribution	Oil	

A promising revenue is the income tax, on which England depends in a far greater degree than America.

In seeking new springs of revenue, however, school people must remember the statement: "What is left to the taxpayer is as important to the country's economy as what is taken from him." Linked intimately with the problems of broadening the tax base for school support are the issues of increasing efficiency through the consolidation of small weak units and of reducing costs through carefully planned economies. Archaic taxing systems are not the only cause of trouble, for even where tax systems have been revised, revenues are often inadequate. Some of the difficulty lies not so much in the failure of taxation as in increased expenditures. Many schools may well give less emphasis to raising more funds to spend and may well devote more thought to spending with less money.

Nonrevenue Receipts. As previously defined, nonrevenue receipts do not constitute a genuine source of income, since they incur an obligation that must be met at some future date. These receipts include mainly the revenue either from selling property and bonds or from obtaining loans. Since property is not frequently sold by the school district, attention is directed here to the common practice of borrowing money.

The prevalent ways of financing schools when cash is not available are (1) long-term and (2) short-term obligations, and (3) refinancing. Illustrative of the first are the straight-term bond, which is used for a stated number of years, to be repaid or refunded at the date of maturity;

the sinking-fund bond, which is made for a definite period of years, to be paid from a fund which is collected and invested during the term of the bond; and the serial bond, which is paid in installments during the period of the total bond issue. Among the numerous types of temporary school finance are short-term bonds, short-term loans, tax-anticipation warrants, scrip, and other forms of paper money. Refinancing or refunding involves the legal procedure of reestablishing an old debt as a fresh obligation, perhaps at a lower rate of interest. Often this merely postpones the evil day of accounting for past debts.

Many schools have erred in borrowing too much money. Practices such as erecting school buildings beyond the ability of the community to pay within a reasonable length of time, funding debts for annual expenditures, legislating state-wide tax limitations that are inadequate, collecting only a meager portion of the tax levy, and creating sinking funds that disappear are costly procedures that work the greatest hardships upon the generation now in school, for later as adults they will have to pay the costs of their own schooling.

Distribution of School Revenue

The development of a sound system of raising money for public schools is a major problem. A sequential task of prime import is the distribution of the money thus obtained. School money may be collected by reliable methods but distributed through unsatisfactory channels.

As the word "distribution" indicates, school funds are allocated to the states, counties, or local districts by a higher organization. The federal government allots its Smith-Hughes fund to the states, and the latter give it to the local districts. In West Virginia, the state treasury apportions certain school funds to the county units.

Bases for Distribution of Funds. The bases upon which school monies are distributed are very important. Among the criteria for the apportionment of funds for education are: the number of children of school age who reside in the district or county as revealed by the school census; the number of children enrolled the schools; the number of children in average daily attendance (a.d.a.); the "weighted" pupil with special consideration given to the rural or atypical pupil; the number of teachers employed; the number of instruction units (usually one teacher for each stated number of pupils); the partial or complete support of a state-prescribed minimum educational program; and other forms of flat grants and equalization programs. Combinations of these apportionment methods are employed in several states.

State Equalization Fund. As the term connotes, an equalization fund is intended to equalize educational opportunity and burden. Too often

the type and amount of a child's schooling are the result of chance or geography. The child who through the felicity of circumstances lives in a school district that can tax a railroad line or a coal mine company enjoys enhanced opportunities for an all-round education. The accidental meanderings of a river several hundred years ago often determine the boundaries that demarcate superior and inferior educational opportunities. Unfortunately, even when the highest permissible tax rate has been applied to the areas of low valuation, the funds secured are insufficient to run the schools in many districts throughout the United States. Even if a model tax plan were put into effect, the poorer districts and states would still be unable to support their schools adequately.

No state provides complete support for its public-school program, but some pay either the entire state-approved cost of all public schools or the principal items of necessary expense. The funds for these equalization plans have been derived from state-wide sources. Approximately three fourths of the states distribute all or part of their state school funds upon an equalization plan. Every state needs a program, built upon research and individually patterned, which provides for local initiative and state equalization. This forms the groundwork upon which a federal equalization program may be based.

Federal Equalization Fund. Education is not primarily a personal benefaction, such as the sidewalk leading to one's home. Nor is it merely a community benefit, like a street light. Rather it is a boon to all. In many ways it is comparable to a city street which is also a state highway and a national route. Both the building and the maintenance of that local-state-national highway are the obligation of all people, not just of those who happen to live near or travel that route. Likewise in the building and maintenance of schools, the local, state, and national interests are merging.

Yet the very schools designed for promoting common local, state, and national welfare may fail in their task. As an illustration, witness the inability of the depressed economic areas and groups to provide proper education for their children from generation to generation. Any federal funds that are or may be made available for public education should be so distributed as to guarantee equity and to correct the present glaring inequalities in the use of school funds for children of the different races. According to many fiscal experts, no sound program of local or state taxation can be devised and established which will support in every community a school system that meets minimum acceptable standards. Time can never efface the inequalities in natural resources that exist between states. Therefore, unless the federal government participates in the financial support of the schools and the related services in the less able areas,

several million children in the United States and the outlying territories and possessions will continue to be denied the educational opportunities that should be regarded as their birthright. Most recommendations and recent proposals for federal aid stipulate positively that such grants shall not entail federal control over education. They also specify that the money shall be apportioned to the states, except that for cooperative educational research, which shall be administered by the United States Office of Education.

Several decades ago Rutherford B. Hayes, then President of the United States, sent to Congress a message in which he said: "No more fundamental responsibility rests upon Congress than that of devising appropriate measures of financial aid to education, supplemental to local action in the states and territories and in the District of Columbia." This challenge has not yet been adequately met. Federal aid to public education is one of the moral "musts" of America.

FINANCING OTHER PHASES OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

As previously stated, American public education is broader than public schooling. Accordingly public-school finance is not exactly synonymous with public educational finance. The former is usually restricted to public elementary and secondary schools, whereas the latter embraces expenditures and receipts for all educational institutions and undertakings supported in part or whole by public taxation. This distinction, however, is hard to follow since in some places these areas overlap or fuse. One of the remaining forms of American public education not yet treated from the fiscal viewpoint in this volume is that of publicly supported higher education.

Publicly Supported Higher Education

Public elementary and secondary schools receive more tax dollars than do public institutions of higher learning. The operating or current educational expenditures for *all* institutions of higher education total approximately a billion dollars a year—double the amount spent in 1940.

The President's Commission on Higher Education grouped the sources of income available for the financing of current educational expenditures under four main headings: (1) philanthropy or private sources, (2) student fees, (3) public sources or government appropriations, and (4) miscellaneous, including receipts from sales and services of organized institutional activities.[18] Obviously, publicly controlled institutions of higher learning receive less from philanthropy, less from student fees, and more from public

[18] President's Commission on Higher Education, *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Volume V, "Financing Higher Education," p. 28, Superintendent of Documents, 1947.

sources than do the private colleges and universities. Main sources of support for the latter, which the late Nicholas Murray Butler called the "public but nongovernmental" institutions of higher education, are student fees, endowment earnings, gifts and bequests for current expenses.

The state is the chief provider of income both for teacher-educating institutions and for other public higher education. The next source of income is institutional, such as tuition, fees, and sales. The state leads in the support of teacher education and other higher education; the local districts rank first in the support of elementary and secondary education. The school of higher learning receiving the largest share of county assistance is the gradually disappearing county normal, whereas the junior college and the municipal university are the usual recipients of local tax support for higher education. The local, state, and federal support of public higher education will undoubtedly increase as a result of larger enrollments, the prolongation of secondary education, and the development of various phases of public adult education.

In its forward look, the President's Commission on Higher Education optimistically estimated a resident enrollment of 4,600,000 students in higher education by 1960. Its forecast of the amounts needed for the current educational program in 1960 is as follows:

Purpose	Amount
Faculty	$1,675,000,000
Libraries	92,000,000
Operation and maintenance of plant	257,000,000
Organized research	160,000,000
Adult education (including extension)	100,000,000
Special services	90,000,000
Administration	115,000,000
Other activities related to instruction	98,000,000
Total	$2,587,000,000[19]

To help meet these proposed expenditures the commission recommended three types of federal aid to higher education: (1) for current educational expenditures by publicly controlled institutions, (2) for capital outlay by publicly controlled colleges and universities, and (3) for a national program of scholarships to be administered by the states in accordance with general standards established by the federal government. The amounts recommended for example for the year 1952–1953 are as follows:

Purpose	Amount
Current educational expenditures	$265,000,000
Capital outlay	216,000,000
National scholarships	45,000,000
Total for the year	$526,000,000

[19] *Ibid.*, pp. 18, 59–61.

These amounts are in addition to the continuing appropriations such as those to land-grant colleges and universities.

Other Publicly Supported Education

Federal Projects. Other publicly supported educational projects of nation-wide and world-wide significance are the various national surveys authorized by Congress, and the promotion of democratic educational systems in the occupied countries of Germany, Austria, and Japan. Congressional grants have financed such outstanding surveys as those of secondary education, teacher education, school finance, higher education, and Negro education. Through such agencies as OMGUS (Office of Military Government, United States) and the War and State Departments, many educational experts from the United States have served as consultants in occupied areas, and many teachers, students, and other educational personnel from foreign countries have visited and studied in the United States.

In addition the federal government has continued and expanded its regular activities to assist education. The most significant project has been the federal fiscal support of the G.I. Bill of Rights, which has aided directly and indirectly many institutions of secondary and higher education. (See Unit I for further details on federal financing of public education.)

State Support. In the state of Wisconsin, public educational finance embraces the following expenditures and costs, calculated on the basis of per capita of population in the state.[20]

Purpose of Expenditure	Cost per Capita of Population
Public schools	$23.56
University of Wisconsin	7.10
Stout Institute	.16
State Teachers Colleges	.96
Wisconsin Institute of Technology	.02
Vocational and adult education	1.63
Department of Public Instruction	.72
County rural normal schools	1.22
County school of agriculture and domestic economy	.02
County superintendent and supervising teachers	2.06
Teachers' retirement	.90
Other educational activities	1.04
Total	$39.39

[20] Calculated from information contained in Table 29 from Department of Public Instruction, 33d Report, Wisconsin, 1945–1947. Census estimated as of July 1, 1947, by the Bureau of the Census. Teachers' retirement information from the State Annuity and Investment Board.

This list of educational institutions and functions reveals that public-school expenditures constitute but one aspect of state disbursements for education. Every commonwealth provides funds from its treasury for one or more special projects in connection with the public schools, or as separate undertakings, such as the library (see Unit II).

Local Support. Local and intermediate school units, such as the county, township, and city school districts, sponsor many educational projects. The county pays most of the bills for the office of the county superintendent of schools, the county normal schools, county libraries, agricultural agents, and certain club activities like the 4-H (see Unit III).

Local and intermediate school units promote types of public education in addition to schooling for children. Among these activities are recreation and other phases of adult education, library and museum facilities, and special projects predicated on local needs, interests, and fiscal abilities (see Unit IV).

Conclusion. A national inventory of public-school expenditures was appropriately captioned *Unfinished Business in American Education.* "Still Unfinished Educational Obligations," can be the title and challenge of many supplementary reports. Another survey has been captioned caustically and realistically *Our Children Are Cheated.* Some of the failings of American schools can be remedied only by spending more money: "The soil in which education grows in one half of the communities of America is too poor." It is therefore advocated that more fiscal fertilizer be added to enrich the educational soil, especially in barren areas.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Define and illustrate the terms: equalization fund, foundation program, tax delinquency, public hearing, school bonds, unit costs, school audit, tax rate limitations, personal property tax, fiscal year, and fiscal independence.
2. Make a list of some educational inequalities in your state.
3. Defend or criticize the proposition: "Collect the money where it is and spend it where the pupils are."
4. Examine a school budget and criticize its format and content.
5. Analyze an annual financial report of a school district.
6. Attend a public hearing on a school budget.
7. Find out how much it costs per year for current expenses to educate a pupil in the public schools of your state.
8. Find out the costs per student for current expenses in the institution that you are now attending.
9. Draw a large circle to represent a dollar. Divide it in segments to show where the school dollar goes in your district or state.
10. Draw a large circle to represent a dollar. Divide it in segments to show where the school dollar comes from in your district or state.
11. If the assessed valuation of a school district is $2,000,000, and the local board of education decides upon a tax rate of $1 per hundred, how much tax money can be

levied from this source? If the percentage of tax delinquency is 20 per cent, how much tax money can be collected from this source?

12. Change the following tax rates into mills:

    $1.00 per $100 assessed valuation
    $23.10 per $1,000 assessed valuation
    $0.012 per $1.00 assessed valuation

13. Trace the history of school support in your state.
14. Analyze the program of state aid to schools in your state. Evaluate its strong and weak points.
15. Learn how the state institutions of higher learning are supported in your state.
16. Trace the history of federal grants to education.

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CURRENT PERTINENT PERIODICALS AND PUBLICATIONS

American School Board Journal (12)[21]
Articles on the financing of American public education.

Budgets (1)
Annual budgets prepared by school systems.

College Public Relations (9)
Official publication of the American College Public Relations Association.

Educational Research Service Circulars
Research information, containing periodic studies on school finance, issued jointly by American Association of School Administrators and the Research Division of the National Education Association.

Financial Reports
Fiscal reports published monthly, quarterly, semiannually, and annually by numerous boards of education.

Journal of Accounting (12)
A business journal helpful to persons interested in the fiscal administration of schools.

Nation's Schools (12)
Monthly articles on school financing.

Proceedings
Proceedings, published yearly by the Association of School Business Officials and other organizations, containing addresses on school financing.

Research Bulletin (4)
Publication of the Research Division of the National Education Association, with frequent issues devoted to school finance.

Review of Educational Research (5)
One issue in a 3-year cycle devoted to finance and public administration.

School Business Affairs (12)
Publication of the Association of School Business Officials.

School Executive (12)
Frequent articles on school finance.

School Life (10)
Many articles on school finance in this official publication of the United States Office of Education.

School Management (12)
Articles on the fiscal management of schools.

[21] The figures following the titles of the publications indicate the number of issues annually.

State publications

Financial reports from the state educational associations, state departments of education, and state treasuries.

Surveys

References to school finance from local, county, state, and national surveys

Taxes (12)

Numerous articles on public and school finance.

Yearbooks and Official Reports

References to school finance in the yearbooks and official reports of the American Association of School Administrators, the Association of School Business Officials, and other national organizations.

Audio-visual Aids

Exhibit of Annual Fiscal Reports

Make a collection of annual fiscal reports from local and state school systems for display and study. These reports include budgets, annual financial reports, and school audits.

Exhibit of Financial Accounting Forms

Collect from the state department of education and from county and local superintendents of schools various financial accounting forms, including those for cocurricular activities.

Federal Aid — Filmstrip, 57 frames

The case for federal aid is graphically presented in this filmstrip, which is available with 32-page lecture notes from the National Education Association, Washington, D.C.

Filmstrips

Several state departments and state educational associations have prepared filmstrips that reveal problems in the financing of public education.

Movie Trailers — 35 mm.

Each year the National Education Association prepares for use in local theaters a short movie trailer dealing with education and American Education Week. Available from National Education Association, Washington, D.C.

Scrapbook of newspaper clippings

Prepare a scrapbook of newspaper clippings dealing with various aspects of public taxation and school support in your community or state.

The Fight for Better Schools — Eighteen minutes, 16 and 35 mm., sound

This film is based on the premise that because public schools are the heart of democracy, people must work and fight if need be for better schools. Through sight and sound comes the story of how a county—Arlington, Virginia—, a state —Arkansas—, and an organization—the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools—work for better financial support for public education. Available from March of Time, New York.

Part V

INTERPRETATION OF EDUCATION

Preview of Part V

INTERPRETATION OF EDUCATION

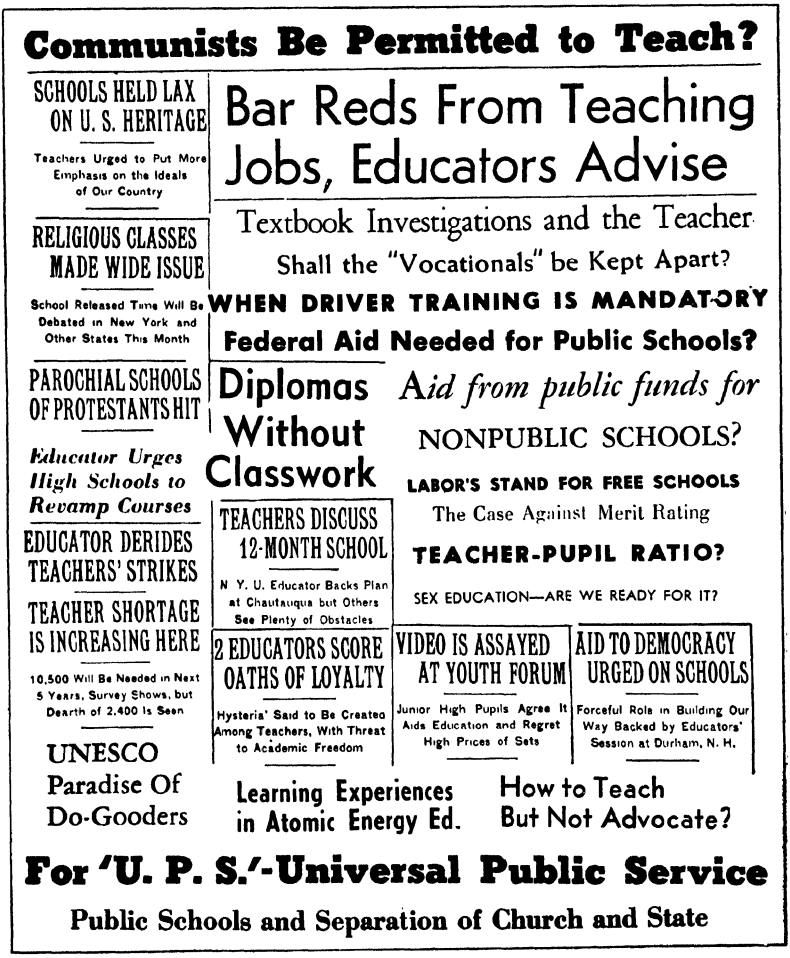

FIG. 17-1. Some of the many controversial issues. These clippings from newspapers and periodicals indicate the wide range of debatable issues in American education. They give printed evidence that education is not a mysterious cloak under which perplexing problems are hidden from the public. These headings and subcaptions, which in themselves constitute challenges to critical thinking, are positive proof of the freedom of the press—a feature of American democracy that is not found in press-curbing, mind-closing dictatorships.

Part V

INTERPRETATION OF EDUCATION

(Courtesy of School Life).

FIG. 17-2. Forum discussions on controversial issues. There are many controversial issues that need to be discussed, especially by young people who contemplate entering the teaching profession. Forums and panel discussions promote freedom of speech.

PREVIEW OF UNIT XVII

ISSUES AND TRENDS IN AMERICAN PUBLIC EDUCATION

This concluding unit deals with some of the issues and trends in American public education. They are organized under the four major topics used in this volume (1) organization and administration, (2) areas of public education, (3) personnel and (4) provisions for educational materials and environment. The issues presented are challenges to thoughtful study. A discussion of them, either in the classroom or elsewhere, invokes that fundamental principle of civil liberties which Voltaire expressed succinctly in the words: "I disapprove of what you say, but I will defend to the death your right to say it." Honest difference of opinion helps to expose the many sides of current issues.

Coupled with a discussion of issues is a presentation of some educational trends. One of course sees and hears readily the visible and noisy surface movements; he must dip deep below to find and feel the silent and basic undercurrents in teaching, learning, and living.

This unit serves as a review or overview of the 16 phases of education discussed in the preceding units. This synthesis helps to bind the significant components into a dynamic whole—American public education.

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UNIT XVII

ISSUES AND TRENDS IN AMERICAN PUBLIC EDUCATION

A teacher had given her pupils the assignment of writing an example of a complete sentence. After the work had progressed for a while she looked over the shoulder of one of the boys and said: "Jimmie, that's a good sentence, but where is the period?" Jimmie replied, "Oh, that's still in the pencil." Many trends in American public education are still in the pencil—they cannot be written with a period as "finis." As long as education is an evolving, growing organism, it will have a future tense. This means it will be characterized by uncertainty, constant flux, and innumerable controversial issues. As Henry W. Holmes of Harvard once stated: "No public institution struggles with a set of problems more complex, more difficult, nearer to the pulse of life, more fateful for the order and the onward movement of American civilization, than those the public school must face."

Issues in Public Education. In this concluding unit, almost a hundred debatable issues are stated briefly; a few are examined in detail. Some of the questions are persistent and hackneyed, whereas others are temporary and recent. Some are circular in that they return to their starting point. Many of the issues are linked with collateral problems of daily living. Some are residues of a hoary past, some are born of the present, and some are "embryonic of the future." Fortunately public education is anchored in the history of American civilization and at any given moment operates within the accumulated heritage of that civilization. Much of this volume has been devoted to the historical background and gradual evolution of American public education. This concluding unit enumerates many issues that have existed, but it especially stresses current problems.

Obviously, owing to limitations of space, only a few pertinent issues can be presented in some detail. Consequently this unit leaves many fundamental questions in education wholly or partially unanswered. In a period of national and international flux, it is suicidal to develop a positive sense of finality in educational matters. For some problems there is no hope of ultimate solution. For many issues there are no uniform answers. Furthermore, the solution to a problem is likely to produce a further need—for example, the development of the junior high school settled many problems but also created others. The task of education is unending; hence there can be no surcease in the striving for perfection. The process of public education can be interrupted but not terminated.

Trends in Public Education. Many issues are associated with forward movements and educational trends. Since it is difficult to separate issues and trends, both are presented here in close juxtaposition for each of the

16 phases of education. Each issue is followed by an abbreviated summary of a current trend appertaining to the stated problem. Many trends appear distinctly near at hand; others are only vaguely discernible on the horizon, like distant frontiers, unknown and unexplored. Some are like near-by weather vanes, indicating the direction the wind is blowing at a particular time. Some are like uncertain soil upon which one would pitch a movable tent but not erect a permanent educational structure. Some are like tested rock, which a nation might well use in building its educational edifice. Some trends are like insidious termites, seemingly insignificant, but destructive to the foundations of American democracy. Some of the desirable trends are like weak children who must be nursed to strength if they are to be powerful factors in American education and democracy. Some are like healthy working citizens who symbolize strength and reveal the higher characteristics of American idealism.

Role of Discussion in Education.[1] Before presenting some basic issues and trends in education, it is pertinent to explore briefly the role of discussion, especially in education.

> Discussion should be one of the most important things in the world, for it is almost our only arena of thinking. It is here that all the jumble of ideas and impressions that we get from reading and watching are dramatically placed in conflict. Here only is there a genuine challenge to put them into some sort of order. Without discussion intellectual experience is only an exercise in a private gymnasium.[2]

The group adventure of planned mental exploration can cover a wide spectrum of ideas in education.

Every issue has at least two sides. Many problems are like the two-edged sword. For example, the beam from a cyclotron can make plutonium for the destructive atom bomb, as well as isotopes for cancer treatment. Many issues have more than two sides—they are multifaceted. Often the consideration of a problem is comparable to tossing a cube up into the air and letting it fall at random with this or that facet visible for review. And then it is tossed up again and another phase is exposed. Many problems have a fulcrum on which the issues seesaw back and forth. A shift of emphasis or a changed position may continue the alternating seesaw of thoughts. One must discuss controversial issues with what Coleridge called "that willing suspension of disbelief." An open mind of course is not synonymous with an empty mind. The ultimate aim in a discussion of educational problems is to elevate the participants to finer and higher planes of thinking, decision, and living.

[1] Also see later in this unit, under Curriculum, the issue "Shall Controversial Subjects Be Discussed in the Schools?"

[2] Randolph Bourne, "Arena of Thinking," *Adult Education Journal*, April, 1945, p. 62.

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

National Program of Education

1. *Shall There Be a Federal Department of Health, Education, and Security?* That is, shall there be established at Washington, D.C., a threefold department with a secretary who is a member of the President's cabinet and who shall promote education as one of three major functions?

Pro. Some of the arguments for such a secretaryship have been succinctly stated by the Committee on Health, Education, and Security formed under the joint sponsorship of the American Council on Education and the National Social Welfare Assembly:

> One of the main reasons for the combination of the education, health, and welfare functions of the federal government under single executive direction is the necessity of grouping the executive functions of the federal government by major purpose into the smallest possible number of administrative units. This is desirable in the interest of efficiency, economy, and over-all control and direction of federal activities. . . .
>
> Most students of government and administration have therefore argued in favor of the principle of grouping together by major purpose the activities of the national government. Experts in government administration have recognized the fact that no completely logical division of all government activities can be made on the basis of the purpose to be served. . . .
>
> An inevitable corollary of unified ultimate direction of education, health, and welfare services in the federal government is unified consideration of the federal participation in the financing of these services. . . . Placing these services in a single administrative unit makes it possible for the responsible head of that unit, the President, and the Congress to secure a well-rounded and balanced picture of social need and the proper distribution of available federal funds for the prosecution of these activities.
>
> One more substantial advantage may be claimed for integration of these fields in the federal government. Under our constitutional system, the responsibility for actual administration of most educational, health, and welfare services has been reserved to the states and local government. The accepted procedure for federal assistance in equalizing and providing needed additional services in these fields has been through the principle of grants-in-aid. . . . The comparability of administrative techniques and the need for close coordination of the various grants-in-aid . . . constitute strong arguments for bringing these services together at the federal level in the interest of efficiency, economy, and reduced confusion in the states and localities.[3]

Con. Educational disadvantages in locating the federal educational agency in a federal department of health, welfare, and education have

[3] American Council on Education, *A Report of the Committee on a Federal Department of Health, Education and Security*, pp. 19–24, American Council on Education, 1947.

been listed by the task force of the Hoover Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of Government:

1. The much-needed National Board of Education would not easily fit into the structure.

2. The secretary, and assistant secretaries, if such were in the picture, would almost of necessity be political appointees who could subject education to political pressures. . . .

3. The other agencies of the proposed department do not have the clear-cut tradition and record of placing responsibility on their counterparts in the states as had the United States Office of Education.

4. Education has more in common with activities of several other departments of the government than with activities of the proposed department. Examples: Department of Agriculture, Atomic Energy Commission, and Veterans Administration.

5. The great need of developing the federal educational agency as a professional servicing and integrating force for all educational activities of the government, the large majority of which are outside the proposed department, is pointed out. . . .

6. There are those who fear that the interest of the present Office of Education would be overlooked as its activities are relatively small as compared with rapidly expanding activities, such as social security. . . .

7. There are others who believe that association of education with these welfare activities would give to education the connotation of charity and social services, an implication inconsistent with the important place of education in the life of a democratic nation.

8. It is the belief of many that the departmental structure adds a needless administrative level (or possibly two levels if assistant secretaries are included) to hinder direct representations to the President, to the Congress, or to the people in matters which involve education. . . .

9. The too-prevalent tendency of a department to desire to amass power and control is antagonistic to federal policy as it should concern education.

10. The proposed department to include education is contrary to accepted and best practice for organization of education on the state and local level.

11. In total, these factors might reduce public confidence in the federal educational agency.[4]

The American Medical Association is one of the groups actively opposed to including health in the proposed federal department.

Trend. Many proposals have been made for the placement of the federal educational agency. The task force of the Hoover Commission listed three feasible locations: (1) as a federal department of education with a cabinet officer at its head, a possibility that was discarded in the report primarily because it could subject education to political control; (2) in a

[4] Brookings Institution, *Task Force Report on Public Welfare*, pp. 375–376, Superintendent of Documents, 1949.

federal department of health, welfare, and education, which is more commendable, but has many disadvantages, as just indicated; and (3) as a separate independent agency, which minimizes or eliminates many of the objections to a consolidated department with health and welfare.[5]

President Truman's reorganization plan number one, with effective date of August, 1949, proposed that the Federal Security Agency be elevated to cabinet rank into a department of welfare, including the Public Health Service, the Social Security Administration, and the Office of Education. This proposal was defeated.

There is little immediate prospect that the United States Office of Education will be dignified as a national ministry of education such as the *Ministerio de instrucción pública* in Chile or the *Ministère de l'instruction publique et des beaux arts* in France.

The location of the federal educational office in a separate independent agency is not a completely suitable solution either, although the National Board of Education would fit well in this plan. The immediate trend is toward inclusion in a larger department. However, in the last analysis the ultimate decision concerning the location of the federal educational agency will have to be made in consideration of the total anticipated reorganization of the executive branch, and the purposes to be served by a national program of education in American democracy. The unique character and multifaceted relationships of education justify its special treatment and exemption from the administrative criteria developed for more routine operating agencies. The second half of the twentieth century will undoubtedly see a change from the traditional insignificant status accorded education in the federal government to a respected and elevated position as the keystone of the symmetrical arch of American democracy.

2. *Shall There Be a National Board of Education Comparable to a Local Board of Education?* That is, shall there be a national board of education, which shall determine nation-wide policies and evaluate practices in education?

At present no national board or commission for public education exists. It has been argued that a competent commission, selecting the United States Commissioner of Education as its own executive without reference to party politics, would follow the American tradition of acknowledging the function of education in American democracy and of separating its leadership and administration from other governmental functions. There are several educational organizations who have officially recommended the establishment of the United States Office of Education as an independent, adequately financed agency, directed by a national board of education

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 376.

appointed for long overlapping terms by the President with the consent of the Senate. The creation of a national board of outstanding citizens could do much to provide necessary national lay leadership in education. Willard E. Givens, executive secretary of the National Education Association, has stated: "This body, through the caliber of its members and the nature of its activities, could develop great prestige and influence. Its function, however, should be advisory and not administrative." A small board of education serving on a national basis seems as desirable as the state, county, and local boards. Despite the need for this central planning board for public education, the prospect for its formation is rather remote, unless laymen and educators actively promote the proposal.

3. *Shall There Be a Minimum, Basic Program of Education for the Nation as a Whole?* Just as several states have prepared a foundation program for the schools within their boundaries, so too the United States as a unit should set up minimum standards to be met by all schools of the nation. The Educational Policies Commission has outlined the kind and amount of education that would increase the positive economic effects of education. This program calls for lifting the poorest schools to a minimum of efficiency.

4. *How Effective Is the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) in Educating for World Understanding?* This agency for facilitating educational, scientific, and cultural exchange and understanding among the nations has been attacked and defended. In its earlier days Associate Editor Ernest O. Hauser of the *Saturday Evening Post* found UNESCO "a high-minded but sadly muddled outfit." Columnist Malcolm W. Bingay wrote that it was made up of professional do-gooders: "The job of UNESCO is to discuss everything in the hope that somebody will find something—to talk about." According to UNESCO's preamble, "wars begin in the minds of men." "If so," said English art critic Herbert Read, "they are not to be prevented by card indexes and encyclopedias, by documentary films and the circulation of lecturers .... The minds of men are controlled only by some form of moral discipline." These caustic comments were applicable to the initial gropings of a newborn babe.

Although UNESCO has now developed further, it still is in its infancy. As former Assistant Secretary of State Benton has said: "UNESCO is a David, facing a Goliath of ignorance. UNESCO obviously is not going to bring about; in a few years, the moral and intellectual revolution that is required by the age ahead of us. It can now move gradually toward a more modest goal: to help dispel, in some degree, the unwarranted fears, suspicions, and hatred that hang like a fog over the world today." Among its many promising activities is the program of fundamental education—a world-wide campaign to provide universal, free, compulsory, primary

education and to reduce illiteracy among adults. Obviously the success of UNESCO in building the educational, scientific, and cultural foundations of peace depends in a large measure upon the rehabilitation of the minds, spirits, and bodies of people. Starved minds and blighted spirits are further impaired by emaciated bodies.

State Systems of Education

1. *Shall the Individual States, Rather than the Federal Government, Be Primarily Responsible for Public Education?*

Pro. That the states are in their own areas the legitimate units of educational control seems to be manifest for several reasons, as reported in such studies as *Responsibility of the States in Education—the Fourth R*, by the Chamber of Commerce of the United States, and *The Forty-eight State School Systems*, a research project of the Council of State Governments:

> The federal Constitution actually makes no mention of education as a federal responsibility, but, in the Tenth Amendment, the powers not delegated to the United States nor prohibited by it are reserved to the states respectively. This has come to be interpreted as leaving to the states the control of their own educational systems. Moreover, each of the forty-eight state constitutions makes some statement to the effect that education is a function of the state government.[6]
>
> State responsibility for education is firmly embedded in the constitutions of the several states and buttressed by tradition and court decisions. This responsibility of the governments of the several states for the education of their citizens is much more than a theory or a tradition or a legal convention. An examination of the efforts of the states to strengthen their public school systems indicates that it is a living principle guiding the recommendations and actions of governors and legislatures in each of the forty-eight states.[7]

The debates of the constitutional conventions in the various states reveal that a great majority of the delegates felt that it was the duty of the state to establish and maintain a system of public education for the purpose of educating its citizens. The states are the generally accepted legislative units for public education, whereas the contained areas—district, town, city, township, community, and county—are the units to which much administration has been delegated.

Con. In this general issue of federal power vs. decentralization, numerous arguments are advanced for the extension of federal control. Some authorities state that federal expansion is inescapable. The load of taxation has tended to shift to the federal government, indicating federal responsibility.

[6] Committee on Education, *Responsibility of the States in Education—the Fourth R*, p. 3, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, 1947.

[7] Council of State Governments, *The Forty-eight State School Systems*, p. 4, the Council, 1949.

In the report, *Federal-State Relations in Education*, issued by the American Council on Education and the Educational Policies Commission, the writers frankly stated:

> The factor which above all others has pushed us toward federal control of education in recent times is the fact that present facilities for the financial support of education in a considerable number of states and localities are so meager that the basic job of providing educational opportunity for all has not been performed. Educational shortages revealed in illiteracy, in physical deficiency, and failure adequately to provide for children and youth in many ways, rise to plague us in times of crisis. Congress responds with hasty, indirect, and expensive educational legislation in futile attempts to make up for past shortcomings. This process has resulted in a rising tide of federal controls over education. It can continue to do so in the future until education becomes largely federalized.[8]

Advocates of more federal control cite the tremendous advance in vocational education as evidence that nationally financed and sponsored projects mean advancement. Many persons are of the opinion that education in America is too decentralized and that a strong central system such as is found in some foreign countries would help to accelerate progress, especially in educational slum areas. Furthermore, the federal government could enforce uniform accounting for all schools and stipulate other minimal standards.

Trend. Despite the temporary drift toward federal centralization during and following the Second World War, the long-term trend is toward continuance in the path of states' rights as begun by the Tenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States. The federal government, however, under the preamble of the Constitution, has the right to direct and stimulate education as a means of promoting the general welfare. During the early years of grants to education there was little or no attempt on the part of the United States to control or administer the schools. Starting with the First Morrill Act in 1862, the national government commenced to exercise some degree of control through the allocation of funds for certain phases of education. An excessive amount of federal authority has been exercised over many aspects of vocational education. Bills for providing federal aid have definitely stipulated that education shall not be controlled by the United States government.

2. *Shall the States, Rather than the Local Communities, Be Primarily Responsible for the Ultimate Control of Public Education?* In colonial days the local communities held the primary responsibility for and control over the schools. Later the states regained some of the powers that had been

[8] Educational Policies Commission, and Problems and Policies Commission, *Federal-State Relations in Education*, p. 46, National Education Association, 1945.

delegated to the local school districts. This reversal of policy indicates a trend toward state centralization, which may soon reach a limit.

School districts, more than any other form of government, are of direct interest to the local community; therefore the administration of the schools should be kept close to the people. Too much authority over education is being centralized in the governor as the state's supreme executive officer. In certain essentials the state board of education should be in control. For example, the state may well prescribe a uniform budgeting and accounting system for schools. A state may well recommend a foundation program, but the specifics should be applied by the local school district. The major problem confronting the American people is not to decide at which level of government the major responsibility shall be fixed, but to study educational needs and determine which level of government, local, county, state, or national, can best carry on particular functions. Differentiated responsibility need not cause competition; it should make for integration of the component parts.

3. *Shall the State Assume Greater Responsibility in the Support of Public Education?* Shall the state as a central agency increase its appropriations for public education? The trend, as evidenced by statistics, is toward decreasing the amount of local support and increasing state support. This, of course, is linked with equitable distribution, discussed later.

4. *Shall a State Board of Education Exercise Some Control and Supervision over the Elementary and Secondary Schools of the State?* A state board of education is needed to act as the chief authority in school matters. More than three fourths of the states have established such a board. It is hoped that the others will soon do likewise.

5. *Shall the State Superintendent of Public Instruction Be Elected Rather than Appointed?* Shall he "run" for office or shall the office seek him? The trend is toward appointing state superintendents. The choice may be made by the governor or preferably by the state board of education. This method is slowly gaining acceptance. Just as the popular election of city school superintendents has become obsolete, so too the election of county and state superintendents will give way to appointment.

County and Intermediate School Units

1. *Is the County the Most Satisfactory Unit for School Organization and Administration?* Shall there be 3000 county units rather than 90,000 districts in the United States?

Pro. In 1933 West Virginia adopted the county unit system. According to W. W. Trent, former state superintendent of public instruction, results favor the county unit for these reasons:

The county unit brought to West Virginia a more equitable distribution of (1) per capita wealth back of each individual child, and (2) local tax burden.

A county unit is more economical than a smaller district organization. It reduces the needed number of officers, supervisors, and administrators. In West Virginia the number of board members and secretaries was reduced.

The county unit extends and improves school facilities and opportunities.

The larger units enable the schools to keep pace with other developments. In time of travel the county is now smaller than the former township units.

With less money than was formerly available, the average term in the state is longer; the preparation of teachers, higher; the number of boys and girls in high school, larger; the transportation, safer and more extensive; school attendance, better; preparation of school administrators, better in academic credits and longer experience; the curriculum, enriched; and education is carried to rural communities. . . .[9]

This testimony is drawn from but one of several states that have found the county system more successful than smaller units.

Con. In contradiction, Howard A. Dawson, director of rural service of the National Education Association, states that although a county unit can effect a great reduction of inequalities of educational opportunity, a more economical use of funds, and a more equitable distribution of local tax burdens, these facts do not necessarily establish the county as the most satisfactory unit of school administration. He submits the following criteria for the adequacy of a local school administrative unit and shows in what respect the county fails to meet them:

a. The local administrative unit, especially in rural areas, should bear a fundamental relationship to the community, the unit of social organization in this country. . . .

Counties rarely constitute such units. . . . Nearly every county survey has shown the necessity of transferring children and territory from one county to another. Frequently the county boundary cuts across community boundaries and interferes with the local organization of schools.

b. Other things being equal, the most satisfactory local school administrative unit is the one that best promotes democratic administration. . . .

Where the county is made the administrative unit, unless the county in question happens to be a homogeneous community unit, there is likely to be in the small communities a definite loss of control, and of local interest and responsibility.

c. The local unit of school administration should be large enough to furnish at reasonable cost the necessary services, such as administration by professional leadership, supervision of instruction and attendance, efficient business management, and operation and maintenance of the school plant and pupil transportation. . . .

On the one hand, it is evident that many counties are too small to attain the most desirable size as a school administrative unit and on the other hand many coun-

[9] W. W. Trent, "Is the County the Most Satisfactory Unit for School Administration?—The Affirmative," *School Life*, February, 1940, p. 144.

ties that are large enough are composed of community units that ought not to be submerged.[10]

Trend. Facts reveal the positive trend toward the consolidation of small school districts into larger units. Several school districts are losing their disparate identity each day. The long-term prospect is that small districts will be abolished and rural territory organized into local units large enough and strong enough to support a complete educational program and to employ a professional superintendent of schools. This larger unit may be a county or a community district. As Dawson states in the debate, there is no one answer as to what is the most satisfactory local school administrative unit. The answer must be sought in the light of local, state, and nation-wide planning on sound educational, economical, and sociological bases. Such planning must recognize that the possibilities of further improving the small local districts are very limited.[11]

2. *Whose Responsibility Is It to Transport Pupils to School?* Specifically, in consolidated school districts who shall pay the costs for bringing pupils to school daily?

The magnitude of the school transportation problem is revealed in the fact that several million students are carried daily. The cost of transporting these pupils, once borne by parents, is now paid in whole or in part by the local school district or state. An increasing portion is being defrayed by the state. Eventually federal aid may be given for equalizing educational opportunity through paying part of the cost of bringing pupils to school.

3. *How Can Adequate Professional Supervision Be Obtained for Developing Satisfactory Programs of Instruction in Rural Schools?* State departments of education are expending more money than they did formerly to provide better supervision of rural schools. Furthermore, there is a trend toward a more creative type of self-supervision which permits greater participation of teachers in supervisory programs, curriculum building, and studies of child development.

4. *Shall the County Superintendent of Schools Be Appointed by a County Board of Education Rather than Elected by the People?* He ought to be given every opportunity to be a professional educator rather than a professional politician. Unfortunately, the states that do not have appointive county educational officers are very slow to accept this preferable method of obtaining educational leadership in the county.

[10] Howard A. Dawson, "Is the County the Most Satisfactory Unit for School Administration?—The Negative," *School Life*, February, 1940, p. 145.

[11] For characteristics of effective school districts, see National Commission on School District Reorganization, *Your School District*, Chap. VI, National Education Association, 1948.

Local School Districts

1. *Shall the Controlling Educational Agency Be a Board of Public Education Rather than a School Board?* That is, shall the function of public education be expanded and coordinated under a board that shall have the oversight and direction of all education financed by and for the public, or shall the supervision of the local public-school system be the only task of the controlling board?

Pro. The liberal point of view in terms of philosophy of education and money is that the local body should be a board of public education, which embraces all aspects of learning for all individuals—children, youth, and adults. The pros say that schooling and education are not synonymous or coterminous. Hence a board of public education is to be charged with the conduct of all forms of education where this activity is not in direct conflict with statutes or laws to the contrary. On this issue the Educational Policies Commission recommends:

> That school boards become public education authorities with a viewpoint broad enough to encompass all public educational activities, both in and out of school. That public educational authorities be charged with full powers and full responsibility for the conduct of all public educational activities within the community.[12]

If this policy were implemented with a program of action, it would call for additional thousands of educational workers and for increased expenditures for public education.

Con. In conflict with the report of the Educational Policies Commission, which calls for a board of public education, are opinions such as the following expressed by Edward A. Fitzpatrick, president of Mount Mary College:

> This report with its strong insistence on planning and coordination and ultimate unification of the social services under a public educational authority, throws a new light on the problem of the city and the schools. Here, seemingly, we have a plea not for isolation or insulation or independence, but for power and authority and control. Does not the argument go too far, for the traditional point of view? If there is to be so much unification, why not complete unification under the city government?[13]

The conservative point of view, particularly of the taxpayer who has to foot the bill for the expansion of public education, is that legally the local district is responsible for the minimal schooling of youth of elementary-

[12] Educational Policies Commission, *Social Services and the Schools*, p. x, National Education Association, 1939.

[13] Edward A. Fitzpatrick, "The School System and the City," *American School Board Journal*, March, 1940, p. 49.

and high-school age, from approximately six to sixteen years. It builds a high fence or wall around the schoolyard and makes the schools exist solely for young pupils. It means that collateral forms of education and recreation are a responsibility of the individual or city rather than a public cost chargeable to education.

Trend. The functions of American public education have expanded so that the local educational agency is becoming a board of public education in legal control not only of the local public schools but also of related public functions like social service. The preface for the yearbook *The Expanding Role of Education* states:

> As we cross the threshold into a new world, there is more to do in education than any nation has yet seriously attempted. Education must reach more people; it must regularly include many areas of experience and types of services that now are found only "in the twilight zone" of accepted practice. Because the schools are social institutions, however, substantial progress toward these goals must rest on the sure foundation of public endorsement.[14]

Of course, practical limits are imposed by the fiscal resources available for financing all educational projects and by the community's willingness to centralize these projects under the board of public education. It is recommended that the state legislatures pave the way for this expanded concept by legally designating the local governing body as the "board of public education." The abbreviated term "school board" is not in harmony with the enlarged horizons of American public education.

2. *How Shall the Board of Education Select the Superintendent of Schools?* The following are some of the recommended procedures in choosing the superintendent of schools: (1) Public announcement of a vacancy assures prospective candidates, as well as professional sources which may be asked for recommendations, that they act within the scope of professional ethics. (2) Personal standards and professional qualifications, tailor-made to fit the needs of the local school system and the local community, should be clearly listed. (3) After a preliminary list of candidates has been prepared, a few are selected for interview. (4) Sometimes the board or a group of representatives visits the home communities of the leading prospects. (5) Final responsibility for electing the superintendent resides in the full board alone. (6) Favorable and timely public announcement of the election smooths the way for the new appointee and makes for continued public confidence in the board.[15]

[14] American Association of School Administrators, *The Expanding Role of Education*, p. 6, National Education Association, 1948.

[15] American Association of School Administrators, *Choosing the Superintendent of Schools*, National Education Association, 1949, 12 pp.

3. *Shall the Board of Education Establish Single Rather than Dual or Multiple Control of the Internal Organization of the Schools?* Shall the superintendent be the sole executive, or shall a business manager or attorney be appointed by the board with a status equal to that of the superintendent?

The single executive type of school administration is the desirable form, although the increased responsibilities of the city superintendent of schools demand that some duties be delegated to an assistant who may be in charge of instruction or of business affairs under the direction of the superintendent.

4. *Is the Administration of the Local Schools Democratic?* The administration of schools is becoming more democratic. In theory and practice the trend is toward a "declaration of interdependence" between members of the board of education, administrators, teachers, pupils, and laymen. Education for democratic living is a current watchword of the school.

AREAS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

Pre-elementary Education

1. *Shall Public Education Be Delimited to Schooling in Certain Areas, as Elementary and Secondary Levels, or Shall It Be Broadened and Lengthened to Embrace Lifelong Learning?* The three r's—reading, 'riting, and 'rithmetic—once served as a formula to designate the extent of one's schooling. Today the scope of one's education is more appropriately epitomized by the three l's—life-long learning. It has been said that man is a learning animal. It must be added that he learns as long as he lives, from the time he enters this world until he reaches the end of what Shakespeare called the "seventh age," that is, senescence. Recent investigations prove that learning is lifelong: it registers a child as he creeps upon the stage of life and graduates him as the curtain falls on the last act. In this continuous educational drama, one may play and work in at least five acts: pre-elementary, elementary, secondary, collegiate, and adult.

2. *Shall the Various Organizational Levels of Education Be Articulated More Effectively?* In 1899 John Dewey pointed out the waste in education due to the lack of coordination between the various periods or units that make up the public-school system of the United States. The main reason for this lack of articulation is that each unit of the school system originated under different conditions. The university started as a group of professional schools during the medieval period. The grammar school, which later became the academy and high school, was imported from England during the seventeenth century. The elementary or primary school arose in Europe out of a popular movement in the sixteenth century when it became necessary to know reading, writing, and arithmetic. The kindergarten came to America in the nineteenth century as an importation from

Germany. Despite this dissimilarity in origin, the consecutive levels of education ought to be articulated closely into a unified whole.

3. *At What Age Shall Free Public Education Begin?* Specifically, shall early education be incorporated as part of the public-school system?

Pro. It is difficult to answer the question as to when American public education should begin. Very few public schools offer both a nursery school and a kindergarten. The advocates for beginning public education at an earlier age than six years advance these arguments:

Since many of the early nursery schools were established for underprivileged children, some have assumed that custodial care is sufficient and that such schools

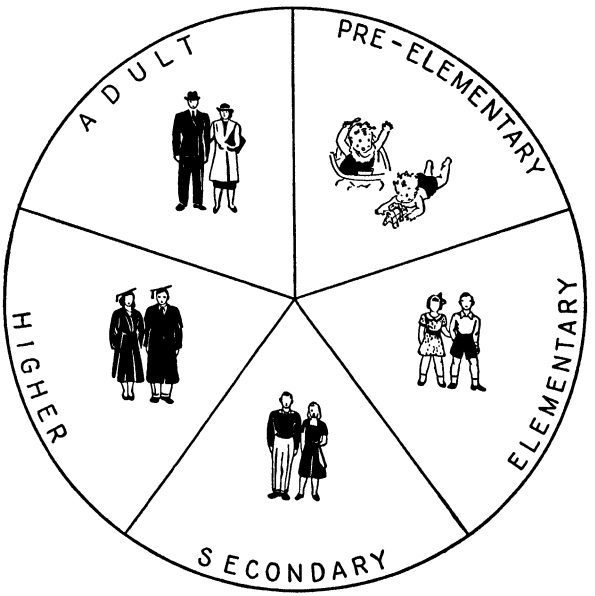

FIG. 17-3. Lifelong learning.

should be organized under the welfare department rather than by the public schools. Even when the purposes of a bona fide nursery school are understood, some have argued still that they should be set up as separate units, sponsored and supervised by some social agency rather than the public schools. Abundant experience has now been accumulated, however, with nursery-kindergarten centers under the sponsorship of public-school systems, to demonstrate that early education should be sequential. These units should be organized as integral parts of the elementary-school program, extending public education downward to children under six.[16]

[16] American Association of School Administrators, *The Expanding Role of Education, op. cit.*, pp. 51–52.

These and many other valid arguments justify the existence of nursery schools and kindergartens at taxpayers' expense.

Con. Opposed to this point of view are those who believe that young children of most families should be educated in the home or by private means. Some educators do not favor the idea that public kindergartens should be provided for all classes of children. David Snedden, when a professor at Teachers College, Columbia University, said:

> The original kindergartens, like the original nursery schools, it will be recalled, were provided by philanthropists to minister to the needs only of children of city slums and other environments unfavorable to the wholesome growth of babies and small children. But is there any evidence of real validity in present-day widespread contentions that children under six years of age, except those under bad environmental conditions, need any of the ministrations which well-meaning organizers and teachers can supply? Surely seventy to eighty per cent of American families are able to surround their young children with fairly wholesome conditions for various forms of normal growth. . . .
>
> No sane and sympathetic observer of childhood would, of course, question the desirability of providing at public expense educative agencies supplemental to households and parents for those children who are the victims of unwholesome environments—environments caused by outworking mothers, by dissipations of parents, by filthiness of surroundings, by loneliness of associations, or by meagerness of opportunities for play. But it certainly would be either a cynic or a holder of Utopian standards who would contend that more than ten to twenty per cent of American families are now disposed or condemned to provide only such surroundings for their young children.

Many persons are against early education for all children at public expense because of the additional taxes involved.

Trend. Despite this opposition, the American people are gradually accepting at least the theory that kindergartens may be included as a part of the public-school system. The American Federation of Labor, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, the American Association of University Women, and other civic and professional organizations have lent their support to the movement for nursery and kindergarten schools. Several states have taken a generous attitude toward kindergarten support, but by and large, few states and local communities have furnished nursery education.

Elementary Education

1. *Shall the Elementary School Be Characterized by So-called Progressive Education?* Shall it be child-centered?

Pro. James Marshall, a member of the board of education of New York

City, wrote as follows in the *Saturday Review of Literature* under the caption, "Wars Are Made in Classrooms":

The autocratic classroom is not peculiar to the autocratic nation. It still exists in many a schoolhouse right here in the U.S.A. It is a natural carry-over from the early days of schools which considered it their function to tell children rather than to develop them; in which the schoolmaster had the knowledge and assumed that education was no more than an imparting of his knowledge. That children could be led to that knowledge in such a way that they would desire to learn was rarely conceded. Many an educator believed that the more odious the work assigned the better it developed character, or that if you shoved a mind hard enough into Greek grammar you sharpened it for all purposes, as though the mind were a knife and study a whetstone.

The teacher-dominated classroom is still too prevalent in the United States. . . . Cooperative attitudes are not consciously developed. The tone is one of competition for good marks or the teacher's favor. The habit of watching for the reaction of authority is overemphasized—the child watches to avoid punishment or to defy authority behind its back.

It is important that a democratic atmosphere be spread to all our classrooms if the habits of self-reliance and interdependence are to be developed rather than attitudes of defiance, subservience, or retaliation.[17]

Con. Mr. Frank G. Black, a professor of English at the University of Oregon, replied in part as follows to Mr. Marshall's arguments for the child-centered school:

In the teaching world today there are, as regards the organization of the classroom, two views of education—that held by teachers trained in the disciplines of subject matter and that held by the preponderance of educational specialists free from ties to any particular subject-matter field. The latter is the group which has instituted and argued for the "child-centered" school, implying deceptively that those not of their faith would have the school "teacher-centered" or "subject-centered." The child has always been the good teacher's first concern; the school exists for him and his welfare, and the teacher is a means to an end. Every teacher worth his salt believes himself an expert in understanding and aiding the child in his development. To this inaccurate pair of designations Mr. Marshall now adds, for the same discrimination, "democratic" and "authoritarian," occasionally varying the latter with "autocratic."

I would challenge the implication that children are necessarily led any more willingly to knowledge under the "child-centered" plan than in others. No one believes that education is *merely* an imparting, but many would contend that the imparting of knowledge should still be part of the process. . . .

The student's own knowledge should of course be brought into play, his reac-

[17] James Marshall, "Wars Are Made in Classrooms," *Saturday Review of Literature*, November 11, 1944.

tions invited. Occasionally it may be well for him to reach his answer, as the race did, by trial and error. But the gross want of economy in that method should preclude it from general use, and the present large employment of the project and report, which turns from the authority of the teacher and text to that of encyclopedia and the *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature,* is subject to objections. . . .

We know of classrooms today where the teacher relegates his authority to a class-selected chairman and thereafter enters the discussion at his peril. Tricks learned in this fashion are likely to be few and unprofitable. . . .

The logical absurdity of reducing the teacher to the level of the pupil would be apparent to any mind but that of a theorist. . . . Either the teacher possesses knowledge which the pupil lacks and requires, or he does not; if he does not, he should resign; if he does possess it, why put an impediment in the way of his offering it. . . .

The beginner in whatsoever field must learn before he can investigate. The twelve-year-old or sixteen-year-old "research" student is often made to utilize methods above his capacities, and is required to judge without criteria. . . .

Some of the consequences of the emphasis in nonauthoritarian education deserve scrutiny. Educators promoting the concept desire method-trained teachers and are indifferent or hostile to substantial subject training. . . . Another concomitant of the emphasis on the pupil as a center is the appeal to present interests, and by consequence, to the practical and the contemporary—at the expense of the cultural and permanent. . . .[18]

Trend. This discussion between a school-board member and a college professor has brought into rather sharp focus several important issues, particularly as they affect elementary education. The elementary school is and will be more progressive than the secondary school or the college. Elementary education has moved steadily toward an activity school. The main activity, of course, should be learning. Its aim is the "perfectibilian goal of the ideal man," who works at doing good, not merely being good. Progressivism is a characteristic that does not readily lend itself to statistical treatment, unless it be an enumeration of its millions of satisfied pupils. It has, of course, reaped many benefits from the helpful and pointed observations of its perennial critics, especially the so-called "essentialists."

In answer to the question, "Is progressive education obsolete?" Emeritus Professor Boyd H. Bode of Ohio State University has aptly written:

> If democracy is here to stay, then the spirit of progressive education can never become obsolete. We may discard the name and we may discontinue it as a separate organization, but we can never surrender the vision which it has tried to bring us of a new basis for peace on earth and good will among men.[19]

[18] Frank G. Black, "The Educational Center," *Educational Forum,* January, 1948, pp. 139–142.

[19] Boyd H. Bode, "Is Progressive Education Obsolete?" *School and Society,* November, 1947, p. 414.

It is this progressive spirit of education which will continue to characterize much modern education, especially in the elementary school.

2. *Shall the Elementary School Be Reorganized?* Current practice is slow to accept the reorganization of education. At present most elementary schools are organized as grades 1 through 8. The trend, however, is toward a rearrangement of the traditional eight elementary grades. At the lower end there is a dipping down into pre-elementary education. The upper grades are gradually being recast into some type of secondary unit, such as the junior high school. Unfortunately many so-called "junior high schools" are too dominated by the philosophy and program of elementary education.

3. *Shall Pupils Be Graduated from the Elementary School with Formal Exercises?* Or shall the emphasis be shifted to promotion to the next higher unit?

In theory the desirability of eliminating eighth-grade graduation exercises is being widely accepted. In practice, however, many communities still magnify the completion of eight grades of schooling. The trend is to eliminate formal *graduation* exercises and to substitute a *promotion* day when the emphasis is placed upon encouraging the pupils to enter the high school.

4. *Shall More Men Be Engaged as Teachers in the Elementary School?* Although women obviously make better teachers in the primary grades, additional men are needed in the intermediate and upper grades or junior high school. Too many youngsters attain adolescence without having had a male teacher. Except for emergency situations, such as a national defense program that draws upon the man power of the nation, the trend is to encourage more men to take the elementary education courses and to urge their employment by elementary-school systems.

Secondary Education

Although many of the issues and trends in the elementary field apply also to secondary education, the latter has its unique and distinctive problems. Some of the issues in secondary education in turn extend into colleges and universities.

1. *What Is the Role of General Education in Secondary Education?* Specifically, how shall general education be organized and presented in high school?

Numerous proposals for general education on the secondary level have been made. One is tersely referred to here, *viz.*, the Harvard report *General Education in a Free Society.*

At the center of their scheme for general education, both in high school and college, the Harvard committee placed three inevitable areas of man's life and knowledge: "the physical world, man's corporate life, his inner

visions and standards"—(1) natural science with mathematics, (2) social studies, and (3) humanities, respectively. Justification for these threefold areas is found not only in their *content* but also in terms of their respective *methods* of knowledge. For example, the natural sciences "describe, analyze, and explain," while the humanities, consisting chiefly of English and the arts of music, drawing, painting, and modeling, "appraise, judge, and criticize."

While isolated excerpts are inadequate to describe the Harvard proposals, certain quotations dealing with high school are lifted out:

In school, in our opinion, general education in these three areas should form a continuing core for all, taking up at least half a student's time. That does not mean that all should have exactly the same courses. Accepting the course-unit system as established, at least for the present, despite its grave weaknesses . . ., that would amount to some eight units, preferably spaced by means of half-courses over the four years rather than compressed into two or three. The common and desirable division within these units would probably be three in English, three in science and mathematics, and two in social studies. But—and this is the important point—this half of the schoolwork to be spent on general education would seem to be the barest minimum, either for those not going on to college or for those who are. For the former, who will be ending their formal education, another course in each of the three areas seems nothing short of essential, and for the latter, who are going on, a deeper knowledge of one or more of the areas is no less so. (pp. 99–100)

Selection is the essence of teaching. Even the most compendious survey is only the rudest culling from reality. Since the problem of choice can under no circumstances be avoided, the problem becomes what, rather than how much to teach; or better, what principles and methods to illustrate by means of the information. (p. 63)

The atmosphere of the school, the informal role of the teacher and the activities—these are all media by which practice and habituation supplement the work of formal instruction in the school. (p. 173)

When the curriculum, the pervasive atmosphere of the school, and the activities, having done their best, still fall short of expected results, then the school must have recourse to types of instruction in specific subject matter. (p. 173)

Surely the hope of a sound general education is in teachers who are themselves generally educated.[20] (p. 26)

Numerous other proposals have been made for the general education of youth, as for example, the plan of the Educational Policies Commission in *Education for All American Youth*, previously mentioned in Unit VII. I. L. Kandel in his excellent volume, *The Impact of the War upon American Education*, compares and contrasts these two plans, and concludes:

As far as the function of secondary education is concerned, an examination of the facts revealed during the war justifies the conclusion that they point to the

[20] Harvard Committee, *General Education in a Free Society*, Chap. IV, Harvard University Press, 1945.

type of education advocated in the Harvard report rather than to that proposed by the Educational Policies Commission.[21]

Obviously much experimentation is needed with many types of programs for general education, and one or more may evolve that are superior to any yet proposed. The success of any plan "depends finally on the teacher's quality of mind and spirit."

2. *What Are the Imperative Needs of Youth?* The National Association of Secondary School Principals has developed a list of imperative needs based upon *Education for All American Youth.* These common and essential requirements are presented in Appendix VII as adapted from *Planning for American Youth.*[22]

3. *Is the Junior College Secondary or Higher Education?* Leonard V. Koos thus summarized a few of the many pros and cons of this issue:

Higher Education. The belief that the junior college is higher education finds its chief support in an important fact in the history of American education which is not common knowledge. Everyone knows that the preparatory offering of the 2-year junior college corresponds with the courses given in the first 2 years of colleges and universities, but too few are aware that this *content* was, in the main, inherited from the *upper* years of the college of a century ago. Even more to the point are the facts that the 4-year *junior college* now emerging on our educational scene coincides in age span of students with that of the *college* of a century or more ago. The curriculum of the modern 4-year junior college, like that of the old college, consists in a composite of what we think of as high-school and college education. In those earlier days this limited college comprehended higher education in the United States. . . .

Secondary Education. Advocacy of the attitude of regarding the junior college as secondary education had its origin in comparisons of the American system, inclusive of the junior college, with the organization of continental European education. In Europe the secondary schools—for example, the *Gymnasium* in Germany and the *lycée* and *collège* in France—carry through the equivalent of our second college year. There higher education proper, as represented by the university, begins where the secondary school ends. . . .

The most cogent consideration in behalf of regarding the junior college as secondary education emerges from its expansion from a merely preparatory institution to one in which the educational level it represents becomes universalized. Something of this expansion is suggested in the wide scope of service urged for the junior college by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association in its report, *Education for All American Youth.* . . . The full expansion of the junior college promises to be on a par with a prior universalization of the high-school level.

Conclusions. The gist of this review seems to be that both parties to the controversy are right. The advocates of regarding the junior college as higher educa-

[21] I. L. Kandel, *The Impact of the War upon American Education*, p. 122, University of North Carolina Press, 1948.

[22] *Bulletin of National Association of Secondary-school Principals*, March, 1947, pp. 1–144.

tion are right as to the *statics* of the junior college as an institution, which in its preparatory service reproduces the courses traditionally given in collegiate years. Whereas the advocates of regarding it as secondary education are right in respect to the *dynamics* of the institution, in some degree in a preparatory service to a rapidly expanding higher educational program but mainly in its progress toward a comprehensive democratic service.[23]

The author joins Koos in preferring the dynamic view of the junior college rising upward from the democratized lower school rather than the static view of one stemming from selective higher education downward.

Higher Education

1. *Shall Higher Learning in America Be Characterized by More "Intellectualism"?* Shall higher education be dominated by the conservatists' emphasis upon "intellectualism" rather than by a progresssive reliance upon an experimentalist theory of knowledge?

Pro. The outstanding exponent of intellectualism today is undoubtedly Robert M. Hutchins, chancellor of the University of Chicago. He believes in attempting an intellectual synthesis for the twentieth century that would be comparable to that of Thomas Aquinas in the thirteenth.[24] He insists that the way out of the chaos and confusion in higher education is through a return to the basic principles and truths of the intellect.

> A university education must chiefly be directed to inculcating the intellectual virtues, and these are the product of a vigorous intellectual effort. Such effort is the indispensable constituent of a university course of study.[25]

In his lectures at Yale University published in the volume, *The Higher Learning in America*, Chancellor Hutchins deplores an "antiintellectualism which denies, in effect, that man is a rational animal."[26]

In contrast with the progressives who emphasize social change and the desirability of preparing students for transition, Hutchins refers to Saint Thomas Aquinas of the thirteenth century and others to prove that permanence characterizes the rules of intellectual and collegiate activity:

> One purpose of education is to draw out the elements of our common human nature. These elements are the same in any time and place. The notion of educating a man to live in any particular place, to adjust him to any particular en-

[23] Leonard V. Koos, "Is the Junior College Secondary or Higher Education?" *Junior College Journal*, November, 1947, pp. 113–114.

[24] Oliver Martin, *Two Educators: Hutchins and Conant*, p. 4, Henry Regnery, 1948.

[25] Robert M. Hutchins, *No Friendly Voice*, p. 30, University of Chicago, 1936.

[26] Robert M. Hutchins, *The Higher Learning in America*, p. 26, Yale University, 1936.

vironment, is therefore foreign to a true conception of education. . . . Knowledge is truth. The truth is everywhere the same.[27]

Opposed to practical and vocational education, Hutchins argues for a general education to give a common intellectual training and a stock of basic ideas:

In general education, therefore, we may wisely leave experience to life and set about the task of intellectual training. If there are permanent studies which every person who wishes to call himself educated should master, if those studies constitute our intellectual inheritance, then those studies should be the center of a general education. . . . In any field the permanent studies on which the whole development of the subject rests must be mastered if the student is to be educated.[28]

These permanent studies consist of the reading of classic books and the study of grammar, rhetoric, logic, and mathematics:

We have then for general education a course of study consisting of the greatest books of the western world and the arts of reading, writing, thinking, and speaking, together with mathematics, the best exemplar of the processes of human reason. . . . If we wish to prepare the young for intelligent action, this course of study should assist us; for they will have learned what has been done in the past, and what the greatest men have thought. They will have learned to think for themselves. If we wish to lay a basis for advanced study, that basis is provided If we wish to secure true universities, we may look forward to them, because students and professors may acquire through this course of study a common stock of ideas and common methods of dealing with them.[29]

Thus Chancellor Hutchins aligns himself with the many conservatives "who partake of a strong tradition in American education and who look steadily to the distant past for philosophical, psychological, and educational guidance."[30]

Con. Diametrically opposed to the conservative point of view of rationalism, as exemplified by the brief quotations from Dr. Hutchins, is the progressive philosophy of experimentalism as preached by such leaders as Boyd H. Bode, John Dewey, Harry D. Gideonse, and Ernest O. Melby. Each of these is quoted briefly in relation to the conflict on intellectualism.

In his volume, *Progressive Education at the Crossroads*, Boyd H. Bode said:

We may concede that Dr. Hutchins has rendered a service to higher education in challenging it to state its program. At present, as he contends, it is oscillating

[27] *Ibid.*, pp. 66–67.
[28] *Ibid.*, pp. 70, 72.
[29] *Ibid.*, p. 85.
[30] R. Freeman Butts, *The College Charts Its Course*, p. 293, McGraw-Hill, 1939.

between the pursuit of truth and practicality. . . . The remedy, however, is not to eliminate practicality and thus return to the intellectual ideas of Plato and Aristotle and St. Thomas Aquinas. . . . The astonishing thing about Dr. Hutchins' proposal is that it ignores so completely the possibility of any alternative to his conception of truth. . . .

An alternative is offered if we will take the trouble to consider the implications of modern science, which has not only contributed enormously to the enrichment of the practical life, but has opened the way to the organization of the whole of life on a different basis from the past. One of the striking tendencies in the development of modern science is the tendency to shy away from the notion of absolute truth and to treat hypotheses or theories as mere "operational" concepts.[31]

In his Kappa Delta Pi lectures, John Dewey reasserted his faith in education that is grounded upon a well-developed philosophy of experience:

I assume that amid all uncertainties there is one permanent frame of reference: namely, the organic connection between education and personal experience, or, the new philosophy of education is committed to some kind of empirical and experimental philosophy. . . . The educational system must move one way or another, either backward to the intellectual and moral standards of prescientific age or forward to ever greater utilization of scientific method in the development of the possibilities of growing, expanding experience.[32]

The Hutchins-Dewey controversy, as reported in *Social Frontiers*, was accompanied by refutations of the Hutchins position and counterarguments.

Harry D. Gideonse, then professor of social science at the University of Chicago, attacked the position of his university president in a volume called *The Higher Learning in a Democracy*, in which he said that Hutchins was responsible for the rumor, if there be such, that " . . . the higher education in America is to forsake the path of science and humanistic concern for a democratic society and to return to the Ivory Tower of absolute metaphysics."[33] He criticized severely Hutchins' proposal "to substitute the classics of the western world for scientific training in our modern society."[34]

Ernest O. Melby, dean of education, New York University, commented thus upon Hutchins' *The Higher Learning in America:*

Proceeding upon a thesis of pure intellectualism the author excoriates the cosmopolitan character of the modern university. . . . The proposals for a general

[31] Boyd H. Bode, *Progressive Education at the Crossroads*, pp. 31, 32, 34, Newson, 1938.

[32] John Dewey, *Experience and Education*, pp. 12-13, 113-114, Macmillan, 1938.

[33] Harry D. Gideonse, *The Higher Learning in a Democracy*, p. 10, Farrar, 1937.

[34] *Ibid.*, p. 23.

education are little but a reversion to medievalism which gives little attention to modern life, modern writers and thinkers. The higher education should consist of metaphysics, natural and social sciences. . . . This scholasticism apparently takes no account of the findings of organismic psychology and biology, or of the decades of experience of American teachers in dealing with our millions of children.[35]

Trend. Marshaled against Chancellor Hutchins and his position are many other distinguished educators, but with him are aligned many mental giants of yesterday like Plato, Aristotle, John Locke, and Saint Thomas Aquinas, and well-known educators of today like Mortimer Adler of the University of Chicago and Stringfellow Barr, former president of St. John's College. This conflict in pedagogy is more actual in theory than in practice. There will always be an unstable equilibrium in higher education caused by such recurrent questions as the present one regarding intellectualism. To education belongs the perennial task of preserving stability and yet admitting change. As is often the case, going too far in one direction causes a reaction of equal extent in the other. The Hutchins controversy is part of an age-old conflict. Battles may be won now and then by either side, but the constant war goes on. At present the experimentalists seem to be winning over the exponents of intellectualism.

2. *Is the Admission of Students to College on Democratic Bases?* Telltale data and observations on this issue have been accumulated in numerous studies, including Benjamin Fine's *Admission to American Colleges,* and publications of the Committee on Discrimination in College Admissions, including *On Getting into College.*

Among the questionable practices followed by some colleges and universities in admission procedures are these: admitting veterans on the basis of General Educational Development (GED) tests and denying the privilege to other mature persons; giving preference to applicants from the state in which the institution is located; legislating against those who are foreign visitors because they are not citizens of the United States; setting up rigid subject-matter patterns for entrance; demanding extremely high tuition charges; favoring children of alumni; and discriminating against students on the basis of race and/or religion. On this latter procedure, Ordway Tead, Chairman of the Board of Higher Education of New York City, said in his Inglis Lecture on "Equalizing Educational Opportunities beyond the Secondary Schools":

The justifiable objection of minority groups in our society that they are being discriminated against in college entrance calls attention to an intolerable situation and one which a democratic society has to confront with greater candor than here-

[35] Ernest O. Melby, "20th Century Scholasticism," *Educational Trends,* December, 1936, pp. 22–23.

tofore. Equality of opportunity at the point of admission restrictions for members of minority groups is not a simple problem, to be solved in a hurry.[36]

Much progress has been made in recent years in opening higher educational opportunities to all qualified persons, without discriminations as to race or religion.

In his *Democratic Education,* Benjamin Fine wrote:

To become more democratic, the colleges should reexamine their position and put forth a program that will permit more competent high school graduates to attend. If the high schools were able to adapt themselves to a mass base, why not the colleges? . . . For many children in the lower income bracket, as the Minnesota and Harvard studies have shown, the very notion of college is a dream beyond their reach.[37]

College admission is not on a democratic basis as long as students who could benefit therefrom are denied the privilege because of economic difficulties. To aid these deserving students many types of scholarships have been established or proposed, including the National Science Foundation.

3. *Shall All Higher Education, Including Teacher Education, Be Administered through a Single State Agency?* The trend is toward centralization or at least coordination. Within the past two decades a strong movement has manifested itself among the states to unify the control of state higher educational institutions. Too often colleges are guilty of institutional self-aggrandizement and fail to limit their functions to the specific kind of work that they are best prepared to perform. Unwholesome competition must be replaced by some measure of legal or extralegal cooperation.

4. *What Is the Future of Regionalism in Higher Education in the United States?* Specifically, shall states enter upon plans for helping each other in developing an interstate program of higher education comparable with the plans of several Southern and Western commonwealths?

Regional cooperation in higher education has manifested itself in various ways, as indicated in Unit VIII. Several states contribute to the support of the Meharry Medical College at Nashville, Tennessee. The states of the TVA have set up a graduate program involving cooperation between the TVA laboratories and several universities. More than a dozen Southern states have launched a strong regional program, especially for graduate and professional education. Joseph E. Gibson, President of Northwestern State College of Louisiana, said:

While this effort aims at the development of regional institutions for Negroes, it is not directed solely to that end. It rather takes broad recognition of the fact

[36] Ordway Tead, *Equalizing Educational Opportunities beyond the Secondary School,* p. 29, Harvard University Press, 1947.

[37] Benjamin Fine, *Democratic Education,* p. 223, Harper, 1945.

that regional coordination is long overdue; that while mistakes have been made that cannot be fully rectified, it is not necessary to go on making mistakes; and that in the development of higher education for Negroes the same mistakes need not be made in the guise of equalizing educational opportunity.[38]

The Conference of Presidents of Negro Land-grant Colleges has voiced its opposition to the program, however, stating it would be a "disservice to higher education in the South." It is common knowledge that segregated education has not always given equal opportunity for Negroes. The "separate but equal" doctrine will require much study in its geographical, sociological, psychological, and economic setting. An ultimate solution to the problem will undoubtedly be worked out. The principle of regional cooperation in higher education is sound.

Education for Out-of-school Youth and Adults

1. *What Is the Role of School Services in Helping to Prevent and Correct Youth Delinquency?* By these services are meant the school-sponsored programs and activities that supplement and support the instructional program—those divisions, departments, or organized services which provide direct help to youth or to their parents and teachers in working with them.

In answer to this question, Bess Goodykoontz of the United States Office of Education listed the following services and their functions in the yearbook, *Juvenile Delinquency and the Schools:*

Guidance and Counseling. Counselors render an important service in the field of child study. A well-informed and understanding counselor acts as consultant to teachers, parents, and administrators, helping them to distinguish between isolated instances of irritation and annoyance which are best ignored, and occurrences which are indicative of basic needs or symptomatic of maladjustment. Counselors work directly and personally with children, helping them to make choices and to solve problems that arise in day-to-day life at school. Since the counselor recognizes that environment has much to do with what happens to individuals, he will try to establish the best possible conditions and atmosphere for children and adolescents.

Special Classes or Schools for Physically Handicapped, Mentally Retarded, and Emotionally Maladjusted. Special classes and schools for handicapped children provide a fine service in the adjustment of children. Experience has shown that with proper training and guidance, the majority of these boys and girls become adequate citizens in their own social groups.

Child-study Departments, Child-guidance Clinics. Teachers must realize that growth is never in a "straight line" or "easy," that even healthy children have rough spots. A teacher must be able to recognize serious problems that are beyond his skill to handle alone and to know what other resources are available. . . . Within

[38] Joseph E. Gibson, "Coordination of Facilities through Statewide and Regional Planning," *Current Trends in Higher Education*, p. 152, National Education Association, 1948.

a school system some provision is needed for psychological testing and consultation, for psychiatric and counseling services, for school social work or visiting-teacher services, and for remedial teachers.

Home-School Visitors, Visiting Teachers, School Social Workers. The school social worker (visiting teacher, home-and-school visitor) is one member of a group of specialists employed by the school to assist the classroom teacher. He works with the child, his parents, the teacher, other school personnel, and with social agencies in the community in an attempt to solve the difficulties which prevent the child's adequate participation in school activities.

Recreation—for All Children and Youth. The experiences of cities which have a congested population seem to show that a recreational program is the best single delinquency preventive yet evolved. As the social institution which serves all children and youth, the school needs to develop a recreational service commensurate with the need. This may mean that the school provides the community's total recreation program; or, in a community which has an active park and playground system or some other kind of public recreation program, that the school seeks to relate its services to that program to the end that all children, youth, and adults may be served.[39]

The school services can and should play an inconspicuous but significant role in the prevention and correction of juvenile delinquency.

2. *When Should Public Education End?* Specifically, shall adult education be made a legitimate part of public education?

It is difficult to establish terminal facilities for education at public expense. For persons physically or mentally handicapped, education at public expense should never cease. There is a growing conviction also that adult education, along with the education of out-of-school youth, should be a legitimate charge against public funds. In the years to come, adult learning will assume a more conspicuous and effective role than in the past.

3. *What Are the Educational Lessons from Wartime Training Programs in Adult Education?*

The volume, *Educational Lessons from Wartime Training*, contains several statements of fact regarding the adult education programs during the Second World War and also suggests "meanings for the future of adult learning." They are presented tersely here in tabulated form:

Second World War Program	Postwar Implications
Leadership	
Many veterans have had experience in adult education.	They returned to civilian life with some competence in adult education, but—even more important—with an interest in the field.

[39] Adapted from Bess Goodykoontz, "How School Services Help to Prevent Delinquency," in National Society for the Study of Education's *Juvenile Delinquency and the Schools*, pp. 100–125, University of Chicago Press, 1948.

Demand for More Education

Both army and navy found that there was a positive correlation between formal education and participation in their programs.

As more and more of our population is made up of people who have had formal schooling, a greater and greater demand will be made for adult education.

Relation of Learning to Everyday Life

In discussion programs, interest was generally higher and participation greater when the topic discussed had relevance to current world events, immediate problems, or geographical surroundings.

At every stage of the instructional process, the student should see clearly how his learning is related to the on-going aspects of his mature life.

Adult Motivation

The army and navy found that motivation must be maintained or the learning program failed.

Mature people simply do not undertake learning experiences unless they have a feeling of need for them.

Discussion Method

It was found in both army and navy that the educational program gave an opportunity for natural leaders to manifest themselves, for men to relieve personal tensions, and for problems which need special handling to come to light.

This principle has application particularly in educational programs carried out within broad agencies such as industrial and commercial concerns, labor unions, and cooperatives.

Methods of Presentation

It was shown on many occasions in army and navy that visual devices were more effective when they were coupled with other methods of presentation.

The use of many kinds of materials is more effective than the use of one kind.

Correspondence Courses

The army and navy programs gave a great impetus to this kind of instruction and indicated its potentialities to many people.

It is apparent that civilian adult educational instruction, particularly university extension divisions, have a great field of service open to them if they wish to develop a broader service in this area.

Influence on Attitudes

The attitudes of adults may be changed by presenting factual information. The results demonstrated that those who gained the most information also displayed the most improvement in attitudes.

Many civilian adult educators, with the impression that the attitudes of mature people are so fixed that nothing can be done about them, have restricted their objectives to skills and knowledges. They may be encouraged to attempt to achieve more significant goals.

Increase in Tolerance

Some of the programs, notably the army information and education activities, attempted to teach tolerance directly, with some evidence of success.	In civilian life, adult education activities may prove to be one of the best means of bringing together easily and naturally people of diverse cultures and backgrounds, and, thus, through common activity, reduce the tensions which they otherwise feel.[40]

As indicated in the preceding tabulation of quotations, adult education leaders can learn many lessons from the wartime training programs. However, one must constantly distinguish between *training* and *education*, and between programs that were generously supported in a war emergency, and those which are inadequately financed.

PERSONNEL IN PUBLIC EDUCATION

Pupils

1. *Shall Special Classes Be Organized for Exceptional Pupils?*—Specifically, shall separate classes be organized for bright children?

Pro. The two prevailing methods of educating exceptional children are to keep them with normal pupils and to segregate them by major classes, e.g., the gifted. In a recapitulation of the advantages of the latter method, *viz.*, special classes for gifted pupils, Arch O. Heck states:

> An advantage very often pointed out is that the special class provides the child with an opportunity to work to the level of this superior ability. His progress is not set at a slower tempo than his ability would permit. . . .
>
> The child does not develop habits of carelessness and slothfulness in doing his work. Many a child of unusual academic ability has wasted that ability because he never had to exert himself during his days in the public schools. . . .
>
> The enrichment program not only keeps the child profitably occupied, but makes it possible to adapt schoolwork to his unique abilities. The numerous projects undertaken give ample opportunity for making these adjustments. . . .
>
> The enriched program makes it possible for these children to progress through the grades normally with respect to chronological age. . . .
>
> The special class program may prevent social maladjustment. Superior children who attend the regular school are content to remain idle. . . .
>
> The special program helps the child put forth his best efforts. He realizes that he must work. . . .
>
> These youths secure a definite training for leadership along many lines.
>
> Gifted children, as Goddard puts it, "are made of finer stuff than the majority."

[40] Alonzo G. Grace, *Educational Lessons from Wartime Training*, pp. 155–159, American Council on Education, 1948.

The fact that they are more alert and think quicker creates a classroom problem when they are combined with normals.[41]

Con. In summarizing the objections frequently raised against special classes for bright pupils, Heck lists the following, many of which he says are based upon misunderstanding:

A common criticism is that when gifted children are segregated they become conceited. Whether or not this happens seems to depend upon the method followed in organizing the class. . . .

Another criticism is that such a plan is undemocratic. The problem here is one of definition. . . .

It is claimed that such classes create an intellectual aristocracy; a chasm is developed between those of high mental ability and those of average ability. . . .

Some hold the opinion that children in the regular classes become jealous of the children of greater ability. . . .

The claim is made that these children would tend to overwork. . . .

Again it is said that fewer leaders would be developed. Before grouping, every class had one or more able leaders. When these leaders are all assembled in one class, it is claimed that only three or four develop, whereas there were 30 or 40 before. . . .

Another contention is that the regular grade children are losers when the gifted are withdrawn. . . .

There are those who say that implements for selecting the gifted are inadequate. This can be frankly admitted. . . .

A serious practical difficulty is the matter of cost. The per capita costs will be greater if the advantages of a smaller teacher load and of greater facilities for an enriched program are to be offered.[42]

President Conant of Harvard, making a special plea for gifted high-school students, wrote in his volume, *Education in a Divided World:*

Let those concerned primarily with high-school education agree (*a*) to explore more sympathetically the ways and means of discovering a special talent at an early age; (*b*) to provide a stronger motivation among many groups to evolve a greater degree of intellectual curiosity; and (*c*) to provide better formal instruction for those of high scholastic aptitude—all this to be accomplished without a segregation which might turn the boys and girls in question into either prigs or academic snobs.[43]

Trend. The number of special *classes* for exceptional pupils, including the gifted, is increasing. Segregation of handicapped children in special *schools* is not gaining in favor. Several types of exceptional children may

[41] Arch O. Heck, *The Education of Exceptional Children*, pp. 401–402, McGraw-Hill, 1940.

[42] *Ibid.*, pp. 398–401.

[43] James Bryant Conant, *Education in a Divided World*, p. 145, Harvard University Press, 1948.

be found in certain state residential schools, like the Virginia School for the Deaf and Blind, and in local institutions, such as the Smouse Opportunity School of Des Moines, Iowa. In the Illinois plan for special education of the handicapped is this statement indicative of the current trend:

> An essential objective in the education of handicapped children is to prepare them to take their places in the social and economic life of their community. It is a corollary of this principle that no child should be served in a special class if he is able to take his place in the regular classroom. Most classes for special education should be so located that the contacts with normal children in school and on the playground will naturally develop. Certain activities of the school such as assemblies should include the special classes as spectators and when possible as participants. At the same time, warning is necessary against overstimulation that may result from too much contact with the normal children on the part of certain handicapped children, such as those with cerebral palsy.
>
> It follows that children in special classes should be transferred back to the regular class as soon as the need for special attention ceases. Special classes should be closely coordinated with regular special training made imperative by his handicap. Group instruction is preferable and home classes should be used only as a resort when the child cannot attend regular or special classes in the school. The needs of some handicapped children can be best met by the provision of special or supplementary services such as transportation, speech correction service, lip reading, etc., without recourse to special classes.

The grouping of pupils and the methodology of instruction depend in a practical school situation upon the specific needs of the exceptional child, the training of the teacher, and the available facilities and finances.

2. *Shall All Pupils Be Promoted?* Shall all schools adopt the policy of promoting every child every year, provided he attends school with some degree of regularity?

Pro. The proponents of all-out promotions have many reasons:

> In this manner the child may *grow* at his own rate.
>
> By promoting each child with his own age group it may be possible to make a more careful diagnosis of the pupil's difficulties.
>
> It is possible to group children in classes and within classes in such a manner as to bring out the highest individual potentialities.
>
> Numerous studies have been made to show that nonpromotion too often leads to personal and social difficulties, to frustrated or unbalanced behavior in individuals. The child's mental health is adversely affected by his failure of promotion with his age group.
>
> The social relationships which accompany progress with the group are certainly very good.
>
> A better self-respect on the part of the child is possible.[44]

[44] Adapted from Lloyd H. Elliott, "Promote All—in the Public Schools?" *Educational Forum*, November, 1948, pp. 69–72.

Numerous other arguments can be summoned for support of the proposal, not the least of which is that it answers a rather knotty public relations problem of both administrators and teachers. The temporary reaction of parents is usually favorable—their child is not stigmatized as a failure.

Con. On the other side of the fence are these arguments:

It is possible that the activities, progressing as a group through certain stages of school life, might become of such complexity as to be of little meaning for the slowest member of the group.

To start a group of children in the first grade at six or seven years of age and to promote every one every year, simply denies the existence of differences among those individuals.

A further assumption in the nonfailure theory is that each child must, to have the benefits of maximum growth, climb one rung of the educational ladder each year until he reaches the top.

Such a theory of yearly promotions implies, too, that each class or group will be made up of pupils of approximately the same chronological age. Chronological age is used to determine the placement of each layer of social growth.

Life is not a never-ending, never-changing advance from one level of success to another.

The practice of promoting every child every year denies that *any* normal child can ever benefit by spending an additional year at any level of the educational ladder.

It denies further the existence of *any* degree of achievement as a prerequisite to the richer understanding and meaning of the social activities of any group.

To promote all appears to be only an administrative technique for evading the real issue.[45]

Trend. There has been a trend toward promotion for all, but a modification in policy seems in the offing; it is in the direction of reducing failures. Smaller classes, improved learning tools, better evaluation, and more competent teachers aid in the earned promotion of pupils.

3. *Are the Educational Opportunities of Children of Minority Groups Commensurate with Those of the More Fortunate?* Many individuals and groups, including the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, answer this question with an emphatic "No!" In some places the opportunities are equal, but usually they are inferior. As previously pointed out, the problem of minority groups is one deeply rooted in the social structure of America and is fraught with danger to the whole population.

4. *Is School Discipline Out of Date?* Is discipline a minor function in the training of children? Shall teacher-educating institutions give less attention to equipping teachers to meet problems of discipline?

There are those who would banish from educational vocabulary and

[45] *Ibid*

practice the word "discipline." The concept of discipline in its highest sense of discipleship should not be discarded if education is to build genuine character. Many years ago Edmund Burke said: "Society cannot exist unless a controlling power upon will and appetite be placed somewhere; and the less of it there is within, the more there must be without." Self-discipline is, of course, more satisfactory than external pin-drop discipline. President A. G. Ruthven of the University of Michigan in a baccalaureate address, "Discipline as a Factor in Social Integration," stated that the development of self-control is, or should be, the main objective of education. Since no teacher can be a success until he or she has learned the art of classroom discipline, teacher-educating institutions and writers of educational textbooks must not neglect this aspect of education. It is significant that when administrators or boards of education seek new teachers, many times their first question is: "Can she maintain discipline?" Too much softness, and not enough preventive and remedial measures, may prove the undoing of many beginners in the teaching-learning art.

Teachers

1. *Should Communists Teach in American Universities?*

Pro. In answer to this question George E. Axtelle of the School of Education at New York University wrote in *Educational Forum:*

> A good case might be made for deliberately searching out and appointing communists as such to university faculties, providing they are otherwise intellectually and academically competent. The best inoculation against error, chicanery, and distortion is experience with it in a free and critical atmosphere. We must know the minds of our opponents. The bitterest opponents of the Communist Party regularly read *The Daily Worker* in order to understand and anticipate them. The surest protection against "dangerous thoughts," and their surest test, is the market place of ideas. Thoughts become dangerous when driven underground, in an atmosphere of suppression, when spread in a situation from which other ideas are excluded.[46]

A somewhat similar position has been taken by Professor Alexander Meiklejohn, former president of Amherst College, who wrote in the *New York Times:*

> Our American doctrine expresses our confidence that whenever, in the field of ideas, the advocates of freedom and the advocates of suppression meet in fair and unabridged discussion, freedom will win. . . . The most tragic mistake of the contemporary American mind is its failure to recognize the inherent strength and stability of free institutions when they are true to themselves. Democracy is not

[46] George E. Axtelle, "Should Communists Teach in American Universities?" *Educational Forum*, May, 1949, pp. 425–432.

a weak and unstable thing which forever needs propping up by the devices of dictatorship.[47]

Con. In the same issue of *Educational Forum*, Raymond B. Allen, president of the University of Washington, presents a different point of view in his article, "Communists Should Not Teach in American Colleges":

Freedom, I believe, is the most essential ingredient of American civilization and democracy. In the American scheme educational institutions are the foundation stones on which real freedom rests. Educational institutions can prosper only as they maintain free teaching and research. To maintain free teaching and research the personnel of higher education must accept grave responsibilities and duties as well as rights and privileges of the academic profession. A teacher must, therefore, be a free seeker after the truth. . . . This kind of freedom is not allowed the member of the Communist Party. . . .

The freedom that America prizes so much, then, is a positive and constructive concept. It starts, of course, by maintaining a freedom from restraint. . . . This kind of freedom, I submit, is not allowed the members of the Communist Party. . . . A member of the Communist Party has abdicated control over his intellect. . . . His lack of freedom disqualifies him from professional service as a teacher. Because he is not free, I hold that he is incompetent to be a teacher. Because he asserts a freedom he does not possess, I hold that he is intellectually dishonest to his profession. Because he has failed to be a free agent, because he is intolerant of the beliefs of others, and because education cannot tolerate organized intolerance, I hold that he is in neglect of his most essential duty as a teacher. For these reasons I believe that Communism is an enemy of American education and that members of the Communist Party have disqualified themselves for service as teachers.[48]

Sidney Hook, chairman of the Department of Philosophy at New York University, takes the opposite point of view from his colleague Axtelle, stating that known Communists should not be allowed to teach in American colleges, because:

A party line is laid down for every area of thought from art to zoology. No person who is known to hold a view incompatible with the party line is accepted as a member. . . . The conclusions [of the Communist teachers] are not reached by free inquiry into evidence. To stay in the Communist Party they must believe and teach what the party lines decree.[49]

Trend. The Educational Policies Commission, in its document, *Amer-*

[47] Alexander Meiklejohn, "Should Communists Be Allowed to Teach?" *New York Times*, Magazine Section, March 27, 1949, pp. 10, 64–66.

[48] Raymond B. Allen, "Communists Should Not Teach in American Colleges," *Educational Forum*, May, 1949, pp. 433–440.

[49] Sidney Hook, "Should Communists Be Allowed to Teach?" *New York Times* Magazine Section, February 27, 1949, pp. 7, 22.

ican Education and International Tensions, clearly enunciated what may become the general policy for schools and colleges of America:

> Members of the Communist Party of the United States should not be employed as teachers. Such membership, in the opinion of the Educational Policies Commission, involves adherence to doctrines and discipline completely inconsistent with the principles of freedom on which American education depends. Such membership, and the accompanying surrender of intellectual integrity, render an individual unfit to discharge the duties of a teacher in this country.[50]

The commission condemned the careless, incorrect, and unjust use of such words as "red" and "communist" to attack teachers and other persons who in point of fact are not Communists but merely have views different from those of their accusers. The whole spirit of free American education will be subverted unless teachers are free to think for themselves. The great difficulty comes, of course, in determining who shall decide whether a teacher is a Communist. This situation may require a decision from an authority as high as the United States Supreme Court.

2. *Shall Teachers Have Freedom of Speech?* This is related to the preceding issues. Thinking about academic freedom must not become too narrow:

> Only when we widen the focus can we hope to get a true picture of academic freedom, and this broadening must be sufficient to include the entire social pattern. It must bring into focus not only the teacher and the administration, but also the pupil who sits in the classroom, the parents who send their children to school and pay the taxes, and the *fundamental values of the social pattern*.[51]

A teacher with good taste and sound scholarship who does not go to the extreme limits in pursuit of academic freedom should encounter few difficulties. No one should take too literally the avowed guarantee of academic freedom, since practical limits always seem to be considerably narrowed. A national study indicates that, while few teachers are dismissed, demoted, or otherwise disciplined for exercising free speech, the majority of them deal cautiously and speak guardedly on controversial subjects because of fear of punishment. This indicates that there are some limits to academic freedom but that most teachers evidently do not transgress. The subjects that are most dangerous to teach include communism, religion, sex, politics, economics, and international relations. The emphasis should be on freedom for the learner to learn rather than on license for the teacher to say any thing any time. The higher the academic level of the learner the greater should be the academic freedom of the teacher.

[50] Educational Policies Commission, *American Education and International Tensions*, pp. 39–40, National Education Association, 1949.

[51] S. E. Frost, Jr., "Academic Freedom: A New Perspective," *Educational Forum*, March, 1949, p. 347.

3. *Shall Teachers Join Labor Unions?* The answer of the National Educational Association is emphatically "No." In a classic editorial, Joy Elmer Morgan of the *NEA Journal* wrote "A Declaration of Professional Independence," in which he penned these poignant phrases:

> Teachers' unions are born of desperation and thrive on catastrophe. As conditions improve they will diminish, as they did after World War I. Even at their peak they have grown less rapidly than our professional associations. Our National Education Association, with its affiliated state and local associations, is the only organization that unites or has the possibility of uniting the great body of teachers in this country.

Teacher membership in unions varies widely, depending partly on whether labor unions are strong or weak in the community. In many schools the board of education has expressed its policy in this matter. For example, the Board of Education in Detroit, Michigan, stated its practice concerning employee memberships in organizations as follows:

> Employees of the board of education are assured, as far as the board is concerned, and pursuant to its established policy, continuance of employment will not be affected in any way by membership or nonmembership in any craft, technical, professional, fraternal, or employee organization not subversive in character; further that employees are free to join or to refrain from joining any such organization without jeopardizing their employment by so doing; also that whether they be members or nonmembers of such organization, employees may continue to bring to the board and its committee for consideration and adjustment any matter concerning their employment or relationship to the board.

It is desirable to make membership or nonmembership in unions a matter of personal choice, without coercion either way. The American Federation of Teachers, the only teachers' organization affiliated with the American Federation of Labor, was organized in Chicago in 1916. Its membership increased greatly in the past decade. The trend is toward affiliation with labor groups, although only a very small percentage of all teachers are now members of a union.

4. *Should Teachers Strike?*

Pro. O. John Rogge, former assistant attorney general of New Jersey, stated:

> Teachers need not sugar-coat the word "strike" into "abstention from work" or the word "picket" into "observer." For my part, I hope that our miserably underpaid teachers strike and call it such, and that they picket and likewise call it such.[52]

[52] O. John Rogge, "Do Teachers Have the Legal Right to Strike?" *School Board Journal*, May, 1947, p. 27.

Con. Dr. W. E. Peik, dean of the College of Education at the University of Minnesota and former president of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, stated in an address to that organization:

> On the whole the use of the strike by teachers, I believe, will secure local progress here and there, but will lose more for us in the aggregate. Like war, the strike should be made socially unnecessary through education. That is why we should seldom use it.

Trend. The typical reaction of professional workers is found in the resolution adopted by the American Association of School Administrators in convention assembled:

> We disapprove the use of the strike as a means of securing the rights of professional workers. This type of conduct will react ultimately to the detriment of teaching as a profession. All efforts for improvement, to retain community support, must be on a professional level through representatives democratically selected with recognition that the educational interests of the pupil are paramount.
>
> We deplore the existence of conditions which have caused teachers in a few communities to resort to the strike method as a final recourse. Those within the profession and those responsible for the management and financing of the public schools have a duty and responsibility of providing effective means of giving impartial consideration to the teachers' proposals for equitable treatment.

The American Federation of Labor (AFL) pledged itself to a "no strike" policy. The organization, however, also pledged itself to support local unions in efforts to obtain adequate salaries and satisfactory working conditions and redress for legitimate grievances.

In nearly all communities there will be no need for teacher strikes if interested committees representing the public, the board of education, and the teachers work together on problems of teacher salaries, working conditions, living arrangements, and other matters of teacher welfare. Informed and alert citizens will see that justice is done to the teaching profession and to the children of America.

5. *Shall Teachers Be Rated on the Basis of Merit?* That is, shall all teachers in a system be given efficiency ratings on their work?

In an editorial in *School Executive*, Walter D. Cocking breaks this problem into three parts:

> 1. Should teachers be rated on merit? The solution to the first part of the problem would seem to depend upon the ability of school groups to devise a plan which is fair and which will work.
>
> 2. How should merit ratings be made and administered? The successful demonstrations of merit programs indicate several interesting factors: (*a*) A community and school system must be conditioned for any merit system. (*b*) An acceptable

merit program must be developed cooperatively. (*c*) Any plan developed should be studied critically and ample opportunity should be provided for revision. (*d*) Undoubtedly the plan should be tried out and any additional necessary revisions made before it is presented for formal adoption. (*e*) A committee of teachers and administrators should study the program in action. (*f*) Full information regarding the program's operation should be made available to all concerned.

3. There remains the problem of what use shall be made of the results obtained from a rating program. While much of the current agitation for merit ratings has arisen in connection with salary increases for teachers, salary determination is only one of several possible uses.[53]

With the increases in teachers' salaries must come improvement in quality of work. In many communities that are skeptical about merit ratings, they might be made initially on a trial basis without salary attachments. If merit ratings are devised that are fair, equitable, and inclusive, then salary adjustment, in part at least, can be made on the basis of the quality and quantity of the teacher's work.

The main needs for initiating and implementing a merit system are a democratic philosophy of human values in education, a broad and comprehensive program of "insightful evaluation" rather than mere mechanical rating, an improvement in instruments and techniques for evaluating teacher services, a higher degree of educational statesmanship in administration, a retooling of the minds of teachers toward their standards of performance, special consideration for the beginning or inexperienced teacher, freedom for the teacher to meet the needs of growing children and democratic living, a recognition of the value of travel and learning experiences other than academic courses, and the subordination of personal financial rewards to the high goal of self-improvement for the enhanced learning and living of the learner.

Other Personnel

1. *Shall Federal Social Security Include Teachers and Nonteaching Personnel?* When social security legislation was enacted into law in 1935, it did not include those employed in educational institutions operated on a nonprofit basis or employees of federal, state, and local governments. Since then many teachers, professors, and nonteaching personnel have evinced interest in retirement and survivorship protection under the federal plan. The American Council of Education has gone on record as favoring the extension of benefits under social security legislation to nonprofit charitable, religious, and educational institutions and organizations, whether privately or publicly controlled (mandatory for the first group and volun-

[53] Walter D. Cocking, "Judging Merit in Teaching," *School Executive*, September, 1947, p. 5.

tary for the second). Most teachers and professors are covered by some type of retirement system. However, in conjunction with social security, public and private systems of schools and colleges could be rewritten so as to give at least equal protection to the long-time employees and some benefits to those individuals who move between presently covered and noncovered employment.[54]

2. *Shall Nonteaching Employees Be Selected on the Merit Basis?* Obviously the answer is "Yes," but unfortunately much current practice does not harmonize with the best in theory. Improved methods of selecting the nonteaching personnel of the schools are urgently needed. Many of the nonteaching positions mentioned in Unit XII are available through civil service. Since the smooth administration of all institutions of learning is strengthened by the efficiency of the nonteaching personnel, well-defined principles of selection, high standards in appointments, and adequate provisions for social security must be established.

3. *Shall School Employees Be Required to Take an Oath of Allegiance?* Specifically, shall teachers be obligated to take such an oath?

Much intangible pressure has been brought to bear upon outspoken teachers and school employees. The usual effort at legal control takes the overt form of an oath of allegiance. In some states teachers in private as well as public schools must submit to this requirement. The trend is to require teachers to swear allegiance to state and country. Waves of patriotism and the danger of subversive foreign influence cause periodic crests of compulsion. I. L. Kandel editorialized in *School and Society* on the serious dilemma in the situation:

> On the one hand, it is agreed that Communists, because of their ideological affiliations, can neither pursue nor tell the truth because they believe that the end justifies the means. Hence they would have neither hesitation nor compunction in taking the oath with an easy conscience. . . . On the other hand, an even more serious consequence than this is the suspicion that will be engendered in the minds of the public that teachers as a class differ from other citizens and must be watched and their loyalty be guaranteed by oaths. . . . There is no justification for singling out the one profession—teaching—and insisting that its members prove their loyalty on oath.[55]

If an oath is required of teachers, it has been suggested that anyone making an accusation of disloyalty must file the charge under oath, together with the facts and circumstances!

[54] Francis J. Brown and J. Roland Kufus, *Relationships of Education and the Federal Government*, pp. 10–13, American Council on Education, 1949.

[55] I. L. Kandel, "The Logic of Loyalty Oaths," *School and Society*, July 2, 1949, p. 11.

A disloyal teacher cannot be sworn into allegiance to democracy. No one can be made loyal by administering an oath to him. Enjoying the full rights guaranteed him by the Constitution and Bill of Rights, a teacher can interpret their benefits with greater insight and deeper zeal. It goes without saying that the ideals, traditions, and Constitution of the United States must be upheld by Americans of all ages and classes. But education that inculcates an innate love of country is a more potent means to this end than is legislation that involves external compulsion.

PROVISIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL MATERIALS AND ENVIRONMENT

Curriculum

1. *What Shall Be the Relation of Religion to Public Education?* This is not a new issue. Horace Mann, as secretary of the state board of education in Massachusetts over a hundred years ago, fought to exclude from the school any narrow sectarian religious teaching. He nevertheless entertained the hope that schools would find a way to foster religious faith in a nonsectarian way. This dream has not been realized. Sectarianism has been replaced by secularism; narrow denominationalism has been followed by irreligious worldliness.

This issue has been explored by groups such as the American Council on Education, which, as a first step in its study, published *The Relation of Religion to Public Education.* In its conclusion, the Committee on Religion and Education stated:

> In brief, the problem is how to find a way to give due recognition in public education to the place of religion in the culture and in the convictions of our people while at the same time safeguarding the separation of church and state. A solution, as we see it, requires the charting of a middle course between the existing situation and the adoption of expedients which are unwarranted. The exclusion of religion from the public schools which so largely prevails today results in its relegation in the minds of youth to a position of relative unimportance. This runs counter, we believe, to the intention of the American school system from the beginning. On the other hand, any educational innovation which would tend to identify public education with a particular body of sectarian beliefs and practices, we hold to be not only impracticable but improper.[56]

The testimony of the ages is that church and state should be separated. Whether public schools generally can teach religion *explicitly* as well as implicitly is a question that will probably be unsolved for many years to come.

[56] Committee on Religion and Education, *The Relation of Religion to Public Education,* American Council on Education, p. 49, 1947.

2. *Shall Sex Education Be Taught in the Schools?* This issue raises many questions.

What is sex education? It is more than the story of flowers, bees, and birds, and the sex life of animals and humans. It is more than teaching the biological facts of life. It is more than such narrow topics as venereal diseases. It is a broad approach to the personal guidance and social adjustment of children, youth, and adults. In its wider aspects it may be called personal and social adjustment, orientation to life, wholesome living, or family relations.

Where shall it be taught or learned? Too much sex education is gleaned at the so-called "gutter level," in the back streets, poolrooms, and isolated retreats, and through direct illicit experience. Worthy family relations should be started in the home, extended in the school and college, and elevated in church and synagogue. Since the issue is here delimited to schools, the accent is placed there.

When shall sex education be taught? As a part of family relations it can be learned implicitly in the early grades, building upon the groundwork of the family at the home, as suggested in such pamphlets as *How to Tell Your Child about Sex*. Subject to parental understanding and cooperation and guarded limitations, the major stress upon sex education can be placed in the secondary school as a phase of the larger problems of personal and social adjustment. In college and classes for out-of-school youth and adults the accent shifts to courtship and marriage, care of the child, home life, and family relationships, thus completing the cycle.

Who should be taught? First of all, suggestions for teaching sex education should be given to parents and to teachers. A community institute on family living can serve as an adult preparation for a cooperative home-school program for children and youth.

Who should teach? Bringing in outside specialists often calls too much attention to the subject. The potential teachers are school nurses, school doctors, and teachers in related fields such as home economics, biology, health and physical education, psychology, social sciences, and others. Teacher-educating institutions and state certification agencies need to direct attention to the needs for well-qualified teachers in this growing field.

How shall learners be taught? First of all, the method should bring about a wholesome attitude toward the human body and human society. Sex education, if taught, must be presented on a high moral plane. Group instruction must be supplemented by personal guidance. Much factual material can be presented through audio-visual aids, which should be carefully prepared and previewed by various groups. Obviously not everything should be taught. Human decency, group heterogeneity, and the proprieties of society demand sacred silences and planned omissions.

3. *Can the Gap between General and Vocational Education Be Bridged?* Unfortunately a misunderstanding has arisen in the minds of many people in regard to the relationship of general and vocational education. The issue is often one of academic vs. vocational, general vs. specific, theoretical vs. practical. This issue becomes increasingly important as secondary schools admit all young people of high-school age.

It is helpful to dip below the surface ripples and ask, "What is the major purpose of education in a democratic society?" The chief aim is to promote the optimal development of all individuals in American society. Both general and vocational education contribute to this unified purpose.

> General education should concern itself with the development of common ideals, understandings, and abilities, and with the cultivation of special capacities, abilities, and interests *up to the point of developing technical competence.* Special (or vocational) education should concern itself with the development of technical proficiency in a context of common ideals, understandings, and abilities.[57]

Teachers of academic and vocational subjects need to sign a declaration of interdependence. Federal aid for vocational education should be consolidated with general aid for elementary and secondary education. Particularly in an unstratified society is it necessary to maintain unity in education and to provide funds and opportunities for vocational education without sharply isolating it.

4. *Shall Controversial Subjects Be Discussed in the Schools?* That is, shall debatable issues be discussed in elementary, secondary, and higher educational institutions by the students, teachers, or both, backed by such facts as can be marshaled to support their opinions?

Well-guided discussion of controversial problems of interest to the students and appropriate to their respective levels is an aid in teaching and learning. Certain questions cannot be discussed intelligently by children in the lower grades. Furthermore some subjects, such as religious controversies, are taboo in any public school. Of course, what may be controversial in one school or community may not be so in another. Disputable issues are bound to arise in democratic America. But since these questions may often be freighted with dynamite, they must be handled with care. The crucial problem is how to select issues and relate them to the curriculum design of the school. The Junior Town Meeting League has suggested that the following questions be raised:

1. Is this issue significant or timely?
2. Is this issue, or some aspect of it, within the range of the knowledge and competence of the students?

[57] Harold Alberty, "Bridging the Gap between General and Vocational Education in High School," *Educational Forum*, January, 1949, p. 214.

3. Is the issue within the limits of the interests and experiences of the students?

4. Are materials available from which a reasonable amount of data may be gathered?

5. Will the issue require more time for a satisfactory study then the class can afford to give to it?

6. Will the consideration of the problem contribute to a meeting of minds?

7. Will a consideration of the problem contribute to the realization of broad curriculum objectives?

8. Do the issues grow out of the broad framework of the curriculum?

9. Will the consideration of the issue help students to recognize that every question has more than one side and that on each side are many points of view?

10. Will the consideration of the issue by the group be acceptable to the community as appropriate for school study?[58]

Discussion of debatable issues should provide an opportunity for the pupil to learn rather than for the teacher to preach or propagandize.

5. *Shall the Curriculums of the Schools of the United States Seek to Promote International Understanding?* Yes, that is a positive trend. From kindergarten through graduate school, by means of countless curricular subjects (especially languages and social science), by cocurricular activities, and by exchange of scholarships, the schools can help to develop a spirit of interdependence based upon mutual understanding. The pupils now in the schools ought to be intelligent world citizens. "If our children are to make a contribution to the attainment and maintenance of peace and to the development of a stable world order, they will be called upon constantly to interpret events in the light of these factors."[59]

A specific issue in international education is whether or not communism should be taught. Dwight D. Eisenhower, president of Columbia University, stated: "Ignorance of communism, fascism, or any other police-state philosophy is far more dangerous than ignorance of the most virulent disease." The Educational Policies Commission advised that members of the Communist Party of the United States should not be employed as teachers, but proposed that:

> Young citizens should have an opportunity to learn about the principles and practices of totalitarianism, including those represented by the Soviet Union and by the Communist Party in the United States.
>
> Teaching about communism or any other form of dictatorship does not mean advocacy of these doctrines. Such advocacy should not be permitted in American schools.

[58] Junior Town Meeting League, *Teaching Controversial Issues*, pp. 9–10, The League, 1948, Columbus, Ohio.

[59] The Committee on International Relations, *Education for International Understanding in American Schools*, p. 9, National Education Association, 1948.

The schools should continue with vigor their program for giving young citizens a clear understanding of the principles of the American way of life and a desire to make these principles prevail in their own lives and in the life of their country.[60]

This approach enables the teacher to stress American citizenship but to place it significantly in the larger context of world relationships.

Cocurricular Activities

1. *Are School Tournaments Educational?*

Pro. A basketball coach summons the following arguments to prove that tournaments may be educational:

To a player the experiences gained at a tournament are invaluable.

Playing before critical crowds against excellent competition calls for individual coordination coupled with team cooperation.

The player learns an essential lesson in life as well as basketball—that one must be able not only to win graciously but also to face defeat with courage.

Much has been said by critics of tournaments about the injurious effect of successive days' games on the player's health. These critics cannot be aware of the fact that the actual playing time of a game is only thirty-two minutes, and that these thirty-two minutes are broken up by rest periods that can total thirty-four minutes, not including the short periods of inactivity during free throws and out-of-bounds plays.

The community which follows the team into a tournament profits to a great extent from its support of the team.

In many instances the desire for better school plants and educational facilities has had its inception in just such contemplation of the school units in other communities.

As hosts to basketball tournaments, many communities have discovered and utilized unsuspected talents for planning and organization.

In addition to these direct educational benefits resulting from basketball tournaments, could be mentioned the stimulation and growth of many school activities. In how many schools would there be as good bands, choral singing, marching units, and cheering sections if there were no tournaments?[61]

These and other arguments, such as that the tournaments are controlled by educators, support the contention that tournaments are educational.

Con. On the other side, a superintendent of schools gives this adverse criticism of touraments in general:

[60] Educational Policies Commission, *American Education and International Tensions*, *op. cit.*, pp. 37–40.

[61] W. W. Mitchell, "Are Tournaments Educational?" *Minnesota Journal of Education*, April, 1940, p. 308.

Declamation and debate, carried on toward championship tournaments, may distract students for months from their regular work.

There is suspicion in the minds of calm and conservative people that winning is more important to the participants than is clean sportsmanship and unselfish effort.

Frequently the result of interscholastic athletic contests, from girls' swimming to boys' football, is to engender hatred, distrust, vindictiveness and other anti-social results among both participants and onlookers.

As tournaments are organized, the social values all but completely disappear, and the spectators become "sports fans" from the interested communities gathered to witness a *spectacle.*

During the regular playing season coaches are careful to see that schedules provide ample time for rest and recuperation. The tournaments upset this whole natural order of things. In effect the tournament is based upon theory that the entire season's play has been done for naught, except a little preliminary practice for the great public spectacle of the year where to win is the objective. The season's honors are to be determined by a single cast of the dice.

Tournament schedules have no regard for the physical well-being of the members of the competing teams. Teams are sometimes required to play two hard games in the same day.

Add to these objections the inequalities of what is popularly spoken of as "the breaks" where one team may draw a "by," etc.[62]

In view of these and other facts, the writer on the negative side of the question suggests that it probably would be more sensible to declare the team with the highest season average the winner within the district, with provisions for a play-off in case of a tie.

Trend. Tournaments, particularly athletic competition in high schools and colleges, are here to stay. Educators are constantly striving to reduce the attendant evils in these contests. Fortunately intramural sports are on the increase. In most communities, however, one does not take the place of the other; both are demanded. For younger boys and girls a real danger exists in interscholastic competition. Most recognized authorities in health and physical education advise against interschool competition, especially in football and basketball, for junior-high-school students.

2. *Shall Secret Societies Be Permitted in Public Elementary and High Schools?* The high-school fraternity and sorority are not without their defenders, who say that such organizations satisfy the natural urge for close friendship engendered by membership in closed groups, and that they prepare for the pattern of college and adult life. But on the elementary- and high-school levels these organizations are objectionable

[62] C. E. Hagie, "Are Tournaments Educational?" *Minnesota Journal of Education,* April, 1940, pp. 308–309.

on at least three counts: they are inconsistent with the democratic way of life, they may be harmful to the boy or girl who joins them, and they are often detrimental to the school that has to contend with them. With so many varied clubs and activities available, it seems unnecessary to implant secret organizations in educational institutions below the collegiate level.

3. *Shall School Services, Such as Recreational and Camping Programs, Be Made Available on a Year-round Basis?* Shall pupils have directed educational experience for 12 months and the teachers have employment the year round? In its look into the future, the Educational Policies Commission furnished educational services of a cocurricular nature to pupils on a 12-month basis in the hypothetical Farmville elementary schools. An actual example of such a program is the Glencoe, Illinois, elementary district. Paul J. Misner, superintendent of the school, stated one argument for the program thus:

> Prior to the adopting of the all-year plan, an effort had been made in our community to improve the program of summer recreational activities for children. In these efforts the lack of trained leadership presented a continuing problem. Since the adoption of this plan it has been possible each year to provide a limited number of school personnel, who have contributed significantly to the improvement of the summer experiences of children.[63]

One of the significant developments for summer activities is camping experience.

4. *Shall American Youth Who Reach Voting Age Be Given Formal Recognition?* Shall citizenship day be a national project?

Many young men and women reach voting age each year, without receiving any public recognition and without realizing the significance of citizenship in a self-governing republic. To remedy this deficiency, a formal type of recognition may well be a cardinal part of a nation-wide program for all new voters.

Educational Supplies, Equipment, and Buildings

1. *Shall Each State Establish a Uniform System of Textbooks through State-wide Adoption?*

Pro. The case for uniformity may be outlined thus:

> Under state adoption the cost of textbooks will be less, as adoptions are likely to be made for longer terms, and publishers will be able to reduce prices in consideration of the large orders assured. Moreover, with the adoption once made it

[63] Paul J. Misner, "Teachers' Role in All-year Program," *Journal of National Education Association*, November, 1948, pp. 500–501.

becomes unnecessary for the publisher to maintain an expensive sales force in the state. Strict state regulations with respect to contract and the keen competition for the state-wide adoptions also tend to keep prices at a minimum.

Uniformity in the essentials of the educational process is desirable. The preparation and enforcement of a minimum program will be facilitated by state-wide adoption of textbooks.

If the best textbooks are to be obtained, they must be selected by technically trained committees or boards. The kind of ability necessary for the proper handling of this work is less likely to be found in the local community than in a state board of education or a state commission to which the work may be delegated.

Under state adoption school principals and teachers are not subjected to the political and economic pressures that the sale of textbooks generally generates.

Large savings in both time and money will be effected for pupils and teachers who move from one community to another.[64]

Con. The arguments against state uniformity and in favor of local adoption may be summarized as follows:

The educational needs of communities vary. As a consequence, books that are suited to the needs of one locality may not be at all well adapted to the needs of another. Variations in length of school term, curricular aims, amount and character of supervision, preparation of teachers, and in pupil interests and abilities are all differentials in favor of local selection of textbooks. The modern philosophy of the curriculum and course of study demands in almost all respects large freedom on the part of individual communities and schools in the selection of teaching materials to be employed.

State boards and commissions are frequently less capable of selecting desirable textbooks than are local school administrators and their committees. Moreover, officials responsible for state adoptions are frequently influenced by nonprofessional considerations which are unlikely to hamper the work of the local administrator or teacher. Too frequently where state adoptions are practiced the teacher, who theoretically at least should be best able to judge the merits of the book he is to use, is represented inadequately or not at all on the boards or committees making the selections.

Where uniform adoptions are practiced, the period for which a particular text must be employed is relatively long. Consequently, books are frequently continued in use when better texts in the field are available. Contracts for a long period of years may also be unfair to the publisher or the public, particularly when the purchasing power of the dollar is changing rapidly.[65]

Trend. In all the states the school textbooks are adopted in compliance with statutory regulations. About half the states require the use of uniform textbooks either for the state as a whole or within schools of spec-

[64] Leo M. Chamberlain, *The Teacher and School Organization*, pp. 418–420, Prentice-Hall, 1936.

[65] *Ibid.*

ified grades, whereas the remainder permit choice by the local board of education. Most authorities recommend that the responsibility be delegated to the local boards of education, but as usual practice limps far behind theory. Today the teachers are consulted in the selection of textbooks much more than formerly. Parents and pupils should also have the opportunity to express opinions as to the books used in school.

2. *Shall Basal Textbooks Be Discarded?* The inherent danger in such a procedure is that the baby may be thrown out with the bath. For many teachers the textbook is still the course of study. Particularly is this true in rural and small village schools where supplementary materials are not always available. A compromise is necessary so that the textbook is neither memorized nor discarded; instead it is consulted. The one-textbook idea has had a distinct role in learning. Today, however, few courses and units of instruction lend themselves effectively to a single text. The basal reference must be supplemented by other textbooks, general books, and extensive collateral reading materials, which bring new or contrasting concepts and points of view.

3. *Shall Textbooks Be Supplied to Pupils at Public or at Personal Expense?* Thousands of indigent children are allowed the free use of textbooks. Elementary and secondary schools should furnish all pupils with the basal textbooks at public expense. To provide free instruction and then to require the purchase or rental of learning tools is an anomaly in American democratic education.

4. *Shall Public-school Buildings Become Community Centers?* Today public schools are erected as community buildings. The two-way movement—the school moving outward from its four walls, and the community coming into the school—is a vital means of mutual enrichment. This reciprocity enables the community to utilize school facilities for adult learning and recreation and allows the schools to tap community resources.

Financing of Public Education

1. *Shall Federal Aid Be Granted to Education?*

Pro. The need for and advantages of federal aid have for years been weighed against the dangers and disadvantages. Marshaled for federal aid are such persons as President Harry S. Truman, Senator George D. Aiken, and the educator Edgar W. Knight, who are quoted respectively:

> I cannot repeat too strongly my desire for prompt federal financial aid to the states to help them operate and maintain their school systems. Our schools in many localities are utterly inadequate. It is shocking that millions of our children are not receiving a good education.[66]

[66] Harry S. Truman, "State-of-the-union Message," January 5, 1949.

Effective schooling is the basis for equality of opportunity in America and effective schooling is the responsibility of the entire nation. Education is the basis of our national security; any nation which neglects it will soon find itself hopelessly outclassed in this atomic energy age.[67]

The need for federal education aid is now greater than ever before in the history of this country. Education is our most important public interest. . . .Our concern now should be that the federal government should do for education in times of peace what seems logical for it to do in times of economic or military stress.[68]

Con. Typical of arguments in opposition to federal aid are the following, quoted respectively from Ralph Bradford, executive vice-president of the United States Chamber of Commerce, Representative Max Schwabe, and Harold O. Voorhis, vice-chancellor of New York University:

Because enlightened businessmen believe that individuals must be free to develop to their full capacities as citizens, producers, and consumers, they believe in better education. Because they want education to be free from federal control, most businessmen oppose federal aid to education.[69]

There is no state in the Union but what is better able to finance its schools today than is the federal government. The government at Washington has been deficit-financed for 16 years The proposed legislation calls for the federal government to help the states carry the burdens of public education. But the states have been balancing their budgets. They have their taxing systems in order and have been reducing, not increasing, their debt burdens. Where would the federal government get the money to pay this huge subsidy?[70]

Too many of our people have been worshipping security rather than opportunity, as we used to do. I wonder if we would yield a better college crop by removing the opportunity for a boy now and then to work his way through college? I wonder to what extent this accelerated disposition to look to Washington for financial handouts of all kinds is weakening our essential get-up and integrity as a people?[71]

Related Issues. This broad question, however, must be subdivided into several related issues, only three of which are discussed here, *viz.*, (1) Will federal control accompany federal aid? (2) Shall federal aid be granted to all states? (3) Shall such aid be given to all schools?

[67] George D. Aiken, "The Case for Federal Aid to Our Schools," *New York Times*, Magazine Section, December 28, 1947, p. 16.

[68] Edgar W. Knight, "Federal Aid for Education Is Needed Now More than Ever," *School Management*, January, 1947, p. 2.

[69] B. P. Brodinsky, "Better Schools? Yes! Federal Aid? No!—Say Official Spokesmen for Little and Big Business," *Nation's Schools*, May, 1949, p. 23.

[70] Max Schwabe, "Federal Aid to Education," *Congressional Record*, July 26, 1947, p. A4137.

[71] Harold O. Voorhis, "Let's Stop Leaning on Washington," *School and Society*, December 4, 1948, p. 380.

(1) *Will federal control accompany federal aid?* Will such aid result in a federal school system? Will it mean prescription from Washington and a leveling conformity to national standards?

Of course, there must be some federal control of expenditures. If the money is spent for a particular purpose, such as equalizing educational opportunity, then the United States will see that the provisions of the law are met. The central government has a definite obligation to specify accounting classifications and to audit accounts. Since most people believe in at least the minimum requirements and safeguards, this form of control need not be objectionable. However, the Hoover Commission on the Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government stated: "Grants-in-aid programs have removed large areas of discretionary power from the hands of state officials and have transferred a measurable degree of policy-making and ultimate responsibility and control for public services to the national government." Such federal interference with the control of state and local education need not necessarily accompany national aid. Most proposals for federal aid to education are based on the theory of contributing to the states in order to enable them to improve and more efficiently operate their educational systems.

(2) *Shall federal aid be granted to all states?* Here again there are two schools of thought. One, which carries with it a measure of political expediency, advocates flat grants for every state. The other point of view is represented by President Dwight D. Eisenhower of Columbia University, who favors help for poorer sections but opposes a general over-all program of assistance to all the states. In view of the mounting federal expenditures and the danger of growth in federal paternalism, giving aid only to the needy states that make a commendable effort of their own is in line with the minimum effort of placing a federal floor under education. Too often federal aid is merely a process of redistributing taxes that the central government has collected from local sources. This problem is related to the ones involved in separating sources of revenue for local, state, and national governments.

(3) *Shall federal aid be granted to all schools?* Shall colleges receive aid? Shall private and sectarian schools and colleges benefit from federal funds?

The President's Commission on Higher Education recommended aid to higher institutions. This pyramiding of requests for federal aid to institutions on various levels raises the question of priority or unification of requests.

Illustrative of the thinking on aid to sectarian schools are three types of bills proposed in Congress. One expressly forbids federal funds to be expended for private or parochial schools. Another seeks to straddle the state-church controversy by granting funds for such general purposes as

improving the health of all children. Still another passes the responsibility to the state governments. For example, one bill proposed in Congress provided federal funds "for any current expenditures for elementary and secondary school purposes for which educational revenues derived from state or local sources may legally and constitutionally be expended in such state." In approximately half the states, some of the state or local school funds are being used to provide transportation, books, or tuition for children attending private or parochial schools. If such federal legislation were passed, it would temporarily transfer a difficult decision to the states, for the issue would return to Washington to the bench of the United States Supreme Court. In the past the Supreme Court has held that state and local aid is for the *child* and not the *school*. The issue of federal funds for private and sectarian schools has not as yet been settled by Congress. What the ultimate answer will be is a matter of speculation. It has been suggested that the matter might be handled by means of an amendment to the federal Constitution.

Conclusion. The majority of people, as shown in various studies and polls, approve of the "principle" of federal aid to education. The difficulties, as usual, come in the application of this principle. Countless proposals and counterpropositions have been made for implementation. The following are a few concluding statements:

Federal funds are now being given for so many different forms of education, and on so many different bases, and so many new requests are constantly being made that a Presidential Commission on Educational Finance on a permanent basis is desirable. In other words, government funds should be available for a continuing study of finances for education. Any and all such programs should be projected on the triangular bases of (1) educational purposes, (2) estimated expenditures, and (3) proposals for revenue. This calls for broad-gauge and long-range planning. Federal grants ought to be made to public elementary and secondary schools, especially in needy areas which make a real effort to provide education.

The President's Commission on Higher Education has recommended a program of scholarships and fellowships to be administered by the states and to be made available for undergraduate, graduate, and professional students. Scholarships, somewhat similar to the old NYA aid, have been suggested also for secondary youth. These grants would be made directly to individuals who would be free to attend either privately or publicly controlled institutions that meet acceptable standards. These funds would help educational institutions indirectly and avoid the questionable policy of granting public funds to private schools and colleges.

Federal support may well be granted for adult education. The funds,

if assigned to the states and counties for over-all planning, would not violate the principle of separation of church and state on a federal level.

Another purpose for which federal funds could be granted is teacher education. The United States Office of Education and state departments may well strengthen their work in this field.

In view of the great need for educational buildings, federal funds might be loaned or granted outright to state and local governments for making surveys of needs, and planning public works, including school buildings. The President's Commission on Higher Education proposed that capital outlay expenditures be approved for public institutions.

Educational experimentation needs federal financing. An example is the library demonstration project, especially in rural areas. Pilot experiments with curriculums can produce educational energy and cause chain reactions in local schools.

Direct aid in material rather than cash can continue to be given through army–navy–air force donations of surplus property to educational institutions. The Department of Agriculture has donated many supplies to the school lunch program.

Federal funds are provided to educational institutions indirectly through the general practice of tax exemption, which, within reasonable limits, is just and wise.

When and if federal aid is granted to the schools, the formula by which it is distributed should not be so complicated that only the financial experts and God understand it!

2. *Shall the Board of Education Be Fiscally Independent Rather than Dependent?* Shall the local board of education be autonomous rather than a part of the city government? Shall the board of education or some other agency determine the school budget? In general, schoolmen, convinced of the importance of education, want complete fiscal independence, while political scientists, with an overview of the entire government, favor fiscal dependence for boards of education. The three major types of dependence have been characterized roughly as (1) legal, (2) illegal, and (3) extralegal.[72] Within each category are numerous gradations. As city governments improve in efficiency and responsibility, and as educational administration gains in significance and community outlook, the question of coordinating school and municipal finances will arouse less open opposition. The trend in the theory of educational administration continues toward fiscal independence, but in practice the direction is toward a greater degree of voluntary and legal cooperation between school management and

[72] E. C. Bolmeier, "Legal, Illegal, and Extra-legal Degrees of Fiscal Dependence," *American School Board Journal*, August, 1949, pp. 22–24, 68.

city government. It seems to be a question not of legal independence or dependence, but of the degree of voluntary interdependence.

3. *Shall More Money Be Expended for Schools?* As a result of his study, candidly captioned *Our Children Are Cheated*, Benjamin Fine concluded:

> At present this country spends less of its national income for education than either Great Britain or the Soviet Union. According to the best estimates available, the United States should spend 5 per cent of its income for education. This would mean, concretely, that we spend approximately seven and one-half billion dollars per year—the sum to vary according to the income of the nation. With this

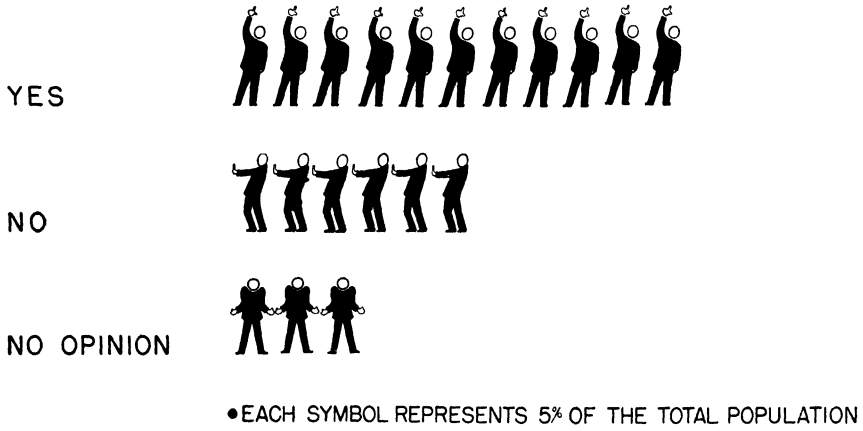

FIG. 17-4. Poll regarding educational expenditures. In one of the Gallup polls the question was asked, "Would you be willing to pay higher taxes for school aid?" In interviews with 3000 representative voters throughout the country were obtained the pictured responses, *viz.:* willing to pay higher taxes for school aid, 55 per cent; not willing, 30 per cent; and no opinion, 15 per cent. Thus over half the people sampled would be willing to pay more for education.

> amount, it would be possible to revitalize the educational system and make it the strongest and best in the world. Obsolete, archaic schools could be replaced with modern, efficient ones. Immediately the country should double its support of public education Instead of two and one-half billion we should spend five billion dollars.[73]

In a Gallup poll, 3000 representative voters throughout the country were asked: "Would you be willing to pay higher taxes for school aid?" In response, 15 per cent had no opinion, 30 per cent were opposed, but 55 per cent were willing to pay more for education.

Can the United States spend more for education? The Brookings Institution, nationally known for its intensive and extensive research studies, has concluded that the United States can safely expend thirty times

[73] Benjamin Fine, *Our Children Are Cheated*, p. 227, Holt, 1947.

as much for education during the next 100 years as at present. This nation still spends more either for luxuries or alcoholic drinks than for education. The Committee on Education of the United States Chamber of Commerce stated the conclusions of one of its studies in its title, *Education—an Investment in People*. Furthermore, its investigation, *Education Steps Up Living Standards*, pointed out that a direct relationship exists between the level of education and income in the ten countries studied. "The more the education increases, the higher the income rises." Furthermore, more money spent on the right kind of education will add to personal knowledge, subtract from mass ignorance, multiply human happiness, and increase the cultural dividend. In fine, expenditures for education are an investment rather than a cost. Ignorance is expensive.

CONCLUSION

Many of these crucial issues in education are born of deeper problems in society. In their solution the teacher is aided by ripened experience in the classroom and by the seasoning processes of living, which also help in the identification of trends as wholesome, neutral, or undesirable. In the solution of these practical and many-sided problems, however, no unilateral explanation will suffice. John Dewey, in his *Experience and Education*, cautions against aligning oneself too positively with a single point of view:

> It is the business of an intelligent theory of education to ascertain the causes for the conflicts which exist and then, instead of taking one side or the other, to indicate a plan of operations proceeding from a level deeper and more inclusive than is represented by the practices and ideas of contending parties.[74]

For this plan of operations the teacher needs a personal philosophy of education and living, rooted in the best of the past and nourished by the conditions of modern society. The development of this personal philosophy will help the teacher not merely to teach school, but to define values and to establish goals for the betterment of education. The best *ideas* for improving education, and thereby life itself, must be projected upward and onward as *ideals*. Thus will American public education help to bring to pass the great American dream of perpetuating democracy.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

The major activity for this unit is to arrange a series of panel discussions, forums, debates, and oral or written reports on some salient issues and trends in American public education.

[74] John Dewey, *op. cit.*, p. v.

DESCRIPTIVE BIBLIOGRAPHY AND AIDS

Books

Numerous references listed at the close of each of the preceding sixteen units may be consulted. The Appendixes have collateral material. The footnote references in the units also indicate additional sources for material on issues and trends in American public education.

Current Periodicals and Publications

For current periodicals pertinent to the several issues discussed in this unit, and to problems not presented, the student should consult the list of Current Pertinent Periodicals and Publications found at the close of each of the preceding sixteen units. Especially helpful in connection with this unit is the publication issued periodically by the Research Division of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators under the caption, "Education in Lay Magazines." Furthermore, current nonprofessional periodicals, such as *Harper's Magazine*, *The Atlantic*, *The Saturday Evening Post*, and *Time*, and countless newspapers contain articles on educational issues and trends.

Audio-visual Aids

For audio-visual aids useful in considering the various issues in American public education, the reader will refer to the list of such aids at the close of the related unit.

The bulletin board can be used very effectively with this unit. On a particular issue, one part of the bulletin board may be reserved for the arguments "pro" and another section for the "con."

Student-made and commercially purchased posters such as those published by the Educational Policies Commission can direct attention to some pertinent issues and trends in education.

By means of an opaque projector various cartoons, photographs, and clippings may be projected upon a screen for discussion purposes.

Slides and photographs made by students will help to sharpen some of the issues and to portray effectively many of the trends.

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ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

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[1] The number of each item in the Appendixes is identical with the number of the related unit. Where there are two or more Appendixes for a unit, the numbers are supplemented by alphabetical notations.

APPENDIX I-A

PREAMBLE TO THE UNESCO CONSTITUTION

Preamble to the UNESCO CONSTITUTION

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATION

The Governments of the States Parties to This Constitution, on Behalf of Their Peoples, Declare

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

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

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

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

That a peace based exclusively upon the political and economic arrangements of governments would not be a peace which could secure the unanimous, lasting and sincere support of the peoples of the world, and that the peace must therefore be founded, if it is not to fail, upon the intellectual and moral solidarity of mankind.

For These Reasons,

the States Parties to This Constitution, believing in full and equal opportunities for education for all, in the unrestricted pursuit of objective truth, and in the free exchange of ideas and knowledge, are agreed and determined to develop and to increase the means of communication between their peoples and to employ these means for the purposes of mutual understanding and a truer and more perfect knowledge of each other's lives;

In Consequence Whereof

they do hereby create the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization for the purpose of advancing, thru the educational and scientific and cultural relations of the peoples of the world, the objectives of international peace and of the common welfare of mankind for which the United Nations Organization was established and which its Charter proclaims.

APPENDIX I-B

ORGANIZATION OF THE UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION

Administrative Organization

United States Commissioner of Education
Deputy Commissioner
Executive Assistant to the Commissioner
Associate Commissioner
Directors and Assistant Directors of Divisions, and Chiefs of Sections within Divisions

Elementary and Secondary Education

Organization and Supervision
Instructional Problems—Elementary
Instructional Problems—Secondary
Education of Exceptional Children and Youth

Vocational Education

Agricultural Education
Business Education
Home Economics Education
Occupational Information and Guidance
Trade and Industrial Education
State Plans Operations
Program Planning Operations

Higher Education

Organization and Administration
Professional Education
Arts and Science Education
Colleges and Universities
Teacher Education

Central and Auxiliary Services

Administrative Services
Research and Statistical Service
Information and Publication Service
Services to Libraries
Educational Uses of Radio
Visual Aids to Education

International Educational Relations

American Republics Educational Relations
European Educational Relations
Near and Far Eastern Educational Relations

School Administration

General Administration
School Finance
School Health
School Housing
School Legislation

APPENDIX II

CHIEF STATE EDUCATIONAL OFFICERS IN THE UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES

State	Title of chief state official[1]	Location of offices
Alabama	Superintendent of Education	Montgomery
Alaska	Commissioner of Education	Juneau
American Samoa	Director of Education	Pago Pago
Arizona	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Phoenix
Arkansas	Commissioner of Education	Little Rock
California	Superintendent of Public Instruction and Director of Education	Sacramento
Canal Zone	Superintendent of Schools	Balboa Heights
Colorado	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Denver
Connecticut	Commissioner of Education	Hartford
Delaware	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Dover
District of Columbia	Superintendent of Schools	Washington
Florida	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Tallahassee
Georgia	Superintendent of Schools	Atlanta
Guam	Head of Department of Education	Guam
Hawaii	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Honolulu
Idaho	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Boise
Illinois	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Springfield
Indiana	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Indianapolis
Iowa	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Des Moines
Kansas	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Topeka
Kentucky	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Frankfort
Louisiana	Superintendent of Public Education	Baton Rouge
Maine	Commissioner of Education	Augusta
Maryland	Superintendent of Schools	Baltimore
Massachusetts	Commissioner of Education	Boston
Michigan	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Lansing
Minnesota	Commissioner of Education	St. Paul
Mississippi	Superintendent of Education	Jackson
Missouri	Commissioner of Education	Jefferson City
Montana	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Helena

[1] For names of these officers, see the latest edition of *Educational Directory, Part* I, *State and County School Officers*, Superintendent of Documents.

APPENDIX II (*Continued*)

State	Title of chief state official[2]	Location of offices
Nebraska	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Lincoln
Nevada	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Carson City
New Hampshire	Commissioner of Education	Concord
New Jersey	Commissioner of Education	Trenton
New Mexico	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Santa Fe
New York	Commissioner of Education	Albany
North Carolina	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Raleigh
North Dakota	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Bismarck
Ohio	Superintendent of Public Instruction and Director of Education	Columbus
Oklahoma	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Oklahoma City
Oregon	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Salem
Pennsylvania	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Harrisburg
Puerto Rico	Commissioner of Education	San Juan
Rhode Island	Director of Education	Providence
South Carolina	Superintendent of Education	Columbia
South Dakota	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Pierre
Tennessee	Commissioner of Education	Nashville
Texas	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Austin
Utah	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Salt Lake City
Vermont	Commissioner of Education	Montpelier
Virgin Islands	Superintendent of Education	St. Thomas
	Superintendent of Education	St. Croix
Virginia	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Richmond
Washington	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Olympia
West Virginia	Superintendent of Free Schools	Charleston
Wisconsin	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Madison
Wyoming	Superintendent of Public Instruction	Cheyenne

[2] For names of these officers, see the latest edition of *Educational Directory, Part* I, *State and County School Officers*, Superintendent of Documents.

APPENDIX III

CRITERIA FOR THE ESTABLISHMENT OF LARGER ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS[1]

"We Hold These Truths to Be Self-evident"

1. Most of our people—especially our rural boys and girls—need broader and better education than they are getting. (The odds against the poorly educated man or nation today are appalling.)
2. In thousands of school districts the education offered is not good enough—even for yesterday.
3. The states are charged with responsibility for giving suitable education to all within their borders (with such federal aid as the people through the Congress shall determine).
4. It is sound American practice to give citizens an opportunity to share responsibility for education through local school districts; but—
5. The state has a duty to see that school districts are satisfactory and to change them when they are not.
6. Districts are satisfactory only when
   - *A*. They are able to provide education comprehensive enough to meet the needs of all in the area served.
   - *B*. They permit efficient and economical school administration.
   - *C*. They give citizens an active share in shaping the policies of schools serving their communities.

Earmarks of a Good District

1. A comprehensive program of elementary, high-school, post-high-school, and adult education.
2. A competent staff of teachers, administrators, supervisors, and other workers.
3. Schools properly located to
   - *A*. Meet community needs.
   - *B*. Be convenient to children.
   - *C*. Bring together enough pupils for good instruction at reasonable cost.
4. A sound way of financing and administering the program.

What a Satisfactory District Does

1. Brings all children into school at the age of six or earlier.
2. Holds at least 90 per cent of its pupils until high school graduation.
3. Makes it possible for young people to secure needed education through grade 14.
4. Provides for the educational needs of adults.

[1] National Commission on School District Reorganization, *A Key to Better Education*, pp. 6–7, National Education Association, 1947.

APPENDIX IV

PLATFORM OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

PREAMBLE: As Americans we cherish our heritage of freedom as expressed in the Bill of Rights. We regard our freedom as a sacred trust which imposes upon each of us an obligation to help build a society in which respect for the individual is recognized as the basis of all human rights. In such a society opportunity is provided for the political, social, economic, educational, and spiritual welfare of all its citizens. In the belief that public education provides the only certain means for the achievement of these ends by the individual and by the nation, we—the members of the American Association of School Administrators—pledge ourselves to the support of the program and principles contained in this platform.

A. As American citizens we believe—

1. That peace in this age is a requisite to all other qualities of individual and group welfare.
2. That democracy is a fundamental promise for the solution of all social, economic, and political problems.
3. That education is the greatest constructive force at the disposal of democratic peoples for the solution of their problems.
4. That every privilege in a democracy must be matched by an equal responsibility.
5. That the strength of the nation will depend upon the conservation and intelligent development of our human and natural resources.
6. That progress in our social, economic, and political life must keep pace with changes in our material and technological environment; such progress can result only from a better program of education and spiritual growth.

B. As educators we believe—

1. That universal free education must be made available by all peoples in the interests of world understanding, citizenship, and peace.
2. That the perpetuation of American democracy requires universal free education fitted to the abilities, interests, and needs of each person.
3. That social, civic, economic, spiritual, and vocational competencies are as important as academic literacy.
4. That the purpose of American education is full participation in democratic living by all members of society.
5. That the school program should emphasize the worth and dignity of all essential work.
6. That the quality of education will be determined by the quality of the persons who teach.
7. That the structure of American school systems should be adaptable enough to meet the educational needs of all age levels in a changing society.
8. That the total educational experience of each individual must be designed to contribute to the development of effective ethical character.

APPENDIX IV (*Continued*)

C. In order that these principles may be realized in American life, we as school administrators propose to work for—

1. Professionally competent administrative leadership, dedicated to the service of good teaching in every community.
2. The recruitment, preparation, and in-service growth of outstanding individuals as teachers, administrators, and other professional workers to assure good teaching.
3. Salaries and conditions which will attract and retain good teachers.
4. Smaller classes, more individualized teaching, and more adequate materials and equipment—thus providing a better educational program for each child.
5. Wide sharing with teachers and others in the cooperative formulation of educational policies and programs on local, state, and national levels.
6. School districts large enough to meet modern educational needs effectively and economically.
7. A program of lay participation in education which will lead to an intelligent appreciation of the work and needs of the schools.
8. Federal support of education, in an average amount of at least 50 cents per day for each child enrolled in publicly supported and controlled schools, administered thru the United States Office of Education and state departments of education.
9. Complete fiscal independence of local boards of education.
10. An extended use of all school facilities.

APPENDIX V

ESSENTIALS OF NURSERY EDUCATION[1]

GENERAL POLICIES

Cooperative Planning

Among nursery-school staff, parents, and community agencies associated with the children's families or concerned with the housing facilities of the school, an interest in working together for the well-being of the children enrolled is of fundamental importance. With this mutual interest as a foundation, cooperative planning may take a variety of forms.

Home and School Relations

Unless the nursery school works closely with the homes of the children enrolled it cannot do an effective piece of education. Children's lives gain greatly in stability when parents and teachers plan together for one integrated program that includes health, play, and general welfare.

Planning for School Entrance. Since each child and family and type of agency has to be considered individually, no generalizations concerning policies for admission are possible. For the child and parent about to enter this new experience of nursery school, it is essential that a relationship conducive to further growth be established.

Initial Parent-Teacher Conference. One essential teacher-parent meeting takes place near the time a child enters the nursery. Whether the parent comes to school or the teacher goes to the child's home for the conference depends upon circumstances.

Other Individual Conferences. Other conferences between parents and teachers may be held periodically either by appointment at regular intervals, for example, twice or three times a year, or informally as parents request them.

Home Visits. Informal home visits are especially profitable for parents, children, and teachers and should be an accepted and expected part of the school program.

Group Meetings. Group meetings may take a variety of forms. They may be discussion groups, working groups, or social groups.

Observations. Observation forms or guides which offer parents pertinent bases for observing, and which provide space for recording, may facilitate systematic and thoughtful observations. After parent observations have been made, they should be followed by a conference between parents and teachers as soon as possible.

Participation. Mothers and fathers can, with profit to the school and to themselves, cooperate in an endless number of ways.

Budget

Many nursery schools depend on other sources of income in addition to fees. These sources may be local, state, and federal school funds, community funds allocated to child welfare, and funds from various civic groups such as service clubs and church

[1] Gertrude E. Chittenden, Margaret Nesbitt, and Betsey Williams, *Essentials of Nursery Education*, pp. 25–30, National Association for Nursery Education, 1948.

APPENDIX V (*Continued*)

organizations. Both the initial cost of organization of the nursery school and the cost of operating it must be considered in estimating the expenditures to be planned for in the budget.

PROVISIONS FOR HEALTH AND SAFETY

Location. To facilitate entering and leaving the building with maximum ease and safety the playrooms should be located on the ground or first floor. Ideally the building will be located far enough away from traffic to avoid the noise and dangers connected with it.

Fire and Building Laws. Local and state building codes should be investigated and observed. State and city departments exercising supervision also should be consulted.

Outdoor Play Space. The most desirable playground will provide both sunshine and shade. It will be free from dampness and well drained. Unless sodded, it should be surfaced with some reasonably hard material.

Indoor Play Space. Indoor space should provide facilities for play, eating, sleeping, care of wraps, toilet and washing, isolation, kitchen, storage, office, and medical examination. Rooms should be light and well ventilated.

Sleeping Facilities. It is desirable to have a separate room for sleeping so that cots do not have to be taken up and down each day. If, however, the play room is used as the sleeping room, adjacent storage space should be provided for cots, blankets, and linens.

Eating Facilities. If the same room is used for eating and play, folding tables or nested tables which can be put away when not in use conserve floor space for play. The kitchen should be located as near as possible to the room where the children eat.

Coatroom. A separate coatroom is desirable but, if necessary, wall space in the playroom or hallway can be equipped for this purpose.

Bathroom. The bathroom should be on the same floor as the playroom and, if possible, adjacent to sleep, play, and outdoor space.

Isolation Space. If it is not convenient to send ill children home immediately when their illness is discovered, there must be some small space within the nursery school where a sick child can be separated completely from the group and can be comfortable and well supervised.

Additional Space. Other needed space includes cupboard space for teaching materials, coatroom, rest room and toilet for staff members, conference room, office, and file space.

APPENDIX VI

A CREED FOR ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS[1]

I believe in the United States of America—a way of life made possible by a government of the people, by the people, and for the people.

I believe in childhood—as a period of growth and happiness with goals significant both to the individual and to society.

I believe in educational opportunity—the right of every child to have those experiences necessary for his fullest development.

I believe in public education—a program of opportunity available to all of the children of all of the people.

I believe in the elementary school—the first agency, after the home, in the development of good citizens—intelligent, physically fit, and strong in character.

I believe in the classroom teacher—within the school, the child's primary source of stimulation toward the individual, social, and spiritual goals of education.

I believe in the elementary-school principalship—as the educational position wherein, through preparation, study, and devotion to duty, I can make the most helpful contribution to the building of a better America.

[1] Department of Elementary-School Principals, *The Elementary-School Principalship—Planning the Future*, p. 16, National Education Association, 1945.

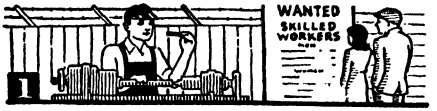
APPENDIX VII

THE IMPERATIVE NEEDS OF YOUTH[1]

THE IMPERATIVE NEEDS OF YOUTH

The Common and Essential Needs that All Youth Have in a Democratic Society

RECOMMENDATION: *Through curriculum planning, the educational program in the secondary school should meet these needs of all youth adequately.*



All youth need to develop saleable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in economic life. To this end, most youth need supervised work experience as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupations.

All youth need to develop and maintain good health and physical fitness.

All youth need to understand the rights and duties of the citizen of a democratic society, and to be diligent and competent in the performance of their obligations as members of the community and citizens of the state and nation.

All youth need to understand the significance of the family for the individual and society and the conditions conducive to successful family life.

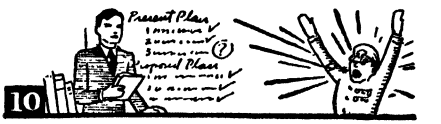
All youth need to know how to purchase and use goods and services intelligently, understanding both the values received by the consumer and the economic consequences of their acts.

All youth need to understand the methods of science, the influence of science on human life, and the main scientific facts concerning the nature of the world and of man.

All youth need opportunities to develop their capacities to appreciate beauty in literature, art, music, and nature.

All youth need to be able to use their leisure time well and to budget it wisely, balancing activities that yield satisfactions to the individual with those that are socially useful.

All youth need to develop respect for other persons, to grow in their insight into ethical values and principles, and to be able to live and work co-operatively with others.



All youth need to grow in their ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding.

[1] Adapted from *Planning for American Youth* and based on *Education for All American Youth* by National Association of Secondary School Principals and Educational Policies Commission respectively.

APPENDIX VIII-A

STATE UNIVERSITIES IN THE UNITED STATES

State	City	Name of university
Alabama	University	University of Alabama
Arizona	Tucson	University of Arizona
Arkansas	Fayetteville	University of Arkansas
California	Berkeley	University of California
Colorado	Boulder	University of Colorado
Connecticut	Storrs	University of Connecticut
Delaware	Newark	University of Delaware
Florida	Gainesville	University of Florida
Georgia	Athens	University of Georgia[1]
Idaho	Moscow	University of Idaho
Illinois	Urbana	University of Illinois
Indiana	Bloomington	Indiana University
Iowa	Iowa City	State University of Iowa
Kansas	Lawrence	University of Kansas
Kentucky	Lexington	University of Kentucky
Louisiana	Baton Rouge	Louisiana State University
Maine	Orono	University of Maine
Maryland	College Park and Baltimore	University of Maryland
Massachusetts	Amherst	University of Massachusetts
Michigan	Ann Arbor	University of Michigan
Minnesota	Minneapolis	University of Minnesota
Mississippi	University	University of Mississippi
Missouri	Columbia	University of Missouri
Montana	Missoula	Montana State University[1]
Nebraska	Lincoln	University of Nebraska
Nevada	Reno	University of Nevada
New Hampshire	Durham	University of New Hampshire
New Jersey	New Brunswick	University of New Jersey
New Mexico	Albuquerque	University of New Mexico
New York	Albany (headquarters)	State University of New York[1]
North Carolina	Chapel Hill	University of North Carolina
North Dakota	University	University of North Dakota
Ohio	Columbus	Ohio State University[2]
Oklahoma	Norman	University of Oklahoma
Oregon	Eugene	University of Oregon[1]
Pennsylvania	State College	Pennsylvania State College
Rhode Island	Kingston	Rhode Island State College
South Carolina	Columbia	University of South Carolina
South Dakota	Vermillion	University of South Dakota
Tennessee	Knoxville	University of Tennessee
Texas	Austin	University of Texas
Utah	Salt Lake City	University of Utah
Virginia	Charlottesville	University of Virginia
Vermont	Burlington	University of Vermont
Washington	Seattle	University of Washington
West Virginia	Morgantown	West Virginia University
Wisconsin	Madison	University of Wisconsin
Wyoming	Laramie	University of Wyoming

[1] These states have university systems.

[2] Ohio with five state universities is one of the states with several such institutions. Some of these universities have more than one campus.

APPENDIX VIII-B

LAND-GRANT COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES IN UNITED STATES[1]

State	City	Name of university
Alabama	Auburn	Alabama Polytechnic Institute
	Normal	State Agricultural and Mechanical Institute[2, 3]
Alaska	College	University of Alaska
Arizona	Tucson	University of Arizona[4]
Arkansas	Fayetteville	University of Arkansas[4]
Arkansas	Pine Bluff	Agricultural, Mechanical and Normal College[2]
California	Berkeley	University of California[4]
Colorado	Fort Collins	Colorado State College of Agriculture and Mechanical Arts
Connecticut	Storrs	University of Connecticut
Delaware	Newark	University of Delaware[4]
Delaware	Dover	State College for Colored Students[2]
Florida	Gainesville	University of Florida[4]
	Tallahassee	Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College[2]
Georgia	Athens	University of Georgia[4]
	Industrial College	Georgia State College[2]
Hawaii	Honolulu	University of Hawaii
Idaho	Moscow	University of Idaho[4]
Illinois	Urbana	University of Illinois[4]
Indiana	Lafayette	Purdue University
Iowa	Ames	Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanical Arts
Kansas	Manhattan	Kansas State College of Agriculture and Applied Sciences
Kentucky	Lexington	University of Kentucky[4]
	Frankfort	Kentucky State Industrial College[2]
Louisiana	Baton Rouge	Louisiana State University[4]
	Scotlandville	Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College[2]
Maine	Orono	University of Maine[4]
Maryland	College Park	University of Maryland[4]
	Princess Anne	Princess Anne Academy (Branch, University of Maryland)[2]
Massachusetts	Amherst	University of Massachusetts
	Cambridge	Massachusetts Institute of Technology
Michigan	East Lansing	Michigan State College of Agriculture and Applied Sciences
Minnesota	Minneapolis	University of Minnesota[4]
Mississippi	State College	Mississippi State College
	Alcorn	Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College[2]
Missouri	Columbia	University of Missouri[4]
	Jefferson City	Lincoln University[2]
Montana	Bozeman	Montana State College
Nebraska	Lincoln	University of Nebraska[4]
Nevada	Reno	University of Nevada[4]
New Hampshire	Durham	University of New Hampshire[4]
New Jersey	New Brunswick	University of New Jersey
New Mexico	State College	New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanical Arts

[1] See the latest edition of *Educational Directory*, Part II, Superintendent of Documents.

[2] Negro institution, which draws proportionate share of federal land-grant appropriation to state.

[3] Junior college.

[4] State university.

APPENDIX VIII-B (*Continued*)

State	City	Name of university
New York	Ithaca	Cornell University
North Carolina	West Raleigh	State College of Agriculture and Engineering of University of North Carolina
	Greensboro	Negro Agricultural and Technical College[2]
North Dakota	State College	North Dakota Agricultural College
Ohio	Columbus	Ohio State University[4]
Oklahoma	Stillwater	Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College
	Langston	Colored Agricultural and Normal University[2]
Oregon	Corvallis	Oregon State College
Pennsylvania	State College	Pennsylvania State College
Puerto Rico	Rio Piedras	University of Puerto Rico
Rhode Island	Kingston	Rhode Island State College
South Carolina	Clemson College	Clemson Agricultural College
	Orangeburg	State Colored Normal, Industrial, Agricultural and Mechanical College[2]
South Dakota	Brookings	South Dakota State College of Agriculture and Mechanical Arts
Tennessee	Knoxville	University of Tennessee[4]
	Nashville	Agricultural and Industrial State Teachers College[2, 5]
Texas	College Station	Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas
	Prairie View	Prairie View State College[2, 5]
Utah	Logan	Utah State Agricultural College
Vermont	Burlington	University of Vermont and State Agricultural College[4]
Virginia	Blacksburg	Virginia Polytechnic Institute
	Ettrick	Virginia State College for Negroes[2]
Washington	Pullman	State College of Washington
West Virginia	Morgantown	West Virginia University[4]
	Institute	West Virginia State College[2]
Wisconsin	Madison	University of Wisconsin[4]
Wyoming	Laramie	University of Wyoming[4]

[2] Teachers college.

APPENDIX IX-A

DECLARATION OF INTERDEPENDENCE[1]

A suggested compact between YOUTH and SOCIETY in the interest of the general welfare of the people of the United States of America

SOCIETY is to provide opportunities for	YOUTH is to assume responsibility for
I. Growth under living conditions which consistently and continuously provide for normal physical and mental development; adequate medical service; a social environment in which youth is spared unnecessary stresses and strains caused by domestic unhappiness, poverty, crime, political corruption, and community conflicts.	I. Helping to plan and to execute a program of healthful living and worthy endeavor; the conservation and improvement of the home that has nurtured him, the schools that have sponsored his education, and the community, the state, and the nation that have fostered and protected his growth.
II. Guidance toward wholesome personal satisfactions and social usefulness; training needed for the particular job; assured opportunity for employment, guaranteeing the economic security which will enable youth to live happily, to support a family, and to face without anxiety the financial exigencies of life.	II. Conscientious use of the opportunities offered by society for guidance and training; determined efforts to make good on the job; the practice of personal foresight, but at the same time, constructive work for the welfare of the group, avoidance of unnecessary waste and of exploitation of others.
III. Competent leadership during the years of growth; assurance of contacts with the leaders of thought and action; training in the technics and obligations of leadership.	III. Acceptance of the services of those competent to lead; increasing exercise of initiative and acceptance of responsibility in accordance with capacities.
IV. Self-expression through recreation and companionships; acquaintance with nature, science, philosophical, and religious thought.	IV. Development of individual talents; the pursuit of worth-while leisure activities; and appreciation of the racial inheritance.
V. Freedom of thought and action—including freedom of speech, a free press, and the right to free assembly; protection from misleading propaganda by ready access to the sources of truth and by training in straight thinking.	V. A steadfast determination to think for himself, to uphold that which is good, to respect the opinions of others, to act with the courage of a free man, and to share the truth with others.

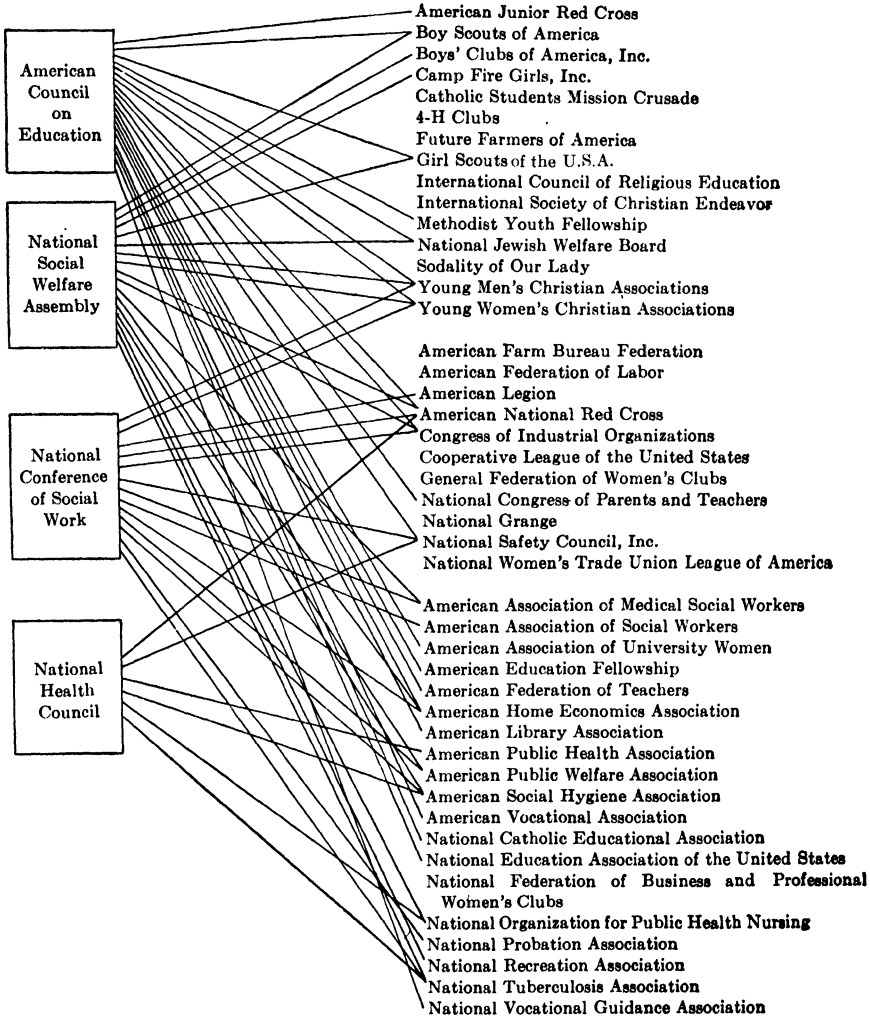
[1] AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS, *Youth Education Today*, pp. 12–13, Sixteenth Yearbook, National Education Association, 1938.

VI. Participation in the affairs of a democratic state; active promotion of individual and social justice; realistic approaches to the establishment of the ideal of a world at peace.	VI. Acceptance of the privileges and obligations of citizenship in an ever-advancing society; loyalty to basic values of democracy; courageous activity in promoting goodwill.

YOUTH and SOCIETY do enter into this compact to work cooperatively for the realization of the foregoing ideals to the end that, through the opportunities and responsibilities afforded YOUTH, democratic ideals may be perfected and perpetuated in the United States of America.

APPENDIX IX- B

FORTY-FIVE NATIONAL YOUTH-SERVING ORGANIZATIONS AND THEIR AFFILIATIONS WITH FOUR NATIONAL COORDINATING BODIES[1]



Each of the four coordinating bodies has many members other than those shown here; and some of the 45 youth-serving organizations are affiliated with other coordinating bodies not shown here.

[1] M. M. Chambers, *Youth-serving Organizations*, p. 8, American Council on Education, 1948.

APPENDIX IX-C

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR ADULT EDUCATION

History. The American Association for Adult Education was organized in Chicago on March 26, 1926, by action of delegates from four regional conferences on adult education. Its central office is located in Cleveland, Ohio, at Cleveland College, Western Reserve University.

Activities. The activities of the association have been rather strictly limited to serving as a national clearinghouse for information and to sponsoring studies and experiments devised to clarify teaching methods and administrative problems in adult education. Information has been disseminated through organizational contacts, through conferences, through *The Journal of Adult Education*, which became in 1941 *The Adult Education Journal*, through the *Handbook of Adult Education in the United States*, and through the publication of special studies. During recent years the association has stressed the reeducation arising from unemployment, has sponsored studies of opportunity schools and of adjustment services for the unemployed of New York, has prepared materials on national defense and on postwar training and adjustment. Since the war the association has been active in furthering adult education for international understanding, in developing the practice of community organization, and in attempting to bring about greater cooperation among national, state, and local organizations in the adult education field. The annual meetings of the American Association for Adult Education bring together workers in the field for the consideration of common problems. Twenty-seven studies in the social significance of adult education have been published.

APPENDIX X-A

APPRAISEMENT OF A CHILD IN HIS ENVIRONMENTAL SETTING[1]

I. *As an individual*
- *A.* General impression
  1. Personal attractiveness
  2. Clothing
  3. Facial expression
  4. Expressive movements
  5. Voice
  6. Bodily repose
  7. Endurance
  8. Size and build
  9. Posture and gait
  10. Manipulative skill
  11. Communication
- *B.* Developmental progress
  12. Growth in size
  13. Body proportions
  14. Organ maturity
  15. Body management
  16. Language
  17. Emotional control
  18. Attention span
  19. Problem solving
  20. Orientation
  21. Intellectual abilities
  22. Self-direction
  23. Use of time
  24. Social responses
- *C.* Health status and history
  25. Bony structure (head, teeth, limbs, chest)
  26. Metabolic efficiency (condition of hair, eyes, skin, mucous membranes) and nutrition
  27. Musculature
  28. Respiratory tract (nose and throat, chest)
  29. Hands and feet
  30. Vision
  31. Hearing
  32. Heart
  33. Weight for height, type, and age
  34. Reports of diseases and immunizations
  35. Reports of focal infections
  36. Reports of allergies
  37. Reports of endocrine unbalance

II. *As a descendant of family stocks*
- *A.* Family record
  38. Nationality
  39. Health
  40. Education
  41. Occupation
  42. Special interests
  43. Achievements

III. *As a member of groups*
- *A.* Family group
  44. Members of household and their relationships
  45. Economic conditions
  46. Interests of parents
  47. Attitudes of parents toward home and children
  48. Attitudes of parents toward school
  49. Religious and social groups
  50. Influence of group on child
- *B.* School or play group
  51. Size and composition
  52. Management
  53. Achievements
  54. Influence of groups on child

IV. *As related to his physical environment*
- *A.* General environmental factors
  55. Air
  56. Light
  57. Space
  58. Sounds
  59. Equipment
  60. Neighborhood

V. *Estimation of success*
  61. Personal care and health
  62. Satisfaction in work, vocational plans and activities
  63. Social conformity in essentials, participation in family life
  64. Sound attitudes toward things in general and toward self; satisfaction in relationships with nature, in human relationships
  65. Personal tastes and interests rich and varied

[1] Adapted from Edna W. Bailey, Anita D. Laton, and Elizabeth L. Bishop, *Studying Children in School*, p. 8, McGraw-Hill, 1939.

APPENDIX X-B

A CHARTER OF EDUCATION FOR RURAL CHILDREN

A CHARTER OF EDUCATION FOR RURAL CHILDREN

THE FIRST WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCE ON RURAL EDUCATION PRESENTS THE FOLLOWING AS THE EDUCATIONAL RIGHTS OF EVERY RURAL CHILD AND PLEDGES ITSELF TO WORK FOR THEIR ACHIEVEMENT:

1 ***Every rural child has the right to a satisfactory, modern elementary education.***—This education should be such as to guarantee the child an opportunity to develop and maintain a healthy body and a balanced personality, to acquire the skills needed as tools of learning, to get a good start in understanding and appreciating the natural and social world, to participate happily and helpfully in home and community life, to work and play with others, and to enjoy and use music, art, literature, and handicrafts.

2 ***Every rural child has the right to a satisfactory, modern secondary education.***—This education should assure the youth continued progress in his general, physical, social, civic, and cultural development begun in the elementary school, and provide initial training for farming or other occupations and an open door to college and the professions.

3 ***Every rural child has the right to an educational program that bridges the gap between home and school, and between school and adult life.***—This program requires, on the one hand, cooperation with parents for the home education of children too young for school and for the joint educational guidance by home and school of all other children; and, on the other hand, the cooperative development of cultural and vocational adult education suited to the needs and desires of the people of the community.

4 ***Every rural child has the right through his school to health services, educational and vocational guidance, library facilities, recreational activities, and, where needed, school lunches and pupil transportation facilities at public expense.***—Such special services, because they require the employment of specially qualified personnel, can be supplied most easily through enlarged units of school administration and the cooperation of several small schools

5 ***Every rural child has the right to teachers, supervisors, and administrators who know rural life and who are educated to deal effectively with the problems peculiar to rural schools.***—Persons so educated should hold State certificates that set forth their special qualifications, should be paid adequate salaries, and should be protected by law and fair practices in security of their positions as a reward for good and faithful services. The accomplishment of these objectives is the responsibility of local leadership, State departments of education, the teacher-education institutions, and national leaders in rural education.

6 ***Every rural child has the right to educational service and guidance during the entire year and full-time attendance in a school that is open for not less than 9 months in each year for at least 12 years.***—The educational development of children during vacation time is also a responsibility of the community school. In many communities the period of schooling has already become 14 years and should become such in all communities as rapidly as possible.

7 ***Every rural child has the right to attend school in a satisfactory, modern building.***—The building should be attractive, clean, sanitary, safe, conducive to good health, equipped with materials and apparatus essential to the best teaching, planned as a community center, and surrounded by ample space for playgrounds, gardens, landscaping, and beautification.

8 ***Every rural child has the right through the school to participate in community life and culture.***—For effective service the school plant must be planned and recognized as a center of community activity; the closest possible interrelationships should be maintained between the school and other community agencies; and children and youth should be recognized as active participants in community affairs.

9 ***Every rural child has the right to a local school system sufficiently strong to provide all the services required for a modern education.***—Obtaining such a school system depends upon organizing amply large units of school administration. Such units do not necessarily result in large schools. Large schools can usually provide broad educational opportunities more economically, but with special efforts small schools can well serve rural children and communities.

10 ***Every rural child has the right to have the tax resources of his community, State, and Nation used to guarantee him an American standard of educational opportunity.***—This right must include equality of opportunity for minority and low economy groups. Since many rural youth become urban producers and consumers, it is necessary for the development of the democratic way of life that the wealth and productivity of the entire Nation should aid in the support of the right of every child to a good education.

These are the Rights of the Rural Child because they are the Rights of Every Child regardless of Race, or Color, or Situation, wherever he may live under the United States Flag.

APPENDIX XI-A

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

MEMBERSHIP. Constituent organizations and institutions, including educational associations classified as constituent members, associations in related fields classified as associate members, and institutional members, embracing institutions of higher education, private secondary schools, miscellaneous educational institutions, state departments of public instruction, public school systems, private school systems, voluntary state educational associations, and public libraries.

PURPOSE. To advance American education in any or all of its phases through comprehensive voluntary cooperative action on the part of educational associations, organizations, and institutions; and in the fulfillment of that purpose to initiate, promote, and execute such systematic studies, cooperative experiments, conferences, and other similar enterprises as may be required for the public welfare.

ACTIVITIES. Functions largely through committees and commissions, chief among which are the Executive Committee and the Problems and Policies Committee.

Standing committees include among others: Youth Problems, Motion Pictures in Education, Measurement and Evaluation, including the Cooperative Test Service, Student Personnel Work, Cooperative Study in General Education, International Education and Cultural Relations, Teaching Materials in Intergroup Relations, Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools, Canada–United States Committee on Education, Modern Languages, Government and Educational Finance, School Plant Research, Accrediting Procedures, and Relationships of Higher Education to the Federal Government.

Among the largest recent undertakings under the auspices of the Council are those under the Commission on Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs, the Commission on Accreditation of Service Experiences, the Study of Pharmaceutical Education, and the Commission on Occupied Areas.

PUBLICATIONS: *The Educational Record*, quarterly journal; *Higher Education and National Affairs*, an occasional bulletin; *American Universities and Colleges; A Guide to Colleges, Universities, and Professional Schools in the United States; American Junior Colleges; A Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services; American Council on Education Studies*, pamphlets in seven series; and *Universities of the World Outside U. S. A.* The Council also publishes other books, psychological and achievement examinations, and guidance materials; it acts as publisher for its projects and committees, including the American Youth Commission, Motion Picture Project, Financial Advisory Service, Commission on Teacher Education, and Cooperative Test Service. It also distributes filmstrips and slides.

APPENDIX XI-B

WORLD ORGANIZATION OF THE TEACHING PROFESSION[1]

CONSTITUTION AS APPROVED AT DELEGATE ASSEMBLY IN GLASGOW, SCOTLAND, AND AMENDED AT BERNE, SWITZERLAND

ARTICLE I.—NAME

The name of this Organization shall be the World Organization of the Teaching Profession.

ARTICLE II—PURPOSES

The purposes of this Organization shall be to secure world-wide cooperation among recognized organizations of teachers, in order

1. To make the highest standards of full and free education available to all without discrimination.
2. To improve the professional status of the teachers of the world and to promote their intellectual, material, social, and civic interests and rights.
3. To promote world-wide peace through the building of goodwill founded upon cooperation between nations in educational enterprises, based upon pertinent and accurate information.
4. To advise the appropriate organs of the United Nations and of other international bodies on educational and professional matters.

ARTICLE III.—MEMBERSHIP

Membership in this Organization shall be in classes as follows:

1. *Full National Membership.* Any national organization of the teaching profession whose application for membership has been temporarily approved by the Executive Committee of the World Organization, subject to final endorsement by the Delegate Assembly of the World Organization.
2. *Affiliated Membership.*
   a. Any regional, state, or local organization of the teaching profession whose application for membership has been approved by the full national member with which the applicant is affiliated and temporarily approved by the Executive Committee of the World Organization, subject to final endorsement by the Delegate Assembly of the World Organization . . .
   b. Any university, college, or other institution of higher learning and any society existing primarily for the scientific study of educational problems, whose application has been approved . . . .
   c. Any regional, state or local organization of the teaching profession in a country which has no national member of WOTP, provided . . . .
3. *Honorary Membership.* Individuals not to exceed 25 at any one time whom the Executive Committee wishes to honor, or whose counsel is desired.
4. *Associate of WOTP.* Any person who accepts the purposes of the Organization and who desires to contribute to these purposes, to receive the publications of the Organization, and to attend its public session . . . (Provision in Bylaws).

[1] A constitution for a World Confederation of the Teaching Profession has been drafted.

ARTICLE IV.—ORGANS

The Organization shall include a Delegate Assembly, an Executive Committee, and a Secretariat.

ARTICLE V.—DELEGATE ASSEMBLY

1. The Delegate Assembly shall meet annually in plenary session ....

ARTICLE VI.—EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

1. The Executive Committee shall consist of the President and Vice President of the Organization, and five other members elected by the Delegate Assembly ....

ARTICLE VII.—SECRETARIAT

The Secretariat shall consist of a Secretary-General and such assistants as he may require and as may be authorized by the Executive Committee ....

ARTICLE VIII.—DELEGATES

1. A full national member shall be entitled to one delegate for each 2000 members or major fraction thereof, provided that no such member shall be entitled to fewer than 3 or more than 50 delegates ....

ARTICLE IX.—VOTING IN THE DELEGATE ASSEMBLY

1. A full national member shall be entitled to cast one vote for each 50,000 members, or major fraction thereof, provided that no full national member shall be entitled to cast less than one or more than five votes ....

ARTICLE X.—FEES

1. A full national member shall pay a yearly fee of 2 cents for each of its members, provided that this fee shall not exceed two per cent of the annual budget of the national member ....

ARTICLE XI.—AMENDMENT OF CONSTITUTION

Notices of motion to alter the Constitution must be submitted in writing to the Secretary-General not less than 90 days before the opening date of the Delegate Assembly ....

APPENDIX XI-C

ETHICS FOR TEACHERS[1]

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 regarding 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.

[1] Adopted by the National Education Association in its annual meeting at Boston, July, 1941.

APPENDIX XI-C (*Continued*)

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 steppingstone 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 wait 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

APPENDIX XI-C (*Continued*)

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.

ARTICLE IV.—COMMISSION ON PROFESSIONAL ETHICS

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 5 years each, the term of one member expiring on July 1 of each year.

In order that the commission may begin functioning at once, it is recommended that the president for 1941–1942 appoint five members who will draw for 1-, 2-, 3-, 4-, and 5-year terms, respectively. Thereafter one member shall be appointed each year for a 5-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 that 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 member from the National Education Association for flagrant violation of this code.

APPENDIX XII

CODE OF ETHICS FOR SCHOOLMEN AND BOOKMEN[1]

I. The selection of textbooks is an important educational undertaking to be carried out in a professional manner. The responsibility and the authority should rest with the educational administration of the school system.

II. The purpose should be always the selection of the best textbooks for the use of the pupils. Hence, it is not ethical to make any effort to distribute the business among several competing publishers, or to give any consideration to personal likes and dislikes toward publishers' representatives.

III. It is unethical for representatives to interfere with the relationship obtaining between superintendent and board of education; thus, it would be unethical to contact members of the board of education except upon request of superintendent.

IV. It is neither ethical nor honest for a superintendent or a member of a selecting committee to receive from a publisher any reward for services in the selection of textbooks.

V. It is unethical for representatives or superintendents to circulate personal criticism or indulge in personalities in connection with textbook adoption.

VI. It is not ethical for a representative to try to secure the appointment of administrators or teachers to their regular positions or on the textbook committees for the purpose of influencing the selection of textbooks in his favor, or to try to influence the members of school boards.

VII. It is not ethical to interview teachers without prior consent of their superiors or to try to secure information about secret committees.

VIII. It is not ethical to utilize the influence of organizations of laymen to secure adoptions or to appeal to sectarian prejudices in meeting competition.

IX. It is in general an undignified practice for an author to use his professional position to try to secure adoption of his textbook through field work, professional addresses, or classroom instruction.

X. While it may not be unethical to make use of secret committees in the selection of textbooks, there is considerable sentiment against such committees and evidence that genuine secrecy is not often attained; and it is charged that frequently the intent of the secrecy is to conceal an unethical selection.

XI. The superintendent is justified in taking drastic measures if the conduct of the bookman falls behind the high standards of practices for transacting public business.

XII. It is unethical to give opportunity to some bookmen to present the merits of their books and not to give this opportunity to others. Similarly, it is unethical to give confidentially to some bookmen information which is withheld from others.

XIII. It is not ethical to favor local authors unless their textbooks are as good as other competing textbooks.

XIV. It is neither legal nor ethical to reproduce, whether by printing or mimeographing, any material covered by copyright unless expressly permitted by the holder of the copyright. This applies to books adopted as well as books not adopted.

[1] Adopted by the Illinois City Superintendents' Association, November 19, 1938.

APPENDIX XII (*Continued*)

XV. It should be considered ethical for a bookman to bring to the attention of the superintendent any unethical practices of a textbook committee.

XVI. It is unethical for a superintendent to request, or a representative to offer, free desk copies, free textbooks for indigent pupils, or any concession beyond the prices listed with the State Superintendent of Public Instruction.

XVII. It is unethical for a superintendent or members of a selecting committee to sell examination textbooks furnished by the publisher.

APPENDIX XIII

ASSOCIATION FOR SUPERVISION AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

What It Is: The association is concerned with developing better school programs for children and youth through cooperative effort at national, regional, state, and local levels and invites all individuals concerned with school programs to membership and joint participation. The annual dues entitles one to a subscription to *Educational Leadership*—the official ASCD journal—a copy of the current yearbook, and all other privileges of membership.

What It Believes: We believe that modern schools can do their jobs *only if* . . .

Pupils, teachers, parents, and administrators grow in understanding what life is all about.

Everyone has a chance to test for himself what is important and what isn't.

Youngsters learn by making choices and seeing how they work.

What happens in the schools is determined by what boys and girls need individually and in groups, now and tomorrow.

The curriculum—what boys and girls do in school—has meaning and significance for the youngsters.

All community agencies, including our homes and schools, work together for better education.

There is mutual respect and confidence as we work together to improve schools.

School programs are continually being weighed and improved in the light of tested ways of working.

Parents and citizens are helped to understand what their youngsters need to learn and how it can be taught.

State and federal aid goes to communities which cannot pay for good schools.

What It Does: It has a program of publications and activities in which all members are asked to participate.

It publishes *Educational Leadership* monthly, October through May.

It emphasizes regional and state organization and activity through its Committee of Twelve and State Representatives to the National Board, the governing body of the organization.

It holds an annual meeting which emphasizes the over-all Association program to which all individuals concerned with better schools are invited.

It is concerned with problems of schools in today's world.

It provides various committees and projects at national and local levels in which members participate actively in Association activities. Members of its important Committee on Appraisal and Plans constantly review and advise on the Association program. Members of the Publications Committee and Advisory Editors perform a similar service in regard to publications. Committees now at work for the Association are studying such varied items as the development of attitudes, better ways to make the results of research available for actual use, the problem of materials of instruction, the leadership role of supervision, and the function of department heads in instructional improvement.

APPENDIX XIV

CONSTITUTION FOR A STUDENT COUNCIL

(Suggested Outline)

ARTICLE 1

Give name of organization

ARTICLE 2

Give purpose or object of the organization

ARTICLE 3

Section 1. Give the eligibility standards for membership, if any
Section 2. Give method for nominating members
Section 3. Give method for choosing members

ARTICLE 4

Section 1. Give names of officers
Section 2. Give method for nominating officers
Section 3. Give method for electing officers

ARTICLE 5

Give the duties of the officers

ARTICLE 6

State the frequency of the meetings of the organization and its subdivisions, if any, but do not include details such as place or time. Those items should be in the bylaws, for the bylaws may be changed much more easily to care for emergencies than the constitution.

ARTICLE 7

State the powers of the organization. One section should state that all plans are to be submitted to the principal for his approval or veto. He really delegates all authority to the organization and hence has the inherent right to veto, but it should be so stated as a part of the constitution.

ARTICLE 8

State the procedure necessary to amend the constitution. It should be made rather difficult, for changing the constitution must not become a popular and diverting pastime or hindrance to the more important activities of the organization. On the contrary, whenever the organization outgrows its constitution, the constitution must be changed to meet the new needs.

Appendix XIV (*Continued*)

Bylaws

All the details essential to the organization should be stated as articles here. If there are subdivisions, use the term "section" to distinguish each subdivision of the article.

A few things that may be included as a part of the bylaws are:

1. Number necessary for a quorum
2. Number, names, and duties of committees
3. How vacancies may be filled
4. Time of meeting
5. Place of meeting
6. Order of business (based on parliamentary procedure)
7. And without fail an article on the method for amending the bylaws.

APPENDIX XV-A

A LIBRARY BILL OF RIGHTS[1]

The Council of the American Library Association reaffirms its belief in the following basic policies which should govern the services of all libraries:

1. As a responsibility of library service, books and other reading matter selected should be chosen for values of interest, information, and enlightenment of all the people of the community. In no case should any book be excluded because of the race or nationality, or the political or religious views of the writer.

2. There should be the fullest practicable provision of material presenting all points of view concerning the problems and issues of our times, international, national, and local; and books or other reading matter of sound factual authority should not be proscribed or removed from library shelves because of partisan or doctrinal disapproval.

3. Censorship of books, urged or practiced by volunteer arbiters of morals or political opinion or by organizations that would establish a coercive concept of Americanism, must be challenged by libraries in maintenance of their responsibility to provide public information and enlightenment through the printed word.

4. Libraries should enlist the cooperation of allied groups in the fields of science, of education, and of book publishing in resisting all abridgment of the free access to ideas and full freedom of expression that are the tradition and heritage of Americans.

5. As an institution of education for democratic living, the library should welcome the use of its meeting rooms for socially useful and cultural activities and discussion of current public questions. Such meeting places should be available on equal terms to all groups in the community regardless of the beliefs and affiliations of their members.

[1] Adopted by Council of A.L.A., at Atlantic City on June 18, 1948. Reprinted from *A.L.A. Bulletin*, July–August, 1948.

APPENDIX XV-B

MAJOR STEPS IN BUILDING A SCHOOL

Among the many steps necessary in the actual process of erecting a new school building are the following, which have been adapted and reorganized from *American School Buildings*:[1]

Preliminary Steps

Schoolhousing needs become felt
Building committee appointed by board of education
Educational consultant and architect appointed
Preliminary surveys of community, existing buildings, etc., made and analyzed

Educational Plan

Educational consultant appointed
Educational policies committee appointed
Educational specifications for buildings and equipment submitted to architect
Educational specifications translated into plans and specifications—preliminary, revised, final

Financing Plan

Bond attorney appointed
Bond schedule prepared
Fiscal publicity organized as part of public relations program
Bond issue submitted to the voters
Credit data on school district made available to prospective bond buyers
Bonds sold and money deposited

Spending Plan

Site purchased
Bids called for on construction and equipment
The low or preferred bid accepted with proper performance bond
Contract documents legally approved for general construction and equipment
Construction started with ground-breaking ceremonies

Evaluation

Construction supervised
Progress reported for successive stages—foundations, first floor, second floor, building enclosed, building completed
Equipment installed
Final inspection held after completion of building and installation of equipment
Contracts completed
Building dedicated
Building occupied
Building maintained and operated efficiently
Continuous evaluation made of building and equipment and their effectiveness in serving the educational program

[1] American Association of School Administrators, *American School Buildings*, pp. 321–324, National Education Association, 1949.

APPENDIX XVI

SCHOOL FINANCE GOALS[1]

1. A long-time financial plan for the support of public education has been cooperatively developed, is continually subject to review, and is used in evaluating the legislative program for education.

2. The plan of school support enables school officials to calculate accurately the total amount of money that will be available to the local school unit for public education during the next 12 months.

3. State funds distributed to assist in providing public education are largely integrated or unified, rather than being distributed in the form of numerous allowances for special purposes.

4. General property valuations are not classified for the purpose of applying different rates of taxation.

5. The foundation program includes amounts for instruction that allow for necessary classroom units which are determined by reference to average daily attendance figures.

6. The financial accounting records of the local school systems are audited at least once in two years by the state director of education or the auditor of the state.

7. Total appropriations to the state public-school fund are based upon units of instructional load and cost of operation, rather than being dependent upon the proceeds of earmarked resources irrespective of the total current cost of education.

8. From 40 to 50 per cent of state tax revenues are derived from taxes on personal and business income.

9. The general property tax levies of the local school unit are determined by that unit without the necessary approval of, or power of modification by, any municipal or other local government authority.

10. The local school unit, by majority vote, is authorized to issue bonds for capital outlay, secured by an unlimited levy or an irrepealable levy.

11. The local school administrative unit suffers no disadvantage under prevailing bond market conditions by reason of an insufficient tax base.

12. The local school administrative units have sufficient funds available with which to seek and develop progressive educational methods for the improvement of the local program of education.

[1] A revised statement of goals as developed in connection with the Research Division's *School Finance Goals*, National Education Association, October, 1946, p. 116.

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